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MOBILIZING AMERICA'S RESOURCES FOR THE WAR

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FOREWORD

In this volume will be found a collection of papers, written by men and women occupying commanding positions in their own subjects, on some of the most important questions now before the American people. It is an obvious impossibility to include every question of present-day importance. No apology is offered, therefore, for the absence of many subjects which might well have been included. It was the thought of the editor in charge of this volume that the topics selected bore a definite relation to each other and to the national situation.

In this foreword, which is my contribution to the volume, I wish to say a few things from the standpoint of the teacher. Let me begin by calling attention to the fact that there has been a marvelous change in our general program of education. I am not thinking now of our formal educational institutions, for most of our education we get outside of the schoolroom. What I have in mind is the fact that primitive man got most of his training through the ear, whereas modern man gets his training largely through the eye. This contrast has been recognized in many quarters. Verbal promises have not been considered as binding as written. Direct evidence of the eye-witness is more accurate than the story of one whose information has come through the ear. Although in the early days the written word was invested with a semi-sacred character and in spite of the fact that the average man today has learned to read, the critical factors have not been developed to an adequate degree. Enormous masses of printed material now greet us and we lack the ability to discriminate between that which is good and that which is bad.

From many standpoints war is a conflict of ideals rather than a clash of people and of arms. It turns on our standards of life, on the things which we want, the things for which we will fight and for which we will die. It is now clear that the present conflict is primarily between democracy and oligarchy, between the people who are seeking to develop themselves as they think best and other people who are submitting to overhead control, exerted primarily in the interests of the few. Democracy is not a method, it is an ideal. England, with the forms of monarchy, has been, in many respects, more democratic than the United States.

The point of my first illustration can now be seen. Devotion to ideals can no longer be taught through the ear, from preaching moral sermons. Devotion to common ideals must come from the common experiences of every day life; of those ordinary things which after all are most fundamental. If these common experiences cannot be had, common ideals will not arise. Even in a democracy we must recognize this and secure the substantial freedom of all individuals to develop themselves. To a wonderful degree America has been a melting pot for the immigrant; in part America has failed, because it has neglected to see that the immigrants come in contact with American ideals. We forget that the immigrant does not get his conception of justice or of the persons administering justice from contact with the Supreme Court of the United States, but from the policeman on the beat, the magistrate and the police court. Almost without exception the negroes of this country have been most patriotic and are today as willing to serve the country and die for it as any of us. In reality what have we given them? Have we been concerned with teaching the "negro to know his place" or encouraging him to develop to the extent of his ability? The fact remains then that, in the case of the immigrant and the negro American, we must primarily recognize either that they are part of us and must share our common life or else admit that we have gone on an oligarchic basis and propose to develop the country without regard to them.

From another standpoint, there is some danger at the present time from certain sorts of unworthy education. I think of the danger of passing on foolish gossip, which arises from ignorance and prejudice. We have been so ignorant of the inner conditions in Europe that our judgments of what has been going on there are open to question, and it would seem wise for us all to be guarded in our expression. Not long ago I asked a class the location of Flanders. One boy hazarded the guess that it was in the southeastern part of England, whereas one or two others were sure it was in the northern part of France. That such geographical information can be found in a class of forty University students merely indicates the amount of crude notions that may arise among less highly trained men.

A second source of danger comes through the expression of self-interest, whether this is voiced by the laboring man in the phrase "give as little as you can; get yours," or by the wealthy profiteer.

A third source of danger comes through the traiter, the one who is deliberately spreading false information in order to aid the enemy. Here we must be on our guard not to condemn other countries for doing that which we seek to do, namely, present ourselves in the most favorable light to the outside world.

This war has revealed the want of vision in our country of the things that might be necessary in case of a crisis. I have no time to speak of the wonderful response that the people of the country are making. I can only point out the terrific cost of the lack of coördination in our industries, in our employment and discharge of men, and in our educational systems. After the war is over, industry, government and education must not be allowed to return to their earlier condition.

Just what changes will come, I do not profess to know. I will emphasize the necessity of making these changes after careful inquiry and deliberate considerations of the situation. I fear that we are likely to take steps under the influence of our emotions which we shall have occasion to regret and perhaps retrace. For illustration the widespread movement throughout the country to abolish the teaching of German is open to serious question. I am of the impression that the most important foreign language for any American to know during the next generation will be German. One can make love to a friend if necessary without using words, but it is not safe to get into close quarters with your enemy unless you understand his language. Germany is not so foolish that she has nothing to learn from her enemy or to say that she is going to cut off communication with the enemy. Think what a marvelous advantage it has been for the Germans to go into Russia, Italy, Serbia and France, speaking native languages. Are we so stupid that we propose to render ourselves impossible to do the same?

I am not discussing the place of modern languages in the public schools, or of existing methods of teaching modern languages. On these topics I have some very definite convictions, which need not be expressed here. I would say that I hope we shall have sense enough to see to it that there are Americans able to speak, read and write any foreign language which we may need to use without compelling us to call in foreigners to do our translation work for us. I am of the impression that we ought to open our schools to all immigrants and to require all immigrants to learn our language. I am willing to go further and support the suggestion that every child in America should be compelled to attend a school taught in English. As long ago as 1891 Wisconsin passed a law that every school child in Wisconsin must go to a school in which American and English history was taught in English. This law was passed, I understand, to eliminate some of the foreign influence. Shortly after it was enacted it was reported that a delegation of Lutheran ministers called on the governor and asked him not to enforce it. It is a sad commentary but not long thereafter the opposition was so strong that the law was repealed.

In the effort to educate the people of this country to the significance of the present war the existing law which promises to stamp out our national magazines is to be viewed with great concern. As a war measure, if for no other reason, I would advocate the suppression of the new zone law for magazines. In this connection it is interesting to note that someone, Mr. Vanderlip, I believe, has suggested that the crude, easiest way of distinguishing between essential and non-essential industries would be to list those who had to advertise in order to exist.

I have objected to lip service. I want to close with an appeal for personal service. It is not what you say to your community with reference to your loyalty, it is what you do. If you are the millionaire, I do not care how much you preach loyalty to the country and the necessity of giving your service in time of war, if you carry on elaborate improvements of your country estates, employing dozens of men at prices the farmer cannot pay, you are a far bigger traitor to your country than the poor fool down in the gutter in whose heart some injustice rankles and who sputters because he cannot do anything else. Unfortunately, for my own peace of mind and happiness, I chance to belong to that between generation not likely to be directly drawn into the maelstrom of the war, but it may not be inappropriate if I ask only one thing—and is not that the appeal of every one of us—that we be conscripted (and I am not quibbling over the meaning of the term) for whatever service the government needs that is within our power to give.

CARL KELSEY.

MOBILIZATION OF POPULATION FOR WINNING THE WAR

By Talcott Williams, LL.D.,
Director, School of Journalism, Columbia University.

The conversion of a great peaceful population into an efficient fighting force turns first upon the internal distribution of the factors of the industrial organization itself. Unless these factors are so divided and distributed that the coefficiencies of the war can be maintained, first physical and then moral collapse are inevitable. The coefficiencies necessary to war are a fighting force, an industrial system that can turn out munitions, clothing and transportation and steady food production. Russia had food and men but no industries adequate to munitions, uniforms, shoes, railroads and motors. The Russian army was never fully armed and transport was always deficient. England had men and munitions, equipment and transport but inadequate food, and its strength has been strained to breaking in keeping up its food supply. France had food, mechanic force, and man supply in equipoise, as had Germany. These two countries have been manifestly more equal to the early strain of war and more continuously efficient than either of the other two, Russia and England. Italy and Austria were short in mechanic efficiency. Taking the experience of this war, one can almost say that unless a country has 4,000,000 tons of pig iron a year for every 1,000,000 in the field it cannot make war. Germany and Austria with the aid of the works seized in Belgium and North France had a total iron production of about 24,000,000 tons including the two Central Empires, Turkey and Bulgaria; German plants had to meet the needs of a total force steadily under arms of about 5,000,000, with as much more in various reserves. If the United States had not advanced its pig iron product to 40,000,000 tons, France and England with only 12,500,000 production of pig iron would have collapsed. As it was, this increase in our product kept Italy supplied and would have done this for Russia if transport had been available. The United States will have to raise its pig iron product to 50,000,000 tons a year, if the war continues and it raises the force needed to win the war.

A similar comparison can be carried out as to the constituent parts of a population using such approximate census returns as to occupations as are available. Exact statements are not possible and in the following comparison public services and various other callings are excluded. Russia had 60 per cent of its population raising food, 15 per cent in mining and manufacturing, and 7 per cent in trade and transport. Such a country will break down in trade and transport and be unable to arm its men. England has 15 per cent raising food, 47 per cent in mining and manufacturing, and 11 per cent in transportation. Mobilization would find food short. France was better balanced, 42 per cent raising food, 36 per cent in mines and manufactures, and 9 per cent in trade and motive powers. Germany had a still better distribution, 32 per cent in food, 40 per cent in mines and factories, and 12 per cent in trade and transportation. The war has shown how efficient this distribution is. Had Germany gone on for twenty years more reducing those raising food and increasing its mineral and factory population, it would have failed for food. Austria-Hungary with 65 per cent raising food, 16 per cent in mines and factories, and 14 per cent in transport, has shared the weakness and met almost as many defeats as Russia.

Comparing the United States for a similar period in 1900, this country had 36 per cent raising food, 15 per cent in mines and manufactures, and 16 per cent in trade and transport. It had in miscellaneous occupation and the professions, twice the number that Germany had in proportion to those employed, and a larger amount of woman labor not utilized in peace. Such a country can mobilize more men without disturbing its industries, draw on a larger reserve of women to take the place of men, and maintain its food, mining, and manufacturing plant and remain mobile. Owing to its large use of machinery on the farm, its food product per person at work is from two to three times as large as in the other countries cited, and this is true of its mines and manufactures. It has the food product needed, and a supply strained by the necessity of providing other lands which have let their food product diminish. The wealthy privileged class in England monopolizing land, have used for sport, pleasure, and show, large areas which could and are now beginning to produce food.

The American people, therefore, enter war with a food plant which can put women to work, employing machinery and personal service on a large scale. Its possession of a large ratio of engineers, physicians, and men in similar callings enables it to meet both military and home demands without strains. Our social structure is more elastic and its reserves larger. Our proportion of men who have learned to act for themselves is greater, and this furnishes more men capable of being officers. Our proportion of women ready for any test and having the same education as men is greater and this lets loose a larger share of man power from home pursuits.

This is true also of England, but England has very few doctors; is drawing heavily on men capable of being officers; and has a smaller proportion of women with college and high school training equal to the higher grade of clerical, administrative, and directing posts. As the conflict goes on through the blood-stained years of war before us, it will be seen that no preparedness produces quite so efficient a society for conflict as one that has kept open to its entire society all paths and all opportunities, unhindered by privilege. The supple and enduring force of France is due to a like democratic organization. Autocracy and privilege in the Central Empires can win the first battles. Democracy will win the last and final battle.

The mobilization of a population is not, therefore, as it is envisaged by the public and most military men, the extraction by volunteering or draft of a certain number of men needed for war, from the general mass of men. This will be as useless as the 11,000,000 men gathered up by Russia at vast cost of life, labor and treasure of whom not nearly one-half ever saw a fighting line or handled a gun. Production was dislocated, pestilence sown, and the entire population demoralized because the mining, manufacturing, and transport plant was not equal to the task of arming, moving and supplying this unorganized mass. Mobilization turns on the capacity and the soundness of the whole body politic. Even if the mechanic and transport plant exists, if a nation has been careless about communicable diseases, these will plague its camps and arouse perilous doubt as to its military direction and its national direction and administration. Germany and the United States have led in lessening tuberculosis; both profit by this. France has lost at least

400,000 fighting men by this neglect, one-tenth its possible fighting force. Every step towards prohibition aids efficient mobilization. The fight against social disease which began twenty years ago, under the disapproval of many, is today a national asset of the first importance in the national mobilization of our fighting forces. "Preparedness" and "Mobilization," are not rifles, guns, explosives and herded masses of men. They are the organization of the national life in peace on the highest level. The American people are too often reproached for not rushing into the war in August, 1914. If a single military authority had been in control of this country, England, France, Italy and Russia, in 1914, the high command would not have called out men in this country. It would have set our industrial plant making arms for the armies of the country with a military establishment and an army and navy in being, which is what took place.

This would have brought the next step in mobilization, the remodelling of industry to meet the more accurate and highly specialized needs of war. Our industrial plant was not fit for this task, and its managers were ignorant of the fact. Where peace needs work on hundreths of an inch, war calls for accuracy to thousandths of an inch.

When war orders came our plants were not equal to the task. The Westinghouse Company has drawn attention in a recent report to a loss of at least $5,000,000 in making 1,800,000 rifles for Russia and England. In the fall of 1914, when this contract was made, the estimate looked to a profit of some $30,000,000, more or less. Deliveries were to begin midway in 1915. They actually began in February and March of 1916. The loss, originally placed at $10,000,000 and later at $5,000,000 with an expected profit of $30,000,000 or a total of $35,000,000 not cleared, as anticipated, was a fair measure of the cost in every possible form (delay, interest, deferred deliveries, training labor, installing new machinery) of bringing this establishment up to the standard required by modern arms of precision. This took place in munition contracts all over this country. The same disproportion between what was asked of American manufacturers, what they could do and what they lost in profits and what the government lost in delays, has taken place since war was declared by us. Shipbuilding has required like mobilization. All this is notably true of the Liberty motor. The failure has led to the retirement of as able and patriotic a man as has been called to war service. These failures, these delays, and these losses are part of the cost of mobilizing our industry for war conditions.

So with dyes. Germany had $400,000,000 invested in coal tar dyes. Coal tar is the chief source of high explosives. These dyes works could be switched at once from dyes to explosives. This industry had to be created here. In what a different position would we have been, if coal tar dyes had been adequately protected as were iron, and steel at an earlier period?

If the Federal Reserve Board had not mobilized our banking, we should have had a financial strain and panic. Our railroads were congested, not because they were ill-managed or incompetent, but because the army and navy, untrained in the task of mobilizing transport, deranged the movement of trains by a vast confusion of "priority orders" when the new business created by war was alone enough to overtax our railroad system. Our railroads are now running at a loss as part of our war costs.

These changes are all part of adjusting the population of workers to the more arduous accuracy and speed of war. The mobilization of men for the fighting line is only the culmination of this general improvement for peace efficiency. The male population within our draft ages, 21 to 31 years, is one half unfit for the strain and rush, the physical strength and resistance to exposure, needed by war. Those ignorant of war thought that any man that could work could fight. The years from 21 to 31 have a larger share of those who can work but cannot fight than the years from 18 to 21. These years, called in all European countries and admitted to our regular army, were excluded here. These years yield men stronger for war, in better health, and freer from disease than the years from 21 to 31 years of age. This exclusion of those 18 to 21 years from the draft deprived the Republic of at least 2,500,000 men more ready for war, whose call would have less dislocated families and industry. These years, 18 to 21, were left at home and every national interest lost by it.

There are about 2,500,000 not naturalized white males over 21 years of age. These were included in the total population on which the draft was distributed among the states. The foreign-born males over 21 are two-fifths of all males over age in the New England and Middle States, more than a quarter in the Central and

Far Western States, and a twentieth in the South. This was a grave injustice to the Northern States, and to the nation. The last lost greatly in the distribution of industry. Under this plan, a larger proportion of white males over 21 than negro males over 21 were drawn.

Turning aside from the systematic exemption developed in European countries by a century's experience, exemption was left to local boards. This follows our national confidence in local self-government, and accepts the recent English example. Exceptions exist, but here local boards showed a very high standard of conscientious public service. This cumbrous, uneven, and in part irregular selection was too often unjust to individuals. The nation has never watched over its manhood and womanhood. It yearly counts its bales and bushels and tons, but not its men. In Germany, the whole body of manhood is recorded, watched and kept up to date. Were this done here, labor would be better employed. Every new demand for particular tasks could be met promptly, aiding both capital and labor, increasing the average year's wage, and reducing costs of production to the public. Industrially this would pay. Had this yearly census of all males and females in the industrial ages, over 14 years of age been kept year by year, with trades, callings and vocations, labor would have been more continuously at work, our elections would be better guarded, sanitary regulations would be more efficient, and in war the maximum of speed and efficiency would be gained. Governor Whitman's New York census began this work, and the government used it. Had it existed in all the states a half a year would have been saved. Compulsory military service would give this census and would be justified by industrial efficiency alone. Thanks to General Wood, provision for training officers has now been in progress for nearly a decade, and the mobilization of material for officers has been far more successful than any other part of the steps which turn a nation at peace into a nation at war.

THE DYNAMICS OF MOBILIZATION OF HUMAN RESOURCES

BY MILES MENANDER DAWSON, LL.D.,
New York City.

The prerequisite of solving the problem of mobilization of human resources is that the forces operating should be understood. This does not mean that, even with an imperfect understanding of these forces, complete mobilization might not be approximated; but that, in order that the means may be best adapted to accomplish this, the nature of the problem must be comprehended, for which accurate knowledge concerning the forces at work is absolutely essential.

The use of money to marshal and direct them, causes them to be covered out of sight by the persistent illusion, most difficult to shake off, that money is itself that which gives the impulse. It is necessary therefore, first of all, to strip off this illusion. Unless thus simplified, the problem is well-nigh incapable of a solution satisfactory from a theoretical standpoint and the results from a practical standpoint must also be unsatisfactory. Resources could be marshaled, if there were no money.

It is worth while, since this paper is intended to be merely an introduction to the consideration of all the special phases of the problem before us, to consider somewhat closely how this force operates in ordinary times and with what result. Obviously it calls one sort of utility after another into existence, as the volume of the surplus food increases, so that more and more persons may be spared from food production to engage in supplying other wants. This brings about the complex and interdependent economic conditions with which we are already so familiar, although many phases of them are so very new that we really forget that life was ever a simpler thing, more closely associated with the cultivation of the soil.

The money which we use as a medium of exchange and, therefore, as a means of marshaling the forces and directing them in production, transportation, distribution and other activities, rests upon a commodity, used as a measure of value, which is demonstrably of the nature of a "marginal utility"—that is, one of the utilities successively called into existence for the use of mankind and still kept in use by reason of the fact that, after supplying himself with other utilities which he esteems of greater importance for his well-being, he is able to afford them in turn. All such marginal utilities are susceptible of great changes in exchange value according as standards of living expand or contract. Such changes may range from no further demand for production of a given utility because of shrinkage in standard of living, to a demand increasing to such an extent that a price is willingly paid therefor, which causes the most unprofitable field, from the standpoint of the amount of product per unit of force expended, to be exploited.

One of the confusions which employment of money has introduced, is that it is often thought, because it creates so great a demand for the commodity which is used as its basis, that, even when all which can be supplied is in use, there is still an extraordinarily heavy demand for money, in consequence of which bills of exchange, bank notes and other devices are employed as forms of credit currency. Many have supposed that this fact tends to hold the value of the commodity used as a basis for money stable or very nearly so, but credits would be given, if there were no money.

It is not true, however, that the exchange value of money is stable. In fact, a general rise in prices could not possibly be explained except by assuming that what really takes place is the fall in price of the one commodity used as a basis for money. It is quite clear also, when the matter is considered narrowly, that the marginal utility employed as money must, in view of the failure of its volume to vary directly with the volume of the force actually at work to marshal human resources, vary in exchange value per unit in a manner roughly approximating the inverse of the ratio of its quantity to the quantity of the force actually operating.

This becomes evident, when we consider what is the primary force brought to bear in directing human resources to supplying human needs. The case stands thus: If there were but one man in the world, he would have to obtain the force necessary to enable him to supply other needs by first supplying his need for food; and the time and force which he would be enabled to apply to satisfying other wants, would be strictly limited by the surplus food which he could produce over that which he consumed while producing it. Given a community, it is evident, also, that the time and force which they will be able to apply to producing commodities or services to supply wants, other than subsistence, will in like manner be strictly limited to the surplus food produced by those engaged in such production, over their own requirements while producing it.

If, therefore, in a nation cut off from other nations there were a change from producing food in amount over the requirements of those engaged in such production, to the condition that only by the entire population applying itself to food production could such population be sustained, the condition would be approximated that the country's money would have no value as respects mobilizing human resources and directing their energies to producing anything else. There might be much money, but there would be no such resources or energies to direct.

It may be argued with plausibility that, even though such condition were arrived at, there would exist many utilities already produced and money could and would be used in their exchange. But money would have lost its character as a medium of exchange by means of which human resources are mobilized and directed, because it would no longer command the forces called into being by a supply of food above the requirements of those engaged in producing food. It is this control which gives to money its general acceptability, not the mere fact that it is this commodity or that; if that were all, only those in need of that commodity would accept it. But, when one can, by thus commanding a portion of the surplus food product, direct how that force shall be employed in producing other commodities which he desires, he is of course able to purchase whatever is purchasable. When this quality disappears, the reason for money's general acceptability as money disappears and such acceptability vanishes with it.

These things are brought forward here, not to reason out their full significance in connection with our banking and credit system, but merely to strip off illusions which prevent most people from noting the forces operating. These forces, then, may be defined as follows: the food produced by those engaged in food production, beyond their food requirements while so engaged, is the energy transmuted into applying human force, both mental and physical, to supplying other wants. Its productivity may be increased by invention of labor-saving machinery and discovery of better processes of production; but the amount of the force itself is strictly limited to this surplus food and its direction primarily rests in control over it. This fact has been rendered very plain during the present war, the outcome of which has more and more tended to depend on skillful mobilization and direction of human resources, primarily by means of enlarged food production per man engaged in such production and in addition by means of its skillful and economical distribution with the purpose of making the efforts of the nation more and more effective, both in offense and in defense.

The first problem encountered is a reduction in the volume of surplus food. It may be that this will not have its full, natural effect of reducing to merely nominal value one set of marginal utilities after the other, these being the ones which people most willingly do without if compelled to reduce their standard of living; for there may be, and indeed in modern times usually is, as a result of the tendency toward larger and larger production of surplus food, a considerable accumulation of surplus which has not been directed to the production of other utilities. This is possible because certain foods may be stored for a considerable time and also because methods of preserving other forms of food for considerable periods have been invented; there is, therefore, failure to divert to other forms of production all the human beings who could be supported by the whole volume of the surplus food. It is possible, and indeed almost inevitable, that this be somewhat slowed up in what may be called good times as compared with the increase in the production of surplus food which thus affords an accumulated surplus to act as a buffer to tide over downward fluctuations in production of surplus food which are of course inevitable; but when there is a sharp and big diminution, so that this accumulation either disappears or is very greatly reduced, it is necessary to reverse the process, *i.e.*, to enlarge food production and to reduce production of other utilities.

This being true, it is well to consider what takes place when a nation in these modern days goes to war. The phenomenon which immediately forces itself upon the attention is that a vast number of persons, some engaged in producing food and some in producing other utilities, are taken out of these occupations and set to work in the actual business of war, that is, in the military or naval service. These persons must be fed and supplied with other utilities needful for them that they may be in condition to perform the service required of them. From this it follows, first of all, that, unless still others are diverted from occupations which they are following to agriculture, there will be diminished production of surplus food, notwithstanding the fact that, until war begins to cut down the number of the population, there is as large a demand for surplus food as before, and indeed, taking into account the strenuous work which the men must do in such times, probably a considerably larger demand per person counted in units of nutrition. This necessity for diverting more persons to agriculture may be somewhat qualified by the invention of labor-saving machinery or its wider use; but, even so, in order that there may be the amount of primary force necessary to marshal the human resources for war, it is absolutely indispensable that there should be a considerable diversion of those who are engaged in other occupations to the occupation of agriculture. The very first move, therefore, after calling upon those so engaged for their quota to help carry on the war, must be to replace them in agriculture with persons who are not subject to military duty, and also to increase the number so engaged.

Up to this point no doubt there would scarcely be any difference of opinion; neither can there be difference of opinion as to the absolute necessity for diverting men to industries engaged in producing, transporting and distributing munitions of war of all kinds. This is likewise necessary and even those who have not given careful thought to the fundamentals of the subject understand it quite well.

This involves a sharp and sweeping reduction in the production of marginal utilities of sorts that can best be dispensed with. It calls for great reduction in the standard of living because such standard of living consists first, of the maintenance of life by food and second, of the consumption of a share of all the other utilities which are called into existence by the application of surplus food applied to the maintenance of men at work in producing other utilities. When the men engaged in producing these utilities are so greatly reduced in numbers by transferring many of them to military and naval service, to producing munitions and to agriculture, it follows necessarily that the standard of living must fall and marginal utilities that can best be dispensed with, must no longer be produced.

This process, when operating in a moderate degree, as when a nation is not at war, is attended with much distress of which the outcry against what are known as hard times, whether occasioned by the breakdown of a banking system or by failure of crops, is an example. But when a nation is engaged in war, adjustment is even more difficult because the necessity for it is not brought home to every person by diminution of his purchasing power, which is the exact effect of the reduction in surplus food or in control over it, which results in hard times. On the other hand war takes hold of the matter from the opposite direction, viz., by directly applying the forces maintained by the surplus food to the production of other utilities than those with which the wants of the community, aside from food, have hitherto been supplied.

Therein lies the peril of leaving the adjustment as regards mobilization of human resources to the play of money's control over that which it in fact represents, viz., surplus food. Men with money do not at once see, as in ordinary hard times, the necessity for retrenchment in personal expenditures. In ordinary hard times they see this because they have not the money, while in these times they may have the money and yet the public necessity exists that there should be retrenchment.

To put it another way, in ordinary hard times a reduced production of marginal utilities can be brought about quickly enough for all purposes through the falling off of the purchasing power as regards utilities least desired; but the sudden, convulsive change of conditions owing to the country's engaging in war calls rather for community consideration as to what marginal utilities should be struck off. Therein are both the distinction and the occasion for looking below the surface to see the forces really at work before determining what utilities should be suppressed. If this were not done, the preferences of many of those who have the power to supply their wants, however unessential such wants may be, would be exerted to make it exceedingly profitable to minister to these wants, which would be disastrous to a nation under the stress of war.

It seems entirely clear, from a purely theoretical standpoint, that there are many very expensive utilities of a marginal character not at all essential to the real well-being of a people and even in many cases very deleterious, which nevertheless come to have so great a hold upon them that it is difficult to shake loose this hold. First among these are the habit-forming drugs, beverages, foods and amusements.

Careful consideration should be given, as regards several of these, as to whether they are not really diseases of civilization instead of utilities at all. As regards drugs, there is no doubt; as to alcohol, little question. Even in ordinary times its inutility, as compared with other substances, has come to be recognized and its deleterious effects are also widely recognized. It is produced by direct transformation of what would otherwise be food; that is, its production calls for the expenditure of the very force which enables mankind to enlarge its standard of living. Accordingly, a good deal has been done in all countries to limit or to prohibit the use of alcoholic beverages.

On the other hand, a larger portion of the cultivated land of our country will be devoted in 1918 to the production of tobacco than in any previous year; the government has just taken over for the use of soldiers and sailors, the entire product of a great tobacco factory. Yet tobacco involves a quadruple loss of force, viz., the application of a large amount of labor; the use of vast tracts of land which could be devoted to the production of food; a very large waste involved in the manufacture, transportation and distribution; and a not inconsiderable diminution of the force of those who consume the tobacco. That there is such impairment of efficiency owing to its use is perfectly well understood by trainers of athletes.

Neither our labor power nor our land is applied to the production of tea or coffee; but a large amount of each is devoted to producing commodities which are exchanged for them. These in turn have little food value. These habits, already formed, will doubtless persist in greater or less degree; but it should be recognized that they stand in the way of successful prosecution of war and, in times of peace, in the way of an enlargement of the things essential to the best standard of living.

Habit-forming amusements are also very costly, enervating and destructive. The passion for entertainment, as if ever to know a serious moment were irksome and void of joy, is a weakness which causes many tens of thousands, supported by this surplus food, to expend their energies in ways which do not make for mobilization of our powers.

Other forms of waste may not be so obvious; but some of them can be pointed out and perhaps can be more readily obviated than these. There is, for instance, the purchase of articles not for their use but for ornament, a vast amount of labor being applied to make them especially rich and costly. It ought to be unfashionable to indulge in these and their production should cease.

Processes of production, transportation and distribution should be simplified and rendered less costly. As regards production, great strides have been made to eliminate waste. Under transportation enormous loss of power is being eliminated everywhere. There is still, however, as much waste as ever in distributing commodities. Special attention ought to be given to avoiding forcing commodities upon purchasers. The greatest of these wastes is advertising, which has become almost as much a disease as habit-forming drugs and beverages. It enormously adds to the prices of commodities without increasing their utility. Many who are so employed could be exceedingly useful to the country in the war. There is also much labor wasted in printing these advertisements and producing ink and paper. There ought, on patriotic grounds, to be an effective boycott against articles sold by advertisers who seek to maintain "Business as Usual."

Another great waste is in personal service. The maintenance of expensive households or what is quite as bad, tremendous hostelries on a most extravagant scale is an inexcusable diversion of human labor, supported by the surplus food, from the production of utilities or services of importance in these critical times.

There must be a clear understanding by all, that, whatever it may seem to be when one looks through the colored glasses of mere money expenditure, *the consumption of utilities of any sort, whether commodities or services, which are not actually essential, is an unpatriotic thing.* It draws upon the diminishing stock of surplus food to provide maintenance for men and women in occupations necessary to produce, transport and distribute such non-essential commodities or provide such unnecessary service, who might and would, if there were not this effective call for their services, be employed either in production of food, of munitions or of other commodities essential to the nation's welfare or in necessary service to support the nation. In other words, all such waste is unpatriotic, which would be clearly seen did the actual nature of what takes place appear without the camouflage that one is merely spending his own money in his own way.

An accurate comprehension, therefore, of the true nature of the forces operating would tend both to enable us to deal more effectually, because more intelligently, with the mobilization of our human resources and to make the people of the country, appreciating these things at their true value, recognize the desirability of such mobilization, and coöperate even beyond the requirements of law in bringing all possible resources, both in human resources directly and in the utilities which human resources produce, to the support of our government in its struggle to maintain the liberties of mankind.

SELF OWNING TOWNS

By Lawson Purdy,

General Director, The Charity Organization Society of the City of New York City.

Great Britain has spent about $700,000,000 housing workers in Great Britain.[1] I came near saying workmen, but it is not—it is housing men and women and families as well as single men and single women. See the effect on the physical appearance of the workers of what Great Britain has done, and beside that see the spirit in which it is done and the moral effect upon those men and women working in those towns of the fact that those towns are theirs, built not by a private enterprise for them but by the state for them; and probably after the war is over in Great Britain those towns are going to be considered self owning towns. They are not going to be sold to separate owners and spoiled, but probably turned over to such societies as those that have built Letchworth and Hampstead and made coöperative towns. Perhaps they will be turned over to the municipalities that now under the British Legislation have certain powers of constructing dwellings and maintaining them for the people who live within those towns.

Under the circumstances that now confront us the United States must pay a very large share of the cost of what we do here, and, should the war continue as long as we think it may, the $50,000,000 that is now proposed to be spent by the Labor Department, and the $50,000,000 to be spent by the Shipping Board I hope is only a beginning. The United States proposes, generally speaking, to pay at least three-quarters of the expense of these new towns. It asks that local capital be provided for the balance. The money that the United States puts in will in time be paid back in part or in whole—probably only in part, because of the excessive cost of constructing buildings during the war. After the war that excess cost must be written off, but the balance will in time be paid back to the United States. The plan so far is that private capitalists shall be restricted as to dividends, probably 5 per cent, and that there shall be no profit in this enterprise for private capitalists. If that program is followed how easy it will be for us to carry out the same plan that is in the minds of those who built these British towns—that the workers living in the town shall in time be in part the controlling power of the town. After the United States has received its money back, there will be a large revenue in excess of that which is required, and that revenue can be spent for the benefit of those who live in the town. In England these self owning towns are generally rather complicated affairs. Financially they work well. I do not say "complicated" as a criticism of the plans, for the plans have worked and that is the test. The men who live there do not own individual houses; they own shares in the corporation that owns the whole. Here some of us have thought that the simpler plan would be for a corporation to own the whole and all the people have an interest, merely because they lived there, and the excess rentals spent for their benefit. So long as they are there they are to have a voting power, but they are free to move away.

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[1] For what Great Britain has done *see* some of the articles in the *Journal of the American Institute of Architects.*

The old-fashioned idea has been that it was desirable, in order that labor might be content and remain, that the laborers should own their own houses. Labor unions have generally thought otherwise—that it was not best for men who had only their labor to sell to be nailed down to one spot, and especially was this so in a one-industry town. If conditions did not suit them they were less free to leave their employment and move elsewhere, but if they owned their own houses they would sacrifice their all if they lost their job.

We must find a course that will make men who work contented and free at the same time. That result can be accomplished where so long as they live in any community they own their share of that community. Some of the great corporations have done their best and planned as wisely as they knew to found communities in which men should be contented, in which they should have all of the material advantages and some of the joys of life, and very beautiful communities have been planned by some of the great corporations, intending that the individual workers should own their own homes. In spite of all that is being done, and much money has been spent in that way, the aggregate result remains comparatively small. There is a reluctance upon the part of the wage-workers to buy their own homes. Generally speaking, the ownership of homes in these towns built by great corporations is confined to the more highly paid men.

When a town is built over night, as some of these towns have in effect been built, there is a very large increment that comes merely because of the establishment of the community. Generally, these corporations that established such towns have been afraid to enter further than they were obliged to into the real estate business. They have sold off land as rapidly as they could, sometimes under well-planned restrictions and sometimes without them. They have not acquired more land than was absolutely necessary for their own plant and a small addition for homes for the workers. They have not planned to conserve for themselves the value that they had themselves created. In that, perhaps, they have acted wisely because of the conditions under which they were obliged to operate. In doing so, however, they have sacrificed much. Take the town of Gary. There was a stretch of barren sand, waste land, worth less than $100 an acre. It cost the Steel Corporation more than that, of course, because people gradually got to know that the Steel Corporation wanted the land, and inevitably they paid a good deal more. But even when they had paid the excessive price, due to the fact that they wanted a large tract of land, the amount they paid was very small indeed compared to the present value of the town of Gary. A careful computation has shown that at present the value of land alone in the town of Gary is $22,000,000 in excess of all that it cost the Steel Corporation, and in excess of all that the land was worth that was not owned by the Steel Corporation, and in excess of all that has been spent upon it in the way of streets and town development, exclusive of houses. If that $22,000,000 of value had been conserved, the town of Gary could have twice and more than twice its present revenue spent for the benefit of that community. As it is, this value, created by the going there of the Steel Corporation and its employes, is frittered away to many people, very few of whom have to any considerable extent profited by it.

The town of Letchworth, England, was planned to be a town of about 35,000 people. It is about ten years old, and today has a population of 13,500. It was planned in advance. It was so planned that the suburbs of it should be agricultural and remain agricultural. It was so planned that it should conserve the health, happiness and contentment of all the people who are to live in it. It has been so successful that about thirty different industries are now established there. All the people who live there have an interest in the town itself and the value of the town.

All this is within our reach here for the benefit of the United States in mobilizing labor to win this war, and if we do it wisely we will have a moral and a spiritual value for all time after the war that we cannot possibly compute. One of the dangers that men see, one of the financial dangers of building a new town by the United States for one industry, is that when the war is over that industry is gone, and all the money that has been spent on the town is wasted. If the town is made a place in which men will like to live that danger ceases to exist. Where there are skilled, intelligent and contented men ready to work, there industries will go, and no town planned along the lines, physically, financially and socially, as these towns may be planned, will lack for industries when the war is over, and no industry will lack for labor that is intelligent and steady. The cost of turnover of labor that there was before the war in many of our great plants was enormous. It was not uncommon that in order to keep 100 men employed 500 or 600 had to be hired during the year. Since the war began it is not unusual that to keep 100 men employed 200 or 300 must be hired every month. Labor cannot be 50 per cent efficient, nor probably 30 per cent efficient, under such conditions. That was so before the war because labor was not satisfied, because men were not suitably housed, because they did not have the environment that made them part of it, because they did not have a home, and a home is not only a house—a home is everything that is involved in the idea of a community, with all its vital social interests, with all its education, its amusements and its social environment. These things make for solidarity for a real community. With such communities after the war we will have little to fear of financial loss and we will have a gain that is beyond all power of imagination.

THE HOUSING OF THE MOBILIZED POPULATION.

BY LAWRENCE VEILLER,

Secretary and Director, National Housing Association.

The question of the mobilization of the population in these war times and especially of the housing of that mobilized population has to be considered from two aspects: one, the effect on the cities, or communities to which the mobilized population go, and the other the effect on the cities from which they come. We also need to consider the question broadly from two other aspects: one, the housing of the fighting forces and, two, the housing of the industrial army.

THE HOUSING OF SOLDIERS

In the housing of our soldiers, our new armies, we have been fortunate. This being America, we might very naturally have expected that the lessons that were forced upon us at such great cost in our little Spanish-American War some twenty years ago would have been forgotten, but they were not forgotten, and there have not been in this war the appalling great scandals of more soldiers dying in our camps from preventable disease than were actually killed in the war itself, which characterized our Spanish-American War. It is true that some new problems have developed, some new dangers, but with the watchful eyes of such men as General Gorgas and the skilled medical men of the country we have been able to prevent any very serious loss from unnecessary disease, and we have housed our new armies in a way, that, while not ideal and not beautiful, still on the whole is one that marks a distinct advance over the methods in vogue in our last war, or in vogue in most other countries.

The question of building cantonments and the housing of soldiers I may touch upon only briefly. These are some of the new lessons we have learned: first, that it is a mistake to *warehouse* the men—to house them by wholesale. It is a mistake even to try to put a whole company of 250 men in one building. We have found that the smaller the unit the better the results. The first plans contemplated putting 150 men in a barracks, then 200 in a barracks and then 250.

General Gorgas, last June, said he really wanted to house the men in huts, with three men in a hut, but the Quartermasters Department did not see its way clear to doing anything of that kind. The typical plans adopted today, and according to which the barracks are going to be built in the new cantonments, provide for 66 men in a barracks instead of 250. The original plans showed only 338 cubic feet of air space per man, a condition that was quite serious; thanks to the efforts of a few of us headed by General Gorgas and Dr. Welch and Dr. Vaughan and Dr. Martin, a change in the plans was forced through the coöperation of Secretary Baker, by which the men are now afforded the proper amount of cubic air space, namely over, 500 cubic feet per man, so that the danger of epidemics from such diseases as meningitis, tuberculosis and other diseases of the respiratory organs has been reduced to a minimum.

Another important thing in connection with the housing of the soldiers is the necessity for adequate ventilation, for quantities of moving air. We were discouraged to find at one stage of our discussion of the plans nearly a year ago, that while we had succeeded in getting those who were responsible for the plans to put in a lot of windows which were not there in the first drawings, most of these windows had been made impracticable because lockers had been constructed directly in front of them all across the dormitories, shutting off the air. We succeeded in having the lockers eliminated entirely. The men now hang their clothes on pegs near their cots. They are not supposed to bring more than one suit case with them and that goes under the cot. We find that system is working beautifully, and we do not have those little cubby holes of wood to encourage vermin and become a collecting place for all kinds of food. Incidentally the elimination of lockers has removed one of the temptations to breaches of discipline. The soldier is not allowed to take food to his bedroom, and this has always necessitated constant inspection of lockers.

THE HOUSING OF THE INDUSTRIAL ARMY

But the main problem giving the country concern is no longer the housing of its soldiers but the housing of the industrial army, and that is a problem that is fraught with very great difficulty. To the great mass of the people in this country prior to the war the word "housing" was unknown. It is now the subject of frequent discussion by the people as well as the press. The housing of the industrial army in America has become an immediate and pressing problem because of the fact that we have suddenly created in places where there were no industries or only minor ones before, vast industries employing from 10,000 to 50,000 men. Again we have taken some small city of 30,000 or 40,000 population and have almost over night doubled its population by placing contracts in the factories in that town for the manufacture of munitions or war supplies of one kind or another. In addition to this localized and peculiar increase of population in those communities where there are war contracts, there has been, also, practically a cessation of ordinary building operations throughout the entire country; that is, the building of homes, which in normal times goes on at a definite rate has practically stopped, due to a variety of causes that I need not go into here, except to mention perhaps, the high price of money, the high price of labor, the high price of materials, the inability of getting building materials and the fear of depreciated values after the war—all of which have caused men to hesitate to build for speculative purposes.

It was this on-coming situation which dawned upon a number of people, a very limited number, last June, ten months ago, and which caused them to agitate this question of housing. The Council of National Defence held hearings, testimony was taken, and various commissions, one after another, were appointed at Washington and the matter was thoroughly gone into. Evidence was produced showing that war industries were slowing down their productive capacity from 30 per cent to 50 per cent, with all that that means in ability to win the war where speed is so vital. This was ten months ago, this slowing down of 30 per cent to 50 per cent because of lack of housing. This quotation is from the official report.

Those ten months have gone and we have not started yet. Public spirited men, "dollar a year" men, have been spending time in Washington, and with unspeakable patience have stayed there and worked and still they are without power in the matter. Legislation was introduced in Congress only this February, when it should have been introducted last fall or last spring when Congress was still in session, and that legislation is still being debated in Congress. The bill has been in Congress two months, and if this problem had been taken up last June or last September all the houses would have been built today and the productive capacity of our great factories turning out munitions of war would have been doubled in most cases. Instead of working eight hours a day these factories would be working twenty-four hours.

Every industry producing munitions and ships ought to be a continuous industry during the life of the war. There is not a citizen who doubts that, and yet what has happened? The unlimited number of both skilled and unskilled laborers, brought into this country as foreigners, green to everything, unfamiliar with the language and not knowing what they could earn, were forced to take any job that was offered to them. Wages were relatively low and manufacturers could get all the labor they wanted, so that these men were often forced to live like animals. They were frequently put into bunk houses, four men to a room, in double deck bunks, with inadequate air space, and often with the beds working three shifts in twenty-four hours. The beds were actually kept warm all the time—the fellow who turned in turned the other fellow out.

But today with the labor supply shut off from the beginning of the war, through cessation of emigration; with the withdrawal of men because of the draft creating a great dearth of labor of all kinds, both skilled and unskilled; with the sudden demand for increased industrial output made necessary by the war, the labor supply became seriously depleted, and now we find not only the mechanic, but the unskilled laborer who knows his power, asserting his manhood and saying, "I am not going to live like an animal any more. I won't live in your bunk house. I won't sleep four men in a room. I won't sleep with three shifts using the same bed;" and he goes to another job. So it is not now merely a problem of attracting labor but that of holding it, and the whole country has been forced to consider the question of what we can do to stabilize the labor supply—not how can we attract the kind of labor we want by increased wages but how can we hold it permanent by decent living accommodations. The providing of improved housing and opportunity for proper domestic life seem to be the most important methods of doing it. Men are human whether there is a war or not, and they want life that is life; they want amusements; they want recreations; they will be better fighting men and better working men for all of those things. No human being in contact with the pulsing life of this country can seriously question that. In discussing this question of industrial housing the other day it was advocated that it was just as necessary to provide a moving picture show as to put in the water supply system. Things of this kind are essential to hold labor.

Think of men laboring and using up every bit of energy, working at great speed and under a high tension, having to live the life of a sodden beast without family or home or comfortable living and with absolutely nothing to amuse them. Of course, that is unspeakable and its natural result is the I. W. W. We not only have to build houses of the right type, houses that have light and air and are sanitary and safe, but we also have to provide some of the amenities of life. We want garden villages; we want trees and grass and shrubs and we want leisure for the workers and amusements and recreation for them indoors and outdoors both. It will make them fitter for their jobs and we will be better able to supply our armies. These are cold hard facts.

Getting the desired legislation has been somewhat complicated, because, in order to allow the government not only to build houses but whole communities in some cases; in isolated places to build streets and sewers, water and lighting systems, moving picture shows, and schools and places of public amusement;—in order to do this new powers had to be conferred, which seemed a vast departure, and made Congress loath to grant the legislation in question. The houses are being built to win the war. Only on that basis is Congress thinking of appropriating $110,000,000 and having the government go into the business of building houses. They would not for a moment have dreamed of considering favorably this project of the government's going into the housing business, which some of them term "state socialism," except as a means of winning the war.

One of the vital questions that has arisen is whether the houses should be built for temporary use or be permanent structures. Those who have studied the question know the advantages of permanent buildings. A permanent structure can be built almost as quickly and almost as cheaply as a temporary one.

Then the question came up of whether to house the workers or *warehouse* them—whether, for instance, we were to house each single man in a separate room or whether we should adopt the old-fashioned dormitory or barracks type with the men all in one big room;

or whether we should have private rooms with a single man in a room. The federal government in the new standards adopted as to how houses shall be built has set a high-water mark in that respect, which is going to be of value to the country for generations after the war is over. One of the interesting by-products of the war is the disappearance of the bunk house, the establishment of the right kind of hotels for single men and women, the declaration against the tenement house, and the preference for the small house as the normal domicile of the American working-man.

We hope that out of the situation will come the formulation of a national policy with regard to the housing of the working people of this country. The time has come when the people of this country should consider the question of a national policy for the housing of its workers. It is a great mistake to go on as in the past, housing people as animals, and with a sort of *laissez faire* policy that everything will come out all right. We have had too many concrete demonstrations of the fact that it does not come out all right, to let us be content with that sort of practice. So one of the things that is going to come out of this awakened interest in housing, because of dramatic war-time manifestations of its fundamental importance, is undoubtedly a wider recognition by the people of the whole United States of the fact that as are the homes of the people so is the citizenship of the country.

THE MOBILIZATION OF WOMEN

BY MRS. NEVADA DAVIS HITCHCOCK,

Pennsylvania State Chairman, Home Economics, National League for Woman's Service.

Women responded all over the country when war was declared by President Wilson. Their patriotism was manifested in various ways. The desire to serve their country was shown by organizations already engaged in war work pledging renewed energy and extended fields of service. Such organizations are the Red Cross, Emergency Aid and Navy League. Women's clubs and associations all over the United States offered their services to President Wilson with such an avalanche of letters and telegrams that our President saw this was no matter for one man to handle alone even if he were able to take care of the rest of the country. With his usual wisdom he turned the matter over to the Council of National Defense with the result that the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense was formed as a clearing house for women's activities all over the United States. The selection of a chairman for this great body was most fortunate because in Dr. Anna Howard Shaw they have a woman who not only understands organization, but one who stands as an ideal of democracy. She has not only the admiration of both men and women for her intellectual ability, but she also possesses their confidence in regard to common sense and good judgment.

As has been said, the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense is intended to be a clearing house between women's clubs and organizations and the United States government. The object is twofold—first, to give out patriotic inspiration, second, to furnish educational assistance. In order to accomplish this a number of departments have been formed. The work is carried on by state divisions which in turn work through county committees. Each county committee has ten departments with a director in charge. The scope of these embraces registration, food production, food conservation, women in industry, child welfare, maintenance of social agencies, education, liberty loan, foreign relief, and the safeguarding of moral and spiritual forces. Under the department of registration a system has been established by which it is expected to have listed and entered in a cross-indexed file the name, address and qualifications of every woman in the country. If a woman is already employed there is no intention of disturbing her, but should she be desirous of obtaining a position either volunteer or salaried, the Registration Department will try to find a suitable niche where her special qualifications will be used to the greatest possible advantage.

The departments of food production and food conservation are most important. Under food production we have the land army units which have become so great in number that they require study as a separate division. The work done under food conservation also is in a class by itself and will be touched upon later. The Council of National Defense recognizes that child welfare needs special attention at this crucial period in our history. At this time women are going into industry, because they must take the place of men who are in the trenches. Family life is more or less disorganized. Children are in danger of becoming weak morally and physically; morally because they are allowed to run the streets, and to take care of themselves to a greater degree; physically because their mothers are unable to secure and prepare the proper food owing to the necessity of working away from home and the increased cost of living. Child welfare and women in industry are insolubly linked.

Under women in industry the relations between employer and employe are studied and often adjusted by the Woman's Committee through women's associations which aid in securing proper sanitary conditions, equal wages for equal work and the protection of women against unwise zeal and enthusiasm of taking positions where they are not yet needed. The other departments have been carried on with equal zeal and enthusiasm by the committee.

The National League for Woman's Service stands in a position by itself. It had just been formed when war was declared by our President. As an outgrowth of the work of the National Patriotic Relief Committee during the Mexican crisis a plan was formed for the mobilization of the woman force of this country and Miss Grace Parker was sent to England to see what the women were doing over there. She found that in munition plants alone over a million and a half girls and women were employed. They also take the places of men as porters, conductors, letter carriers, street sweepers, telegraph messengers, lamp lighters, chimney sweeps, clerks in grocery shops, carpenters, cab drivers, window cleaners, etc.; they are, in fact, in every department of industry.

Miss Parker learned from English women that the great handicap of many thousands of women for nursing, industrial, social and welfare work was lack of training and experience. To meet this need women's organizations were formed in England with such success that Miss Parker returned to America with a plan for mobilization of American women based on the English women's organizations. At the invitation of the National Security League this plan was presented in Washington at the Congress of Constructive Patriotism on January 26, before one thousand delegates from all over the United States. It met with instant approval and the National League for Woman's Service was organized by the delegates present with Miss Maud Wetmore as Temporary National Chairman. Service and training are the keynotes to the work of the National

League. In time of war the object is to supplement the work of the Red Cross, the army and the navy, and to deal with questions of women's work and welfare. The outline of organization in each state consists of a state executive committee and county committees similar to that of the Woman's Committee of National Defense. The work is carried on through state divisions for service training along the following lines: social and welfare work, home economics, agriculture, industry, medicine and nursing, motor driving, general service, health and overseas relief.

Under the social and welfare work comes the canteens; emergency, temporary and permanent. The military canteen fills a great need. Many things are accomplished that supplement the care of the government for our men. The morale of a camp may be improved by the application of cake and ice-cream oftener than the commanders realize. Under general service comes training as stenographers, file clerks, record clerks, telegraph operators, telephone switch-board operators, signalling, map reading and wireless. The work of the league may be divided into two groups, volunteer and professional. The volunteer group is divided again into two groups, specialized and general service. To do specialized work one must be well qualified, as the league accepts no woman for specialized service who is not efficiently trained. Under general service there is a vast amount of work which any woman may do who desires service and understands the needs of others. In agriculture the National League has not only formed many land army units, but also has helped to establish training schools or farms where women receive free training in agricultural pursuits. Service houses are a part of the league activities that require special mention. These houses are, as their name implies, for service in that part of the community in which they are placed. They offer training along the lines enumerated above and are open for day and night classes. Philadelphia has four service houses.

The motor division is a most important one. Only women who have good hearts and good eyes are permitted to enter. They must be excellent drivers and be able to get under their cars and make their own repairs. The splendid work of the Motor Corps in New York has a wide reputation. Philadelphia has a Motor Messenger Corps which is an independent body and not connected with either the League or Council of Defense.

Americanization of the immigrant women is also part of the work done by the National League for Service. It is impossible t have a unity of American ideals when we have so many foreign bor women who cannot speak English.

Women have been turning their attention to agriculture f some years. It needed, however, the stress for further food produ tions to mobilize them. As a result of work done by English an Canadian women we have the Women's Land Army of Americ In England the daughters of practically every county family in th United Kingdom have taken up work on their own farm lands side b side with the village agricultural laborers. Titled women, former well known in the hunting field and in the world of sport, work in th dairy farms and in the stables. In many cases women of delica health who have taken up work on the land have been thereby r stored to health. In this country the work of the Women's Lar Army was started by voluntary organizations, among which were th National Land Council and the Women's National Land Servi Corps. When later the Board of Agriculture took over the wo and drew up an elaborate scheme of organization consisting of w agricultural committees in every county and of women's agricultu committees, these organizations were united under the women branch of the Food Production Department of the board. Th women who volunteer for this service bind themselves to go whe the board sends them during the period of the war. In return f their service they receive one free outfit, free training with maint nance for a period of not more than three weeks, maintenance betwe periods of employment not exceeding four weeks, and a wage of cents per week or the standard wage of the district where th work, whichever is the higher. Miss Helen Fraser gives the numbe of this Land Army as "over 258,300 whole and part time workers

The reluctance of the farmers to employ women was a serio obstacle to their introduction in large numbers on the land, a available openings were at first limited. And it is a satisfacto feature of the work of the Women's Land Army that farmers w in the beginning were strongly opposed to the employment of wom have in many cases become converts, owing to the success of t women as agricultural workers. The unit plan of organizatio has been adopted in most places. The essence of this is that t women workers live in a community, under a captain or supervis with a system of coöperative housekeeping, and go out from this center in squads to work on neighboring farms or estates. This relieves the farmer's wife of the burden of feeding the extra laborers.

One of the organizations which is doing wonderful work in extended fields is the Y. M. C. A., with its hostess houses and social work at military camps. It is a link between the soldier and his family and a protection to both girls and boys. The Home Service Department of the Red Cross, the mother's clubs of the army and navy all are well known and are doing a splendid service in looking after the families of soldiers and sailors as well as providing surgical dressings and knitted goods. The General Federation of Women's Clubs has taken up a distinct work in establishing hostess houses in the south of France where our American soldiers can go for rest, recreation and comfort when they have a furlough from the front. Every women's club was asked to subscribe a dollar for each member. There is no doubt but that many will do more than that, for women realize the vital need of such places if we are to have our boys come back to us healthy and sane.

Some independent organizations are worthy of mention, such as that in a southern state where the women who went through the Civil War have formed a unit called the Girls of Sixty-one. These women, most of them near the eighty mark in years, go out to the camps and mend, sew and darn for the boys who are far from home. Some of the boys come from Washington and Oregon. They are devoted to these belles of the Civil War.

The unnoticed mobilization of one great class of American women has been of inestimable value, that of the teachers in our public schools. Few other women have been called upon to do the work laid before this body of instructors who have given daily devotion to the cause. Every truth, every effort intended to reach the public has been with one accord turned over to them. When a drive has been contemplated, without exception some one says, "Oh, the way to reach people is through our schools," and immediately the work is turned over to them. The teachers vie in popularity in the minds of certain leaders, with women's clubs. Enough work is heaped upon the active members of women's clubs to keep them busy twenty-four hours a day. The same thing is true of our teachers. In the elementary grades we have had food conservation, thrift stamps, war savings stamps, liberty loans, war gardens, and junior Red Cross (a chapter in each class, knitting squares for blankets). The sewing classes have been making garments for Belgians; Camp Fire Girls and Girl Scouts are supervised; Red Cross units are formed in the High and Normal Schools;—canning and dehydration are taught in the domestic science sections. During the third liberty loan drive each school in Philadelphia had its quota, being $1,500 for each class. In one building the entire quota was $57,000. This school raised $200,000. Is it any wonder that one teacher said, "That week I taught a little arithmetic, a bit of physiology, some spelling and a great deal of patriotism." Yet the teachers must cover the course of prescribed studies and do all this extra work without fame, honor or extra pay. The laborer is worthy of his hire even in war time and I make a plea that this fine body of women get at least justice in that line.

In looking over the mobilization of women in war time one must not forget that great line of defense, the women who keep the home fires burning. They do not follow the flag and fife, they have no public honor or applause, but a wonderful mobilization has taken place, the silent mobilization of the housewife, (one may add this does not mean the mobilization of silent housewives). The first step was the signing of the food cards pledging allegiance to Mr. Hoover. Millions of these cards were signed. More than 350,000 were turned in, in Philadelphia alone, and over 700,000 in the state of Pennsylvania. This mobilization includes the women who have the right to wear service pins and show service flags. I would not suggest in any way that the men of this country are not suffering keenly because their sons are away. But I do believe that women have a clearer visualization and keener imagination of what their boys are going through, and I know that the woman shut within four walls does not have the things that will help distract her mind and keep her from worrying that the man does who goes out of his home each day and for that reason I wish to emphasize the wonderful courage of women who are expecting either a telegram or cablegram every time the door bell rings. With wonderful courage they are keeping their homes, helping with Red Cross and food conservation, knitting, sewing, making bandages—writing to the boys, and above all showing a spirit of comradeship to other mothers and home-makers that marks neither caste nor station. The work they do is none the less efficient because they have neither captains nor directors. They are the great rank and file held together by the bond of love for children and country.

There has been of course some duplication, some overlapping of lines of work by the different organizations, but the amount of work to be done and the need of workers is so great, that any duplication of effort is far outweighed by the service rendered. The lasting results of this mobilization will lay the foundation for future co-operation along the line of true democracy. Women of all creeds and beliefs, nationalities and classes, have learned to work side by side and shoulder to shoulder with the same inspiration in heart and mind. The one great outstanding fact already apparent is that all classes, rich and poor, trained and untrained, are learning the sublime value of work. The call of patriotism has brought forward the woman who did not know that there was any need for her to work, the woman who did not know she could work, and lastly the woman who considered herself in the favored class exempt from work, whether there is any need of it or not. When the war is over and the mobilization will be no longer needed, the habit of service and the respect for work will have become so firmly fixed in the minds of American women that none of them will be willing to be idle drifters untrained and undirected, or parasites upon the public body. The American woman will never surrender the habit of service to her country.

AMERICAN IDEALISM IN THE WAR

By Hon. Joseph I. France,

Member of Committee on Conservation of National Resources
United States Senate.

Victor Hugo's old republican, one of the great characters of fiction, as he sat dying, paused in his impassioned utterances and, with a strange, new calmness, said to his Bishop:

"Yes, the brutalities of progress are called revolutions but, when they are over, this fact is recognized: the human race has been chastised but it has advanced."

Thus he carried the last and innermost intrenchments of the Bishop who in turn replied:

"But Progress must believe in God;" and then these two great souls, high, fine conceptions of a master mind, met, touched and at last they were agreed. If this present tremendous process of mutation in the world's affairs may not be properly called a revolution, yet we must have the faith and vision to perceive that it is but one of those vast and violent stages of evolution through which the race moves on resistlessly toward better conditions and to higher stages of physical, moral and social development. We must realize that we are living in an unprecedented period of political and social nascency. We must believe that within the huge and fateful alembic of this war there are taking place elemental changes in the structure of our civilization which mark the everlasting finality of much which must no longer be in the established social orders of the world, and that at the last, there will come forth that new, more highly coöperative and efficient democracy which shall more closely approximate that ideal of government of which the statesmen and the seers of every age have dreamed and for which so many sacrifices, through all the centuries, by earth's devoted martyrs have been made.

First, pioneers in the vast isolations of the bleak shores and pathless wildernesses of a discovered continent; then colonies expanding over the silent wastes, hand touching hand; next a confederation, hands clasped in fellowship, mutually sacrificing, coöperating for liberty; then a federation of sovereign states, with liberty achieved and secured, slowly cementing into a more nearly perfect union; and now, at last, the long awaited consummation of the plan, the true and final integration of these states into that mighty nation which, with her full found and invincible powers, now so valiantly puts on her armor and assumes this weighty responsibility for the welfare of the world; may this be our national evolution.

Scholars and members of these great academies, officials of states and nation, men in the armies, men and women in all our industries and at home, must catch a vision of this process and of this plan and strike strong, unceasing, shaping, fabricating blows in order that in these fires America may be welded into that new and more nearly perfect symmetry and unity which will assure to each and to all the utmost safety and the highest liberty. We must call not alone the army but the nation to this task. Let us away with the false doctrine that inefficiency means liberty. Avoidable sickness and illiteracy know not the boundaries of states and locally allowed they place the whole in peril. The bacilli, the cocci, the spirochetae, the parasites of communicable disease have not yet generally profited by their courses in constitutional law nor do they make all of the fine distinctions of state and federal sovereignty. The hour has come for us to smite from the men of the nation the heavy burdening shackles of preventable illiteracy, injury and disease which have for too long bound them. Let us learn to think greatly and to act nationally as we now face permanent and uncomputed international responsibilities. It is now time for us to blend and merge our individualism into a great common, national purpose.

In America the new temple of liberty is not yet builded but it is building and it is for us, for each living American, an hour of opportunity and of destiny in which we all must rededicate ourselves unreserved to sacrifice, to toil and to unwearying service until the nobler and more lofty fane is fully complete.

MILITARY HEALTH DEPENDENT ON CIVIL HEALTH

By J. C. Perry, M.D.,

Assistant Surgeon-General, U. S. Public Health Service.

This article is limited to a discussion of the close relation between the health of the civil community and that in the military camps adjacent, as well as that in industrial centers in its relation to military productiveness. As the health and the resultant efficiency of our military forces are closely related to the health of our population as a whole, it becomes pertinent to show this intimate correlation between the two, both in its immediate and remote effects, and a brief consideration of remedial measures, both of a preventive and curative nature, is warranted.

Questions that naturally arise are what will be the effect on the national health as a result of the large number of doctors that will be required for military service, and will this drain leave insufficient aid for the care of the sick in the different communities. In answer it can be stated that due care is being exercised by the authorities in calling the medical reserve officers to active duty, in order that a sufficient number will be left in each community to care for the sick and maintain the national health at a satisfactory standard. Many doctors suffering from minor physical disabilities, sufficient to debar them from the strenuous life of a military officer, and others, will be left to provide this care and their work will be as patriotic as that performed by their more fortunate confrères. There would seem to be no need for alarm on this score because if 22,000 are called to active military service the number will be only about 15 per cent of the total number of physicians in the country.

However, the war and the consequent activities have brought about radical changes, especially in the industrial centers, that require a more active prosecution of preventive measures for maintenance of health, and the burden thrown on the health department and physicians of certain communities will tax the available medical force to the utmost. In this connection, it may be pointed out that many of our trained sanitarians have joined the colors, and as the science of public health is young and it has been only in recent years that proper study and attention have been given this subject, many of the trained workers in this activity are of an age that subject them to call for military duty and, consequently, it is probable that there may be an insufficient personnel in this particular phase of the health problem until the gap can be filled with female physicians trained in public health work.

National health as a factor in national efficiency can be properly considered both in its immediate and remote relation. Under immediate there are embraced:

1. The health in civil communities in relation to the troops in adjacent camps and cantonments.

2. The health in crowded industrial centers as a factor in national efficiency.

3. The safeguarding of the health of workers in the war industrial plants.

COMMUNITY HEALTH *vs.* HEALTH IN CAMPS

The protection of the soldiers from diseases in the civil communities deserves first consideration as its importance is paramount. The efficiency of a body of troops is largely dependent on the health of its individual members and a large sick list from preventable diseases is a reflection on the sanitary condition of the camp's environment, either within the camp or in the extra-cantonment area. The soldier deserves relaxation and entertainment but the place in which he seeks amusement must be in such a satisfactory sanitary condition that his pleasure will be free from a menace to his health.

Owing to the exigencies of war requiring a large number of trained soldiers with the least possible delay, camps and cantonments were rapidly erected throughout the country and filled with men before it was possible, in many instances, to sanitate thoroughly the adjacent towns and villages which would be visited by the men when on leave. This created at once a health problem of national importance and one of intimate bearing on national efficiency. In most of these places the local health organization was unable to cope with the situation because of insufficient funds and lack of personnel, and as the necessities arose on account of national activities it was proper that federal aid should be extended through the U. S. Public Health Service.

Realizing that an improvement in sanitary conditions was essential for the national health and that the occurrence of disease in these areas might result in impairing national efficiency in a most vital spot, that service has practically taken over sanitation around thirty-six camps and cantonments and two large government industrial plants. This action has been to assist, supplement, and develop the local health agencies, assuming direction of activities when requested, in order to establish a live and adequate health organization in the different extra-cantonment areas, so that all necessary sanitary work could be executed and maintained, not only for the protection of the civil population but especially to safeguard that of the soldiers by making the places they visit for amusement safe, in so far as concerns their health.

MEASURES TAKEN TO INSURE THE PUBLIC HEALTH

As the health of the nation is dependent on the health prevailing in the different units that comprise the total, and as the activities executed in specific areas affect the whole in this respect and have an important bearing on national efficiency, a brief enumeration of the measures being carried out to conserve the public health in these strategic centers may be permissible, because the results accomplished have an important bearing not only on the national health but also on national efficiency in protecting the health of our fighting forces.

Particular attention is directed to the report and control of communicable diseases; the prevention and control of venereal diseases; and the active prosecution of anti-malarial measures.

It seems proper to point out that the successful prosecution of the activities mentioned constitute the important measures for maintaining health in the civil communities to a standard that will minimize the danger of lessened efficiency in our military and industrial armies. This is especially true as regards social diseases, and now that the veil of secrecy has been lifted a mention of this subject is permissible. No other diseases so impair the efficiency of a fighting force as this infection. The control of social diseases is of paramount importance to the military establishment as they are the greatest cause of disability in the army. A solution of this problem is difficult, and sanitarians and social workers approach it from different angles, but the curse of this infection is so far-reaching in its effects, that the ablest thinkers in many walks of life have become aroused to the necessity for a more active prosecution of measures for the control of these diseases. For immediate results it would seem that the enforcement of prophylactic and curative measures would yield the most benefit, and this is what is being done in the extra-cantonment zones, but the education of the young in sex matters and an appeal to their moral forces will probably be the final solution of this problem.

Of the directly communicable diseases, mention will be made only of cerebro-spinal meningitis as it is often a dread of camp life, and the results in its control have been so good that this fact is worthy of mention. Outbreaks have occurred in areas adjacent to cantonments but energetic measures have been executed immediately so that the disease has been promptly suppressed and little danger has resulted to the health of the military forces.

The danger of malarial infection at a number of camps and cantonments in the South constituted at one time a health problem of some magnitude, but intense anti-malarial measures have been instituted and are being so successfully prosecuted that it is believed that this danger will be obviated. Of course, it can be readily understood that the measures being carried out in these areas protect the health of the civil population as well as that of the military forces, and with this resultant diminution of disease in the extra-cantonment areas, the health and efficiency of the soldiers are still further safeguarded.

TREATMENT OF DISEASE IN INDUSTRIAL CENTERS

Another important phase of the national health problem and one that is intimately related to our national efficiency at this time is the prevention of the occurrence and spread of disease in the crowded industrial centers, for a condition has been brought about by war activities that must receive remedial attention if our maximum efficiency is to be kept up. It is as vital to maintain the health of our army of workers as it is that of our military forces, because the successful prosecution of the war is directly dependent upon the output of labor and every means must be exercised to maintain the health of these workers to the highest standard of efficiency.

There has been created such a demand for laborers in the various factories engaged in producing articles essential for our military activities that the population in these industrial centers has more than doubled, and the housing accommodations have not kept pace with the increase in the number that must have living quarters.

The result has been a marked overcrowding and a creation of unsanitary conditions that is conducive to sickness and a lowering of the general efficiency of these workers. This is apart from health hazards due to occupation, which will receive consideration later.

The housing problem has become acute in many places and it is difficult to formulate feasible plans for its solution on account of the difficulty of securing, shipping, and erecting into dwellings the necessary materials at a time when the railroads are required for the purpose of transporting freight intimately connected with war activities and when laborers are demanded for work in the war industrial plants. Houses that provide homes for the normal population must now shelter three times as many, and this large increase in the population has thrown an extra strain on what at times is an already inadequate health department. In many places the community's public health service has not enlarged to meet the rapidly expanding needs. This density of population, together with the shifting of workers from place to place in search of high wages creates a condition that is ripe for the dissemination of disease.

At any time the least undue prevalence of disease is a serious matter, but now when our successful prosecution of the war depends upon the efficiency of this army of workers behind the lines it becomes imperative that every individual laborer should be guarded against the occurrence of any illness that would impair his capacity for labor and prevent a maximum result from his efforts. This phase of the national health problem is not fanciful but real, and is one that is fraught with danger. In many of these industrial centers there is such congestion that the laborers who have families are forced to live under crowded and insanitary conditions and it is here that the danger exists. The sanitary condition in the factory may be excellent but the worker is thus safeguarded only one-third of his time and the conditions under which he is forced to live do not prevent him from acquiring infection in his home environment.

This problem has already engaged the attention of our captains of industry as well as public health officials generally, and the crying need for enlargement, concentration, and coördination of effort has been foreseen in a request for a sanitary reserve corps of the U. S. Public Health Service. This need for an enlarged sanitary corps to meet the conditions brought about by our war activities is apparent to all who have given this phase of the health problem serious consideration.

HEALTH OF WORKERS IN WAR INDUSTRIES

A third division of this problem is the protection of the health of those employed in the war industrial plants. Since the commencement of the war and especially since the entrance of the United States into the conflict numerous new and enlarged industrial plants have sprung into existence as an essential part of the "Win-the-War" program, and the maintenance of a maximum output of war materials is so vital to our success that the preservation of the health of the employes in these factories must receive the most earnest consideration. At no time has the efficiency of labor been of such paramount importance, for the national necessity demands that these war industries maintain the highest degree of production and that industrial labor be kept at a maximum degree of efficiency as an essential for the prosecution of the war to a successful termination. Therefore, our results will depend on the energy and good health of these workers, and every effort should be made and every means should be applied to safeguard them against disease or injury. Continuous good health is necessary for a continuous maximum production.

The conditions surrounding war industries often involve health hazards and these are not confined only to the manufacture of munitions and explosives but occur also in the allied industries that produce other war material. Furthermore, in an effort to maintain the maximum output or to increase one's earnings on account of the high wages paid there often results overfatigue, which defeats the object sought to be accomplished by overexertion or overtime.

It is not necessary to enter into an extended discussion of industrial hygiene, even if space would permit, to show the necessity for the medical care of these employes and the supervision of the sanitary conditions under which they work as an important determining factor in national efficiency. This subject is a health problem of national importance and calls for more intensive study in order to determine more clearly the causative factors of these diseases so that proper remedial or preventive measures may be employed. Investigations and studies of this character, as well as the supervision of the health of industrial workers, would seem to be a function of the federal government. Studies on overfatigue and health hazards of those employed in factories manufacturing munitions and explosives have been carried out, and it is believed that a useful extension of federal activities would be an active coöperation with state and local health authorities as a coördinating and unifying agency in the adoption of standard measures for the protection of industrial workers, as the health of this class of laborers is a national asset and our efficiency is directly related to the standard at which it is maintained.

This discussion could be extended to include workers in other lines of activities, in all of which their health is a measure of their efficiency, but this does not seem necessary. However, our railroads and ships and their efficient operation are so vital to a successful prosecution of the war that the health of workers engaged therein becomes at once a matter of greatest importance.

HEALTH OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

While this has been little more than a brief outline of the health problem in its immediate relation to national efficiency, it is believed that sufficient has been said to point out the salient features in this respect, and mention will now be made of a more remote factor in relation to national health in determining efficiency. This is school hygiene. The active prosecution of school hygiene is an activity of great value and, as in times of stress the safety of a country depends essentially on its man power, it becomes obvious that any measure that will conserve that power deserves careful attention. The large number of rejections in the selective draft shows forcibly the need for more extended supervision of the health of school children, as a great number of the defects causing rejection had their origin during the period of growth and development.

The existence of large numbers of preventable defects among school children has been shown by intensive investigations of school hygiene. The prevention of these defects is especially important in rural communities, because these children, under existing conditions, cannot receive the attention of specialists that are available for the children in city schools. Furthermore, they are not as efficiently protected as a group by health laws as in cities and are therefore adversely affected to a greater degree by diseases that lower vital resistance and interfere with proper physical and mental development. When those suffering from defects grow up to manhood they often do not reach the proper health standard to be able to render a maximum efficiency to their country.

PHYSICIANS AS A FACTOR IN NATIONAL EFFICIENCY

By Ennion G. Williams, M.D.,
Health Commissioner of Virginia.

When war seems a distant improbability, we are wont to reckon our man power in terms of our total population. But when war is upon us we can speak with safety at a given moment only in terms of trained, available population. We are forced to divide our men according to age, physical fitness, intelligence, and economic status, and then to subdivide them again and again according to previous occupation and fitness for particular branches of service. Such a classification, however, cannot be regarded as permanent for the duration of any war. The changing conditions of combat call for changed training and for new proficiency in unforeseen directions. No one, for instance, anticipated in 1914 that infantry battalions would rely upon other weapons than rifle, bayonet, and machine-gun; yet today we assume infantry organization that includes not only riflemen and machine-gunners but grenadiers and rifle-grenadiers. We have even gone beyond this and, in every belligerent country, have organized specific "shock-troops," whose duty it is to storm positions and to hold them for the less perfectly trained "troops of occupation."

Increasing Need of Physicians

The medical service has shared in this specialization in war for two reasons that will instantly be apparent. In the first place, the scope and possibilities of what we broadly style "medical" service has increased vastly since the last great war. More duties can be performed; more men and more technically trained men are needed for them. In the second place, the size of armies and the immense casualties under modern conditions of war have created an increased demand for surgeons and for physicians. Perhaps we can see this factor in its true perspective when we recall that the total casualties in the French army alone since August 1914, exceeded the gross enlistments in the federal armies during the war between the states.

It goes without saying that a patriotic nation will meet the call for physicians in precisely the same spirit that it meets the call for men to take places in the ranks. In no spirit of flamboyant ostentation but with a decision suited to the immensity of the issue, the American public is willing to give the last physician from the last hospital, if need be, rather than that our soldiery should suffer for lack of medical attention. Nevertheless, now that war is a question of industrial, not less than of military organizations—a clash of nations not less than of armies—this, likewise, is a truism: If the health of the military population is a sanitary problem, then the health of the civil population is almost in like proportion a military problem. Neither can be neglected, except at the prejudice of the other.

We find conditions about what we would have reason to expect in the premises. Approximately 20 per cent of the physicians and surgeons of America are now devoting themselves exclusively to 2 per cent of the population—the men under arms. In consequence, the civil population dependent upon the attention of the average doctor is larger than it has been in many years. Before the war there was in America an average of one physician for every 900 people; today, there is scarcely one for every 1,100 people. Even these figures do not adequately define our problem. Those who have been accepted and have left private practice are, in the main, the most active, the most capable, and professionally the best qualified. To read the roster of the medical reserve corps is to open the scroll of medical fame in the United States. Furthermore, we must remember that the effects of the withdrawal of 20 per cent of our physicians, the best and the ablest, vary much in the different parts of the union. In the cities, the loss has not been a serious matter thus far—probably because, in part, the cities were professionally oversupplied and certainly, in part, because where the area of practice is small, a physician can multiply his service by a relatively short extension of his working-time. In rural districts, on the other hand, the removal of a single physician often puts upon those who remain a duty the performance of which is rendered sometimes impossible by the mere factors of time and of distance. I can cite communities where, already, sick persons go for days without medical attention because no physician is available. And we are merely at the beginning of the war, when the forces under arms are probably not a third what they must be before a decision is reached.

Medical service is a commodity. As such, when its lack creates a sanitary and military problem, we naturally look for a solution to the laws of supply and demand. In so doing, you will of course observe, we are merely illustrating how largely these and all other sanitary questions are economic.

Is it practicable to increase the supply of physicians—that is the nearer horn of the dilemma. To do this we should have to employ one or more of these expedients, namely, to increase the number of medical students and to speed up their education, or to relax the requirements for the practice of medicine. Upon the last-named expedient it is manifestly unnecessary to dwell: it is better to endure a shortage than to produce an unsatisfactory supply, and as a good physician is always needed to repair the damage a poor physician does, we shall be creating a new problem without solving the present one if we open the doors to quacks and ill-qualified doctors. What we can do in the direction of increasing the supply, therefore, resolves itself largely into what we can do in increasing the number of medical students and in expediting their training. Here, again, we are confronted with very manifest obstacles. The men who would make the most desirable medical students are, in the main, of draft age and many of them have already volunteered for service. Our supply of raw material, so to speak, is almost as scarce as our supply of the finished product to say nothing of the fact that four years must elapse before even the college graduate can be made into a practitioner of medicine. Furthermore, you will recall that this shortage comes just at the time when so many of the medical colleges are putting into effect the newer entrance requirements which at once reduce the number of men who can study medicine and place those men the more surely within the draft age. Scarcely more hopeful is the prospect of speeding up medical education. We cannot, of course, permit any reduction in the total time devoted to medical education; our only hope lies in compressing the necessary months of study into a briefer time on the calendar. This can only be accomplished by eliminating the vacations in our medical colleges during the next few years, giving in three years the same training now spread over four. Despite obvious objections to such a policy, it seems to me wise, if not imperative at this time, and I am surprised to note that positive progress in this direction has not been made by the medical schools of the country.

It may seem to some that it is futile to dwell at all upon any possible increase in the supply of physicians where the necessary education is so long. I would only remind them, in passing, that we know every month of war will bring new demands for physicians and we have absolutely no means of ascertaining how long this drain will continue. If the war department is making all its plans on the basis of a five-year war, it behooves the medical profession to do likewise. More than this, we must reckon upon these three facts: That the tide of physicians had begun to turn before the war; that the number of men in the medical schools was scarcely as great as the number of men in the twilight of their practice; and that many who have gone into the medical reserve corps will remain there of their own choice, in the new, larger army that America must maintain for years after the war. Still others will have to continue, long after the conclusion of hostilities, to provide for the wounded and to supervise the great work of reconstruction. Altogether, the outlook is serious enough to justify a careful consideration of what we must do to meet a shortage of physicians that will not pass with the war.

MEDICAL EDUCATION OF THE LAITY

If we cannot, then, appreciably increase the supply of physicians to take the place of the 20 per cent who are now devoting themselves to 2 per cent of the population, our only alternative is to reduce the demand. Here we are on sure and fruitful ground, for we know that by the prevention of disease the need for physicians can be reduced. Reaching this conclusion, logically and by elimination, our task is really to apply in war times what we have learned in times of peace. We cannot expect to teach America's industrial army of 10,000,000 how to set fractures, but we can teach many of them how to prevent the accidents that cause fractures.

We cannot train the laity to give surgical treatment to septic cases, but is it too much to hope to train them to give proper first aid to the cases that, if neglected, would require the operative procedure of a surgeon? We cannot train every housewife to treat typhoid fever, but we surely can show her how to prevent it. We cannot make every employer of labor an ambulance surgeon, but in a day when efficiency is at a premium, may we not hope to show him how better working conditions will keep his men fit? In short, as we educate the people we can reduce the conditions that call for medical and surgical attention; as we do this, we reduce the demand for professional men and, in very large measure, offset the shortage of physicians.

Space permits me to mention only four of the many methods that will occur to all for the application of popular education to offset the shortage of physicians. The first is through the organization of First Aid classes in connection with the existing Red Cross societies, the Boy Scouts, the Y. M. C. A's, and the Y. W. C. A's. Regarding this, of course, there has been much sentimentality, which it is our duty to repress. We must discourage the view that the young girl who spends a few afternoons in listening to lectures and demonstrations on bandaging is qualified to do Red Cross service and is to be called, like another Florence Nightingale, to lighten the lazarettos of some Stamboul on the Aisne. At the same time, we must remember that whenever, by instruction in first aid, we can make unnecessary the visit of a physician, we have helped to overcome the shortage and have given a busy man an hour to devote to someone who really needs his attention.

In the second place, I bespeak the cause of popular education in the prevention of the common ills of the household. When all is said, most of these are simple, easily diagnosed, and almost as easily treated. Heaven forbid that we should turn every home into a drug-store and make an herb-doctor of every mother. Nevertheless, if the mother can treat and cure the stomachache for which otherwise she would call a physician to the tortured victim of green apples, we have saved the physician time, the community service, and the mother money. All three, at this juncture, are decidedly worth saving. We shall do well to discourage the mediæval view of medicine, fostered by the grasping and ignorant—that ours is a "mystery," a "black art," mastered in solitary meditation and after years of effort. We dignify, not discredit, medicine, when we assign to it tasks worth doing and relieve it of work others can perform.

Thirdly, I commend most heartily every effort that can be made at this time toward the reduction of occupational disease and accidents by improved conditions of factory labor. It would be foolish for me to enlarge upon the importance of all this to a nation engaged in war industry. As we save labor by this, so we save the time of physicians and consequently decrease the demand.

PREVENTION OF DISEASE BY THE LAITY

I come finally to what is most obvious and, withal, most vital, namely, relieving the shortage of physicians by preventing those diseases which experience has shown are easily prevented by any intelligent layman. The discoveries of the last generation have meant as much to the civil population in war time as to the armies in the field. Perhaps we can safely say these discoveries have meant more to civil life, for here we can control certain conditions that are beyond control in open campaigning. Particularly is this the case with the diseases of southern climates—the insect and filth-borne diseases, as malaria, yellow fever, typhoid fever, infection from hookworm and other intestinal parasites. These are among the most prevalent diseases in the South, and in many sections constitute a large part of a doctor's practice. They have acted like a blight upon some of the richest agricultural sections of our country, causing the land to become unproductive and many of the inhabitants to become the victims of that vicious circle of sickness, poverty and ignorance. In very recent years the causes of these diseases have been discovered and methods found to prevent them.

We are awakening slowly but surely to the possibilities presented through this new-found knowledge. The health departments are all being reorganized to meet the new conditions. Where formerly appropriations for health work were in the thousands, now they are in the tens of thousands and hundreds of thousands. The experience of these departments in the short time of their existence has justified the faith in prevention. Yellow fever, that until very recently periodically invaded our shores and demoralized business, even so far north as Philadelphia, has been conquered and is now no longer feared. Malaria, that depresses the value of many a fertile community, is becoming steadily less. It will surely be driven out just as soon as the people are willing to pay the price. There is no doubt about this possibility; the question now becomes one of economic practicability. In a community in Virginia in the summer of 1915, several persons died of a malignant type of malaria, and investigation showed that every inhabitant but one had had chills that summer. In the summer following in a local campaign of prevention, there were not only no deaths from this disease, but not a resident had chills. Typhoid fever, the disease which is looked upon as the index of sanitation, has in eight years been reduced in Virginia from approximately 14,500 cases to 5,200 a year, and in many communities the reduction has been 100 per cent. Summer complaints among infants, which have annually reaped a large harvest of deaths, are now classed among the preventable diseases. In one large city where sanitary measures and instructive work of the public health nurse were carried out, the death rate among infants has been reduced 50 per cent in five years' time. Hookworm disease, that numbers its victims by the hundreds of thousands, and which does not take its toll directly in deaths, but by blighting the physical and mental growth of the child and reducing his working power and usefulness, is being steadily eradicated.

VALUE OF PUBLIC HEALTH WORK

I would cite one instance to show the value of public health work as an aid to industry and to compensate for the shortage of labor. The superintendent of a lumber and manufacturing plant two years ago appealed to the State Board of Health for assistance, saying that on account of sickness the work of his plant was seriously interfered with. Some machines were always idle on account of the sickness of the employes, and he had great difficulty in securing sufficient labor. A special better health campaign was conducted, directed specially against malaria and the filth-borne diseases. Last fall the superintendent wrote that since the health work was instituted, no machine had been idle on account of sickness among the employes; that malaria had been reduced 99 per cent; that the employes and their families were healthy, happy and contented; and that his company had no difficulty in getting all the labor it wanted, notwithstanding the greatly disturbed condition of the labor markets resulting from the war and the government building activities going on in the state. The superintendent added that his company had not made a better investment than that spent for protecting the health of the employes.

These instances are cited to show what is being done and the possibility of what may be done to increase the man power of our country and develop our national efficiency by promoting the public health. To accomplish this result the health authorities must have the coöperation and assistance of all the people. We can then make America as safe for health as for democracy. We can conquer disease as surely as we can conquer the enemy. It is purely a question of means and of effort.

WASTE CAUSED BY PREVENTABLE DISEASE OF INTESTINAL ORIGIN

BY VICTOR G. HEISER, M.D.,

Director for the East, International Health Board of Rockefeller Foundation.

In a general way much has been said about the waste caused by disease, but not enough emphasis has been placed upon the enormous amount of pain, misery, unhappiness, sickness and death, that is caused by preventable intestinal disease. It is well within the bounds of conservatism to state that over 127,000 persons in the United States die annually from causes acting in and through the intestines, in other words, from swallowing something unclean which might easily be avoided. To this must be added the hundreds of thousands who are made ill and incapacitated.

The economic losses are estimated at enormous totals. For instance, Doctor Allen Smith, of the University of Pennsylvania, states that hookworm disease in the South causes between $250,000,000 and $500,000,000 damage per annum. Stiles states that the very conservative estimate of 50 cents loss per week for each person suffering from hookworm disease gives a total of $50,000,000 per annum. Ellis estimates that typhoid fever costs the United States $350,000,000 annually. For instance, before the city of Pittsburgh had a safe water supply, typhoid fever in one year was estimated to have cost $3,142,000. Ellis also estimates that in the state of South Carolina alone the hookworm losses are $30,000,000 per annum. The State Board of Health of Louisiana estimates an annual loss of $3,000,000 from hookworm disease in that state. Gunn estimates that the loss from hookworm disease in one mine in California which employs 300 men was $20,000 per year. The construction of the St. Gotthard tunnel through the Alps was almost completely stopped by disease among the laborers until it was discovered that the illness was caused by the lack of proper disposal of human excrement. Again, Stiles estimates that 30 per cent of the education in the southern states is wasted owing to the backward mentality caused by hookworm infection. Clayton Lane has just published a statement showing that the entire war debt of India could be paid by wages which are lost by Indian hookworm victims, and yet we know that wages in India are a mere pittance compared to American standards. So far we have mentioned only typhoid and hookworm infection. To these must be added the losses caused by diarrhoea, dysentery, cholera, and a host of other diseases, which are caused by swallowing something unclean.

Then there is also an enormous indirect loss. Hazen, for instance, showed that each death from typhoid fever avoided caused the prevention of two or three other deaths from other diseases. This theory has frequently received confirmation. For example, in Manila, in periods during which water from an uninhabited watershed was used there were 3,000 less deaths per annum than when the water supply was taken from an inhabited watershed. The deaths from practically all causes were decreased by changing the source of the drinking water. For instance, there was a reduction in the number of deaths from pneumonia, tuberculosis, nephritis, and other affections not ordinarily associated with intestinal disease.

THE REMEDY

It may be well to ask what can be done to prevent this enormous waste. The answer is simple. It is only necessary to provide for the safe disposal of the excrement of the entire population. In most of our cities the problem has been largely solved through the water carriage of sewage. Yet even in Philadelphia there are thousands of open privies which may be a menace to health through the agency of flies and other sources of contact which may cause contamination of human food and drink. The great bulk of the trouble, however, is in rural communities. It has been the popular belief that the health of those who live in the country is much better than the health of those who live in the city. This could probably be made so by the observance of ordinary hygienic precautions.

But let us look at the actual conditions. In a survey of more than 200,000 school children in New York City compared with 200,000 school children in rural Pennsylvania, it was shown that disease was at least four times more prevalent in rural Pennsylvania. Death rates in the country are higher. A large percentage of the ill health in the country districts is due to primitive latrine conditions. There are many areas in this country in which there is no latrine whatsoever. By careful surveys it has been demonstrated in many sections of the United States that only 50 per cent of the houses have latrines of any kind. The remedy is very simple and easy of application. No great engineering works are necessary, and the method of prevention can be demonstrated to the most ignorant. There is no community in this country which does not have sufficient resources to carry out the safe disposal of body discharges, and when that is done, typhoid, dysentery, hookworm and a host of other diseases will disappear.

The meagre evidence here presented shows that the loss caused by only a few of the intestinal diseases will total to more than a billion dollars per year. Efficiency is the watchword of the day. The struggle for existence after the war will probably be greater than ever. Shall we enter the contest with this handicap, or shall we strike it from us?

NATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS AND HEALTH INSURANCE

By JOHN B. ANDREWS, PH.D.
Secretary, American Association for Labor Legislation.

"When the workers return from the trenches they will not be satisfied with flowers or brass bands." This sentiment, recently expressed by one of our loyal and most influential leaders of organized labor, may be welcomed as a "healthy indication" or opposed as a "seething menace," according to one's point of view. It conforms rather conservatively to the reported pronouncement of Mr. Schwab that "within two years the workers will be running this country." Mr. Schwab for this declaration was publicly denounced as a threatening Bolshevik, but presently he was placed in charge of the nation's shipbuilding, the most urgent and critical job in our war preparations. Politically the sentiment is in harmony with the expression of the official historian of the British army in France, who recently said: "I predict that our next Parliament will be a labor Parliament." And it is most effectively and eloquently reënforced in a recent letter by President Wilson who declares:

> Every man with any vision must see that the real test of justice and right action is presently to come as it never came before. The men in the trenches, who have been freed from the economic serfdom to which some of them have been accustomed, will, it is likely, return to their homes with a new view and a new im-

patience of all mere political phrases, and will demand real thinking and sincere action.

The foregoing sentiment may therefore be regarded as the well-considered political expression of some of the keenest and most practical of our forward-looking representative men who are earnestly seeking national effectiveness in a period of supreme national responsibility.

THE PUBLIC HEALTH PROBLEM

What national problems are of such supreme importance as to challenge our chief attention in this reconstruction period?

Aside from measures for the development and protection of labor organizations in their campaign for higher wages, shorter hours, and increased control of industry, it is probable that no single factor in industrial betterment will be so widely accepted as vital to the welfare of the masses of the people in this country as the assurance of reasonably healthful working and living conditions. Certainly no other problem of equal importance to wage-earners, to employers, and to the state, has been longer understood and more persistently neglected.

As a problem in political and social science national health as a factor in national efficiency thus assumes interesting proportions. "Health is wealth," says the proverb, and surely in this country there has been abundant expert testimony as to the importance of national health. The famous Shattuck Sanitary Commission in Massachusetts in 1850 reported the following:

> That the average length of human life may be very much extended, and its physical power greatly augmented; that in every year, within this Commonwealth, thousands of lives are lost which might have been saved; that tens of thousands of cases of sickness occur, which might have been prevented; that a vast amount of unnecessary impaired health and physical disability exists among those not actually confined by sickness; that these preventable evils require an enormous expenditure and loss of money, and impose upon the people unnumbered and unmeasurable calamities pecuniary, social, physical, mental, and moral which might be avoided; that means exist, within our reach, for their mitigation or removal; and that measures for prevention will effect infinitely more than remedies for the cure of disease.

We have since had repeated official reminders that within reasonable limits public health is purchasable. And a conservation commission of the Roosevelt administration declared that the average span of American life might be increased at least fourteen years if we would but use the knowledge of hygiene already at hand. Economic fact and argument have not been lacking, for our United States Public Health Service has estimated the mere wage loss each year on account of sickness as no less than half a billion dollars. We have had, too, in health matters, the suggestive and helpful background of European experience and accomplishment.

In no more striking way have we benefitted from English experience than in our determination to avoid her blunder of relaxing legal safeguards under war conditions. Great Britain, under prodigious strain to turn out quantities of munitions quickly, continued this mistaken policy until her Health of Munition Workers Committee in a series of reports demonstrated that, even from the standpoint of maximum production, excessive hours did not pay; and that the efficiency of employes had been lowered by overwork.

The committee likewise found that measures to secure good sanitary conditions, lighting, ventilation, and the prevention of accidents and sickness, were also essential to the maintenance of efficiency and output. Fortunately the British reports reached this country before our own entrance into the world war and were used effectively in blocking legislative efforts to break down our own labor laws. Quickly, through organizations that devote themselves to such matters, the warning was given that protective labor regulations are not based upon mere sentiment but upon sound economics. The President of the United States, the Secretaries of the Army and the Navy, the Council of National Defense and public officials generally, finally went on record as opposed to the setting aside of legal standards of protection for men, women and children in our industries. "I think it would be most unfortunate," declared President Wilson, "for any of the states to relax laws by which safeguards have been thrown about labor. I feel that there is no necessity for such action, and that it would lead to a slackening of the energy of the nation rather than to an increase of it."

FINANCIAL ASPECT

We have now had opportunity to think and we are not likely to adopt a mistaken policy in reference to maintaining existing protective standards. But it is also our duty, during the war and even *because of the war*, to take certain steps in advance for the protection of the national health.

From the human and the social point of view it is necessary that steps be taken beyond the mere provision of sanitary work places. It is essential if we are to attack the problem of health and national effectiveness with vigor and understanding that workmen at the first indication of approaching illness be not held back,—either because of commendable dislike of charity or of reluctance to accumulate doctor's bills,—from requesting immediately, as a right, all necessary medical attention. Adequate provision for such service will of course include in addition to all necessary medical care, nursing, medicines and appliances, hospital accommodations and special maternity care. This service should be available not only for the sick employes but also for dependent members of their families. In addition it is essential that cash payments based on a percentage of wages be made to employes when incapacitated by sickness, and that there be in case of death a sum sufficient for decent burial, as is already provided under most of our workmen's compensation laws.

The expense of such thorough-going attention to health will of course be great. But there will also be many important economies. While in the aggregate the estimated totals may appear staggering, it must be remembered that someone is already paying for all the costs of sickness—under present unorganized methods—and the burden is now carried for the most part by those least able to bear it.

But we have learned how huge sums are quickly made available through the accumulation of many small ones. All of the money needed for a comprehensive plan of sickness care can be provided by small weekly payments from both employers and employes under state supervision. And of course on grounds of economy as well as public policy it should be recognized that the plan of insurance against sickness should not be commercial in character.

Hitherto our difficulty in increasing national efficiency through improved national health has not been a lack of appreciation of the possibilities or a lack of knowledge of hygienic precautions. The trouble has been that our leaders in health work could not get sufficient funds. A few years ago an investigator for the Russell Sage Foundation discovered that the average per capita appropriation for public health work by the cities of over 25,000 population was but twenty-two cents a year. In several cities for infant hygiene work, laboratory and dispensary service, housing regulation, industrial hygiene, tuberculosis work, control of venereal diseases, health education and publicity, the annual appropriation was less than four cents per person. And this very week in the largest city in this country with a population of more than five millions we have the spectacle of the mayor attempting to abolish the Bureau of Public Health Education on the ground that $12,000 for such a purpose is unnecessary. Obviously if we are to tackle the problem of health with "real thinking and sincere action" we must accept methods of financing not yet put in practice here for this purpose although they have long been employed successfully in various countries of Europe.

HEALTH INSURANCE PROBLEMS

The present premier of England, Lloyd George, impressed by sub-standard conditions of health revealed by selection of soldiers for the Boer War, succeeded in having instituted in 1911 a system of workmen's health insurance as a part of a general social insurance program. Physicians, who seven years ago opposed the plan in Great Britain, are now found by the British Medical Association to be almost unanimously in favor of it. Moreover a delegation of British workingmen who recently toured this country at the request of the American Federation of Labor spoke in terms of highest praise of the health insurance system in England. Germany and other continental countries had learned this lesson still earlier and during the five years preceding the outbreak of the present war six European countries adopted compulsory contributory systems of health insurance.

In the United States the success of workmen's compensation for industrial accidents, which in seven years spread over four-fifths of the country, was followed last year by wise and generous provision by the United States government of accident, health and life insurance for soldiers and sailors. This social insurance legislation has given a new impetus to the health insurance campaign in America where already nine states have provided for official study of the subject through legislative commissions. A number of our most influential state and national labor organizations have gone on record for health insurance legislation, and in New York State the federation of labor this year introduced a bill. It is worth noting that the objection raised to this measure by the secretary of the Associated

Merchants and Manufacturers of New York State related entirely to the cost. He presented figures indicating that the wage-earners of New York State alone suffer loss of time on account of sickness aggregating 40,500,000 days each year. Necessary care under a health insurance law, he declared, would require the expenditure of $100,000,000 more for hospitals alone to equip New York for this service. The funds made available through small weekly contributions by those most directly responsible for sickness and most to be benefitted by improved health would according to this employers' representative be equal to fully forty-six times the amount annually appropriated by New York City for public health work.

The representatives of the wage-earners reply that they welcome this proof of the need for sickness insurance and that they are ready to bear their share of the cost on a fifty-fifty basis with their employers, and they have served notice that they purpose to continue the campaign until proper service is available for every sick employe in the state. They also point out that the objections raised to insurance against sickness were only a few years ago raised against workmen's compensation for accidents, which is now universally admitted to be beneficial to employers as well as to employes. Finally, they suggest the undoubted advantages to industry of the frequent coming together of representatives of workmen and employers in the local mutual administration of the health insurance funds. This they believe will obviate many industrial disputes, and greatly add to the efficiency of the nation's industries. But most urgently they insist that the world of medical science shall be made available to the wage-earners—not merely, as at present, to the wealthy on one hand and through charity dispensaries to the poverty-stricken on the other.

NECESSITY FOR A GENERAL SANITARY SYSTEM

Dr. Hayhurst of the Ohio State Board of Health in his report on *The Need for a General System of Sanitary Supervision of Industries in Times of War*, states that a general system of sanitation must include four things, one of which is "a system for the prompt care and recovery of those taken sick . . . . and a means of sustenance until well." And he points out that the need of an extension of insurance to cover sickness is particularly needed in connection with our multitude of employes in small establishments.

"We know," says Hayhurst, "that nothing reduces preventable afflictions more than establishing some form of compensation against them, since this increases inquiry and thus raises the standards for sanitation and hygiene." Surgeon-General Rupert Blue has referred to health insurance as the next great step in social legislation. Dr. Evans, in his presidential address before the American Public Health Association, declared that by the time this war is over health insurance will be the livest issue in America.

The official commission which has been studying this question in New Jersey states:

> The stress of industry in war is making increasing demands upon physical endurance. In our hour of necessity we have been shocked by the high percentage of draft rejections on account of physical disability. As never before we need now to conserve, for present and future generations, the health and physical vigor of our people. Furthermore, it is the duty of statesmanship to look beyond our immediate pressing needs to the period of reconstruction at the close of the war. We cannot afford to disregard the protective legislative inducements already offered to workmen by our keenest commercial competitors in Europe.

The economic advantage to a nation of a healthy, efficient and contented working class is recognized by employers who have observed the effects of universal insurance against sickness in England and Germany. A former representative of large manufacturing interests, who is now serving in the War Department, wrote to me recently as follows:

> I believe very strongly that unless we make very substantial progress along the line of health insurance. . . .we shall find ourselves under very serious handicaps in world competition at the conclusion of the present war. I believe that many of our people are still going cheerfully on with the social ideals and ideas of the past generation quite oblivious to the fact that our great commercial competitors, Germany and Great Britain, have advanced far beyond us in social thinking. The time will come within the years immediately following the war when our "go as you please" methods of industry will be weighed in the balance in competition with Europe.

We are fighting a great world war in order that the condition of the people may be improved. Some time this war will end. But within each nation there is a never-ending struggle for better living conditions, for opportunities for health and happiness that during generations have been denied to the workers. Today, for example, we possess a mighty power to fight disease. To the wealthy class this scientific knowledge is available; to the poverty-stricken it is doled out in charity dispensaries. But for the masses of the working population—in the United States alone among great industrial nations—such treatment is not made available.

The healthiest army in history is what our officers and sanitarians at the front are striving to make of the American forces abroad. Why should not the same ideal be set up for the much more numerous army of industrial workers at home, without whose unhampered productivity the valor of our troops will be useless? In health legislation the war has not furnished a ground for postponement of action; rather it has increased the need for action. And in fulfilling this immediate and urgent duty to aid in the successful prosecution of the war we shall at the same time be laying a firm basis for reconstruction after the war.

President Wilson in his remarkable letter to New Jersey politicians, quoted at the beginning of this paper, also said:

> Every sign of these terrible days of war and revolutionary change, when economic and social forces are being released upon the world whose effect no political seer dare venture to conjecture, bids us search our hearts through and through and make them ready for the birth of a new day—a day, we hope and believe, of greater opportunity and greater prosperity for the average mass of struggling men and women, and of greater safety and opportunity for children. . . . .
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> [In] the days of political and economic reconstruction which are ahead of us, ... every program must be shot through and through with utter disinterestedness; . . . . every party must try to serve humanity; . . . . every program, every measure in every program, must be tested by this question, and this question only: Is it just; is it for the benefit of the average man, without influence or privilege; does it embody in real fact the highest conception of social justice and of right dealing without respect of person or class or particular interest?
>
> This is a high test. It can be met only by those who have genuine sympathy with the mass of men and real insight into their needs and opportunities, and a purpose which is purged alike of selfish and of partisan intention.
>
> The party which rises to this test will receive the support of the people because it serves it.

While we make ready for the birth of a new day, in what our President has called this "exigency of a great hour of crisis," we will do well to remember that the workmen when they return from the trenches will demand sincere action, and that it is well for our national health and national efficiency that "they will not be satisfied with flowers or brass bands."

NATIONAL EFFICIENCY THROUGH HEALTH

BY WILMER KRUSEN, M.D.,

Director Department of Public Health and Charities, Philadelphia.

There are two great armies fighting in this conflict—one a military and naval force controlled largely by trained medical men in camp and cantonment, or overseas; the other, the greater from the numerical viewpoint, the civilian population, supervised and regulated by the health officers of our state and city departments. Our chief concern today is for our civilian population. We realize fully that health like charity begins at home.

May I first refer to the problems presented during this crisis and briefly to their solution. If the individual is healthful and efficient, then the community or municipality becomes safe and healthy unless sanitary surroundings are injurious and pernicious.

In Philadelphia the housing problem has become acute. The unexpected increase in our industrial population has found us unprepared. It is of vital importance that the home should be clean and sanitary. The water supply must be pure and adequate, the drainage perfect, and the sewage disposal adequate. This city must spend more money for the increase of its water supply and for the extension of its sewage system so that all cesspools may be abandoned without an exorbitant expense to the property owner. The housewife must have the sanitary conscience. There must be hearty and sympathetic coöperation between the civic official or agency and the citizen.

The keeping of live stock, such as chickens, goats and other animals, must be forbidden in the closely populated sections of a city. The "thirty years" war for the elimination of piggeries from the residential part of Philadelphia has resulted in a practical victory for the Health Department. The mosquito nuisance is now being actively combated in Philadelphia. The state and city departments are working with the federal authorities and much money will be expended this summer for the permanent elimination of this pest.

The control of communicable diseases is a constant battle,—here "eternal vigilance" is the price of safety. In Philadelphia smallpox has been practically eliminated as a serious menace, but during the past few weeks we have had four sporadic cases; our typhoid record during 1917 was the lowest in the history of the city; tuberculosis has been reduced one half in the past thirty-five years.

A strict observance of quarantine rules and regard for the health of a neighbor's children are necessary to reduce the large number of contagious diseases in this city. One of the serious conditions which has perplexed the medical officers of the army and navy has been the many cases of contagious diseases which have occurred.

No lover of the human race or of his country can view with complacency the ravages of venereal diseases, nor fail to raise his voice in warning against them. Since January 1, the Health Department has tried to purify the stream at the very source of its infection by the care and study of the unfortunates in the House of Correction. Clean living becomes a patriotic duty in war time as in no other period. The infected man becomes not only useless as a soldier, but a cost and a burden to the medical service of the nation, taking time and attention, medicine and money which rightfully belong to the soldier wounded in battle or sick with unavoidable disease incident to the congregating of men in camp and cantonment.

Our great industrial plants, our munition factories with their problems of chemical poisonings and occupational diseases demand scientific consideration. The health of the women workers—a subject which has been carefully studied in Great Britain—is now an American problem in a new sense. The effect of this industrial life upon the next generation must be remembered. Protective legislation must not be suspended or repealed, or we will suffer the consequences.

This is children's year in America, and the varied efforts to conserve infant life must be extended and financed. Prenatal care of mother, care of infant and child during pre-school age, is a theme we could discuss for hours. Let me urge intensive work and interest in this phase of health work.

War is a stimulus to effort not only of inventive genius for the destruction of life and the confusion of our enemies, but of constructive and beneficial genius for the conservation of life and the protection of health. We need only to mention the triumph of typhoid inoculation and the benefits of the Carrel-Dakin method of treating wounds as significant of progress in medical science. Medical men and students of sociology were rather startled by the announcement that twenty-nine per cent or nearly one-third of the young men of America between the ages of 21 and 31 were found physically unfit for military service. This emphasizes the necessity for routine physical examination for the discovery of incipient diseases or physical defects. It also emphasizes the value of a routine military service even for its physical benefit as well as its necessity for national protection in America today.

The solution of all of these problems rests in the hands of the educated and thoughtful people of America, who must see to it that those in the ignorant classes are given the necessary instruction either by medical men, nurses, or civic organizations in the principles of health and hygiene. Patriotic duty demands active coöperation with health authorities and obedience to rules and regulations which are the crystallized sentiment of the best scientific minds of the country. Education without health is useless, and education is far more useful than legislation. We have enough laws on our statute books to last for fifty years, but unless we realize that it is necessary to obey these laws and that health is a physiologic function of the community our efforts will be in vain.

ELIMINATING VICE FROM CAMP CITIES

By Major Bascom Johnson,
Director Sanitary Corps, National Army.

The principles underlying and the reasons for the existence of a recreation program are well known to everyone. Every modern, up-to-date municipality has a playground system, and the people have become thoroughly familiar with the reasons why such a program ought to exist in every well-regulated city. The old maxim of "All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy," does not need much change to apply to the troops—that all drill and no recreation makes a pretty dull and, under certain environment, a pretty bad soldier. It seems hardly necessary, therefore, to dwell very much upon the recreation program of the Commission on Training Camp Activities. The program is well developed, is very comprehensive, and runs the gamut from athletic coaches and Liberty theaters inside the camps to recreation and social opportunities in the communities outside the camps. This program is based on the principle that soldiers prefer clean, red-blooded, wholesome recreation to the other things which have usually in the past contributed to their inefficiency.

Let us consider, therefore, the efforts of the commission to remove those sinister influences which, if unchecked, tend to flourish in camp communities. I refer particularly to prostitution and venereal disease. In this crisis which we are facing we begin to realize more and more that the war will be won upon the basis of man power, and that any influence which results in the deterioration of that man power, which loses to us a single soldier unnecessarily from any preventable cause amounts to a crime against humanity. Venereal diseases in the past have been the greatest single cause of such loss of man power, and hence of inefficiency in the army. Philadelphia has recently passed through, or, rather, its officials I might say, have recently passed through an educational process. Philadelphia's officials have had to be shown that vicious conditions in a city are sure to cripple the man power of the army and the navy, and that those conditions cannot be allowed to exist. Many people used to believe that these vicious influences, red-light districts and prostitution in connection with army camps, were either necessary or inevitable, and so we have had to demonstrate that a clean camp city is practical as well as necessary.

No other government in the history of the world has taken the stand on this question that the United States government has taken. The Council of National Defence, with the Secretary of War presiding and the Secretary of the Navy present, in connection with a large number of well-known educators, psychologists, doctors, lawyers and men of affairs throughout the country, who have studied the problem of the social evil, unanimously decided, not by a divided vote but unanimously, that continence for the armies and navies of the United States was a perfectly practical program and the only sure preventative against venereal disease. That pronouncement is revolutionary. It marks an epoch in the history of the governments in the world. It fell to the lot of the Commission on Training Camp Activities to demonstrate that this new principle was a practical principle, that it meant the saving of thousands of troops from incapacitation—that when these soldiers came back to their home communities they would come back clean and would not contaminate society nor bring to their wives and to their children and to their children's children the heritage of an unclean life. That has been demonstrated.

Just a word in proof. Before the war, during the year 1916, the annual venereal disease rate in the army was 91 per thousand. That meant that 91 men out of every thousand in the army had one of the venereal diseases some time during the year. If that rate were kept up during the first year of the war with the 1,600,000 men in the army we should have during that period 145,000 troops incapacitated from venereal diseases. The Surgeon-General's office estimates that the average time during which soldiers so diseased are incapacitated for service is 18 days. That would have meant that 2,620,800 days of training and military service would have been lost to the United States. The Surgeon-General also estimates that 25 per cent of soldiers who contract venereal disease are permanently impaired, not necessarily totally impaired but impaired for the hardest kind of active service. If the pre-war rate of disease had continued, nearly 36,400 troops would have been permanently impaired and unable to perform anything but the lightest form of service. That is more than a division—more than most of our cantonments now have.

As a matter of fact, if the present rate of venereal disease in our armies as a whole is maintained for the balance of this the first year of the war since mobilization, this loss will have been reduced nearly one-half. That means a saving of 72,800 soldiers from contamination; it means a saving of 18,200 soldiers from permanent impairment. When we remember that it costs approximately $5,000 to train, equip and place each soldier in the trenches we can figure the tremendous financial saving alone in such a reduction of the venereal disease rate. The saving of the 18,200 soldiers who would constitute a total loss as far as trench duty is concerned would mean a financial saving of $91,000,000. But the saving in money alone by this reduction of the rate of venereal disease represents only a small part of the saving. Think of the saving in man power and in morale on the side of the army and the saving to society in broken lives and homes wrecked when the soldiers come marching home.

Now, what are the activities of the commission to this end?

We have had to bring pressure to bear on seventy-five or eighty cities throughout this country. I believe the exact number of red-light districts that have been closed at the request, and I may say at the pointed request in some cases, of the Secretary of War or the Secretary of the Navy, is eighty-one. In addition to these eighty-one cities who have wiped out their venereal disease swamps, as we sanitarians like to call them, there are countless others that have inaugurated campaigns of vice suppression. Before the war it was the belief of many intelligent people that the elimination of a red-light district and of vice brought no substantial results, that it only scattered vice into the resident sections of the city. There were not any statistics to prove anything either way because the records in the police departments and the district attorney's offices have never been adequately kept. Now, however, we are able to prove that this kind of a campaign does bring practical results and an immense improvement in conditions.

Before the war there were two camp cities in this country—I will not name them—who were responsible for the highest venereal disease rates among the troops stationed near their borders. One of these cities was responsible for a venereal rate of 250 per thousand among its troops, and the other for a rate of 200 per thousand. A report has just come in from the latter of these cities. This rate of 200 had fallen to 167 in October of this year, after the recreation program which I have described had gone into effect and some results had been achieved thereby. In October we got our law enforcing forces to work in that city. We brought pressure to bear upon the judges, we brought pressure upon the mayor, we brought pressure upon the district attorney, we got the judges to convicting, we provided hospital facilities and quarantine facilities for those afflicted with these diseases, and during the month following that campaign the rate ran down.

Prior to October, 826 men would have been exposed to venereal disease during the following year if the existing rate had been maintained. But by making prostitutes inaccessible by a vigorous law-enforcing and the public health campaign, the rate of exposures to these diseases dropped from 826 in October to 497 in November, showing conclusively that the amount of exposure to venereal disease among troops varies directly as the accessibility of prostitutes to them. This campaign was continued during the following month, so that in January the prophylactic rate had dropped down to 251 per thousand, and during these same months the venereal disease rate dropped 167 per thousand down to 40.5 per thousand. Law-enforcement program against vice, which includes treatment and quarantine of those infected, will produce very remarkable results. This shows what most of us have believed, but have never been able to prove, viz.: that a great many men drift into immorality who, if prostitution and vicious conditions are not thrown in their faces, will not seek them.

That is only a sample of what is going on all over the country today. We have eliminated open vice everywhere so that there are today no cities or towns within five miles of an army or navy station where bodies of men are in training where such conditions obtain. Our end is military efficiency. I think we may fairly maintain that the activities of the commission have contributed in no small measure to that end and that new standards have been set in the government of our cities which will persist to the benefit of the whole nation after this war has been won.

LABOR EFFICIENT

By Hon. Henry F. Hollis,

Member of Committee on Education and Labor, United States Senate.

I was once the captain of a baseball team playing an important series. My side won by a narrow margin. A man who bet on the wrong team said to me, "Those fellows batted harder and fielded better than your men. How did you pull it out?" My reply was, "When we had to have a run, we got it. We depended on fighting spirit instead of percentages."

You cannot win a battle with listless soldiers, or Hessians. You cannot get maximum production with listless workmen, or outsiders. Wages, hours of labor, sanitation, and the rest of it, are important, but they are only batting and fielding averages. We must have enthusiasm and morale, tons of them. We must make the working-man believe that we are really fighting for liberty, and not for profits. Instead of treating working-men like beasts of burden, to be kindly treated and well fed, we must treat them like partners and saviors of the nation.

There really is not much we can do. We shall do well if we undo most of what we have done. To begin with we must make restitution. We must return to labor its stolen property. I do not mean profits. I mean the war itself. For this war is labor's war, and labor knows it. Give labor back its war, and do not worry about any labor stimulant.

The best of us are prone to put on full dress and talk down to labor. We feel that we are broad-minded to notice labor's existence. Labor knows this, and good-humoredly tolerates our weakness. Working-men are better informed than we on the real issues of the day. They know that they can get along without us, but we cannot get along without them. They also know that we are ignorant of this solemn fact.

Labor knows that all we need to win this war is men to fight, property and labor. We need a few super-workmen like President Wilson, Secretary Wilson, Henry Ford, Hoover and Schwab, but we can get along very nicely without the owners of property. If they will not loan us their property, we can take it by taxation. We can conscript soldiers and we can conscript wealth; but the spirit which makes American labor the most efficient on earth cannot be conscripted. Nor is such conscription necessary.

Working-men, including farmers, make up this nation. The rest of us cling on the edges, a paltry handful. By dividing the workers against themselves, we skillfully appropriate the balance of power.

Labor's sons make up the bulk of our army in France. Labor weeps when our soldiers suffer; it thrills when they go over the top. Instead of asking labor to help us win our war, we ought to thank God that labor lets us knit sweaters and loan money to help it win its war. Bear in mind that this is labor's war, not only to make the world a decent place to live in, but to make the working-man's home a decent place to live in.

Cut out profiteering. Stop patronizing. Put a working-man beside every capitalist and college professor on every board. Consult labor frankly and humbly. Follow labor's advice. If your services are of any value, proffer them. Give labor a fair chance, step out of the way and watch the smoke. And save your stimulant for yourself.

THE EFFICIENCY OF LABOR

By Hon. William B. Wilson,
Secretary of Labor, Washington, D. C.

It is my purpose to discuss the subject of the efficiency of labor. But before proceeding to a statement of the policies that are being pursued to attain the end desired, it may be well to examine briefly the background leading up to our entrance into the great world war, in order that we may better understand the policies that should be pursued in dealing with the great problem of labor efficiency.

Our people are a peace-loving people. If they had not been they would not have submitted to the many indignities and wrongs heaped upon them for the length of time they did. We had dreamed of a continuation of peace. We had been inspired by the words of the poet and longed for the time to come

When the war drums throb no longer
And the battle flags are furled
In the parliament of man—
The Federation of the World.

The wage workers of the country were no exception to the rule. In every great convention of labor, resolutions were adopted declaring for the perpetuation of international peace. But our dreams were shattered over night, and against our will and in spite of ourselves we were forced into the great European conflict.

Subtly, the sentiment has been spread abroad that this is a capitalists' war, brought about to enable the capitalistic class to secure greater profits and to still further exploit the workers, and further, that we have engaged in it solely out of sympathy for the Belgians, the Armenians or the democracies of Western Europe. If the purpose had been to advance the interests of capitalists and permit greater profiteering, we never would have engaged in the conflict. Prior to our entrance into the war our manufacturers and business men were permitted to obtain any price for their goods which the necessities of the belligerents in Europe compelled them to pay. There was not the remotest likelihood, as long as we remained neutral, that we would undertake to regulate the profits obtained from belligerents, and the capitalist could have gone on profiteering to his heart's content without interference from our government. But when we entered the war that condition changed.

PROFIT AND PRICE REGULATION

One of the first pieces of additional authority placed in the hands of the President, after the declaration of war, was the power to regulate prices and profits in certain industries, and in addition the war necessities have required the imposition of an excess-profits tax which takes over for the benefit of the government a large percentage of any increase in profits that may be secured, to which was added a very substantial increase in the income tax.

In all the legislation that has been introduced and passed for the purpose of regulating profits, there has never been a solitary line to specify a maximum wage for labor. These facts in themselves, and there are many others of similar kind that might be added to them, demonstrate clearly that this is not a capitalists' war, but a people's war, entered into for the preservation of our institutions.

When the Continental Congress adopted the Declaration of Independence a new principle of government was proclaimed to the world. It said:

> We hold these truths to be self-evident; that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness; that to secure these ends governments are instituted amongst men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed.

Out of that declaration has grown the most perfect democracy that has ever existed on the face of the globe. There has never been any other democracy where the great masses of the people have had a voice in their own government whenever they chose to exercise it, such as exists in the United States of America. If we have not made progress as rapidly as some people think we ought to have made it, the reason lies in the fact that they have not been able to convince a majority of their fellow-citizens that we should move faster. If we have made progress more rapidly than some people think we ought to have made it, the reason lies in the fact that they have not been able to convince a majority of their fellow-citizens that we are moving too rapidly.

From the time that the first strong man or the first cunning man used his strength or his skill to dominate his fellow-men there has been a continuous conflict for the right of majority rule. No portion of the people have had any greater interest; no portion of the people have taken any stronger stand; no portion of the people have made any nobler fight for the establishment of systems of government in which the people would govern themselves, than have the wage-workers of our country and the world. Consequently, the masses of the people, including the wage-workers, have more at stake in the preservation of our institutions than any other portion of our people.

PROVOCATION BY GERMANY

For nearly three years the American government and the American people struggled and prayed that they might be kept clear of this holocaust—this terrible war. As a member of the

Administration I know the sincerity of purpose and strong desire to keep out of the conflict. When in the early days of the war in Europe Germany undertook to sink our vessels without warning and destroy the lives of our people in places where they had a right to be, we protested with all the vigor we possessed. Immediately some of our own people raised objections against permitting our citizens to travel on the seas. They said these people who are traveling as passengers should not be permitted to endanger the peace of the United States. They had overlooked the fact that there could not be any passengers on any vessel unless there were seamen to operate them. These seamen were following their usual vocations in detached floating portions of the United States, and were just as much under the jurisdiction and protection of the United States government as if they were on the mainland, except when the vessel was within the three-mile limit of a foreign coast. We were, therefore, placed in the position of abandoning our overseas trade altogether or compelled to protect our seamen in their right to earn their livelihood in the usual way.

LESSENING OF STRIKES

The first step, then, towards securing the highest standard of labor efficiency was to bring home to our wage-workers the menace that confronted them through the ambitions of the military government of Germany. This, therefore, is the message that has been carried by the Department of Labor from one end of the country to the other. Every mediator, every employment official, every field officer of the department, in addition to a corps of trained speakers, has been carrying the message to the workers of America that this is their war, for the preservation of their institutions, to enable them to continue working out their own destiny in their own way, unimpeded by the mailed fist of the German Kaiser or any other autocrat on earth. Every great labor leader in the country, from Samuel Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labor, on through the list, has been carrying forth the same kind of a message. The result has been gratifying indeed. We have fewer labor strikes at the present time than at any other period within my recollection, notwithstanding the fact that it is the period of the year when strikes are usually most numerous. There is not a solitary strike in the coal industry, in the oil industry, the lumber-ing industry, the shipbuilding industry, the packing house industry, in the steel production, transportation, telegraph or telephone systems of the country, and only a few strikes of very minor importance in the textile industry, metal trades, munitions factories, and all the other productive enterprises.

In speaking of strikes it is a very common practice to assume that the workers are always responsible for the stoppage of work, and yet strikes are simply the result of disagreement. The employer will not permit the employes to labor upon the terms they propose, and the workers will not work upon the terms the employer proposes. A strike, then, is the definite result of a disagreement the responsibility for which rests with that party whose position and claims are wrong.

LABOR'S PART IN THE WAR

Since we have engaged in the war it becomes incumbent upon us to win the war, and while we may make mistakes, while we may from time to time meet with disaster, there can be but one ultimate outcome and that is victory. Under former methods of waging warfare, an army, even though it might be an army of invasion, very frequently lived upon the country through which it was campaigning, supplied only with arms and munitions as the product of the labor of a comparatively small number of people at home. The warfare of today is entirely different. The man in the trenches is all-important. He is making great sacrifices and taking great risks. We are proud of him. But the man in the shop has also become an important factor in carrying on modern warfare, and our industrial problems have become more intense by virtue of the fact that the man in the shop and the man in the field are both vitally essential to the successful conduct of our campaign. The need for military supplies has made the mobility of labor an important factor in military operations. The impulse of every department, board and industrial establishment has been to secure the labor required to increase their productive capacity without regard to its effect upon the industrial situation or the priority claims of their neighbors. That condition is rapidly being remedied through the centralization of the responsibility for the mobilization of labor in the Employment Service of the Federal Department of Labor.

Even those whose prejudices have heretofore stood in the way begin to realize that the problem can only be efficiently handled through a common policy emanating from a central directing head. The great increase in the need for skilled workers in shipbuilding plants, munition factories and similar institutions has reduced temporarily the standard of efficiency. It cannot be expected that the partly skilled or unskilled man can perform skilled labor with the same accuracy and rapidity that it can be performed by skilled men. Whatever decrease in efficiency has occurred in these industries is principally due to the fact that the dilution of skilled labor has been extremely great. To meet that problem the department over which I have the honor to preside is seeking authority from Congress for the organization of a division or bureau which will handle the entire subject matter of labor dilution and training, securing as far as possible the coöperation of the manufacturers in their shops, and the trade unions in such modification of their apprenticeship rules as may be necessary to meet the conditions confronting us.

Another important problem growing out of the concentration of large numbers of additional workmen in shipbuilding and munition-manufacturing communities, is the insufficient supply of proper housing for the workmen. Ordinary investment capital cannot be induced to build houses that may not be needed when the war is over, and the highest standards of efficiency cannot be obtained where proper housing facilities do not exist.

LABOR TURNOVER

The turnover of labor in our country is tremendous. In normal times it is nothing unusual to find establishments where the turnover is 200 per cent or 300 per cent per annum. That naturally reduces efficiency. There is not only the loss of time incident to the change of men, but no man can be thoroughly efficient on his job until he has become familiar with his machine, his shop, the characteristics of his shopmates and foreman, and the hundred and one other details that go to make up the sum total of his shop surroundings. The turnover is the individualistic strike. It represents the unorganized workman dissatisfied with conditions, or the organized workman unable or unwilling to interest his fellows in a collective protest. It produces in the aggregate very much more loss of time than is involved in all of the strikes of trade unions or spontaneous collective protest. The remedy lies in correcting the evil that results in such tremendous turnover. The lack of housing facilities has increased the movement of workmen from job to job so that there are some instances on record where the turnover has been as high as 100 per cent per week. No efficiency can be obtained under such circumstances. Fortunately, Congress now has the matter in hand and the likelihood is that within a short time proper housing facilities will be provided for our workmen in the war industries.

Many well-meaning individuals are continually advocating an increase in the number of working hours per day as a means of securing greater production. In some lines of activity that might be true, but in the usual processes of labor where the physical or mental strain is heavy and continuous nothing is gained by an abnormally long working day. Men must set their pace in accordance with the length of time their activities are to continue. A sprinter may run a hundred yards in ten seconds, but he would not think of such a pace in starting on a ten-mile hike.

Last summer a suggestion was made that the anthracite coal miners and operators agree to a restoration of the nine-hour workday during the period of the war, with the hope that thereby the production of coal might be increased. I investigated the subject matter at that time at the request of the Council of National Defense and found that the anthracite coal miners produced 2.9 per cent more coal per day per man in an eight-hour workday in 1916 than they had produced in a nine-hour workday in 1915. In normal times there is of course more to be taken into consideration in determining the length of the workday than simply the amount of work that can be endured and maintained from day to day by the workmen. But even in these times when the all-important question is the maximum of efficiency it is folly to increase the number of working hours when no greater production can be secured thereby, and the only effect is to create dissatisfaction in the minds of those who toil.

To summarize, then, the highest efficiency can only be obtained by the proper treatment of the workmen, the proper planning and management of the work to be done, the intelligent mobilizing of the workmen, efficient means of training the partly skilled and unskilled in the work they are to do, complete provisions for sanitation and safety, comfortable homes, and a working day sufficiently short to enable the worker to return to his work on each succeeding day fairly refreshed for the task he has to perform. And more important than all of these is the spirit of coöperation of the man who believes he is being justly dealt with.

THE THIRD LIBERTY LOAN

May I not in conclusion say a word about the third liberty loan bond issue. Those who subscribe to it are making in reality a double investment. Billions of dollars are needed for the prosecution of the war, but only a comparatively small portion goes towards the payment of the soldier. When money is raised by taxation or by bond issue the great bulk of it goes back immediately into the channels of commerce for the purchase of supplies for the army. The business man or the workingman who purchases a liberty bond is receiving interest upon an investment that keeps him in continuous employment. But that is only the selfish side of the question. Behind it all is a sentiment, and men will do more for a sentiment than they will for all the material things on earth. Our boys in France are sacrificing their lives for a sentiment. Surely, then, we can sacrifice a few of our dollars to furnish the finance to conduct the war. The man whose income is meagre, and who at best can only purchase a small amount, may think that it is not worth while. I am reminded of the fable of the great drought that extended over the land. The crops were drying up and withering for want of rain, and a little drop up in the rain cloud sympathized with the farmers and their possible loss from the failure of their crops, and it said to one of its neighbors, "I would gladly go down to help the farmer out, but I am just one little drop, and my moisture would be of no value to him." One of the other rain drops said, "That is very true. Your going down alone would be of no value in helping out in moistening the soil for the good of the crops, but if we all go down, a multitude of little drops, we can help out." And they all agreed and they came down in a beautiful refreshing shower, and spread over the land. The crops were revived and were saved for the harvest. And so it is with the workers of our country. The amount that any one can contribute is but a drop in the aggregate that is necessary, but if all cast in their drops together the amount that would be contributed toward the liberty loan would be valuable to our country in its hour of need. It gives courage and confidence to the fighting forces at the front and makes it forever impossible for the mailed fist of the Kaiser to impede the progress of our free institutions.

LABOR POLICIES THAT WILL WIN THE WAR

By V. Everit Macy,

Chairman, Shipbuilding Labor Adjustment Board, Washington, D. C.

Modern warfare has discredited all prophecies. Difficulties that were foreseen have been met, even when considered insurmountable, while others that were never considered as of military importance have been most difficult of solution. Among these is the mobilization of industry, which we all see now is as essential as the mobilization of the army, for without industrial organization at home, an effective army cannot be kept in the field. The foundation principles of modern industry are competition, and supply and demand. Modern warfare at once sets aside competition, for government needs immediately take precedence over those of the private consumer, while at the same time through restrictions on imports and exports the usual balance between supply and demand is destroyed.

The mobilization of an army is a simple task compared to the mobilization of industry. The principles of military science have been studied for generations and as the methods of warfare have changed, thousands of trained men have studied the varying problems and developed their plans to the smallest detail. Not so with industry. Two years ago no one in this country had given the matter a moment's thought. Now we find that to maintain a mobilized army we must mobilize an industrial army ten times as large. In the fighting army each individual is trained to his particular duty and knows just where he belongs, but in industry few are trained and each worker follows his own choice or chance occupation. War also disrupts normal industry by shutting off employment in certain trades and creating abnormal demands in others.

The most disturbing factor, however, is that of private interests. In peace times, the employer and employes are free to protect their respective interests as they may see fit without much regard to the public welfare. The consequence is a constant state of more or less acute industrial warfare. When, as during a war, the very existence of the nation is at stake, all causes for domestic strife must be eliminated. Only by substituting the national welfare for self-interest can the nation develop its full power. Our government has had to face an enormous task in creating almost over night, new industries on the largest scale, extending others, and gradually discouraging those that are non-essential. This has meant the shifting of hundreds of thousands of workers from one industry or location to another. This change has been accelerated by the self-interest of the employer and of the employe. The employer has offered higher wages to attract not only a sufficient number of men to his plant, but, if possible, the best men. The same self-interest has naturally led the workers to seek employment where the highest wages were paid. As a consequence, all industries have suffered from an enormous increase in their "labor turnover." It has not been unusual for a plant to change half its force in one month. Another equally important cause for this instability has been the introduction of tens of thousands of green men into industries with which they were totally unacquainted and for which they were perhaps unfitted.

Usually the employer and employe can be trusted to represent two divergent points of view, but when the government is either the sole or dominating customer and pays the increased wage, the financial interests of employer and worker are more or less the same. This is particularly true where the only competition is on the part of the employer to get enough men to enable him to make a good record and complete his contracts on time. There are many forms of government contracts, but those in which the contractor is paid all costs plus a 10 per cent profit have tendered to aggravate the situation described above.

As a people, we have resented any government interference into what we considered our private business, and what we do not as yet fully realize is that when we are at war the life of the nation is at stake, and in such a crisis every act of every individual is of national importance, and becomes the proper business of the government. Local pride, craft pride, personal ambition, local, craft and plant customs, sectional and industrial prejudices must all be ignored if they stand in the way of the adoption of a national policy. Before labor can be mobilized definite standards must be developed. The necessity of centralized control for war purposes has long been recognized, yet only recently have the Allied armies been placed under one commander-general. After months of delay all purchases of supplies for the United States as well as the purchase of many articles for our Allies have been centralized in the War Industries Board. We are spending many billions of dollars on war contracts and of this stupendous sum at least half is paid out in wages. We have standardized and fixed prices for our raw material supplies, but are only just realizing that we cannot mobilize labor without standardizing conditions of employment and wages. Under war conditions there is practically only one employer and that is the government. The manufacturer, for the period of the war, is merely the agent of the government. He either negotiates with the government for a satisfactory price for the use of his organization and his plant, or he takes a contract like any agent on a commission basis. Under these changed conditions there is no occasion for any strife between employers and their employes where government contracts are involved. The government must determine policies to be followed by both employers and employes.

I do not for a moment mean that labor should be conscripted, for that is unthinkable where private profit is obtained from human labor. The time has come, however, when the government must say to employers, "If you take a government contract you must take it upon such and such terms. In this emergency all skilled mechanics must be used, whether they are union or non-union men; you cannot discriminate against either, you must pay them certain wages and you can work them not more than sixty hours a week." The welfare of the nation demands that the standard of living of our people must be maintained while we are fighting for democracy, and their health and efficiency must not be destroyed by excessive hours of labor. At the same time, the government must say to the workers, "The nation requires the best you have, regardless of whether you are a member of a union or not. We do not tell you where you must work, or at what trade; make your own choice, but wherever you work these are the wages you will receive in your particular craft and these are the minimum and maximum hours you will be required to work. Your interests have been protected, for the wages and conditions have been fixed only after careful investigations in which your union representatives acted in coöperation with representatives of the government."

In order to fully protect its citizens the government also says that through the Labor Department it will have made careful studies of any changes in the cost of living and readjust the wage scale in proportion to any increase that may take place.

If we are to have the same experience as other warring nations, as time goes on government contracts will require the full capacity and energy of the nation, and private contracts will play a small part in industry. So far the government has been feeling its way in this untried experiment of mobilizing labor, and the result is still chaotic. Six or eight various departments have each followed their own particular method of dealing with labor questions. As a rule, so-called boards having limited powers have been created within each department, such as the Army, Navy, Shipping Board and others. These boards are composed of government representatives and representatives of organized labor. The result has been that no definite standards have been set and these departments, as well as contractors, having both government and private work have been allowed to bid indiscriminately against each other for men, causing a rapid increase in wages; but what is more important, this lack of method has seriously reduced efficiency by creating an abnormal "labor turnover." Manufacturers state that it requires much time and costs fifty dollars to break in a skilled mechanic to a new position, so one can imagine the loss of time and dollars that is going on daily, owing to the fact that thousands of men are being enticed from plant to plant or industry to industry.

An example that has come to my attention recently is this: by much effort and expense three hundred boiler makers were taken from some non-essential trades near St. Louis and sent to shipyards at Seattle. They were only there a few weeks when inducements were offered them to leave and go to St. Paul to work on refrigerating machinery. Railroad efficiency is being rapidly reduced by the men in their shops being drawn into other industries while highly skilled men in certain textile mills having government contracts were taken away by companies manufacturing talking machines, owing to the higher wages offered. Such methods only add to the confusion. They do not increase the number of skilled men available, but they do seriously destroy all efficiency of production. The workers become dissatisfied and restless and drift from plant to plant trying to improve their condition. In times of peace under normal industrial conditions this is harmful but in time of war it may become fatal to the national cause. Neither contractors nor workers are to blame for the condition. The forces at work are too large to be handled by any individual or association. The government of the United States is the only agency with sufficient power to deal with the problem. The longer it is allowed to run unchecked the more difficult will be the task of mobilizing industry.

All government departments and contractors must come to approximately the same wage scale for the same service, if we are to have any stability in industry during the war. The War Industries Board will be forced to cut off all supplies to private manufacturers who exceed the wage scales set by the government boards. Over the various departmental boards there should be one supreme board to lay down general principles and conditions for the guidance of the inferior boards so that uniformity in decisions may be brought about. Such a supreme board could also act as a board of appeal from the decisions of the departmental boards.

There is one other piece of machinery which is now being developed and which must come into general use before labor can be properly mobilized. Secretary Wilson, through the Department of Labor, is opening federal employment bureaus in many places. These must be rapidly extended and all employers must be required to apply for workers to these bureaus, and all those seeking positions must be compelled to register at the bureaus. As long as private employers are permitted to arrange with men to leave their jobs and come to them, they will continue to raid each other's establishments notwithstanding agreements to the contrary. It is only through such public employment bureaus that labor can be properly distributed and a surplus in one place shifted to supply the shortage in another. Promiscuous advertising by employers in newspapers in distant cities is no guarantee that the men may not be drawn from equally important industries or that those who answer the advertisement are skilled in the trades required. A large number of men may respond to an advertisement when a comparatively small number is needed, thus increasing the present faulty distribution of labor. These federal bureaus can be in touch with conditions in all parts of the country and in all industries. Agents can be sent out who can examine the men, properly classify them, and see that they are taken from only non-essential industries. Such bureaus will prevent the loss of much time by men seeking employment, and do much to properly distribute the skilled labor required.

To sum up, there are two forces, at present, working against the mobilization of labor; first, the competitive bidding for labor by governmental departments and private contractors, doing both government and private work; second, the unequal and poor distribution of labor. These two difficulties can only be overcome by the patriotic coöperation of plant owners and works; first, in assisting the various government labor boards in establishing a national standardization of wages, hours and conditions, thereby removing all inducements for changing a place of employment; second, in encouraging and supporting federal labor employment bureaus, for the proper distribution of labor throughout the nation. Unless these means are taken, labor cannot be mobilized, and without stabilized labor, industry cannot be mobilized.

The views herein expressed are the result of eight months experience in attempting to adjust wages, hours and conditions of employment in the shipyards. We have heard the employers and the men from practically all of the one hundred and thirty yards, from Bath, Maine, to Houston, Texas, and from Los Angeles, California, to Seattle, Washington. We have inspected many of the largest yards. We have found human nature about the same whether we were dealing with representatives from the Atlantic, Pacific, or Gulf coasts, or whether it was a shipyard owner or a representative of the workers, who came before us. We have not been surprised, therefore, when our decisions have frequently been as forcibly criticized by one group as by another. We have been described as anarchists, capitalists and theorists. We soon learned, however, that "adjusting" did not settle the problems presented to us. To meet the situation, standards had to be "fixed" and made to apply universally over a large area. This has finally resulted in our establishing only two scales of wages, with merely slight differences, one for the Pacific coast, and one for the Atlantic and Gulf coasts. Our greatest difficulty has been to get people to think in national terms instead of local, in terms of industry instead of the point of view of their shipyard or their craft.

To win the war we must forget many of our peace traditions and prejudices, and fearlessly adopt war measures. Above all, we cannot hesitate to act because we are afraid of what may happen after the war. If we do not win, there will be little left to strive for. To win for democracy, no price is too high, and no sacrifice too great.

HOW ENGLAND MEETS HER LABOR

By Mrs. J. Borden Harriman,

Advisory Commission, Council of National Defense, Washington, D. C.

In fighting for democracy abroad we are gaining two of the biggest democratic principles at home. The first is the recognition of the rights and dignity of labor, and the other is women's freedom, because never before have we so clearly realized that the output of the machine is just as essential to victory as the gun at the front; and for the first time in the world's history mankind is looking to women to do specific and concrete tasks that are constructive as well as preventive. Every avenue of work is now open to women, and not only that but the whole world is expecting women to do that work well; for the first time women in industry are occupying just as dignified a position as men in industry.

p3. Substitution of skilled labor for unskilled, or women taking the place of men, has not as yet come into as common use here as it has in England, and probably never will because of the fact that there is a much larger percentage of men to the population in this country than in England. At this moment 1,413,000 women are replacing men in industry in England in three kinds of substitution. One is direct substitution, where women replace men directly (this is not very common in skilled trades); and the other is indirect substitution, where women replace unskilled or partially skilled men so that they may be released to take the places of skilled workers who are called to the colors. In the latter case the women are generally lost sight of because of the attention concentrated on the skilled workers.

Then there is what is called group substitution, where a group of women take the place of a smaller group of men with a re-arrangement of the processes. Women, with the help of improved automatic machinery, are able to do the work previously done by fully skilled workers. This is the most important means by which the labor of women has been introduced in England.

Processes are greatly modified in some cases. If a woman, working a machine next to a man working a similar machine, is not getting equal pay for what seems to be equal work, one is told that the process has been modified so as to suit the woman. During the war women have been brought into many processes which before were deemed unsuitable for them.

We have much to learn from the splendid precautions that have been taken as to the health of the workers in England, but those precautions were not taken at first. England has learned through experience that it pays better for the nation to conserve the health of her workers than to work them too long hours and at dangerous trades without proper care.

I went to several filling factories while in England and remember one that impressed me a great deal because it was the first one I had visited that consisted of a number of small houses, with only six or eight people working in each. They are separated from each other, so that in case of an explosion the whole factory is not endangered. These factories are all divided into what are called clean and dirty areas, and the houses are connected by wooden walks, which are the clean areas. When a visitor arrives he is required to go into the dressing room of the dirty area and leave his boots and put on shoes which are provided, so as to avoid taking out any of the dust which might be picked up on the floor.

These women workers are really in danger just as the men at the front are, especially those working in the T N T factory. Each factory has a hospital, and we saw in the wards persons in different stages of T N T poisoning. In the early days of the war it was very difficult to recognize T N T poisoning, and sufferers would very often be well advanced in the disease before they were taken care of, and in most cases it was too late to do anything for them so that they died in a very short time. Even now the medical profession is divided as to how the disease is contracted. One school in England thinks it is from absorption through the skin and another thinks that it is breathed in, but still they are watching the workers so closely that the percentage of deaths has been cut down very largely. The tetryl poisoning, which is not a severe disease and very seldom causes death, produces irritation of the skin and great trouble with the eyes. Great care is also taken to prevent this form of poisoning, and the workers are made to cover their faces with a lotion before they go into the rooms where they handle the tetryl powder. I am told there are by far fewer cases of illness from that than formerly on account of the care taken.

When England first went into the war she had no conception, as we all know, that it was going to last more than, perhaps, a few months—that was her optimistic hope. A great number of workers were therefore thrown into towns where after a short time there was no possible way of taking care of them. They could not find rooms, and great hostels housing 600 and 800 and a thousand girls at one time were built. In many places those hostels are still in use. But the members of the Ministry of Munitions said to me over and over again, "Do when you go home impress on your nation that we made a great mistake, also that the chance of building up communities was lost and that those hostels are not satisfactory. The girls don't like them; it is not a good way to care for the girls. Beg your people not to build them."

On the border of Scotland, there is a big city ten and a half miles square, where they have almost attained perfection in housing the workers. They have built little brick houses where eight and ten girls and a matron live, and they are perfectly happy and contented. They have also done what I hope so much we will try to do here, and that is they have made a community centre, where a man when he is tired after working can go and get his bath, read his book in the library or go and play games. Everything is under one roof, instead of being spread about, as is the case in so many of the garden cities in England, with a bathing establishment in one corner of the town and a library in another and a schoolhouse in another, and so on.

There is much to learn from England, but more than anything else, more than the great welfare department can teach with all its statistics and the splendid work that the welfare supervisors are doing and have been able to do—more than anything else is the spirit of England that is behind all the work that is being done by all the men and women. The spirit of the Tommies, the endurance of the Tommies, is one of the most extraordinary things of this age or any age, but it is in no way greater or more admirable than that of the women—the women, who in so many cases have lost every one in the world who belonged to them, and who have submerged their personal feelings into the great sea of their country's need—thousands and thousands of them who go out every morning and sometimes every evening into the factories, into all kinds of work all over Great Britain, and thousands and thousands of them over in France helping the work of the army—these women who are living every day in dread of what the day is going to bring to them.

I stayed in one factory a little while with the Welfare superintendent, where 25,000 women are at work making big shells and Horwitzer guns, and during the hour that I spent in the Welfare manager's room there were three women who came in, in turn, in great distress and each of them went up to the Welfare manager and whispered to her. She afterwards said to me, "Those women are asking for two days off. They have just told me that their son or their husband has gone West and they want two days to themselves." She said, "They are but a part of the steady stream that is coming all the time—it never stops, it is unending. In the two years and a half that I have had charge of this work at this factory I have never known one of these women to ask for a longer time or ever make a bid for sympathy of any kind.

Those women and the men too are living today in London under the most distressful conditions. They are living in the constant dread of air raids, which are very discouraging and not in the least attractive. In the west end of London one has every comfort, but in the east end of London, after an air raid there seems to be nothing but carnage left in its wake,—poor mothers and their little dead babies and people who in great illness and weakness have had to be dragged from their beds and taken down into the underground railroad or to some place for shelter, some of whom have contracted pneumonia because they were not fit to go out at the time. This is what follows in the wake of an air raid.

In the factories the women on the night shifts are taught when they first come in what to do in case of the alarm of an air raid. This winter there were weeks together when the alarm of an air raid was given practically every night. A great many nights they did not come quite to London and they did not drop bombs, and the Home Defence did not make the dreadful noise, the continuous noise which I heard there one time for four hours without stopping with the shells dropping in the streets. It is quite as dreadful, and even more alarming than the sounds of bombs dropped by zeppelins.

These women are taught to gather in groups of ten or twelve and each group has a leader. Then they are marched out of the factories into a kind of underground tunnel that runs alongside of the wall. There is just room enough for them to stand up, and if they are very tall they sometimes find it more comfortable to lie down. Very often during the summer time a great many of them fall into a faint due to fright. One of the Welfare managers told me they had found that to prevent fainting and hysteria among the girls, to have them sing hymns was very often effective. This is the way they spend their nights.

Very often men and women coming to and from the factory are struck by pieces of shrapnel and killed or maimed. A man said to me the other day, after I came home, "I have just had a letter from my wife. We have five children, and the other morning about twelve o'clock my wife was giving some orders at the market in the village, and as she looked out the window she saw four zeppelins sailing toward the house. We live on the road to London. Suddenly she remembered that four of the children were out of the house. The baby is very young, so he was safe; he was indoors. After the raid took place and bombs were dropped in that neighborhood, the children could not be found and brought in until the raid was over, and then they discovered that out of the four only one had been wounded. His shoulder and his arm were wounded so that he will probably be maimed for life." This husband is a newspaper man over here now. They are not people of means and they have no cellar to their house, and cannot afford to move, so the mother now lives in daily dread of the return of the zeppelins, and wondering if her children will be safe while going to school or going about.

Then too, the population of London is completely underfed. On my last visit toward the middle of March there were many people of my own class who told me that they went to bed hungry at night. That sounds like an exaggeration, but it is not.

On all sides one hears the most pathetic tales and sees the most pathetic sights in England today just as well as at the front, but what I want you to realize most is that those women and those men over there are simply war weary, and though some people have called it pacificism, I feel assured after spending some time in London that it is just war weariness—that these people have a spirit that is so beautiful that it is beyond words to express; that they are standing with their shoulders to the wheel; that they are standing fast behind their government and that every single, solitary woman and man in the whole of England, from the little girl of twelve or fourteen wearing her brown cotton smock and running on errands as a messenger for the government departments, is organized today for war, and that is what we must do in this country.

"BUSINESS AS USUAL"

BY EDWARD A. FILENE,

Boston, Massachusetts.

The certainty of victory and the length of time it will take to win it will to an important degree be determined by the extent to which the American people are willing to economize in personal expenditures. "Business as Usual" is a bad *war* policy, a bad *business* policy, and a bad *labor* policy. It distorts the nation's perspective and postpones the day when we shall see, to the last man of us, that the one business that now matters is winning the war and organizing a durable peace that shall give free and fearless play to the creative and constructive energies of the world. The restriction of personal expenditures to necessities will enable the country to concentrate its entire productive power on the things essential to winning the war. I am profoundly convinced that in making this statement I am true, not only to the best interests of my country, but to the best interests of my class—the business men of America. War will produce more business than economy will curtail.

On May 31 of last year I gave to the press a statement along these lines. The statement evoked from some quarters criticism as bitter as the agreement with it in other quarters was pronounced. Succeeding events have confirmed my belief in the soundness of this statement. I was not *then* in sympathy with such appeals as were being boldly spread broadcast urging people to keep right on spending as usual and branding economy as a sort of business treason. I am not *now* in sympathy with the more subtly written advertisements which, while seeming to take into account the demands of war time, nevertheless dull the edge of the appeal being made by our government for thrift and economy. I do not for one moment think that such appeals are in many cases prompted by selfish motives. There is no class of men who, in my judgment, are more ready to make patriotic sacrifices than business men.

The campaign for "Business as Usual" was launched at the beginning of the war by men who sincerely feared that widespread economy would cripple the war power of the nation by cutting down the volume of business, reducing the demand on producers, throwing men out of employment and disturbing the business and financial morale of the country generally.

But events are illustrating daily better than any arguments can prove it, that a "Business as Usual" policy will prolong the war and hamper the fighting effectiveness of our nation every day it is practiced. Business has but one job today and that is doing the thing that will bring victory at the earliest possible moment. And business cannot serve two masters. Even before our entrance into the war our productive capacity was taxed to the limit. We simply cannot fulfill all the added demands of war and at the same time satisfy all of the appetites of peace. Our job is the business of war—not business as usual.

War demands not only an organized army but an organized nation, and both must be organized to the same end. The entire United States must be organized into a combination of factory, training camp and shipyard. And every day that unnecessary private demands for luxuries and those things which common sense people know are not necessary for their every day lives prevents our factories from being converted into war supply plants, and diverts labor from war essentials to non-essentials, by just that much postpones a satisfactory ending of the war.

England went about business as usual at the beginning of the war. After a long period of wasted blood and treasure and tragic inefficiency, she learned her lesson. Through government action, England's business has been divided into two classes—essential and non-essential. Notice was served on almost all non-essential business that it must move up into the essential class. The volume of English business has not been decreased but it has been directed solely to the job in hand.

Upon our entrance into the war, England and France sent her commissioners to tell us, out of their experience, how to avoid the pitfalls that beset a democracy going to war. We dined and applauded these distinguished guests, but the finest appreciation we can give them is not to let their counsel go by default. The question America faces is just this: Shall the *voluntary economy* of the people make it possible for all American business to become essential business, or can that end be reached by *drastic government action* only, and after a long period of wasted life and money and needless inefficiency? We have enormous resources, but they are not infinite. We must now examine all production and distribution in the light of its ultimate contribution to the winning of the war. If business becomes a slacker through holding on to non-essential production and selling, it will have to be *conscripted* for essential service.

Some business men who, at the beginning of the war, urged business as usual did it from the fear that if personal economy were preached by the rank and file of business men, the habit of restricted buying would get abroad so rapidly that the retrenchment would force a readjustment so quickly as to spell disaster. I did not then and do not now share that fear. The public cannot be converted over night. In the main, prosperity or adversity, much buying or little buying, are not controlled finally either by campaigns for economy, or by paid advertisements urging business as usual. They are caused in the main by natural economic laws. Preach economy as vigorously as we may, we can be sure that the public will move slowly enough to prevent a panic in readjustment.

I emphasized this point in the statement which I made last May—the soundness of which seems to be borne out by the present statistics and estimates regarding our savings. A recent study of Government Loans and Inflations by Howard S. Mott, vice-president of the Irving National Bank of New York says that:

> Our gross annual income in 1917 totalled about fifty billions of dollars. Out of this total, it is estimated that our savings ranged from six to ten billion dollars. . . . . It would be surprising if the figures of gross annual income of all savings in 1918 should equal those of 1917. Certainly it does not seem safe to count on normal savings this year of more than six billion dollars. *Especially does this seem to be true considering the inadequate scale on which individual economy presently is practised. The only way in which total savings can be increased lies in the direction of unusual efforts to reduce consumption.*

Mr. Mott also points out that the second liberty loan cannot be said to have been paid for out of current savings. He says:

> During the period when subscriptions to the second liberty loan were being taken, the banks provided an easy method of subscribing by making loans secured by the bonds as collateral. Up to date, a comparatively small proportion of those loans has been reduced or paid for. When the loans were made, the expectation was that reductions in amount would be made fairly rapidly out of future savings, so that the total would be dwindling to small figures before the next bond issue should be made. It now appears that we shall enter the campaign for subscriptions to the third liberty loan with a considerable volume of such loans still outstanding.

If the space permitted, I could bring together numerous quotations from the most conservative of our business men that indicate an increasing realization of the fact that the concentration of our productive energies upon the supply of war needs and the sound health of our financial life can be secured in one of two ways only: either our business will be redirected to the production and sale of essentials by the voluntary and gradual economy of the people, or it will have to be done later by increasingly drastic methods of government control.

The one thing that will break the vicious circle of war taxes, luxury and waste, rising prices, reduced governmental purchasing power, and back again to more taxes or bond issues, is sane economy on the part of every American. Thus economy not only adds to the war power of the nation but lightens the burden of taxes to the individual.

Some of the men who have preached "Business as Usual" have based their appeal partly upon the fear that economy would throw many people out of employment. Some had visions of hundreds of salespeople being thrown out of our big stores, skilled workmen searching for jobs—in fact labor in general demoralized. But the facts to date prove that there is more than enough work for all. With the prospect of two to five millions of men being withdrawn from business and industry for the army and with the enormous added demands for war supplies, the outlook is that our problem will not be finding jobs for workers, but finding workers for jobs. And just here, this brief statement of mine touches the issue of labor efficiency. Reduced to the simplest terms, labor efficiency in war time means three things:

It means the releasing of labor from all non-essential jobs for work upon war materials.

It means the squarest of square deals for the workmen who are turning out our war materials.

It means the stimulation and conservation of labor efficiency by every practical means.

From the employer's point of view, that means an adequate system of employment management which shall see to it that the conditions under which men labor, the length of hours they labor, etc., shall be such as will conduce to the maximum of content and efficiency; it means mutual fairness of counsel between capital and labor in the adjustment of wages; and it means a sense of dedication to a great end both upon the part of employer and employe.

In the appeal I have made for economy and in the attempt to show the fallacy of business as usual in war time, I have concerned myself with the one thing outside of drastic government action which, in my judgment, will make possible the release of workers from non-essentials for work upon war essentials. But aside from all these reasons, a rigid regime of economy will do this notoriously wasteful nation a lasting good. It will do democracy's wilful stomach good to go on a war-time diet. It will reduce the waistline, clear the eye, and harden the muscles of the nation. We have the chance to shift our whole national life from an extravagant to a healthy and sane basis at the time when government demands will make up for the curtailment of individual expenditure, and thus prevent business disaster.

The time has come when the government also should face the situation more boldly. When it is clearly shown that any type of business is depriving the country of materials, supplies, labor or transportation needed for winning the war, then the government should stop such business unless it can be transformed so as to deal only with essentials.

Of course, in all this throwing of our nation into a war machine, in all this giving of war demands the right of way, certain individual businesses must of necessity suffer, just as in the army certain individual soldiers must be wounded and certain soldiers make the supreme sacrifice.

But such business suffering should be reduced to a minimum. In such cases justice demands that fair compensation should be made to the owners, who, in the pre-war period, invested their

capital and time legitimately and who ought not to be made to bear alone the burden of an unforeseen governmental requirement which is needed to win the war, and is, therefore, of the utmost use to all our people.

However costly such compensation may be, I believe that careful analysis and experience will show that it will result in a net gain to all concerned. With this measure of justice added to the inherent patriotism of our people, the cry of "Business as Usual" will wholly disappear and be replaced by "Winning the War for Lasting Peace—Our Only Business."

THE MAINTENANCE OF LABOR STANDARDS

By J. W. Sullivan,

American Federation of Labor.

However brief, any discussion of standards of wages, hours and work-place conditions would be incomplete without some consideration of the economic influences determining those standards. It may not be difficult to form an abstract opinion as to the lowest general level which standards ought to reach, but there will remain the trouble of particulars.

That in practice there should at least be a living wage, general sentiment will usually concede, but discussion by the buyers and sellers of labor power will grow heated as to the point at which the wage rate falls below the living line as well as to the point at which the wage must mount with the profits of the employer and the skill, habit and expectation of the various classes of wage-workers concerned.

The hours of the workday in any occupation, civilized society holds, should not be so long as to wear out working men, women or children, but while physiologists, and sociologists in general, bring forward facts to show that the eight-hour day in the course of the year results in fewer accidents, a larger output from the factory, and a less general wear and tear on the workers, the arguments supporting these points do not deter a large body of employers from insisting upon the ten or twelve-hour day.

Work-place conditions may be studied, either with the purpose of making them fair from the union point of view or of improving them through the benevolence of welfare effort, yet on the whole there may remain serious neglect by employers of industrial and structural safety, fire prevention, injurious exposure to dust and fumes, and the baneful effects of bad sanitation. Neither reasoning as to social good nor agreement on ideal standards succeed in practical application as against the contrary influences of unfavorable economic factors.

In all industry, second to the production itself, the factor most important in settling standards is the supply of labor. That part of the employed class having a voice in the social management of labor—the organized—strives to prevent competition when there is a surplus. The employer bent upon breaking down standards established by trade unions finds reasons for doing so both when there is an oversupply and a scarcity. So far as he can, when there is a surplus, he plays the unemployed against the employed, and when there is a scarcity or alleged scarcity he pleads it as an excuse for opposing established union regulations and suspending protective labor laws, for cheap labor he must have and there is a reservoir of it in young children, poor women and half-taught mechanics.

A year ago the Council of National Defense and its Advisory Commission jointly approved of a resolution relating to labor standards that had been adopted by the Executive Committee of the Council's Committee on Labor, which found it necessary ten days afterward to issue an amplification of the terms of that resolution. In the words of the resolution, the call upon the council was to "issue a statement to employers and employes in our industrial plants and transportation systems advising that neither employers nor employes shall endeavor to take advantage of the country's necessities to change existing standards." In the amplification, it was believed "that no arbitrary change in wages should be sought at this time by either employers or employes through the process of strikes or lockouts without at least giving the established agencies, including those of the several States and of the Government, and of the Mediation Board in the transportation service, and the Division of Conciliation of the Department of Labor in the other industries, an opportunity to adjust the difficulties without a stoppage of work occurring."

These expressions of the Council of Defense had some good effects, but strikes and lockouts occurred during the year and serious apprehension of them continued to be entertained. New declarations of duties under the war emergency, and extended machinery by which the duties might be carried out, were called for. After conferences by officially appointed representatives of wage-payers and wage-workers, the President this month approved of the creation of a National War Labor Board and outlined its powers and duties. As recommended by the conferees, the first principle to be observed, applicable "in fields of production necessary for the effective conduct of the war, or in other fields of national activity in which delays or obstructions might affect detrimentally such production," was, "There should [should—not shall] be no strikes or lockouts during the war." While recourse for conciliation and mediation was to be had mainly through the machinery of the Department of Labor, the same as under the resolution of the Council of Defense of a year ago, the rights of the two sides were more explicitly recognized and the powers, methods and functions of the new board were fully described.

In substance, the main objective, the foundation principle, in the action on the matter of standards by the Council of National Defense of a year ago and by the War Labor Conference Commission of this year was the same, "There should be no strikes or lockouts during the war." The year has witnessed no change in the principle, though more minutely described provision is now made for the mechanism of its operation. Improvement may be expected through the largely increased functions of the Department of Labor and its connections throughout the country, and of the railroad and other labor commissions now established, but experiences of the year justify a suspension of entire confidence in every probability of faithful observance of the principle by those employers who have been accustomed to seek profit in either labor surplus or labor shortage and to oppose the standards of organized labor.

From the principle that there should be no strikes or lockouts arise obligations to both the sides immediately concerned. The first obligation is to acknowledge clearly the principle in the words in which it was formulated. Then that principle imposes on the employers the obligations, first, of maintaining at least the level of prewar real wages; secondly, of restricting the hours of the workday, especially for women and children, to a duration which will not result finally in social injury; and thirdly, of establishing the workshop conditions now commonly recognized as requisite for human beings.

The last year has its lessons in respect to evasion of these obligations. To begin with, the principle, "There should be no strikes or lockouts during the war," as announced to the American public in the press publication of the resolution of the Council of National Defense, was distorted in many newspaper headlines by variation on the words "Gompers Promises There are to be No Strikes During the War." The twist thus given to this step for industrial peace gave discouragement to the organized wage-workers and hope to the employers opposing them. The opposition employers' army of manœuver, whose leaders build up influences intended to bear finally upon standards, were given a good start in a new attack on the standards already established, largely through the trade unions. Of course President Gompers would not and could not make the promise attributed to him, but it took months of explanation in many interviews and much printed matter to set aside the erroneous interpretation of the Council's action and labor's agreement therewith.

The next and most important manœuver of the Black Horse Cavalry of the employers was to impress upon the general public the belief that there was a scarcity of labor and hence a necessity, on the score of patriotism, to suspend laws and customs protective of labor, including the labor of women and children. Editorial articles innumerable were published assuming the labor shortage, usually containing no facts in proof of the assertion.

The industrial labor supply situation was, in brief, this: there was some scarcity in branches of production having their origin through the war and in districts drawn upon by munition plants or army and navy construction work, reducing in certain regions the average yearly general unemployment, but at the same time there was an enormous country-wide displacement of labor in occupations detrimentally affected by the war. An unjustified farmers' labor panic was spread over the country as a sequence of the shortage cry, a situation speedily followed by preparations for supplying farm labor made by the Departments of Labor and Agriculture, by state and municipal labor and other agencies and by numerous local organizations which adopted methods suitable to the emergency. In so far as any operators of general farming reduced their working acreage as a result of that panic it was due to the false or exaggerated alarm of labor shortage, the promoters of which in that work gave help to the Kaiser.

In some dark corners of the woods the impression still prevails that there is throughout the country an insufficient industrial labor supply. The continued scarcity of labor agitation was accompanied by demands from employers, singly or in groups, for the abandonment of the eight-hour workday; for the suspension of laws relating to working hours of women and the working age of children; for the employment of women in men's occupations, and for a widespread dilution of skilled by unskilled labor. For a time many employers seemed to think it was only necessary to apply to the Council of National Defense for a removal of legal labor restrictions to have the request granted. Bills for the suspension of labor laws were introduced in the legislatures of several of the leading industrial states —New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Illinois. But eventually the fact of the persistent unemployment and distress among hundreds of thousands of the wage-workers of the country could not be gainsaid. The employers' army of manœuver on that point at last failed.

Another move was the assumption that a *status quo* had been agreed upon in the resolution of the Council of National Defense, with the interpretation that among other activities organization should be suspended by the trade unions. No such term occurred in the resolution or its amplification; no such thought was expressed when either was considered in the Committee on Labor; and no such idea was accepted by the trade unionists. In joint meetings since, wage-workers have been obliged many times to convince the wage-payers' representatives of these facts.

Under their *status quo* thrust it was taken for granted by anti-unionists that there was to be no attempt by unionists at organizing non-unionists or at employing the usual methods for making effective any demands for union standards. The trade unionists were obliged to put an end to these claims.

There are to be noted other modes of attack by the anti-union employers who have steadily assailed organized labor at various points on its front lines. At the present moment there is clamor for the conscription of the labor of the towns to be seen "idling" at the places where young men who are not members of clubs congregate.

The fate of these men is hard; their community, which does not provide them with work, threatens to punish them for having no work. There is also a "must work" movement, effective through statutory law. The state, which provides no work, tells the citizen that he must report weekly that he has worked. "No strike" laws are debated in the legislative bodies. He who has had no work, but who has been obliged by law to work, must surrender his right not to work, no matter how intolerable the conditions. When certain union carpenters recently found work in shipyards they were refused employment, and when their proper official demanded that shipyards should not be closed to union men, the press speedily made him an unpopular national character. Then the President appointed him on the War Labor Board, wisely.

The "turnover" and the "try-out" statistics of the last year are astounding. The wage-worker who cannot find work at his own occupation and has been hastily turned over and heartlessly tried out a dozen times at strange and difficult work, often with no shelter and on Chinese grub, and who has spent his savings travelling from place to place seeking work, and finally goes to his home town to feed up, is told he ought to be conscripted or be made to report to the authorities that he has done the week's work he could not find, or he ought to go to jail.

The fight against union labor in the courts has continued. Against dissenting opinions the principle has recently been established by a court decision that employers may take away from workers the right to associated action; that wage-payers may declare that wage-workers cannot obtain employment unless they sign away their legal and social rights; and that when workers sign away these rights the right of association is barred them forever.

These are mere glances at some of the economic influences which bear upon established standards. Anti-union employers are interested in creating or strengthening those influences, to which in the end, if they prevail, fair employers in general must give way.

It is well for this country that our government in its wisdom has decided to accept for its work the standards, and their interpretations, that are quite uniformly upheld by those whose lifework includes a study of the welfare of mankind, and not the standards of those to whom the labor question is subordinate to the declaration of dividends.

Public clamor is daily stirred up against the strike. It is only reasonable to recall to mind, once in a while, the injustices, the hostilities of opponents, the acts bordering on treason, which drive organized labor to that last resort, the strike.

No other plan for the stimulation of labor efficiency equals fair treatment of the wage-worker. The American workman may be trusted to do his best when justly paid, when not "all in" two hours before quitting time, and when his employment is in a tolerable environment. Give him these desiderata and he needs no preaching on his duties. He will join heartily in studies of reasonable efficiency, he will on call jump into the trenches or tackle the worst job in any unavoidable heat, dirt, noise or danger. He will heartily join the lookers-on in the shouting not only for patriotism but for industrial peace.

PROBLEMS IN INDUSTRIAL MOBILIZATION

By H. G. Moulton,

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The war has developed no more interesting and no more perplexing problem that that of the non-essential industry. From the very beginning two schools of thought have vied with each other: the one has urged that if we are to prosecute the war successfully we must practice the most rigid economy, not so much for the purpose of enabling us to buy bonds and pay taxes as to release the labor power and the machine power ordinarily devoted to the production of non-essentials and to enable such productive energy to be diverted to the creation of the indispensable materials of war. The other school has contended that, while some readjustment of industry is doubtless inevitable, such readjustment should be reduced to a minimum in order that the wealth-producing capacity of the country may be adequate to the requirements of war finance. It appears like an axiom to people in this group that since taxes must be levied and liberty bonds purchased, the more *all* businesses prosper—pay good wages and yield large profits—the more effectively will the nation be able to pay the cost of the conflict. The membership of the first group consists of the United States Treasury Department and most of the war organizations in Washington, practically all the economists of the country, many prominent men in all walks of life, and a few of the newspapers. The membership of the second group comprises, or has comprised until very recently, a large percentage of the business men and the influential press of the country.

The purpose of the present paper is to indicate the causes for the fundamental differences of opinion that prevail. In brief, it is believed that the causes lie (1) in the camoufleurant nature of the monetary organization of society; (2) in the distance from the scene of conflict; and (3) in the complexity of modern industrial society.

DOMINATION OF THE MONEY IDEA

Since April, 1917, the American people have faced a veritable barrage fire of argument—both verbal and written—designed to show that wars are won by money and credit. "Money, more money and still more money," said Napoleon, "are the three prime necessities of war." "Dollars will defeat the Kaiser," has been the dictum of the hour. It was hardly to be expected that the rank and file of speakers among the Four Minute Men would be able to distinguish between money as a means to an end and money as an end in itself; for amateur economists have argued that a prolonged war requires the gradual conversion into liquid credit instruments of all the wealth of the nation both in its circulating and durable forms;[1] and even some professional economists have been much at sea in connection with the potency of credit as a means of war finance. It is the very general assumption of the American people that money will buy anything. As a metropolitan newspaper declared about a year ago, "No one need ever have any fear of a food shortage for money will always buy food." Similarly it was assumed that if the government had money, no one need ever have any fear that it would not be able to obtain the requisite supplies somewhere. "Money will always buy supplies."

Of course, the effective answer to this notion that money is the thing of predominant importance is to be found in the statement of the Treasury Department early in December that although the government had two billion dollars to spend for war supplies in the two months of October and November, it was able to spend less than one billion dollars for the reason that the supply of available materials was thus limited. The figures made public by the War Department on January 31, 1918, show that exclusive of loans to our Allies the government planned to spend during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1918, $12,316,000,000, but that it had been able to spend in the seven months from June 30, 1917, to January 1, 1918, only about $3,150,000,000.[2] In seven-twelfths of the year the Treasury had spent only three-twelfths of what it had planned to spend. With unlimited money and credit at its disposal the government could not buy the supplies needed for the simple reason that not enough energy had been devoted to their production. Money (the excess money) was a drug on the market, impotent as an instrument of warfare.

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[1] *See* A. D. Welton, *Saturday Evening Post.*

And yet despite these lessons from the past few months the oversubscription of the third liberty loan is looked upon by the rank and file as one of the greatest achievements of the war to date; it is celebrated by the blowing of horns and the ringing of bells and by great parades throughout the country. What is in fact one of the easiest of the problems associated with mobilization for war is thus regarded as the paramount task of the nation. And it is of course now generally assumed that all that is necessary for us to do in the coming months is to spend our time in making more money to the end that the next liberty loan may likewise be fully subscribed. The almost universal confusion of money with wealth, together with the incessant emphasis on the government's need for money, has served to draw a veil over the real requirements of effective warfare.

Now if instead of living in a highly complicated industrial world dominated by money and profits, we were still leading the simple life of the primitive community which supplies its wants by direct processes, I think we would have realized immediately upon the outbreak of the war that we could not fight a powerful enemy effectively and at the same time devote nearly all our activity to ordinary business and pleasurable pursuits. We would have recognized that our main energies must be absorbed in the actual fighting and in furnishing the materials and supplies necessary for effective warfare. It is only under a regime of money that the real essentials are concealed.

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[2] The evidence is reasonably clear that the Treasury Department did not fully appreciate the difficulties of spending the money raised. During the first nine months of the war the Treasury Department proceeded on the assumption that all of the money that could possibly be raised should be promptly drawn to the Treasury. In many instances the sweeping of the market clean of investment funds hampered essential lines of industry. This was unnecessary in view of the fact that the government raised more revenue than it could immediately use. In other words, there was not a proper coördination of income and outgo.

If a campaign of education had been inaugurated early in the war similar to that carried on for propaganda purposes, we might by this time have had a real appreciation of the fundamental industrial requirements for war and of the precise role which money does play in connection with the mobilization of our resources. The experiences through which England passed were on record and available for our use. The war savings campaign in England during the third year of the war had been conducted quite as much to teach the masses some simple principles of war economics as to raise revenue through the sale of savings stamps. True, within recent months we have had our own war savings campaign, and with succeeding bond issues emphasis has been shifted more and more to the importance of economizing. But during the first six months of the war veritably nothing was done along these lines and during the second six months there was accomplished only a tithe of what might have been achieved by a really thoroughgoing campaign of education.[3]

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[3] It is interesting to note in this connection that it was not until May, 1918, that the Council of National Defense would indorse a thrift campaign. It is significant also that for more than a year after the outbreak of the war, the Commercial Economy Board stood for business substantially as usual, holding tenaciously to the idea that the business fabric of the country could be maintained and that the excess production could be obtained through the introduction of economies in commercial lines. The impossibility of rapidly introducing improved methods during a period of general disruption, coupled with the dearth of scientifically trained men capable of introducing the economies, is sufficient to render this method of obtaining the additional supplies required, an almost negligible factor,—negligible, that is, when one thinks in terms of billions of dollars of supplies. The impotence of the measures of such organizations as the Commercial Economy Board to accomplish large results, may be seen from the recommendation to shoe manufacturers in April, 1918, that in order to save capital and materials for war uses, women's shoes should be confined to five colors and in no case exceed nine inches in height measured from the breast of the heel,—and this at a time when many women's organizations were demanding simplification of styles.

MISJUDGMENT BECAUSE OF DISTANCE

The second cause of misunderstanding of the situation is the great distance from the battlefield. If we had been in France in August, 1914, when almost over night three-fourths of the laboring population of France between the ages of eighteen and forty-five were called to the trenches, we would have readily understood that it would be impossible to resist the Germans successfully while carrying on normal occupations as usual. With the enemy at the gates it was easy to understand that business must be adjusted with the single end in view of repelling the invader.[4]

England, across the channel and hence safe from immediate invasion, long held to the notion that she could have business and pleasure much as usual and at the same time crush the military power of a nation that had organized all its resources for the purpose of war. There was the excuse for England that she was mistress of the seas and could hence export in great quantities non-essential products of her own manufacture and import in exchange munitions and other materials of warfare from the neutral world. She could also purchase on credit enormous quantities of supplies. It was eventually revealed, however, when the drain on England's labor power became severe, that she must borrow all she could from the neutral world and devote her domestic energy as largely as possible to the creation of war supplies. The war demand for steel, copper, lead, wool, leather, khaki, and certain kinds of foods has proved so insatiable that the productive energy of both belligerent and neutral countries was required in their production.

If England was misled, it is little wonder that the United States, from three to four thousand miles from the scene of battle, should fail to understand at the start that industrial reorganization must go to the very foundations of our national life. We have hoped that the war would soon be over; we have been told that our Allies need credit and we have assumed that this involves on our part lending them money rather than goods. We had great prosperity in the United States during 1915–16 as a result of European demand for supplies from this country. With both feet in the war, would not this demand obviously be intensified, and would there not, therefore, be greater prosperity than ever in all lines of business? With notions such as these firmly fixed in the national psychology, it is difficult indeed for us to realize what a modern war really means from an industrial point of view.

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[4] So long as France could import heavily from other nations, some of the productive energy could be devoted to the creation of non-essentials which could be traded to neutral countries for munitions and supplies. However, with the whole world at war, and with the shipping facilities tremendously overtaxed, even this ceased to be good economy.

THE COMPLEXITY OF INDUSTRIAL SOCIETY

The third source of misunderstanding in the situation is the complex nature of modern industrial society. The difficulty here may be illustrated by reference to the establishment of the selective draft. Strongly attacked in many quarters as an act of autocracy, when it was first suggested, sober second thought has convinced most of us that the selective draft is the very essence of a democratic as opposed to an anarchistic society. Our difficulty in discerning the true nature of conscription in the beginning was largely due, I believe, to the individualistic organization of a complex industrial society. Under the present form of industrial organization, each appears to be working for himself in competition with his fellows, whereas, in fact, through specialized production and the exchange of products and services, we are coöperating with each other. If, instead of a highly specialized industrial organization based on a system of monetary exchanges, our society were a simple (directly) coöperative frontier community, would anyone have doubted the fundamentally democratic nature of the selective draft? Would anyone have seriously questioned the principle that in fighting for a common cause all must take pot-luck together, that each must stand ready to give his all, as the national requirements should dictate?

In such a simply organized community is it not probable also that as a mere matter of course those not required for the fighting units would have been assigned to their places in the industrial organization back of the lines? Is it likely that civilians would have been permitted to follow their normal pursuits when such normal occupations were at direct cross-purposes with the necessities of the community as a whole? With the industrial needs clear to every one is it not altogether likely that those persisting in non-essential pursuits would have been pilloried in the same fashion as the cowards and slackers?

It is only in a complex industrial society that one could hope to find the anomaly of liberty loan speakers urging the most rigid economy on the part of all classes with the double purpose in view of obtaining heavy subscriptions to the loan and of reducing the demand for, and hence the production of, non-essentials, and the priorities committees and the War Industries Board in Washington making plans for the curtailment of non-essential production, while manufacturers and merchants everywhere are working directly against the government by elaborate and skillful advertising of non-essential commodities. Liberty loan booths are surrounded by tempting displays of luxuries designed to lure unsophisticated women to purchase commodities with which they could perfectly well dispense.[5]

ESSENTIAL AND NON-ESSENTIAL INDUSTRIES

There is a disposition in many quarters to look upon those who stand for business as usual as deliberate enemies of the cause or at least as persons who put their own private interests above those of the government. Much study of current arguments on this subject and much discussion with individuals directly involved in the non-essential industries have convinced me that there is relatively little of this deliberate selfishness in the situation; it is mainly misunderstanding. Of course it is human nature to hope against hope that one's own particular occupation may not have to be foregone; and the wish is usually father to the thought that such occupation is really essential. This leads at times to most amusing discussions of what is and what is not essential.[6] For instance, a manufacturer of cosmetics stoutly insists that the proof that his industry is a necessity is found in the fact that women will forego food in order to buy face powder. It is also widely believed that there is sufficient productive power in the country to take care of the normal production and war production in addition. Even so recently as April, 1918, at a big salesmen's conference in Detroit, only three people could be found who would admit that there was not enough productive energy in the country to supply both the needs of business and war.

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[5] Examples of deceptive advertisements might be cited by the hundreds. Some of them almost overtax human credulity.

[6] There has moreover been a strange hesitancy on the part of the governmental agencies to face squarely the defining of non-essential commodities. Merely because there are difficulties involved does not mean that there is not a large list of commodities which may be set down as non-essential for war purposes. The problem that the government has to decide is, however, after all, not as between essential and non-essential, but as between more essential and less essential; and when full priority is given to the more essential commodities, the less essential ones are eliminated, thus proving that they are in fact non-essential. It is interesting that at the very time when governmental agencies refuse to decide what is non-essential they expect the rank and file of uninformed consumers to exercise discrimination in purchasing, to the end that capital may be diverted from non-essential lines. Fortunately, every time a priority decision is made the government does have to distinguish between more and less essential commodities.

The newspapers have been the subject of no little discussion in this connection. It is urged that at the very time that they are preaching sacrifice and the loftiest ideals of patriotism in the editorial columns, they run advertisements which urge the purchase of all sorts of non-essential commodities, advertisements which are in many cases so palpably in opposition to national policy—such as long woolen socks for men in civilian occupation,—that no one could plead as an excuse, ignorance of the results of such advertising; and they refuse to print articles or advertisements which preach the doctrine of economy.[7] We should not belabor the newspapers too strongly for these practices. The newspapers after all belong to the class of essential industries; they merely are unfortunate in being financially dependent upon the advertisements of those engaged in non-essential industries. Refusal of non-essential advertisements means for them financial bankruptcy and hence inability to render service which is of paramount importance to the government.

METHODS OF EFFECTING INDUSTRIAL REORGANIZATION

Although the need for industrial reorganization has now been clearly established in the minds of the governmental agencies, the question of methods of securing such diversion of energy is still a debatable one. There are three methods, not mutually exclusive, of securing diversion from non-essential industry to war production. The first may be called the saving method, the second, the priorities method and the third, industrial conscription, or selective recruiting of manufacturing establishments.

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[7] I know of one metropolitan newspaper company that recently paid five hundred dollars in damages for failing to insert, after a contract had been drawn for such insertion, an advertisement containing only official statements on the need of economizing.

Those who urge saving as the method by which the diversion should be accomplished usually fail to realize that such a method is both slow and unscientific. It is slow because it is indirect; it will gradually succeed in forcing business establishments in non-essential lines into bankruptcy, but it does nothing toward pointing the way for such establishments into war industry. It is unscientific in that it does not involve any exercise of selection in the particular types of non-essentials which can best be dispensed with and of the particular establishments in any given line of industry which can be dispensed with most easily and which at the same time can be most readily adapted to war production. The saving method forces out first the marginal business man and it is probable that this business man will not be the one who could most quickly adapt his establishment to the manufacture of war supplies; in fact, it would more likely be the case that the very lack of enterprise, organizing ability, vision, what not, which caused him to be a marginal producer will result in his floundering about for an indefinite period; and this is of course accompanied by much unemployment and social unrest. Under such circumstances the process of saving, that was merely begun when this manufacturer was forced out, finds fruition only indirectly, in the creation of new industrial establishments by other business men—new industrial establishments which require much time in the building and which involve heavy initial cost in the way of labor and materials;—establishments, moreover, which can be of little, if any, use after the war is over. The priorities method is superior to the savings method in that it may select for discontinuance first those lines of industry which are least essential and those particular establishments in any given line which may most quickly be converted to war production.

The third method, that of conscription, or selective recruiting, merely involves carrying the second method a step further and having the government take the initiative in determining what establishments in any given line should be devoted to the production of particular war supplies. It not only quickly reduces the production of non-essentials, but it adapts those establishments with a minimum of loss to the owners or of unemployment for the workers to the creation of war supplies for which they are best suited. At the same time it enables the war supplies to be produced with a minimum of additional capital goods, thus saving the enormous costs involved in new construction itself, as well as the waste entailed when the conclusion of peace destroys the demand for war products. This method of converting selected plants has thus the combined advantage of speed, economy of labor and materials during the war, and the minimizing of difficulties during reconstruction. Selective industrial recruiting and the application of priority rulings are now being rapidly perfected and it is probable that the major portion of the industrial readjusting in the coming year will be accomplished in these ways rather than by the indirect method of individual retrenchment of consumption.

It is interesting that we should have been so timid in this country, particularly in view of the success of the introduction of the selective draft, in adopting a policy of industrial conscription or recruiting. The suggestion of industrial conscription appears to have been strongly opposed owing to the fact that the term early applied to both labor and capital. Indeed, many who use the term apply it to labor alone. Now "conscription of labor" meets with overwhelming opposition on the part of the labor organizations of the country. But although labor objects to being conscripted into private industries that are earning war profits, it would not seriously oppose conscription into government industries. It is possible, moreover, that if conscription had been applied months ago to capital, that is to factories and workshops of every description, the labor organizations would not now so seriously object to compulsory change of employment. And it should be recognized, also, that if factories are first conscripted, conscription of labor would hardly be necessary. Labor will not long hesitate, with erstwhile employment in non-essential industry gone because of closed factory doors, in accepting remunerative jobs in beckoning war industries. With effective labor exchanges and adequate housing facilities in the seats of war industry, voluntary enlistment of labor in the industrial army may be considered as a foregone conclusion.

We have spoken of closed factory doors; but it must be borne in mind that a selective recruiting of factories for war occupations does not mean the closing of factory doors in most instances. It means an adaptation of that factory to war manufacture, thus giving continued employment to its laborers; only a minimum of labor shifting is thus required. Selective recruiting of the factories for war service meets with virtually no opposition. The evidence is overwhelming that business concerns are eager to respond; they need merely be shown in what ways they may be of service and guaranteed minimum returns for their efforts. A selective recruiting of this sort does not imply commandeering of private wealth; it is not un-American. It means merely that the government gives to certain business men the opportunity and the honor of rendering service in the common cause of humanity. American business men are every day demonstrating their willingness to sacrifice present lines of business provided they are given prompt opportunity to render service to the country. It is time that we generally recognize that this country does not shirk responsibility. It is time that we cease hesitating to disturb normal pursuits by governmental action; for they will shortly be more seriously disturbed by the unorganized and undirected economizing of the consuming public. Fortunately in the reorganized War Industries Board, machinery is now being rapidly developed for accomplishing by intelligent social direction what would in any case eventually be accomplished by unintelligent, undirected and time-consuming individual retrenchment.

STIMULATING LABOR EFFICIENCY IN WAR TIMES

BY RICHARD A. FEISS,

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To face the situation involved in the problem under discussion we must have hope, but unfortunately, I fear we have a tremendous lot of unpreparedness. Seriously speaking and quoting one of my friends, who I believe is as close to the heart of the industrial situation in America as anyone, "We are facing within the next three to six months what is likely to be a crisis that means win or lose—not at the front, but here at home in the industrial world." That situation is arising from the lack of appreciation of what has gone before and from the want of any appreciation of the fact that every element, including above all that element known as the labor question or the industrial question, is the very essence of the mobilization of those forces necessary to win the war.

To solve these problems it seems to me they must be approached from two specific directions, and I will try to touch upon some of the things that have appeared to me as being more or less material to the solution of these problems. These two points of view are—first, the point of view of education, and second, that of organization. There must be a distinct program both as to education and as to organization to solve the question involved in the stimulation of labor as an essential to the accomplishment of our purpose in this war.

From the point of view of education, you have perhaps heard a very good church member and high type of business man, riding on the street car, boast rather proudly of the fact that he had escaped the notice of the servant of the public service corporation and got by without paying his fare. That is a strange philosophy, or at least there are strange moral standards involved in that little incident that, through the process of greater contact with the government become developed, and, unfortunately, over-developed in times of this kind. It has been sad, although interesting, to see how the community at large the minute it comes in contact with the government loses a certain amount of moral stamina and becomes more or less unscrupulous, or at least, shuts the right eye when the left hand is acting, in connection with transactions which involve profit and which involve, on the other side, the government.

We have heard so much about labor and capital that it has become one of our trite subjects. We have talked so much about the possibility of their coöperation—probably because we felt, or at least because the public to such a great extent felt, that there were two distinct sides in a great controversy over one thing or another, either time or wages, or just things in general, because it seemed to be part of the game to be at odds. We have between these "arch enemies" of old, when it comes to the question of working for the government, a sort of a silent unconscious pact, and that silent and unconscious pact implies the same silent and unconscious condonance that the one fellow has who has stolen the ride for the other fellow who would like to. Both employer and employe have put into the situation this peculiar moral status, or rather lack of it, which at this time, when the government must obtain necessary supplies regardless of the cost, has been taken advantage of in order that both employer and employe might profiteer.

I could quote from my experience in Washington a number of specific instances where employes are doing work on government contracts similar to that which they do on civilian work, and they are demanding and receiving wages from 100 per cent and 200 per cent greater than demanded on civilian work. Now, if it were civilian work the employer would be at odds with the employe, but not so on government work. The employer knows that the profit he is paid by the government, in some way or other, even if it is at a set price, is figured on the basis of a percentage of the money he has expended in either materials or labor or both. Consequently, the higher the cost of labor—being labor employed only for the period of the war—the greater the profit to him.

That may be a new point of view, but one would be surprised to know how universally this exists. My point of bringing it in here, beside as a matter of interest and beside being one of the many complications that have arisen, is that it directly bears upon the question of labor and the stimulation of labor. There has been a stimulation through this unconscious pact against the government between employer and employe—a stimulation not to greater effort but to greater wages. This constitutes a great part of the problem that has to be solved in the near future both by education and organization.

The attitude that I have illustrated by reference to the public service corporation, or latterly by the attitude toward the government's work, is and must be solved first by a process of education. We must get better morals in order to win the war. The same process of education is necessary as, for example, in regard to liberty bonds. The fact is if you do not buy bonds, your money will be taken away from you by taxation. The government must have money. The spirit toward subscribing must be one not of feeling pride in having given, but feeling it rather as a duty unperformed if you have not given.

Education has to go even further. It has to go to employers employing every man and woman in the United States in a matter relating very vitally to the achievement of industrial stimulation—namely, every man and woman has to learn that sacrifice means sacrifice in every respect. No man or woman can expect to have a wage and income that will rise in proportion to the cost of living. It is useless to fool yourself, whether you are capitalist or laborer, that your income can keep apace with the increased cost of living during the war. You and I, and everybody, must out of the value of his own dollar pay part of the tremendous cost of this fight, and that is another thing that has to be attained by education.

Now, to touch briefly upon organization, I will say that there are two sides to organization. One is the fact that in order to win the war every private industry and every private activity in a community must be organized on the most sound basis in order to solve the questions involved. Now the question of labor stimulation starts at home, and labor stimulation must be along lines which have been developed and principles which have been proven by our foremost industrial organizations and industrial leaders. These principles have been accepted by the labor organizations in England, which have gone direct to the mat with their former prejudices and have adopted the things that were fought and are still being fought in America, such as the application of scientific standards and many of the other means developed under so-called scientific management, which must be applied in order to set fair standards and fair methods of stimulation. We have not learned that yet. The questions of fair wage and of proper hours—the latter to be determined scientifically—must be solved.

I will give just one example of the question of wages that has to be solved by a process of organization. In the Joseph & Feiss Company, of which I am a member, this problem has been under consideration for a great number of years, and it is believed that, together with others, we have developed what is going to be considered the proper plan in this emergency, and if it is the proper plan in this emergency, it will be in the future. The question of stimulation depends upon housing, upon such conditions as are called welfare conditions, but also and all the time, upon wages and the methods of applying and solving the wage question. Now the particular method I speak of comes down to the question of an analytical solution. The wage scheme that I wish to mention considers the wage as a reward for different elements constituting the value of a worker. What is there that should be stimulated in a worker by means of wages? Those things must be separated and paid for separately and distinctly. For instance, our workers are paid for output, a man in the office, a man in an executive position and a worker at the machine, are paid for output by one of two methods. The operator on machines is paid for his output in accordance with the scientific task and piece rate system where the tasks or standards are set by scientific methods and based upon analysis.

So, in another position, in the office, or executive work, output, or the performance of duties, is measured by analysis of the job, and the setting up of standards and wages are periodically adjusted in accordance with individual performance. Other things are paid for separately, such as attendance. An organization is worth nothing unless the steadiness of the workers can be relied upon, and the stimulation of output depends above all things upon the saving of time that is unnecessarily lost either by unscientific methods or by lack of steady attendance. That is the other great element to be paid for, and that particular element is paid for by us by bonus. Likewise, there is a loss of bonus for lack of attendance.

The other paid element is for general steadiness or the length of service, and this very directly affects the problem of labor turnover. The greatest economic loss today in the industrial world is the shifting of labor from one employment to another. It is a great loss to the employer and the employe, and the morale of the whole community is affected. I will say that our plan for payment for continuous service which gives to a man, whether piece work or day work, a distinct payment for length of service, means a step in the right direction. A separate bonus is paid him day by day and increased every year on the anniversary of the date of his employment until he has been thirty years in our employ. This can be invested separately or put in a savings fund that will make a pension for him greater than any pension system I know of without any mutual bearing of losses.

Now, this I am giving merely as an example to show how in my opinion human nature must be stimulated to greater effort. The public must tackle this proposition from the broader point of view, taking into consideration all the elements involved. That broader point of view is to my mind the most democratic one. We cannot have a board for this and a board for that and the one competing against the other in this emergency, as we have now. We have to do the same thing to win the fight at home as abroad.

The most democratic institution in this fight for democracy has been the selective draft. Regardless of where you stand on the theory, regardless of who you are, if you are fit to fight you are put where you belong. We have been told that ten men are needed—and I think that is a very small estimate—for every man at the front, and the great solution to my mind and one that will be the greatest democratic move on record, is the conscription of every man and woman in the United States who is able-bodied and able to do his or her share in the right place for the war in the right way. Unless we make moves in this direction we cannot win, and the solution depends upon the philosophy or the sentiment, guiding us as a nation and the leaders of our nation; and the whole thing resolves itself purely and simply into the question of whether the men who are elected and chosen to represent the people, as executives, administrators or legislators, take the point of view that they are mere servants and followers of the people or whether they are their educators and leaders.

HOW THE PUBLIC SHOULD PAY FOR THE WAR

By Irving Fisher,

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There are many popular fallacies as to the ultimate source of funds for paying for the war. In the first place, there is the "business as usual" fallacy, one which is fostered today by propaganda on the part of those special interests that do not wish to retire in favor of the public interest. It is perfectly natural that a manufacturer or vendor of superfluities should in a time of war resist sacrificing his business, especially if others around him lack patriotism and set him a bad example, but it really makes my blood boil to see the efforts that some of the big interests in this country, that I might mention by name, are making to befuddle the public on this subject by telling them that the way to finance this war is to keep their business going so that they can subscribe to liberty bonds. In other words, if we pay them $100 they will pay $5 to the government. Of course if we paid our $100 to the government in the first place the government would be $95 better off than if we support somebody in order that he may subscribe.

There are two ways in which we subscribe to liberty bonds, or two ways in which we pay our taxes. One is the right way and the other is the wrong way. The right way of subscribing to the liberty bonds is to sacrifice in some other expenditure in order to buy them. If, for instance, we give up the purchase of a pleasure automobile and put the same sum that we would otherwise have put into the purchase of that automobile into the purchase of a liberty bond, we have done our duty in the full sense of the word, because we have not only given Uncle Sam the funds but we have gotten out of his way in industry, and the same labor and capital which would have made my pleasure car will make a motor truck. But if we decide that we will not give up that pleasure car and at the same time think that we can be patriotic without any sacrifice, and subscribe to liberty bonds by going to the bank and saying, "Here, I have not got the money; I am not willing to give up my pleasure car but if you will lend me the money I will lend it to Uncle Sam;" if, in other words, we lend by borrowing, we cheat ourselves by the thought that we are really helping to finance the war. In a sense we are, and if there is no better way we must do some borrowing in order to lend. If, however, we do this without any thought of sacrificing from our consumption, without any thought even of paying up our debt at the bank afterward, by following our subscription by saving if the subscription has not been preceded by saving, we are doing very wrong. And if we comfort ourselves with the thought that, as the advertisers say, we ought to encourage the making of pleasure cars and keep business as usual, we are guilty of a fallacy as well as a lack of patriotism.

The consequence of this act of subscribing to liberty bonds and at the same time not giving up our pleasure car is this: that when the government has the funds with which to buy the motor truck and attempts to buy it, it finds that the same labor and capital which ought to have been released to make that motor car, is busily engaged in making my pleasure car. In other words, while I go through the motions of giving over to the government some money, I refuse to get out of the government's way so that the government can get the actual goods, for, in the last analysis, money is merely a cover for goods, and the real sacrifices and the real payments are in terms of goods.

We are trying to provide the soldiers with food and guns and all the other necessary equipment, and in order that these things may be made the great energies of the nation, the productive energies of the nation must be shifted from a peace footing to a war footing. We must reduce the production of pleasure cars, reduce the production of jewelry, reduce the production of all non-essentials for war necessities, and be sure that we have enough energy to produce all that is needed for war. I strongly suspect that one reason why the amount requested for the third liberty loan was so surprisingly small was because we have not been able to devote the productive energies of the country sufficiently to produce fast enough the things for which we are subscribing. If we merely go through the motions of subscribing without really sacrificing, that is exactly where we shall land, and we shall be as helpless as Robinson Crusoe, who found a great store of gold but did not have anything to purchase with it.

When we do that, when we borrow at the banks to lend to the government, the banks merely write on their books a deposit corresponding to our loan. They credit us with a certain amount of money (which is not money but merely a credit), and then we transfer that credit to the government and the government has it, and then the government transfers it to the maker of the motor truck or whatever it wants to spend the money for,—so-called money,—and we have merely created more purchasing power by writing our loan as a credit on the books of the banks; we have really created more purchasing power without creating anything to purchase with that power, so the total volume of goods is the same, not changed even in quality. And when we increase purchasing power in terms of money over goods but do not increase the goods which we are going to purchase, naturally we have a displacement. We have an abundance of purchasing power but a scarcity of things to purchase, so that the price goes up.

The ultimate effect then is a rise of prices, and a large part of the rise of prices which has mystified many people during the war is due to precisely this inflation. It is going on abroad. All the nations of Europe, not excepting England, have been inflating. The issuing of paper money is one way of financing the war, but England has used another way, that just mentioned, of bank deposit inflation. In either case there is an inflation of money or a substitute for money, and prices rise.

The price level in this country rose the moment gold was expelled from Europe and came here. Thus before we entered the war we had been suffering from gold inflation—by gold overflowing from the warring countries into the neutral countries. All the neutral countries suffered from gold inflation—not only the United States but Spain and Sweden and the other neutral nations. Sweden tried to defend itself against this gold inflation by virtually stopping the free coinage of gold, and to that extent she prevented an increase in prices, but in this country prices of wholesale commodities went up about 81 per cent, and of retail commodities about 47 per cent. Now the price level will go up by leaps and bounds as long as this war lasts, to the extent that we falsely finance the war, to the extent that our subscriptions to liberty bonds are fakes—not out of real savings or not followed up, at least, by real savings; and when we increase prices then we enforce saving by the poor, and the war will be financed then by the wage-earner, or more particularly by the salaried man, such as the school teacher, as well as the bondholder and all those who have fixed money incomes. Their money incomes buy less, and, therefore, they will have to go without, because prices being so high and the number of dollars they have to spend being the same, they will not be able to purchase as much as before. Thus they will be forced to sacrifice.

So we see that, in the end, somebody has got to sacrifice any way. It is only a question of whether we are going to do it when we subscribe to liberty bonds or whether we are going to force somebody else to do it for us by the way in which we do subscribe. There is only one way properly to subscribe to liberty bonds or to pay our taxes and that is to earn the money, to save it, to increase the margin between our income and our outgo. There is an enormous possible margin. David Friday has made the best estimate that I know of, and he estimates that there were in 1917 $11,000,000,000 of liquid savings in this country—savings that could be put in any form desired—thrown into liberty bonds, besides which $7,000,000,000, that were not liquid but more or less preëmpted—invested in necessary equipment whatever it might be, making a total volume in savings in 1917 of $18,000,000,000. Of course, no one knows exactly, but David Friday has made the most careful estimate that we have, and that is his result. We must increase this $11,000,000,000, because we are spending more than $11,000,000,000 a year, and all our liquid savings we must put in liberty bonds or thrift stamps or in the war taxes, or in some other patriotic way. Otherwise we are not really properly financing this war, and to the extent that it is financed out of the high cost of living, it is going to create great discontent, and among other things discontent with the war.

Discontent with the war and the German propaganda to undo the morale of this country as in Russia, we must be aware of in this country. One reason, but not the only one, why Russia was so easy a prey to this propaganda was that she financed the war on a false basis. Prices were five to eight times what they were at the beginning of the war, and naturally the Russian people were not very enthusiastic over the effect of the war on the cost of living.

B There is another fallacy that is very common besides this "business as usual" fallacy, that is going about in the place of thrift, and that is the idea that we can put off the payment of this war on to posterity. Some people think if they subscribe to bonds they are making posterity pay. It is ordinarily supposed that the distinction between loans and taxes is just that between paying today and paying later. That is not the case at all. We pay for this war now. We cannot provide shoes and guns and other supplies for the soldiers today from posterity. The cost has to be produced today in terms of goods. It is perfectly obvious that the cost of the war in guns, food and clothes, is a cost today, because if we should wait for posterity to make the shoes and the guns, the soldiers today would not have any foot wear or any means of firing off their cartridges.

The same is true in terms of money. No one will dispute this when we are talking of taxes, but many dispute it when talking of loans. Probably nine people out of ten in this country are under the impression that when the government goes into debt we are simply postponing the payment. So far as the government budget is concerned, that is true, but so far as the nation is concerned it is not true, providing the bonds are held in this country, as they are for the most part. When posterity pays off those bonds it does not pay this generation. It pays itself. It has to tax itself in order to pay itself, and if the subscriptions were ideally distributed, what would happen would be simply that I would have to take out of one pocket a thousand dollars of taxes, give it over to the government, and then the government would give me that thousand dollars and I would put it in the other pocket as payment for the principal of my bonds. Evidently it would amount to the same thing if we simply repudiated the debt, and then I would have taken my money out of one pocket and have put it in the other pocket without having it go through the government treasury at all.

It is very clear that when posterity pays itself it is not making any sacrifice. You might just as well talk in terms of the credits instead of debits involved. You might just as well say that by issuing bonds today, instead of saddling posterity with a huge debt, you are enriching posterity, because posterity is going to get the principal when these bonds are paid. It is exactly as broad as it is long. The only difference comes in the distribution. There will be many who in posterity will take out of one pocket more than they will get to put in the other pocket because their taxes will exceed the bonds that they hold, and the same thing the other way around. It has happened in the past, for instance, that the rich who run the government would buy the bonds and then in posterity would tax the poor, and the result would be that in posterity, the rich would be living on the poor. Today it is almost the other way around. As we are distributing the bonds very widely the poor who subscribe are becoming creditors and, in the future, through big income taxes, it will not be at all surprising to find the rich ones paying the poor.

One difference in paying for the war in taxes and paying for the war in loans is this—when you get a tax receipt you have not a negotiable instrument but when you get a bond receipt for payment to the government you have something that you can use as collateral security at the bank, because a bond dissects out your future right to payment but does not dissect your future burden to pay, making a bond a one-sided instrument. You can use it as collateral security for a loan. Germany has financed the war almost wholly by bonds. That is bad finance for several reasons, but particularly because it tends to encourage the use of these bonds as collateral security for debts and make people less thrifty and more willing to borrow in order to lend.

One other fallacy that I might mention is the idea that if you buy a bond today and then pass it along to someone else tomorrow, say to buy a suit of clothes with it, you have done your full duty. Some merchants advertise the fact that they accept liberty bonds and much is made of the fact that liberty bonds are very salable. It is all right to lay stress on the fact that they are salable but it is all wrong to sell them unless you have to. It is a comfort to know when you buy a liberty bond, that if, later, you get in a tight place, you can sell the bond and get full value for it immediately. Nevertheless, when you encourage the sale of bonds you are fighting the idea of thrift, which is the basic idea of finance. What good does it do the government if I lend it a thousand dollars today and get a liberty bond and then tomorrow sell that bond to someone else for a thousand dollars? I simply carried it for one day and the other person who bought it of me might just as well have subscribed for it in the beginning! He is the one carrying the burden and not I. If we do our full duty we must not only subscribe and not only save in order to make good our subscription, but we must hold the bond to the end of the war.

The upshot of the whole matter is, therefore, that our real part in financing the war is good old-fashioned thrift or saving.

SOME TENDENCIES IN THE FEDERAL RESERVE SYSTEM

By E. M. Patterson, Ph.D.,
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There is no doubt in the minds of careful observers that the first great economic task before the people of the United States today is production. By this is meant not only the raising of agricultural products, the extraction of ores, and the processes of manufacture but also the transportation of men and materials to our seaboard and to Europe. Our second task is to save from our annual production the amounts needed by our Allies and ourselves in the conduct of the war. If we could increase our production by this amount the saving might be accomplished with no curtailment of our ordinary expenditures and with no lowering of our standards of living. Since a great part of the amount cannot be secured in this manner, there must be a reduced standard or we shall not furnish to our Allies the promised assistance. To secure this saving with the maximum of fairness and in a manner that will not lessen our productivity is our second task. The third is to devise the most satisfactory method of transferring to the government the ownership of the wealth that we produce and save. Congress has made unprecedented appropriations, tax legislation has been enacted, and huge bond issues have been authorized. A vast fiscal program has been evolved and its machinery set in motion.

In the midst of these activities stands our banking system, including many varieties of banks but especially the federal reserve banks and their members, which are for the most part national banks. This structure performs numerous functions three of which are of particular concern in this discussion. (1) The federal reserve banks are fiscal agents of our government while both federal reserve banks and member banks are depositaries of government funds. Through them government bonds and certificates of indebtedness are marketed. They are thus an important part of the government's fiscal machinery. (2) These banks issue various kinds of money for use in the community. From the national banks come the national bank notes and from the federal reserve banks the federal reserve bank notes and the federal reserve notes, while on the deposit liabilities of all of them are drawn checks and drafts—the most important part of our currency. (3) These banks directly and indirectly make loans to private individuals and corporations, furnishing the financial aid required by our business institutions.

IMPORTANCE OF THE BANKING SYSTEM

This paper attempts to analyze the influence of this banking system in performing the three great economic tasks mentioned. Primarily the system is concerned with the third, assisting in the transfer to the government of the ownership of our wealth, but in doing this it may exercise a very important influence upon the other tasks in which we are engaged—the production and saving of wealth. Although only a device for facilitating transfers of wealth, it may greatly affect our whole national budget. A powerful banking machine will either help us to mobilize effectively our economic power, encourage production, stimulate saving and thus increase our wealth for war uses; or, improperly utilized, will retard production, discourage saving, encourage extravagance, and prevent our acquiring the funds we so much need.

The federal reserve system (a term which may be used to include both federal reserve banks and member banks) exists primarily to aid commercial banking as distinct from other financial operations, particularly speculative and investment banking. The national banks have always been restricted in their functions, not being allowed to own or deal in stocks, to acquire real estate (except for their own accommodation in the transaction of business), nor, except to a very limited extent, to lend on mortgage security. Even bonds may be acquired by them only because of a somewhat technical interpretation of the national bank act and, until 1913, savings accounts were not legally authorized. National banks are expected to specialize in commercial banking. Their customers are for the most part the business men of the community who are concerned primarily with transferring goods from producers to consumers. Accordingly their funds should not become imperilled in speculative operations nor be invested in transactions from which they cannot quickly be withdrawn. In other words, the assets of any bank must be safe but those of a commercial bank must also be liquid, *i.e.*, easily converted into cash.

Under the national bank act there was not the desired liquidity and the entire system lacked elasticity. To remedy these and other defects the federal reserve act was passed in 1913. Its leading provisions need not be repeated here. It will suffice to point out that the entire act places emphasis on the importance of the banks of the federal reserve system having liquid assets. The liabilities of the federal reserve banks, *i.e.* their notes and deposits, are demand liabilities and their customers are chiefly member banks whose liabilities are of the same kind. Therefore the reserve banks must above all things keep their assets liquid. To this end they may discount for their member banks only "notes, drafts and bills of exchange issued or drawn for agricultural, industrial or commercial purposes, or the proceeds of which have been used, or are to be used, for such purposes." Further the law specifically excludes "notes, drafts, or bills covering merely investments or issued or drawn for the purpose of carrying or trading in stocks, bonds or other investment securities, except bonds and notes of the Government of the United States."

The federal reserve board, which was required by law to indicate more precisely the kind of paper eligible for rediscount, held as follows:

> (a) That it must be a bill the proceeds of which have been used or are to be used in producing, purchasing, carrying, or marketing goods in one or more of the steps of the process of production, manufacture or distribution:
>
> (b) That no bill is "eligible" the proceeds of which have been used or are to be used:
>
> (1) For permanent or fixed investments of any kind, such as land, buildings, machinery.
>
> (2) For investments of a merely speculative character, whether made in goods or otherwise.

The general intent of the law and of the rulings is evident. The reserve banks' assets are to be kept liquid in order that these banks may be of the highest possible service as *commercial* banks. To that end only "*commercial*" paper is to be acceptable for rediscounting. Speculative paper and even investment paper are ruled out with the single exception of bonds and notes of the government of the United States. Only a few concessions of a minor nature or of a temporary character are to be found in various sections of the act.

CONCENTRATION OF THE COUNTRY'S GOLD SUPPLY

Since the passage of the law in 1913, three particularly significant changes have occurred. The first is the concentration of a large part of the gold supply of the country in the possession of the reserve banks. Scattered bank reserves mean a lack of mobility, while concentration brings flexibility or ease of adjustment in financing business transactions. Our former system of decentralized reserves was too rigid and their concentration in the federal reserve banks was a distinct improvement. Greater elasticity of credit transactions has been made possible; funds can now be shifted more readily from one place to another; relief can quickly be granted to sections of the country where it may be needed; and the concentrated gold is placed definitely under the direction of a central body which may control gold exports.

The law as originally passed provided for a gradual shifting of reserves and along with this change a reduction in the reserve requirements of the member banks, but soon the European war brought us so large a flood of gold that it was thought wise to hasten the concentration, and three steps were taken. (1) Reserve requirements for member banks were still further reduced and are now 7, 10 and 13 per cent respectively for the different classes of banks. These percentages may be contrasted with the 15 and 25 per cent requirements of a few years ago. (2) These required reserves must all be kept with the reserve banks, and member banks are distinctly urged to turn over to the reserve banks all of their cash holdings with the exception of such amounts as they think it wise or necessary to hold for daily needs. This too is in marked contrast with our former banking practice under which our national banks were required to hold from 40 to 100 per cent of their legal reserve as cash in their own vaults. (3) At first the law did not permit the federal reserve banks to count as part of the 40 per cent reserve which they are required to hold against their issues of federal reserve notes, the gold and gold certificates in the possession of the federal reserve agents. Since June 1917 this accumulation of gold and gold certificates is to be counted, a change which permits a great expansion in note issues.

These three modifications in reserve requirements are of great importance. On January 2, 1915, there was $1,875,000,000 of gold in the United States and on May 1, 1918, only three years later, there was $3,042,000,000, an increase of $1,227,000,000. On May 18, 1918, the federal reserve banks held a total gold reserve of $1,984,000,000, which is more than the entire gold supply of the United States three years ago and over 65 per cent of the gold we now hold. This amount is so large that one cannot easily or quickly grasp its importance.

FEDERAL RESERVE NOTES AND REDISCOUNTING

The second significant change that has occurred is in the issue of federal reserve notes. As originally passed, the apparent intent of the law was that notes should be issued on the security of rediscounted paper placed in the possession of the federal reserve agents. It was soon realized that the machinery provided could be utilized as a device for pumping gold out of general circulation and into the hands of the federal reserve agents who would issue federal reserve notes in exchange. Under this plan most of the notes were secured by gold and hence were in effect, though not in name, gold certificates. As recently as about a year ago there were only $438,000,000 of reserve notes in actual circulation but now there are outstanding $1,569,000,000 of the notes. During the last year the volume of these notes outstanding has been increasing at the rate of over $21,000,000 a week.

The third change of importance is the increase in the practice of rediscounting. This practice is a recent one in American banking. Only a few years ago it was viewed with disfavor by most of our bankers and for some time they hestitated to utilize the facilities furnished by the reserve system. On March 4, 1914, our national banks reported only $8,700,000 notes and bills rediscounted. On March 5, 1917, the amount was only $49,000,000 but by December 31, 1917, it was $475,000,000. On May 18, 1918, the federal reserve banks reported bills discounted as $842,000,000, an amount which is exclusive of any borrowing by member banks from each other. At the outset most of the borrowing from the reserve banks was done by rediscounting commercial paper and could with much fairness be said to have commercial transactions behind it. At present a considerable part is the direct discounting of the member banks' own promises secured by United States obligations as collateral. Much of this borrowing is done on fifteen-day collateral notes at a rate of only 4 per cent, a rate lower than that charged for commercial paper.

We have enumerated three important changes: (1) Reserve requirements of national banks have been lowered and reserves concentrated in the reserve banks; (2) note issues are increasing and under our amended law may be issued in much larger volume than was at first possible; and (3) the practice of rediscounting commercial paper and of discounting their own direct obligations has been rapidly acquired by our banks and is now extensively employed by them.

The significance of these developments lies in the concentration of power that they indicate. Such concentration is not only desirable but necessary in our war emergency, but it throws a heavy responsibility upon our treasury and banking officials. Wisely used, our conduct of the war will be aided, but if poorly managed great harm may result.

INFLATION AND ITS DANGERS

The dangers of inflation have been fully appreciated by our government and reserve bank officials. On April 2, 1917, President Wilson said: "It is our duty, I most respectfully urge, to protect our people, so far as we may, against the very serious hardships and evils which would be likely to arise out of the inflation which would be produced by vast loans."

This same idea was apparently in the mind of Secretary McAdoo in urging a financial program of half taxation and half loans. The ideals of the federal reserve board as to the assets of commercial banks have been frequently expressed, but two quotations will suffice. On November 10, 1914, they declared:

> Safety requires not only the bills held by the federal reserve banks should be of short and well-distributed maturities, but, in addition, should be of such character that it is reasonably certain that they can be collected when they mature. They ought to be essentially "self-liquidating," or, in other words, should represent in every case some distinct step or stage in the productive or distributive process—the progression of goods from producer to consumer.

Again in December, 1916, the Board in advising our banks against the acquisition of treasury bills of foreign governments said:

> If . . . . our banking institutions have to intervene because foreign securities are offered faster than they can be absorbed by investors . . . . an element would be introduced into the situation which, if not kept under control,

would tend toward instability, and ultimate injury to the economic development of this country.

Now that we are definitely engaged in the war, increased production and voluntary saving are proving difficult. The federal reserve system is at hand and through it, as fiscal agent, government bonds and certificates are marketed. There is grave danger that this great financial machine which has already performed such valuable service shall be utilized as an engine for inflation on a gigantic scale and with disastrous results. The process has already started and the pressure to continue it is increasing. Several illustrations will make this clear.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE PRESSURE TO INFLATE

First is the increase in the amount of bonds held by the banks in the reserve system. On June 30, 1914, the national banks held $1,872,000,000 of all kinds of bonds including United States bonds. By March 4, 1918, this had increased to $3,935,000,000 (including certificates of indebtedness), an increase of $2,063,000,000. That all or most of these bonds will be paid when due and are in the long run a safe investment, is unquestionable, but that is not the point here raised. Instead of commercial assets our banks have accumulated large holdings of bonds which are liquid only to the extent that they are salable to the general public. To date they are being acquired more rapidly than they are being sold. Also account should be taken of the increase in collateral loans to the public, as such loans must in the final analysis often be interpreted in terms of the stocks and bonds pledged as security. Unfortunately, we have no statements to help us on this point but can merely say that during the first three years of the war such loans by the national banks in New York City alone were about doubled.

Pressure has come from another direction. It will be recalled that with minor exceptions only short time commercial paper may be rediscounted at reserve banks and that investment paper is definitely excluded as not liquid. In every case the determining consideration is the nature of the transaction behind the paper and not the form of the paper itself. Short time paper issued to finance a permanent investment, the maker expecting to renew the notes from time to time over a period of years, is clearly debarred. Yet within the last year two large well-known corporations, finding it difficult to borrow to advantage, made a definite attempt to finance their needs over a period of several years by issuing ninety-day notes to be renewed repeatedly, with the understanding that these notes should be acceptable for rediscount at the reserve banks. To this proposal emphatic objection was made and the plan was dropped. It is mentioned here only as another illustration of the pressure upon our system to acquire assets that are not self-liquidating and that are not readily salable elsewhere. Attention may also be called to the act recently passed authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to issue certificates of indebtedness to the amount of $8,000,000,000 instead of the former limit of $3,000,000,000.

A final illustration of the pressure to utilize the federal reserve system as a market for securities and furnish the banks with assets that are not self-liquidating is to be found in the war finance corporation act. This war finance corporation may advance funds "for periods not exceeding five years" either direct or through banks, savings banks, trust companies and building and loan associations "to any person, firm, corporation or association conducting an established and going business in the United States, whose operations shall be necessary or contributory to the prosecution of the war."

The $500,000,000 capital stock of the corporation will be subscribed by the United States government and it may issue a maximum of $3,000,000,000 of bonds. The bonds may be sold to the general public but section 13 of the law specifically authorizes the federal reserve banks "to discount the direct obligations of member banks secured by such bonds of the corporation and to rediscount eligible paper secured by such bonds and endorsed by a member bank." There is little reason to suppose that either the member banks or the reserve banks can easily refuse to accept such paper. Nevertheless it will be based on advances for periods up to five years and it will be strange indeed if many of these loans are not of necessity renewed at maturity. A few conclusions from this analysis may now be stated in a less technical manner.

1. Our federal reserve system was conceived primarily as a commercial banking system with the added duty of acting as the fiscal agent of our government.

2. The effect of the federal reserve act and of its recent amendments has been in general most salutary but we now have a great

financial machine whose operations especially under war conditions will be very hard to control and which may conceivably work a tremendous amount of harm.

3. A survey of its operations especially during the last year warrants the assertion that member banks and reserve banks are accumulating a larger and larger volume of bonds and other assets that are not self-liquidating. As permanent investments for savings banks, insurance companies or private individuals, most if not all of these securities are safe, but for commercial banks they have the serious weakness of not being liquid.

4. Against these assets the banks are increasing their liabilities in the form of note issues and deposits subject to check and draft. If the assets were really short term obligations of a self-liquidating character they would as they matured be paid and the banks could at once be relieved of their liabilities. If they were purchased by the general public the same result would follow. In practice many of these assets are being neither sold nor liquidated and the liabilities remain. Our currency is being inflated and the pressure to continue is becoming greater rather than less.

Reserve notes to the amount of $1,569,000,000 are in circulation. Rediscounting has been learned with such great rapidity as to raise serious doubts regarding the restraint our bankers may be expected to show in the future. Although the amount of gold held by the reserve banks has almost doubled, the ratio of gold to net deposits and federal reserve notes combined has fallen in the past year from 80.4 per cent to 61.2 per cent.

That the relation of cash holdings to deposits is at present unsafe is not contended. This paper has merely set forth that our banking system permits inflation, that much has already occurred and that the pressure for more is increasing with alarming rapidity. In "perfecting our banking machinery," "mobilizing our resources," and "strengthening our credit," we have changed our laws always in such a way as to make possible more expansion. With this machinery at hand the pressure on our reserve bank officials is nearly irresistible. Demands for rediscounts and direct loans are hard to refuse and our member banks are transferring to the reserve banks their high-grade commercial paper and their own notes secured by United States promises as collateral. Last fall our reserve banks raised their rates but did it only slightly and even now the rediscount rate on commercial paper is at only three of our reserve banks as high as 5 per cent and in the other ten banks is 4¾ per cent, while the rate for member banks' fifteen-day collateral notes is only 4 per cent with the exception of Cleveland and Richmond where it is 4¼ per cent.

EFFECT OF INFLATION UPON PRODUCTION

We are or should be familiar with the effect of all this on the people with small incomes who suffer from the rapidly rising price level. Bondholders whose incomes buy less and less each year as prices rise also are affected though they are less quick to realize it. With a higher price level too our government must pay more for goods and is then compelled to sell still more bonds. But let us pass to other considerations perhaps even more serious in the midst of a war. What is the effect of this rising price level on our industrial production?

1. When the price level is changing there is much uncertainty attached to business transactions. Doubt as to costs of materials and labor causes hesitation, and commitments for a long period of time are entered into with caution. A large steady volume of production is more difficult to secure.

2. At such times many wages lag behind the prices of many of the commodities which are so large a part of the real wages of the worker. Under these conditions malnutrition and inefficiency occur and lowered productivity results.

3. In so far as wages rise, the result is often to divert laborers from one plant to another and then perhaps back again. The rate of labor turnover is high and a reduction in output occurs. Illustrations of this today are numerous.

4. Increasing expenditures for materials and to some degree also for labor creates serious difficulties for our public utilities. With more or less friction, with weakened credit and delayed improvements they are seeking permission to increase their rates, a step that would have been delayed at least for a considerable period had we avoided inflation.

5. Rising prices contribute to labor unrest. The British Commission on Industrial Unrest which reported last year did its work in eight divisions and the eight were "unanimous in regarding the opinion of the working classes, that they have been exploited by the

rise of food prices, as the universal and most important cause of industrial unrest." In the United States we have no similar report to guide us but the indications are that a like situation exists. In so far as this is true we may say that rising prices encourage industrial friction and strikes, with a lessened output. Other influences are at work but we should not blind ourselves to the seriousness of this one. Prices of commodities as recorded by Bradstreet's index number rose 118 per cent from July 1, 1914 to May 1, 1918, of which 44 per cent has been in the last twelve months. Financial machinery which will increase this advance should be kept under control for the sake of those who always suffer in a period of rapidly rising prices and also for the sake of the successful prosecution of the war.

OUR DUTY IN THE EMERGENCY

Concentration of banking power during war is a most important part of the mobilization of economic resources. Yet it is harmful to ourselves and unfair to our Allies if this be accomplished in a manner that will retard instead of enhance our effectiveness. The problem is most complex, but our duty in several directions is clear:

1. We should not pass legislation that will permit further inflation and thus place upon our treasury officials and our bankers all of the responsibility for the results. Suggestions have already been offered by numerous irresponsible persons that we may secure more "capital" by lowering further our reserve requirements. Serious proposals to that end will probably be made. Such steps should be resisted with all the energy of which we are capable.

2. Heavy governmental and private borrowings encourage inflation and for this reason if for no other much heavier taxes should be imposed at once. Taxes, more taxes, and still more taxes should be the rule. Our fiscal plans to date have been formulated too hurriedly. A scientific analysis of our needs and of the sources of supply for the next ten years or more is needed. This would take into account both governmental and private needs and furnish valuable aid to the capital issues committee, the fuel administration, the railroads, and other governmental bodies which are struggling with questions of priority.

3. In all of our thinking and talking on the subject of war finance the emphasis should be shifted from our financial machinery

to the need for enlarged production of essentials and to the maximum of economy in both public and private expenditures. Financial machinery is, after all, only a means to an end. There are grounds for concern when we view gold and federal reserve notes as "capital" and fancy that by concentrating the one and by issuing the other we are necessarily aiding production. When we laud the achievements of the United States Steel Corporation for having done more dollars' worth of business in 1917 than in 1916, but overlook the serious fact that its output in tons showed an actual decline of about 5 per cent, our judgment is awry. National budgeting is hindered, not helped, if banking machinery is utilized as a means of inflation.

THE FALLACY OF PRICE BIDDING

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The law of supply and demand assumes that a rising price tends to increase supply while falling prices lead to a reduced production. The basis of this generalization is an induction from the action of price changes on particular commodities or on a market of limited range. What our ancestors saw was the immediate effect of price changes. They had no means of estimating world phenomena. To us, however, a world economy is a reality and its fact as easily ascertained as are those of localities. As statistics are compiled it is easier to obtain the data of world industry than of local trade. What the trade of Philadelphia or New York is no one knows with the accuracy with which international figures are compiled. Price changes now affect the whole world or at least several nations. We can, therefore, trace their effects with a precision impossible even a generation ago.

Our fathers bid for commodities and saw as a result a flow of increased goods to their locality. They might know where the articles came from but they did not know what effect the withdrawal of these commodities had on the nations sending them. We now have the facts of both sides of the ledger or, better put, we have the ledger of the receiving and losing nation. On these facts our opinions should rest and not on theories derived from the imperfect knowledge of the past.

English economic history affords examples of price bidding. The industrial revolution gave her such an advantage in production that she could underbid other nations in selling and overbid them in buying. Commodities fell in price while the price of food rose. The importations were mainly in wheat and the exportation in textile fabrics. Where did the wheat come from and was it an additional production or merely a withdrawal from other markets? The soil of Ireland had been used for the production of food for its own inhabitants of which there were about eight millions. The high price of wheat made it profitable to raise wheat for the English market. The home population was left unfed or forced to migrate. Ireland thus lost three million of her population due to the surplus being transported to England. It is usually said that the migration was due to the failure of the potato crop but this was the immediate not the ultimate cause. Wheat and potatoes cannot be grown in the same field. The profitable crop displaces the less profitable, and the local population must adjust itself to the new situation. The same tendency showed itself earlier in the movement of population from the south to the north of England. The industries of the north outbid the southern industries for the food of England and as a result both food and population moved to the north. When such a change occurs within a nation the change is not noticed or, if seen, the transformation is accepted as an element in progress. This may be true, but where did the food come from? Was it a new creation due to its higher price or was it a withdrawal which forced a reduction of population of some other regions? The answer in both these cases is the same. The food was a withdrawal, not a fresh creation. The places from which it came lost population to offset the gain of the new markets. Profits rose but not gross production. The gain was thus in net produce which is profitable to both parties making the exchange while the interest of the people in the exporting country is ignored.

These facts are equally patent in the foreign countries from which England's food came. They lost their industries, sank or remained stationary in population. The landowners became local aristocrats who took the greater part of the gain which English commerce brought. We think of the prosperity which England obtained but overlook the advantage landed aristocrats obtained thereby in other lands. Our southern slaveholders are an illustration of this. The aristocracy of Poland gained their power to oppress by the exportation of wheat just as the southern slaveholder did by the exportation of cotton. The French Revolution had its background in the same cause. England could pay more for wheat than could the French artisans. The food went out and cheap goods came in. French workers were thus subjected to a double strain. They lost their food and employment. The benefited class was the French landlord. Where goes the food there goes population and with population comes wealth. The world is not the better from the change but some place or class may be. High prices and high net industry go together and make a civilization dominated by landlords and profit getting.

America at the present time faces this situation. We cannot draw goods from other nations: they are drawing goods from us. The advantages and detriments of our national policy can thus be measured by their effects at home. More corn or wheat means more home production, or a shift in the use of land from other to these uses. We must, therefore, measure both the gains and losses of crop transfers to ascertain the net results. Our country is not a huge wheat field but a series of belts, each fitted for some crop. We have a cotton belt, two wheat belts, a corn belt and other areas fitted for dairy products, sugar, rice and potatoes. In addition to lands good for these special purposes we have a mass of poor land suited to none of our leading crops.

What is the effect of higher food prices on the good corn, cotton or wheat land; and then what is its effect on the poor land as above described? On good land higher prices have their effect in a higher price of land and in a greater net produce but not in an increase of gross produce. When prices go up, rent goes up more than proportionally, leaving the worker in a worse position than before. To say that the acreage is increased by 20 per cent means nothing, therefore, if the new land is poor land. While some new fields come into use many more are going out of cultivation because of soil defects. The limits to our farm produce are thus definitely set until some transformation of our agriculture takes place introducing new crops or new methods of cultivation. Big changes will count but small ones make merely a temporary shifting of crops with no net gain.

Judged in this way about four acres out of five of our farms must be classed as poor land. The marketable product of the country comes from this fifth acre. These good acres are now fully cultivated and from them the product is limited. From the other four acres the return is diminishing even though by spurts some increase is possible. Poor lands in this sense are those which are hard of cultivation or when cultivated soon lose their fertility. Rocky land is an illustration of the first type and a hillside of the second. When prices rise the farmer reduces the subsidiary crops on which the permanence of fertility depends and devotes more acres to the paying crop. A greater net produce results without an increase in the gross produce. This, however, is only the first stage of the pressure of high prices. The high price of land favors tenant farming. The owner lives off his net produce while a shiftless tenant does the work. This tendency is apparent in every section where high land prices prevail. The present increase of food prices if permanent will make tenant farming universal. We will have a dozen Irelands with the misery which such conditions create.

High prices for good lands mean rich landlords but not full bins from which consumers may draw. This loss is not greater than that which price bidding brings to the poor lands of the nation. It induces people to raise crops for which the land is not fitted. The town public does not realize the marked difference in the productivity of land in localities not far apart. Places in and out of the corn belt often not 25 miles apart have a drop in production from 60 to 20 bushels an acre. The doubling of the price will not make this land a profitable venture. We hear, for example, that two dollars a bushel is not enough to make wheat growing pay. This is not a wild assertion but is true of four-fifths of the land of the country. The same facts hold of corn, cotton or any other crop. The use of poor lands increases waste and causes the misapplication of labor and capital.

The effect of price bidding in food products was fully worked out in England during the Napoleonic wars. The prices being high it was assumed the farmers were prosperous. Yet an examination showed that the most of them were losing money either because of the high rent they were paying or because of the attempt to grow wheat on land not fitted for its production. We will find the same facts and the same failure if we care to examine the condition of our farmers. They have tried cropping of the good lands and the conversion of poor lands to new uses. Both are failing not only to increase our gross produce but also to create agricultural prosperity. Farmers are asked to augment their production this year by 25 per cent but we shall be lucky if there is not an actual decrease. Wrong methods of agriculture quickly bring their results in discouragement and failure. The bitter lessons are not forgotten for a generation, during which time the nation will suffer a shortage of food.

The American people escaped from the burden of the Civil War by opening up new areas, but this way of escape is no longer possible. All the good lands are in use. Nor are any great industrial inventions in sight such as gave progress in the epoch preceding 1910. Recent changes have been in the domain of consumption. We have built office buildings, department stores and apartment houses instead of giving the railroads the needed additions to their rolling stock. We thus live better, have more leisure, but produce as we did ten years ago.

A rising price of some one commodity may under these conditions create an increase in its supply but a similar rise in all commodities produces no effect but to disarrange industry. Wheat land can be used to raise corn or corn land for wheat but there is in each case a marked loss by the transfer. Raising the price of the one without a rise of price of the other will have an effect in the increase of quantity of the higher priced commodity but if both rise in price, the net result is nil. To illustrate this, I shall give a table showing the price of land at which, for given crops, profit ceases. This is not meant to show the maximum price to which the best land can go. It is the relatively poor land whose use would be altered by the rising price of another commodity. When, for example, will it pay to change a cattle range to wheat production or to stop producing milk and other dairy products? Such questions may be answered by the following table:

Wheat	$50	Potatoes	$70
Corn	120	Rye	80
Oats	100	Dairy	60
Cotton	50	Cattle ranges	20

A glance at the table will show the changes which high prices are producing. They are reducing the supply of meat and milk, keeping the production of wheat stationary while corn and potatoes are increasing quantities. The shifts which high prices cause are losses since they force the use of land into unprofitable channels.

To make the bearing of these facts clear the reader must remember the importance of the weather in determining gross annual production. It is easy to arrange tables so that they seem to show the effects of prices on production, but it is equally easy to refute such claims by a full statement of the facts. The variations of the wheat crop amount to about 30 per cent, that of the corn and oats to 20 per cent. Up and down the figures move from year to year but with slight increase in the totals if good years are compared with good years and not with the bad. We have reached the limits of our agricultural production unless some great change is made in the method of production or in the efficiency of agricultural labor. For a century we have extended our agricultural areas without such change in the methods of production. Farming as a trade has remained as it was and land exploitation has been carried to a point where gross produce must soon suffer a reduction. We may hope for a stationary product but not for an increasing one. Price bidding does not alter these tendencies but aggravates them by its emphasis of net produce.

In the past we have relied on the importation of labor to augment production and not the increase of its productivity. Wages thus became a distributive problem, each group getting what its position compels. The basis of this situation is changed by the check to immigration which the war has wrought. We have a fixed, not an increasing, labor force. If the demand of the war for soldiers continues our labor force will actually decrease. In either case we must measure the efficiency of labor by other rules than those in use before the war. Each industry is striving to increase its force or to hold its own by price bidding. The net result is a movement of labor from one occupation to others—a striving to do something new rather than the doing of familiar work in a better manner. Here as in farming we get confusion but not increased efficiency. The high wages make many careless and still more extravagant. Workers wander more than they work, and at their new tasks are less efficient than in those they left. Yet the problem is treated as if the new workers in each occupation were fresh immigrants instead of withdrawals from other occupations. We count what the new occupations gain but do not estimate the losses which other occupations suffer. A few employers may thus enlarge their output but national production will fall off. The net result of the shifting is a reduction in efficiency. High wages thus make for waste instead of promoting the desired ends for which they are given.

However solid the proof of the fallacy of price bidding, the problems involved are not solved by their statement. It is as necessary to show how production is increased as to show what measures fail to attain this end. This proof is secured not by a study of price movements but by a presentation of the facts on which great improvement in production depend. Antecedent to every increase of production, changes in the processes of production have occurred, and to these the enlarged product should be attributed. An increased production is accompanied by falling prices. These two are cause and effect and not rising prices and growing production. Of this fact sugar is a typical case. Formerly it was assumed that sugar cane depended on the sun for its production. Only sneers met the claims of those who wished to make sugar a northern product. Sugar beet throve in spite of this opposition and in the end made changes in the production of sugar which materially lowered its price. Not only did the product of the sugar beet become cheaper, but also the product of cane sugar was lowered in price along with an increase of quantity.

This was the first great victory of improved production over price bidding. The lesson was soon applied in other fields by which changes in production were wrought which increased the product along with decreasing prices. We now know the importance of the potato in enabling Germany to free herself from foreign dependence as to her food supply. But for the potato Germany would have starved into submission. While we see this we fail to realize that the method by which this large supply of potatoes was secured is the same in essence as that which augmented the supply of beet sugar. Much of the lands now so productive of potatoes were barren soil a century ago. Scientific investigation adapted the potato to these waste regions and a careful analysis of soils enabled the farmers to supply the elements needed for potato cultivation. It is to science and not to price bidding that Germany owes her salvation in both these cases. What Germany has done all other nations must do after the epoch of the extension of cultivated areas is past.

An apt illustration of these facts comes from the recent development of an English colony on the gold coast of West Africa. This region for centuries has been one of the most afflicted parts of the world. It was the center of the slave traffic and suffered all the ills which this trade imposes. In addition, it had one of the worst climates in the world. All the fatal tropical diseases burdened the land, making any improvement seemingly impossible. Yet of recent years a thriving civilization has arisen due to the cultivation of cocoa. A great bar to commerce existed in the presence of flies killing all beasts of burden, thus blocking the transportation of goods. This evil was remedied by the use of automobile trucks. The last obstacle to industrial progress was thus removed and the native population seemingly of the most degraded sort responded to the new situation and now market a third of the cocoa of the world. What rising prices never could have done a series of industrial and political changes has wrought. These facts may be duplicated in a thousand places. The world can increase its production many fold but each increase must come from a better application of skill and knowledge to local conditions. Price bidding may be effective as a cause of agricultural extension but it fails when the increased product must come by transforming poor land into good land or by the application of new processes to the land already in use. Here increased knowledge and greater skill are the only agents in the transformation, and with their use prices fall. Beyond the limits to which any amount of price bidding will increase production is a gross product due to increased knowledge, which is cheaper than what price bidding produced.

The production of sheep and wool in England was stationary until improvements in food and in breeding were wrought. It was the turnip and the new breeds of sheep which increased production of wool and not its high market price. The changes in cattle breeding both in regard to milk and beef tell the same story. The growth of these industries is a history of improved methods, each great change in the quantity produced being the consequence of antecedent stock improvements. These lessons America must take to heart if a remedy for our food shortage is to be found. High prices of food products will fail to stimulate an increase of their production. The remedy is in improved methods of production bringing prosperity to the farmer but also cheapness and plenty to the consumer. We can have double the present agricultural output but only by methods which reduce its price.

These facts are as applicable to raw material as to agriculture. We are apt to think of ores as lying in beds of even composition ready to be more fully exploited through a rise of price. In fact, however, minerals are of very uneven compositions, the mass at any given time being of too low a grade to be worked with profit. Rising prices make good mines more profitable but exert little influence in making of low grade ores profitable adventures. They come into use through chemical discoveries which open up new ways of extracting ores from the material with which they are blended. It was not the high price of pig iron which led to the great increase of the steel industry which has recently taken place. It came with new processes for extracting ores and new economies in their manufacture. Of this fact the increase in the production of silver is a good example. Its output remained stable for many centuries, but little affected by its high price. What this high price failed to do, new processes due to an increase of chemical knowledge wrought. A rapid increase in production at a lower price followed. The history of every mineral product tells the same story. Stationary production is the accompaniment of high prices. We get increased production not in this way but by discovery, invention and increased knowledge, making the growth a result of these causes and not of price bidding. High prices is a distributive process creating profits, not a productive process augmenting production. Only when this is seen can an epoch of high prices like the present be understood. The urgency of war leads to vain attempts to speed up production. From them come high prices and inflation, but gross production is more often decreased than increased thereby.

The annual report to stockholders for 1917 from the United States Steel Corporation shows a falling-off of 5 per cent:

	1917	*1916*
Iron ore mined	31,781,769	33,355,169
Limestone quarried	6,494,917	7,023,474
Coal mined	31,496,823	32,768,381
Coke manufactured	17,461,675	18,901,962
Blast furnace production	15,652,928	17,607,637
Steel ingot production	20,285,061	20,910,589
Rolled steel products	14,942,911	15,460,792
	138,116,084	146,028,004

A rise of wages increases the net product so long as the physical standard of the laborer is improved. This standard was for city conditions about $800 per family at the prices prevailing before the war. Valid evidence also shows that the reduction in the hours of labor is advantageous to both employer and employe. Such changes should be regarded as a part of production and should be judged from their effects as measured by the gross product of industry. Up to a given point, therefore, a rise in wages or a reduction in the hours of labor is a problem of production and can have their effects measured in its terms. Today, however, wage bidding helps those whose wages are above that needed for a normal standard of living. On a limited labor market each group of employers are bidding for workers, pulling them away from their customary work. I do not wish to imply that workers are not justified in making their demands as urgent as possible and in winning for themselves all the gain their advantages permit. At least they have as good a right to exploit their opportunity as have the other classes who profit by the war. It is one thing, however, to uphold them in their endeavor to alter the distribution of wealth in their favor and quite another to maintain that these higher wages increase the gross output of industry. The railroad workers are asking for an increase in wages which amounts to a hundred million dollars a year. If they get it, will their output be correspondingly increased or will their gains be to someone else's loss. The answer is obvious. There will be no change in the gross output of the railroads for the coming year which can be attributed to changes in the wage scale. Measure these increases by any objective standard and their effects on production will be too small to justify the outlay. What is true in this case is evident in the wage bidding which is occurring in the munition and ship building industries. Labor is disorganized by the inducements which wage bidding creates. The labor turnover is increased; men wander but do not work. The old wage would have produced a greater gross return. Even if the change in occupation came more slowly the new labor would have been more effective. A few experiments in the ship building enterprises should convince the public of the fallacy of price bidding in the domain of wages. A slower start would have produced earlier results.

All this does not mean that improvements in the condition of workers cannot be made. It only shows the fallacy of one way of making them. It is the conditions which surround the worker which determine his efficiency. Improvements in health, sanitation, housing and other elements in the home environment have a bearing on industrial efficiency and by them are the betterments of the worker to be measured. Price bidding thwarts what the local environment stimulates. It leads to dissatisfaction, dissipation and to misplaced energy. Its lesson is therefore the same as that of other price bidding whether in food products or in raw material. There is an increase of waste but not of product. Increased production comes from an organization of the hitherto unused or partially used elements of the working population. It is easier to raise lower groups to a higher efficiency than to divert well paid workers from one occupation to another. A new industry in war time or in peace should build up its own labor force out of the misplaced or partially used workers. A worker's training can be readily acquired if the discipline and oversight is what it should be. The increase of production mainly depends on moving those below the normal standard of living up to this standard and not on giving more to those above this standard.

Why the moving of workers up to a decent standard of living is a productive problem is clearly shown by the rejection of recruits in the recent draft. Above 35 per cent of the recruits were rejected of which 60 per cent were for removable causes. It is also estimated on the basis of these facts that three-fifths of those between 31 and 45 are physically unfit for military duty. A half of the working population are thus below the normal level of physical vigor and of these more than a half are disabled from preventable causes. When we realize the reduction in labor efficiency which these defects cause, we can readily see what their removal means. Industry would gain both in its gross and net product if the cost of this removal were assessed against it. This shows what a living wage with proper care of health, sanitation and housing would do. The interest of every portion of society is promoted thereby. The sacrifices of the poor aid no one. They reduce both the gross and net return of industry.

The way to benefit the higher class of laborers is not by higher wages but by increased inducement to save. Price bidding makes spenders and increases both extravagance and waste. Saving aids production and modifies workers in ways which increase production. The man who spends all he earns, be he a worker or a salaried man, is dependent on a capitalist class and to increase production will in the long run be the victim of the social order his defects make necessary. It is higher rates of interest which the uplift of the worker demands. He needs motives to check spending and not a freedom to indulge his caprice.

Price bidding, whether in wages, food or raw material, is thus an evil which thwarts the ends which nations in period of stress should promote. It creates personal gains at the expense of public welfare. It is thus an addition to the evils of war, causing a drain on national resources more pernicious than the losses in the battle field. We face a situation which demands more of all essential commodities and not more of some particular article. The increase cannot come from the outside world from which importations have ceased. The stimulus must arouse home production in every essential occupation. This price bidding cannot do. Only changes in the methods of production and in the efficiency and contentment of labor can remove the present shortage of commodities and restore the equilibrium in our national budget.

Prices rise through a pressure from consumers to augment their consumption. This rise is checked by the consumer's unwillingness to pay more or by this power of securing substitutes for the desired commodity. It is not the competition of producers which lowers prices but the ability of consumers to find substitutes. Prices fall through improvements in production. The fall of prices is checked by the withdrawal of producers through the increase of their costs. The rise of prices and the limits to this rise have their origin in the motives of the consumer. The check to the fall in prices comes from motives acting on producers. The antecedents of rising prices must therefore be sought among consumers while checks to falling prices, just as competition among consumers, fail to check their fall. The controlling motives in each case are those of withdrawal. It is he who refuses to produce and he who refuses to consume who fix prices. The community gains neither by high prices nor by low prices. The nearer the level of normal prices is maintained the steadier will be the growth of national prosperity and the more effective will be the motives leading to increased production. Every nation must guard against the profiteering which high prices make and against the dissipation which low prices encourage. Price changes will cure neither of these evils. The remedy is price regulation to prevent upward movements in prices and rigid restraints on consumption to prevent a misuse of lowering prices. With the latter this paper has little to do except to point out their need.

The evils of an upward trend of prices, however, have been shown, and hence arises the urgent need of price regulation. With normal prices the maximum of production could have been obtained if from the start a certainty of return and not a maximum return had been guaranteed. Normal prices in this sense are a little above the price level of years of scarcity. It is this level which price regulation should seek to make stable. The speed at which the industries of an epoch of peace can be transformed to a war basis is the speed at which laborers can be trained in their occupations and machines adapted to new uses. We recognize that a raw recruit needs a year in which to become a trained soldier but we think a worker can be jerked from one occupation to another in a week. This delusion is delaying our war preparation. Had prices been regulated and price bidding avoided we would be months ahead of what we are. Only rigid price regulation and stern restraints on consumption will carry us successfully through a long war. We can rely on the individual motives neither of the producer nor consumer. Both need to be restrained in ways demanded by the public good. If we are not too long in learning this lesson we will not only win the war but be better prepared for the epoch of peace and prosperity which is to follow.

A complete statement of the effects of price bidding cannot be made. It will be years before all the returns are in. These are however, indicative enough to show the trend of production. Of this the limitation to the cotton crop is typical. The good cotton lands are apparently all in use. The doubling of the price has had some effect on the acreage but none on the gross output.

Production in Bales		*The Acreage*	
1917	10,949,000	1917	34,600,000
1916	11,511,000	1916	35,239,000
1915	11,161,000	1915	31,412,000
1914	15,966,000	1914	36,832,000
1913	13,677,000	1913	37,089,000
1912	13,820,000	1912	34,283,000
1911	14,885,000	1911	36,045,000
1910	11,426,000	1910	32,403,000
1909	10,088,000	1909	32,044,000
1908	12,920,000	1908	32,444,000
1907	11,678,000	1907	31,311,000
1906	12,546,000	1906	31,374,000
1905	10,168,000	1905	26,117,153
1904	12,162,000	1904	30,053,739

The other leading crops show the same limitations except in the case of corn and here the exception is more apparent than real. The increased acreage is due mainly to the use of the silo which extends the planting of corn and into areas where it will not mature. We seemed, for example, to have had a record crop for corn last year but 40 per cent of it proved unmarketable showing that it was grown beyond the recognized corn belt. This increase of corn acreage is also at the expense of wheat. But for the enlarged area for wheat cultivation in the upland states of the west where dry farming prospers, there would be a distinct falling off in the production of wheat. The increase of acreage comes in each case from the attempted use of poor land which yields no surplus and soon loses its fertility. The total value of all crops for the five years up to 1914 averaged 9.4 billion dollars. The total of these crops for 1917 was 19.4 billion dollars. The quantity increases, however, were slight, as the following table will show. The one apparent exception is corn, but this exception is more apparent than real. It is fodder corn and not market corn which is increasing. The quantity of market corn was less last year than for 1915 or 1916.

In the table, page 143, the figures on grain are from the Department of Agriculture, and represent farm values. Sugar values are based on average wholesale price of refined sugar at New York. For meats the figures in the 1911 column represent the average for 3 pre-war years, based on 1911 values. For sheep and mutton, except for 1917, the figures are for years ending June 30 of the years stated. All meat values are based on average wholesale prices of legs (for mutton); rounds (for beef); and loins (for pork) for the years stated.

Commodity	*Amount Produced 1911*	*Total Value*	*Amount Produced 1914*	*Total Value*	*Amount Produced 1916*	*Total Value*	*Amount Produced 1917*	*Total Value*
Wheat (bu.)...........	621,338,000	$543,063,000	891,017,000	$878,680,000	636,318,000	$1,019,968,000	650,828,000	$1,307,418,000
Corn (bu.)...........	2,531,488,000	1,565,258,000	2,672,804,000	1,722,070,000	2,566,927,000	2,280,729,000	3,159,494,000	4,053,672,000
Oats (bu.)...........	922,298,000	414,663,000	1,141,000,000	499,431,000	1,251,837,000	655,928,000	1,587,286,000	1,061,427,000
Rye (bu.)...........	33,119,000	27,557,000	42,779,000	37,018,000	48,862,000	59,676,000	60,145,000	100,025,000
Barley (bu.)...........	160,240,000	139,182,000	194,953,000	105,903,000	182,309,000	160,646,000	208,975,000	237,539,000
Potatoes, white (bu.)...	292,737,000	233,778,000	409,921,000	199,460,000	286,953,000	419,333,000	442,536,000	542,865,000
Rice (bu.)...........	22,934,000	18,274,000	23,649,000	21,849,000	41,325,000	36,673,000	36,278,000	68,717,000
Sugar (short tons).....	960,374	102,664,000	968,674	91,500,940	1,133,626	156,009,600	1,094,240	167,703,220
Sheep and mutton (lbs.)	760,528,000	85,179,130	654,262,000	89,633,894	607,473,000	97,803,153	575,733,000	123,782,395
Cattle and beef (lbs.)..	6,504,011,000	637,393,078	6,832,464,000	908,717,712	7,276,155,000	1,004,109,390	8,611,217,000	1,463,906,990
Hogs and pork (lbs.)...	7,953,168,000	962,333,328	8,319,048,000	1,281,133,392	10,578,274,000	1,703,102,114	8,473,899,000	2,059,157,457
Bales of cotton........	15,553,073	749,890,000	15,905,840	591,130,000	11,363,915	994,000,000	11,000,000	1,517,558,000
Raw wool............	331,547,900	52,716,110	346,192,000	60,929,722	300,890,000	83,045,640	298,573,000	140,936,456
Iron ore............	40,989,808	86,419,830	39,714,250	71,905,079	77,870,553	181,902,277	75,649,900	236,178,000
Copper ore...........	29,988,235	137,154,092	35,175,541	152,968,246	57,667,241	474,288,000	55,600,000	510,300,000
Pig iron............	23,257,288	327,334,624	23,263,263	298,777,429	39,126,324	663,478,118	38,157,897	....
Steel rails (number)....	2,823,000	79,044,000	1,945,000	54,400,000	2,855,000	91,360,000	2,925,000	111,150,000
Locomotives built (number)........	2,915	52,002,939	1,485	25,768,078	2,380	57,202,146	3,0[illegible]6	99,267,004
Freight cars (number)..	64,810	59,708,199	95,253	92,123,511	118,016	132,550,842	123,538	206,100,974
Passenger train cars (number)........	3,490	42,837,111	3,023	43,245,580	1,335	17,001,555	1,021	25,072,294
Interurban and subway cars (number)..	557	3,417,574	304	1,660,117	552	2,113,530	426	2,399,971
Street railway cars (number)........	3,014	9,120,352	2,101	5,408,444	1,237	4,045,095	1,100	2,984,302

THE NEED FOR A BUDGET SYSTEM IN THE UNITED STATES

BY CHARLES BEATTY ALEXANDER, LL.D.,
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The time seems ripe for the introduction of a national budget. Long advocated by students of political science; planned by President Taft; endorsed by the National Chamber of Commerce; agitated in Congress; favored by President Wilson and Secretary of the Treasury McAdoo; urged by the chairman of the committee on appropriations of the House of Representatives, himself an expert in matters of finance; pledged by the Progressive, Republican and Democratic parties in their platforms for the presidential election of 1916; discussed from the platform and in the press all over the country within recent months; supported by the people, who have lately had their attention turned rather sharply toward direct taxation by the federal government; and recognized by the whole nation as a needful measure, the way seems prepared for the introduction of this fundamental reform.

In his message to Congress, on January 17, 1912, President Taft said:

> The United States is the only great nation whose government is operated without a budget. This fact seems to be more striking when it is considered that budgets and budget procedures are the outgrowth of democratic doctrines and have had an important part in the development of modern constitutional rights. The American Commonwealth has suffered much from irresponsibility on the part of its governing agencies. The constitutional purpose of a budget is to make government responsive to public opinion and responsible for its acts. A budget should be the means of getting before the legislative branch, before the press, and before the people a definite annual program of business to be financed; it should be in the nature of a prospectus, both of revenues and expenditures; it should comprehend every relation of the government to the people, whether with reference to the raising of revenues or the rendering of service.

Thus President Taft stated broadly the advantages and purposes of the budget system. Though the term "budget" is used in a variety of restricted meanings, this conception of the plan embraces a complete scheme of annual finance for the government; a comprehensive, unified statement, in summary and in detail, of the expenditures on the one hand and of the revenues on the other; a presentation at every stage, from the submission of estimates, through enactment into law, to its administration and to final auditing of accounts, of a complete view of the whole financial program of the government; something that would show every separate problem with reference to its relative importance and its bearing to every other problem; an assurance of equilibrium of expenditures and income; the preparation of the budget by a responsible executive department which alone possesses the necessary expert knowledge of its vast, technical and various businesses and alone knows its real needs; and the adoption by a legislature responsible to the people.

The management of the public finances is the center of a constitutional system. Nearly every great problem before a legislature presents itself in the tangible form of a proposition of either taxation or expenditure. Ours is the only great nation whose government does business without a budget. Our long years of deficiency in this respect is not a reasonable precedent; nor is this precedent rightly based on historical origin and constitutional reasons. The traditional and generally accepted theory of our government is not referred to in the constitution at all.

The framers of our fundamental law wrote little about budget making but they well understood that it involves the whole character of constitutional government. The constitution deals briefly with finance. It gives the control of the purse to Congress but says little about processes. No method of procedure is prescribed. It has a few general provisions susceptible of wide interpretation and application. It seems to have been assumed that English precedents would be followed, a determined procedure which required no special or limiting provisions. The traditional course was pursued at first in the various acts by which the organization of the government was completed, *i.e.* they were prepared for Congress by the administration. Cabinet officials assumed direct relations with Congress, after the English fashion. In the beginning there were no standing committees in the House of Representatives. The latter simply resolved itself into a committee of the whole for the consideration of financial measures.

But after the government became firmly established and party divisions arose, a profound change took place which the framers of the constitution could not have intended nor foreseen. The constitutional prohibition of office-holders serving as members of Congress was employed to terminate the speaking privilege of cabinet officials in the national legislature. The direct initiative of the administration was thus ended. The constitution contains nothing about the committee system, but such bodies soon arose to intervene between the recommendations of the administration and action by Congress. The incipient method of procedure thus broke down and the American system diverged from its English prototype.

There is lacking in our financial method the element of careful, intelligible, responsible planning. From the very beginning there has been conflict between the executive and legislative branches over the method followed, and criticism of our policy has increased as inefficiency has grown more noticeable and pronounced. Other countries have incorporated important reforms or radically altered their systems of finance, but we have not profited at all by the experience of the civilized world. Our changes have been for the worse. The vast sums necessary to run our government are handled in a preposterous way. In his book, *Cost of Our National Government*, Professor Ford says: "Compared with the exact and minute system of English budget control our methods seem like the ignorant and disorderly practices of barbarians."

The word "budget" can hardly be used at all in relation to our financial operations. The preparation of bills for both appropriations and revenues, the allotment and the spending of the money, and the auditing of accounts are made without any definite financial policy, either executive or legislative.

Some reform is necessary and inevitable. Since the foundation of our government the annual expenditures in normal times have increased from about $3,000,000 to about $2,000,000,000. Extravagance and invisible government have brought the budget idea to public attention. Congress and the people both need what they have never had, a comprehensive and clear annual statement of the national finances; some plan that would show each problem with reference to its relative importance and bearing to every other problem. The present trifling and jumbled methods of Congress can not develop real statesmen with a broad national outlook.

No single change in our government would be so largely conducive to efficiency as a proper budget method. It is dictated by common sense and by common procedure—the best judgment and experience of the management of corporate bodies, both public and private. It is of course encouraging to know how well the system works in England but that is an outside aspect of the problem. We need it because our own form and method of government require it; because the size and complexity of our problem make it necessary for us to see the business of government in perspective and in detail; and because it is an indispensable instrument for financial reforms and economies.

There is and should be a great distinction between the spending policy of the nation in time of peace and in time of war. In normal times every expenditure should be considered with reference to whether it is worth the burden it puts upon the people; but in war all the people have must be spent, if necessary, in order to save the nation. But even so there is more need now than there ever was for a reform in our system of appropriating money, because of the very magnitude of the war finances. The principles of the budget system apply as well to the huge amounts of today as they do to the smaller sums of peace times.

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The first need of our Allies is money. The finances of the war have been our first concern. The expense of war now is appalling. The Civil War cost the Union about $2,000,000 a day; we are now spending about $20,000,000 a day. The Civil War cost the Union about $3,000,000,000; the estimate of our expenditures for our first year of the present war is over $12,000,000,000. The Napoleonic wars (1793–1815) cost England and France about $6,250,000,000; the expenditure of the Entente Allies for the first three years of this war was more than $50,000,000,000. We are fighting on foreign soil, at a great distance, and the cost to us of placing a man on the western front is about ten times greater than it is to Germany.

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Our financial operations are stupendous. Liberty loan bonds, including the third issue, will total $8,800,000,000, with indication that the latest loan will be oversubscribed. War savings stamps now yield about $11,000,000 a week, the entire authorization being $1,680,000,000 which will be redeemed, at par, in five years, with a cost to the government of $320,000,000 in interest. The estimated annual revenue from taxation is $4,000,000,000 or more. At the beginning of the war the national debt was, in round figures, $1,000,000,000; on January 31, 1918, the interest-bearing debt was almost

$8,200,000,000, and the gross debt of the nation was about $8,440,000,000. The per capita debt of our population was about $10 in 1914; it is now about $110. The United States has loaned its Allies over $5,000,000,000. For military and naval establishments and the United States Shipping Board, over $3,500,000,000 has been disbursed. The total appropriation for the army from April 6, 1917, to April 6, 1918, was about $7,500,000,000. The navy appropriation for the same period aggregated $3,350,000,000, and the Shipping Board received $2,000,000,000 for the purchase and building of ships. There are other extraordinary and colossal expenditures which it is needless to recount.

But we do not despair when we contemplate our resources. The wealth of the United States is estimated at $250,000,000,000, with an income of $50,000,000,000—as much as the British and German Empires combined. We have as much gold as Great Britain and Germany, and nearly as much as all the belligerent countries combined. We lead a long way in the production of wheat; we raise most of the world's corn and cotton; produce most of the oil and copper; turn out annually as much steel as Great Britain, France and Germany combined; and possess coal lands as great as their aggregate area.

All the energies of our country must be concentrated upon the prosecution of the war and in meeting the vast outlays which are vitally necessary to that end. The strain will be great. Inefficiency and waste must necessarily increase the burden intolerably, and might prove fatal to our cause, which is the cause of the civilized world.

There is necessity for a budget system as there never was before; and such a reform is now advocated by all thinking men. There is abundant literature for our guidance. The Academy itself, in its *Annals*, has published a series of able papers on "Public Budgets,"[1] with a bibliography of select references on the subject. President Taft made a practical beginning in the application of the budget idea to our national government and devised forms and reports which should prove of great value in the study and formulation of a budget plan. The introduction of such a system would not be the least of the great victories democracy must win.

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[1] *See The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, November, 1915.

INTERNATIONAL AND NATIONAL FOOD CONTROL

By Alonzo E. Taylor, M.D.,

Member of the War Trade Board, and of the Food Administration.

The subject of food control is so large and it lends itself with such difficulty to systematic treatment, that I believe it will be a less unprofitable contribution upon my part if I confine myself to three or four points that mean much from the interpretive point of view. We use the word "priority" a great deal, and we mean by it that some one has a superior right to the possession of a particular commodity. Now, in the final analysis, the food problem resolves itself into a problem of priorities, because we do not all possess the same right to food stuffs in the qualitative or quantitative sense.

In international relations, we have four groups of priorities: our Allies, the neutrals of Europe, the neutrals of the Western Hemisphere, and ourselves. The priority claims of our Allies, of course based upon statistical data, are largely the expression of the fact that they have upon their lands the actual fields of battle. The priority claims of the neutral nations in Europe rest upon a peculiar basis, are frequently misunderstood, but are of great importance from the viewpoint both of political and social relations and from the standpoint of the carrying on of the war. We have made definite commitments of food stuffs to Switzerland, Holland and Norway. These commitments are an expression of the realization upon the part of the Allies that the neutrals in Europe occupy a position which compels recognition, entirely apart from humanitarian considerations. Their commerce was free; they secured their subsistence from the four quarters of the globe. They are hemmed in now by a submarine warfare, and their commercial relations are restricted because they are unable, in a competitive sense, to secure in the markets of the world the attention that formerly they did secure. In other words, both the Allies and the submarine warfare of the enemy operate in the direction of restriction of supplies to the neutral nations of Europe. And in consideration of the situation, the Allies owe it to Switzerland, Holland and Norway, in the same sense that we owe it to Belgium, which is overrun by Germany, to maintain their subsistence; and it is a priority of high order.

The neutrals of the Western Hemisphere have priority rights upon food stuffs of the world. More than that, they have priority rights upon food stuffs of the United States. Prior to the war we had practically ceased to be a food-exporting nation. We were, in fact, a food-importing nation. The neutral nations of the Western Hemisphere secured their food stuffs elsewhere. They supplied raw materials to us and they purchased finished products from us. Be they manufactured commodities or food stuffs, there is no other place now where the neutral nations can secure finished products except from the United States. For example, they used to import cheese from Germany and Holland; they now must appeal to us for cheese if they are to secure it. The whole world turns to us now for food. From most of the neutral nations of the entire world come appeals for certain articles; from missionaries, miners and lumbermen, from the south coast of Africa, the South Sea Islands, China, and all through South America; from every direction come appeals to us for food stuffs of certain kinds in certain amounts, finished food stuffs as a rule, in return for raw products.

These appeals constitute priorities that must be given full consideration by the Allies, entirely apart from our war program; and in addition, in consideration of the war program directly, because food stuffs constitute a fraction of the finished products that we must export as commodities in order to pay for raw materials. It seems to be extremely difficult to secure from the general American public a recognition of the fundamental fact that we must pay for everything that we buy in terms of international exchange; that we cannot pay in gold or securities but must pay in commodities; and, therefore, that the entire standard of life, plane of living and ideas of consumption of the American people must be guided by the consideration that we must ship from this country finished commodities of every kind in order to pay the neutral nations of the world for the indispensable raw materials which we secure from them, that are vital to the carrying on of the war. It is impossible, for example, to expect to secure nitrates from Chili and manganese from Brazil, and so on and so forth, unless we are willing to send women's hats to Chili and worsteds to Brazil and so on. The field of exchange becomes a broad one, but the principle must be established that the necessity of paying for raw materials with commodities rather than with gold or securities constitutes a veritable priority claim upon the part of these nations, and this claim extends to food stuffs to a very considerable extent. Lastly, of course, we have our commitments to our own people.

Now, if one studies the situation of international priorities in the other countries at war, where the same situation holds, because even to this day our Allies are compelled to export finished commodities, we realize that these three sets of external priorities, our Allies, the neutrals of Europe and the neutrals of South America, may assume one of two sets of relations with respect to the domestic program: they may be competitive or they may be unified into a single agency. If they were competitive, we would have the British wheat executive, the Swiss food controller and the Cuban Council of Defence competing in the United States for food stuffs, with, of course, the result of laying a foundation for speculation, of which there would be neither measurement nor control.

The only escape from this is to unify all of these agencies and to direct the stream of exports; once it has left the producer it must pass through one single channel to the various lands to which the commodities are to be exported. In other words, there must be one buyer for export. Now, the moment that we assume the second of these obligations, which is to have one buyer in place of many competitive price bidders, we place in the one agency a buying power that is almost immeasurable as against the domestic buyer. This necessarily, therefore, leads to the determination that the organization that buys for export, must be the identical organization that controls domestic consumption and as far as possible the channels of trade. This is one of the most difficult features of food control, in the international sense—the machinery by which we will supply the food stuffs due to our Allies, to the neutrals in Europe and to the neutrals in the rest of the world from our stocks, without compromising our domestic situation or allowing the buyer of a foreign agency of this type to appear upon the domestic market. Obviously, an analysis of such relationship from the classical standpoint of supply and demand, becomes directly out of question.

Leaving now the international group of priorities, we have domestically also three groups of definite priorities that must be given consideration. And here again we find it in this country, as in

England, France and Germany, a very difficult problem to secure assent to the proposition that there are differential priorities within a nation. We are possessed of equal rights in liberty and in the pursuit of happiness; but this does not mean, in war time, an equal right for the possession of specified food stuffs or comestibles regarded as a unit. The first priority naturally goes to the military forces, and this priority is one not only extreme in amount but very specific in other directions, since the standardization of the requirements of the military forces has been brought to a point of practical perfection. The specifications are very high and the demands are definite, and it is necessary in order to fill these demands that a waste of raw commodities occur, which is not true in the case of articles for civilian utilization. For example, if we wish a million shoes for civilians, it is very different from getting a million shoes for soldiers, since a million soldiers' shoes destroy far more cow hides than a million civilians' shoes, because of the higher requirements. Thus, the priority of military requirements becomes a difficult one because it exercises a disproportionate drain upon our commodities, and the full requirement of the soldier is many times the mean requirement of the civilian.

Secondly, there is a very definite priority in favor of the working classes. This priority has been met abroad in one of several ways—at least, they have attempted to meet it in one of several ways. But they have all finally come to one solution, or one attempted solution, and that is direct subsidy. Nowhere abroad today among the warring nations, in England, France, Germany or Austria-Hungary, do they attempt to secure for their working classes food at the wage of the classes themselves; but there is everywhere,—to a different extent in the different countries and with different commodities—a direct subsidy on the part of the state. Every English workman who purchases bread for 9 cents knows that it costs the state 12 cents; every German workman who purchases potatoes for M. 5.75 knows it costs the state M. 7.50. There is a fixed price for the producer and consumer; in order to secure the subsistence of the working classes at the prevalent wage, they are compelled to make a direct subsidy to the working classes. We are not in that situation, but we have imposed upon us an equally pressing obligation. There are classes who can adapt consumption, and the classes who can yield and who have the leeway, must grant that leeway to the working classes if we are to avoid the final step to which our Allies have been driven.

There is an excellent illustration in the case of wheat just now. We have not enough wheat left in this country to supply our own usual demands, because it has gone abroad to our Allies. There is not enough wheat left to supply each person in the United States with the normal amount; nor is there enough left to maintain half of the normal flour consumption. Wheat has a fixed price to the producer. Wheat flour is the cheapest food, practically speaking, on the market today. We wish to send wheat to our Allies, the chief reason being that wheat lends itself to the subsistence of our Allies with the least degree of labor; our Allies are overworked to a very much greater extent than we are and to an extent of which Americans have little conception.

Since our Allies are overworked, they ought to receive consideration at our hands in every direction. We want to send them a food supply at the least outlay of woman's work, and that is why wheat is going to them. Now, that being true, we are deliberately cutting our wheat supply down and leaving the rice, corn and oats supply high. Now, the same state of affairs that induces us as a nation to elect to eat oats, rice and corn in this country in order to send wheat abroad is equally imperative upon the well-to-do classes and the rural communities, who have freedom of choice, to elect to eat corn, rice and oats and allow the working classes in the cities to have wheat flour in disproportionate amounts. If it were to be put in figures, for example, I should say something of this sort. We have statistically eight pounds per person per month of wheat flour. Now, until the new crop, every person of means ought to make it possible for a laboring man, whose wage makes it a difficulty for him to meet the cost of subsistence, to have not eight pounds but, let us say, twelve pounds. In other words, each one of us must average off our consumption with the consumption of a worker whose wage will not permit him to elect a higher priced food instead of wheat flour.

For the wheat still unconsumed, the same argument that holds between us and France, holds in this country, as between the well-to-do and the rural communities on the one hand, and the wage-earners of the large cities on the other, because it is the wage-earners of large cities who feel the very narrow margin between wage and cost of living. This is a priority of great importance for the maintenance of social rest and industrial efficiency. If this priority is not guaranteed and maintained by the voluntary efforts of the American people, we will face the precise situation they have all been driven to abroad, that of direct subsidy, much as this would be against the traditions of the American people. If we should continue to face with our cereals stocks the same situation next year that we are facing now, we would have to judge between our present attempt at solution and the situation into which the British government has been forced, because in the final analysis, the relations are absolutely identical.

A peculiar experience is observed in connection with the relation between priority and price. It has been a common theorem that production could be enlarged by increasing price. This has been proved for agricultural products, regarded as a unit, to be fallacious. Nowhere in the warring or neutral world has increase in price resulted in increase of production as a unit. One can secure increase in a particular direction, but it will be at the expense of another direction. In England today the increase in production of wheat is secured directly at the expense of the production of other food stuffs. This is true in France, in Germany, and in all the neutral nations around Germany; high prices to the producer under war conditions do not and cannot lead to increased production. Now priority appeal does this in a particular direction, in the experience of the nations at war, more effectively than price.

The present cry is for wheat in this country. It is a priority responsibility. It is recognized that wheat need has a priority in this war; the farmer planted wheat not because he believed $2.20 to be a better price for him than the possible price he hoped he might secure for other grains—he has planted it unquestionably as a direct response to the priority appeal. Here we have the same situation that they have found abroad both with the Allies and with the enemies. One secures a public response from the standpoint of producer for production in a certain direction more effectively by having it issued as a priority appeal, and having it understood that it is a priority essential to war, than by price elevation. In other words, in the final analysis, the public is essentially and deeply patriotic and understands what the word priority means.

Now, there is a way in which food stuff can be increased in war time, though not as a unit by the increase of price. It is by the re-definition of the standard of life. What do I mean by that? I mean that we utilize only a small portion of our crops as they are raised, as they leave the land, for the finished product on the table. We never eat over 5 per cent of our corn or over 10 per cent of our oats, but we consume all of our rice and wheat. We have so specialized in food production that we consume but a small amount of our produce. If we were to take the ration of the American people in 1888 and apply it to the American people of today, with our present production, we would find ourselves blessed with a superabundance that we do not possess today, because the standard of what constituted subsistence then was nearer the soil—more elemental; it demanded less manufacture, less handling, and, of course, less waste. Now we can secure an increase of food stuffs by going back—by the simplification of life. Every pound of meat we consume is produced at the cost of ten or fifteen times the unit value of its caloric content. With the nations at war the diet becomes more simple, more vegetarian, more rough; and thus they find the differential between the total produce and the consumed fraction much smaller.

Four months ago we did not possess milling facilities in this country to carry more than half of the cereal requirements for cereals other than wheat. Today we mill corn and other non-wheat cereals in amounts not only sufficient to cover the non-wheat requirements of the American people but also to freely export them, indicating to what degree the feature of manufacture bears on utilization. We say that we had 1,300,000,000 bushels of oats last year, but we only manufactured 8,000,000 barrels of oatmeal; and as oats cannot be consumed by human beings in any other state, the real definition of our oat food is not the yield of oats at all—it is the milling capacity for oatmeal and that alone. Just as this is increased and as we increase industrially the output in these directions, and as diet of our people becomes more simplified and more primitive, we secure an increase in human food. But we do not secure it by increasing prices on all food stuffs, either artificially or naturally, by fixation or speculation, so long as we define food by the present standard of living.

And lastly, the point that impresses itself upon every man who has observed on both sides—and it has happened to be my privilege to observe on both sides of the battle line—is the almost utter futility, or, at least, the very great difficulty, of getting a nation to save food, even one commodity of food, before it has attained the sacrificial consciousness of war. We cannot expect a nation to save food if it does not save automobiles, graphophones, hats, shoes and all commodities of life, especially luxuries. It is impossible. One cannot separate out of one's consciousness a particular commodity and give it a priority in saving. A fraction can do it—perhaps 30 per cent of the people can do it;—but a people as a whole cannot do it, and that is the reason why in this country we have, just as they had in England in 1916 and in Germany in 1915, difficulty in the program of food conservation because our people have not yet attained sacrificial consciousness for the carrying on of the war—in which we view every act of our lives and everything we do and everything we wear and everything we eat, and everything we desire, and everything we use, from the standpoint of a new rule, whether it will or will not aid in the carrying on of the war, whether it is or is not a positive military measure. That is the final step of analysis in all systems of food control. When we have reached that plane, as they have reached it in England and France, the whole problem of control becomes simplified, because the motivation is there that makes it possible to carry through a repression applied to foods in general or to any particular food.

ESSENTIALS TO A FOOD PROGRAM FOR NEXT YEAR

By Gifford Pinchot, LL.D., Milford, Pennsylvania

Food has been our greatest contribution to the war, and it is likely to continue so. Heroic France is today actually so short of food that she has been obliged to cut down her consumption of wheat 25 per cent, her consumption of sugar 49 per cent, and her consumption of fats 48 per cent, in spite of all we could do to help. That fact brings home the part the food we alone can supply has been playing and is to play in winning the war. Great Britain, also, is dependent still for 65 per cent of her essential foodstuffs on Canada and the United States.

Food is our greatest contribution to the war, and our greatest domestic problem as well. From March 1, 1916, to March 1, 1917, the reserve of the six principal grains in the United States was reduced by an amount equal to one pound per day for every man, woman, and child in America. The difference between the amount of grain in our country at the beginning and at the end of that one year was greater than any crop ever raised in the United States, with three exceptions. We are not only faced with the duty which has been laid upon us to supply food to our Allies and to the neutral nations of the world, a duty which we must perform or lose the war, but also with the duty to restore our own reserve of grain to a point where a single bad crop cannot mean famine in the land. The food situation is serious, if anything can be.

The amount of food available can be increased by producing more or by using less. Nine-tenths of our attention in the United States seems to have been given to saving what we had instead of to the vastly more fundamental question of producing more. If we had concentrated on the question of larger production a reasonable fraction of the attention, ingenuity, and effort that has been given to conservation, there would have been far more food for our Allies and our own people, and much of the painful need for saving as well as the anxiety over supply would have disappeared. It would be hard to imagine a more grievous and unnecessary mistake.

It is substantially too late to increase the crop of 1918—that is fixed, except as cultivation and the weather may affect it still. It will be large or small, as may happen, and there is little we can do about it. The indications are that an exceptional spring will give us far more wheat than we had a right to expect from the area planted. But we cannot safely count on a repetition of such good luck. Now is the time, while action can still produce results, to plan for the crop of 1919.

Increase of crop production is mainly a question of dealing with men. To secure a larger crop is a matter of getting the farmers to produce more, and in order to do that we must deal with them as they are, and take measures such as will fit their circumstances, meet with their approval, and therefore produce results.

One of the main difficulties in our food situation has been that the officials in control have not understood the farmer. We have had the city man's point of view in control of the food question, and not the point of view of the man who produces the food. But the farmer is the man who grows the crop, and to get him to increase his crop you must reach his heart and his mind. But he cannot be reached along the lines that appeal to the banker, or the merchant, or the brick-layer, or the hand in a factory, but only along lines that fit in with the ways of thinking and living of the man who actually walks in the furrow and milks the cow. And that has not been done.

I am not going into the question of the mistakes that have been made. We are at war, and the past is valuable mainly as a warning. The thing to be done now is to provide for the next crop, leaving the story of what has already happened to be written afterward. When that story is told, the facts concerning the relation of our government to the farmers during our first year in the war will make the story of our blunders in aircraft production look small in comparison. If our farmers, in spite of the failure of the government in organization and understanding, in spite of the lack of labor, credit, and supplies, still increase or maintain the crop production of last year, it will be an achievement far beyond all praise, and it will have saved the nation from losing the war.

The farmer is a member of a highly skilled profession. There is no other man who works for as small a wage who is as skilled a worker as the farmer, and there is no other man who requires as large a field of knowledge to be successful with the work he does. In talking recently to a body of farmers, I assumed that it takes about three years to make a skilled farm hand. Immediately a gray-haired man in the audience spoke up and said, "Ten." To make a farmer capable of directing the work of a farm of course takes very much longer. All this is not generally understood in town. I had occasion, the other day, to tell an energetic, robust and intelligent city man that he could not earn his keep on a farm. He was inclined to be hurt, and very much surprised. "Why," said he, "I supposed anybody could work on a farm." Said I, "A farmer wouldn't have you on his place," and it was true.

A farmer is not only a member of a highly specialized profession, —we must remember that he is also a business man in a business which involves taking larger risks than almost any other business. In addition to all the ordinary chances of business, he is subject to the weather to a degree that is otherwise practically unknown. More than that, he has his own way of thinking, and having reached a decision he is slower to change than the city man. Our city people are inclined to look down on the farmer. They sometimes think of him as being different from them, and therefore inferior. But this is very far from true.

When all is said and done the man who owns the land from which he makes his living is the backbone of the country. Furthermore, with his family he makes up one-third of the population. Even from the point of view of organization he is not to be despised, for our organized farmers are more in number than the whole membership of the American Federation of Labor.

The demands which will be made upon us for food in 1919 and 1920 will be enormous, and they will be made absolutely irrespective of whether the war ends or not. When victory comes we shall have more, and not less, people to feed than before, for the demands of half-starved Germany and Austria will be added. The ending of the war will produce no more food and no more ships. It will not bring the wheat of India or Argentina or Australia a mile nearer to London or Berlin. The demand on us in 1919 will be colossal whether the war ends or not.

What then must be done to reach the farmer, supply his indispensable needs, and make it possible for him to produce in 1919, when he would like to produce what the nation and the world vitally needs that he should produce, but what the bungling of men in high places bids fair to keep him from being able to produce this year?

First, wipe out the distinction which has been held, and most harmfully held, between the production of food and the use of food. Our conservation measures have been directed upon the theory that the production of food was unchangeable, like the tides or the coming of day and night, and that nothing that was done with the food after it was grown could increase or decrease the growing of food. That theory is wholly mistaken. Very much to the contrary, everything that is done to conserve food, to regulate price, to restrict use, to promote saving, has its direct effect on production. Food is a commodity, and the law of supply and demand, when not repealed by monopoly, applies to food as it does to any other commodity. Conservation measures affect demand. Therefore they must influence supply, or production also. The farmer determines what he is going to grow next year, subject to the demands of his rotation, by the success he has had with the things he grew last year. He is in business to make money. Therefore, he will grow most of what pays best, and he cannot do otherwise.

Take the matter of milk, for example. Whatever reduces the consumption of milk tends to result in less milk for those who need it instead of more. The farmer must milk his cow daily. If, because of any "Save the Milk" campaign, the demand for his milk is cut off, in self-defense he must cut off the supply. He cannot produce milk at a loss. He cannot turn a tap, and hold his milk for a later market. So he reduces supply to the level of demand by selling the cow to the butcher. But if the demand increases at a living price, he will keep his cow and raise more. The more consumption of milk is stimulated, the greater will production be, and the more consumption is reduced, the less the supply of this best and cheapest of animal foods for all of us. A "Save the Milk" campaign is a blunder into which only a city mind could fall.

Chickens, potatoes, veal, lamb, and other produce might likewise be cited to show how the conservation of a farm product has an immediate and direct influence on the production of it, and how wise and skillful a hand is needed to deal successfully with the amazingly sensitive and pervasive relation between agricultural production and the conservation of agricultural products.

The first thing to be done in preparing for a crop in 1919 large enough to meet our foreknown needs is then to wipe out the artificial wall which has been created between food production, which has been assigned to the Department of Agriculture, and food conservation, which the Food Administration supervises and controls. If actual consolidation is impracticable, then at least such coöperation should be enforced between them as will effectually prevent the taking of any conservation measure until farm experts have considered and approved it in relation to production.

The second thing is to see that the farmer has the means with which to produce. Of these, the most important is labor. Man power in agriculture has exactly the same value as man power in war. Since neither high school boys, nor failures from the slums, nor casuals from the streets, nor women on vacation can supply the year-long need of the American farmer for skilled labor, since even before the war began farm labor was probably 10 per cent short, since more than a quarter of our National Army is composed of skilled farm workers, and since it is not easy to grow more crops with less men, the labor situation is critical.

Normally, there is about one farm laborer to every two farms in the United States. We cannot feed our people and our Allies without the farmer's hired man, but farm help is hard to find and hard to hold. As a rule, the farm laborer has small pay, long hours, complicated tools, and, therefore, the necessity for very high skill in handling them. He does a great many different things, and he must do them with skill or not at all. Then he is often quite isolated; he suffers from exposure to heat and cold; he has no holidays and very few pleasures; and he can get better pay and easier hours elsewhere. It must be made worth while for farm hands to work on the farm.

The government must give the farmer reasonable confidence that in 1919 he will have labor, that he will have seed, fertilizer, farm implements, and credit,—all upon terms that will enable him to produce without loss. There is nothing so destructive of business enterprise as the lack of confidence, and the American farmer has not had confidence this year. It was his patriotism, and nothing else, which led him to plant 42,000,000 acres of winter wheat.

The farmer knows as well as any one that the price of $2.20 a bushel for wheat was not fixed in order to guarantee him a high price. It was fixed in order to guarantee the city consumer against a higher price. The $2.20 limit was not an effort to keep the price of wheat up, but a successful effort to keep the price of wheat down. Price fixing of that kind does two things—it discourages production, and it increases consumption,—and these are just the two things that, in the face of a scarcity, we cannot afford to have done. I have no doubt that our acreage of winter wheat this year would have been as large as the Department of Agriculture asked for, if it had not been for the knowledge of the farmers that the price they were getting was being held down by artificial restriction when the prices they were paying were rising at pleasure. As it was, the area planted to winter wheat, while very slightly larger than for 1914, was no less than five million acres smaller than the Department of Agriculture indicated as being necessary to meet the needs of this country and of our Allies. That is the essential figure—five million acres less than the Department of Agriculture asked for. Comparisons with normal times are meaningless or misleading now. The true standard of judgment is what we need now to win the war, not what we used to need in peace.

The farmers raised a great crop last year, at the urging of the government. Many of them lost by their patriotic effort because the marketing facilities were not properly organized. Men who even sent their wives and daughters into the fields found themselves at the end of the season very much out of pocket. The point is not so much that they lost money, but that they cannot lose money and go on farming. The average farmer in this country gets only about $400 cash a year. He cannot keep on farming if he loses many acres of potatoes, as many and many a farmer did in Pennsylvania and other states, when it costs him $90 an acre to put those potatoes in.

The farmer sees that nearly every other producer of the things essential for carrying on the war is assured of a profit. He reads that at Hog Island the government is furnishing money, putting up houses, finding labor, and then guaranteeing a definite percentage of return to the men who undertake the work. He reads of the same thing in other war industries. He has heard that the government is going to put billions of dollars into such industries at huge aggregate profits to their promoters. He does not want huge profits himself,—well he knows he will not get them—but he does want reasonable business security, and it is fair and right that he should have it. At present it is denied to him, and to him almost alone.

Finally—and this, I think, is the most essential need in the whole situation—the farmer must be taken into partnership in the handling of the war. So far as I know there has not been a representative of organized farmers in any position of high responsibility in any organization in Washington charged with the conduct of the war. A third of the people of the United States, who have been producing food, the admitted first essential for the successful conduct of the war, have been denied a voice in dealing with the great questions, even the farm questions, which concern the war. It does not amount to representation for a third of the people of this country to occasionally call a few farmers to Washington for a few days, there to tell them what has been done and secure their approval.

The treatment of the organized farmers may well be contrasted with the proper recognition that has been given to organized labor. A special branch of the Council of National Defence was established to represent it, and organized labor has from the beginning been properly recognized and continuously called into consultation. All I ask is that the enormous body of organized farmers, representing the largest single element among our people, supplying a more essential ingredient for the success of the war than any other, should themselves have that proper consideration, which is admittedly proper in the case of organized workers off the farm, and certainly is no less proper in the case of organized workers on the farm.

The farmer feels deeply that he has been left out. Again and again, through the Federal Board of Farm Organizations, he has offered his services; again and again he has asked for a working partnership in the war; urgently and repeatedly he has called attention to his lack of necessities without which it would be impossible for him to carry out as fully as he would like to do the duty which the war has imposed upon him. Grudging and merely ostensible recognition, and officially inspired reproof have been substantially the only results. Now is the time, well in advance of the crop of 1919, to call the producers of this country into consultation, to see to it that the farmer's point of view is fairly represented in dealing with farm questions, that matters which are within the knowledge and the competence of this highly trained class of men should no longer be dealt with as they have been dealt with hitherto—almost purely from the point of view of men who were ignorant of the farmer's mind, and apparently altogether out of touch with the conditions under which the farmer does his work.

This is my last word. Remember that farmers are just as different from city men as city men are different from seamen, and that in dealing with farmers, as in dealing with any other highly trained and specialized body of men, success depends on the use of methods which they understand. This fact the city mind seems wholly unable to grasp, and it is the city mind which is in charge of this war. The one thing most needful in order to secure for the world in 1919 a crop equal to the need we know is coming, is to make the farmers of the United States cease to feel that they are outsiders in the war, exhorted and preached at by men who do not understand them, and to take them into a really effective and equal working partnership, and to see that they are recognized as partners on that basis in the winning of this war for human liberty.

THE SUPPLY OF WHEAT

By George W. Norris,

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We are not at all concerned with the food problems of the Central Empires, and we are not particularly concerned with the problem as it affects neutrals. We are, however, vitally concerned with the problem as it affects our Allies. Prior to the war, the average annual wheat production of Great Britain was 61,000,000 bushels and its consumption 282,000,000 bushels, so that it had to import annually about 221,000,000 bushels. France produced 324,000,000, consumed 379,000,000, and therefore had to import 55,000,000. Italy produced 191,000,000, consumed 249,000,000, and therefore had to import 58,000,000. The three countries together produced 576,000,000, consumed 910,000,000, and therefore had to import 334,000,000.

With the outbreak of war the production of these countries necessarily fell off, due partly to the fact that there was a shortage of farm labor resulting from the draft for war purposes, and partly also to the fact that a large part of the best wheat lands of France lie in the occupied or devastated regions in the northeast. As a result of these conditions, the 1914 production of wheat by our three Allies fell to 89 per cent of their normal. This percentage was reduced to 81 in 1915, to 77 in 1916, and to 60 in 1917. Translating these percentages into bushels means that in 1917 these three countries had a deficiency from the normal of 228,000,000 bushels. Adding this to their normal pre-war importation of 334,000,000 bushels, we get 562,000,000 bushels as their import requirements to meet normal consumption.

WHEAT RESOURCES OF THE WORLD

Where were these 562,000,000 bushels to come from? The four great exporting countries of the world are Russia, the United States, Canada and Argentina. Internal conditions in Russia and transportation difficulties made it impossible to expect any help from that source. The normal exports from the United States before the war were about 116,000,000 bushels, from Canada 111,000, 000, and from Argentina 100,000,000—a total for the three of 327,000,000, or just about three-fifths of what was required. The great demand for tonnage made it almost impossible to draw to any great extent upon the Australian or Indian surplus, and undesirable to import from Argentina if the needs could be met elsewhere. The reduction in farm labor resulting from the heavy enlistment in Canada made any great increase in the Canadian supply unlikely.

Manifestly it was up to the United States to supply the largest possible measure of the deficiency. It was not reasonable to believe that our exportable surplus could be very greatly increased by economy in home consumption, because, wasteful as we have been in other things, we were not great wheat eaters. The consumption in this country is only about six bushels per capita per year, which is about the same as that of Great Britain and Spain, and less than Italy or France. Ordinary economy in home consumption could not add more than from fifty to one hundred million bushels to the exportable surplus. The circle therefore narrowed until there was only one possible outlet. There were no other countries that could be drawn upon and our home consumption could not be curtailed to an extent that would go very far toward meeting the export demands. The only remedy was increased production in the United States. Prior to our entrance into the war, the high price of wheat was a sufficient incentive for such increased production, while since our entrance into the war there has been the added and it is to be hoped even greater incentive of supplying our Allies with the staff of life.

What were our opportunities in this respect? In 1910 we had 45,681,000 acres in wheat and raised a crop of 635,000,000 bushels. In 1915 we had increased the acreage about one-third to 60,469,000 acres, and the crop nearly two-thirds to 1,026,000,000 bushels. It might have been supposed that we would make another increase in both acreage and production in 1916 and a still further increase in 1917. Instead of doing so, our acreage in 1916 fell to 52,785,000, and the crop to 640,000,000 bushels. In 1917 the acreage fell still further to 45,941,000, with a crop of 651,000,000 bushels. In other words, the 1917 acreage and crop was almost exactly equal to that of 1910, and represented only three-fourths of the 1915 acreage and less than 65 per cent of the 1915 production.

In the meantime, reserve stocks had been exhausted; our Allies in spite of the greatest economy in consumption had been reduced to bread cards and rations; and the situation was so acute and so plain that he who ran might read. It called for extraordinary and heroic action. The Treasury Department was confronted last year with the problem of raising $6,000,000,000. It was raised, but it was not raised by any ordinary or routine methods. It was only raised by making plain to the people of the country the vital necessity of raising it, and by enlisting the interest and the personal efforts of hundreds of thousands of the patriotic men and women who are today conducting the third liberty loan campaign. Unless that money had been raised in this country, neither we nor our Allies could have fought this war as we have, or indeed at all. Unless more wheat can be raised in this country, it is a very serious question whether our Allies can continue to wage war.

THE FARMER'S PROBLEMS

I have said that in 1915 there were nearly 15,000,000 more acres planted to wheat than in 1917, and that these 15,000,000 acres were land suited to the growing of wheat was proven by the fact that the production per acre that year was greater than in 1917. The American farmer cannot be expected to sow wheat or cotton or any other crop on land not adapted to its cultivation, but there are more than 60,000,000 acres of land in the United States adapted to the cultivation of wheat. What did the farmer need to induce him to put 70,000,000, or 80,000,000 acres into wheat? He needed first of all to have his attention focused upon the critical nature of the situation. He needed to have made plain to him that there was a distinct and positive call upon his patriotism. In the second place, it was necessary in some localities that he should be supplied with seed, for cash if he had the cash to pay, and on credit if he had not. It was a situation where either the government or local organizations or, if necessary, private individuals should take some risks in financing it. The risk of financing the farmer's requirements for seed on the security of a crop lien is very slight. In the third place, he needed every assurance that could be given him that the capital that he would need to make and harvest his crop should be available. Here again the help of local associations and groups of bankers might have been enlisted to a much greater extent than it was. In the fourth place, he needed an assurance that he would be able to get labor. Holding out to him the promise of a large price for his crop could not take the place of these assurances, because it is of no use to offer a man a high price for his crop unless he can have a reasonable assurance that he will be able to produce the crop.

To what extent were these assurances given? In the President's message to farmers on January 31, he said: "The attention of the War Department has been very seriously centered upon the task of interfering with the labor of the farms as little as possible, and under the new draft regulations I believe that the farmers of the country will find that their supply of labor will be very much less seriously drawn upon than it was under the first and initial draft." This was a statement of the fact that the attention of the War Department was centered upon the task, and of a belief that the farmers were to find their supply of labor very much less seriously drawn upon than it was in the first draft, but admirable as that message was it could not afford the farmers the assurance needed. In the Department of Agriculture's appeal to farmers to increase wheat acreage, published on February 19th, it was stated that: "While the labor situation still presents difficulties. . . . the farmers succeeded in overcoming them last year, and with better organization, and especially with deferred classification of skilled farm labor, the difficulties again can be surmounted and production maintained and increased." This was encouraging, but was not yet definite. In another statement, it was said that the Departments of Agriculture and of Labor were "continuing to assist farmers in securing the labor needed in their operations," and were planning to assist in the transfer of labor from community to community and from state to state, but it was not until a few weeks ago that there came a definite announcement from the War Department that drafted men who were needed on farms would be given a furlough for that purpose, and that no additional men would be drafted before the end of the present harvest season.

Whether this last announcement has come in time remains to be seen. Winter wheat, which represents considerably more than half of our total production, was of course planted last fall, and fortunately it has come through the winter so well that the present forecast is for a crop of 560,000,000 bushels, which is about one-eighth above the 1910–14 average, although over 100,000,000 bushels below the forecast at the same period in 1914 and in 1915. An unusually large acreage is being sown to spring wheat, and the size of our exportable surplus next fall is now dependent upon the kind of weather that we get this summer. It is not possible that we shall be able to export anything like the amount that we ought to export, and there can be no doubt that we should exert to the utmost the only power that we have—that of economizing in consumption. Unless we should be fortunate enough to get an unexpectedly large crop of spring wheat this summer, this economy must continue not only through this calendar year but at least until next summer. It is to be hoped that before the time for the sowing of winter wheat next fall there will be effected the same sort of organization for getting wheat that has been effected for getting dollars, because the one is just as vitally important as the other.

THE LIVE-STOCK AND MEAT SITUATION

By L. D. H. Weld,

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In consideration of war-time food problems, there is perhaps no industry which is of more vital importance than the live-stock and meat industry. Meat furnishes an extremely important part of the soldier's ration and of the family diet in America, and the demands from the Allies have been increasing. Furthermore, there is no industry in the country which can point to such a proud record of achievement, in that the live-stock raisers and the packers have fulfilled all war-time demands, and have delivered promptly.

The accomplishments of this industry are all the more remarkable when one considers the situation immediately preceding the war. Live-stock production had not been keeping pace with population. There was, however, no need for it to do so, because until recent years we had always had much more meat than we needed, and we exported heavily to foreign countries. Since 1900, Argentina and Australia have been gradually taking our place in foreign markets because they could produce beef and mutton more cheaply than we could. As a result, our exports had dwindled to a very small amount before the war, and we were producing only enough to feed ourselves. With the outbreak of the European war, unusual demands were made on the United States for beef and pork and fats. Our exports of beef products increased from 148,000,000 pounds in 1914 to 411,000,000 pounds in 1917, and our exports of pork products increased from 922,000,000 pounds in 1914, to 1,500,000,000 pounds in 1917.

INCREASING PRODUCTION

To satisfy this demand from abroad, the American farmer came to the rescue by increasing his production of live stock, with the result that there are more cattle and hogs on farms today than ever before in the history of the country. During both 1916 and 1917 there were more cattle marketed than ever before, and it was commonly thought that these large shipments must mean that the stock of live animals was being sacrificed to supply the great demand. The estimates of the United States Department of Agriculture, however, showed an increase in the number of cattle on farms for January, 1917, as compared with January, 1916, and a still further increase was reported for January, 1918.

The number of hogs marketed in 1917 was not quite as large as the number marketed during 1916, but it was greater than for any year previous to the war. The Department of Agriculture estimates show an increase in the number of hogs on farms for 1918, and hog production has been increasing rapidly during the past few months due to the large corn crop of 1917, and in spite of the fact that much of this corn is of poor quality.

Because of the smaller marketings of hogs during 1917, and because it was believed that the supply of cattle was being used up, it appeared during the fall of 1917 that there might be a shortage of meat. Consequently the Food Administration took the matter in hand and established a department known as the Meat Division, to handle problems connected with the live-stock and packing industry. The Food Administration has done five principal things in attempting to improve conditions in the live-stock and meat industry:

1. An attempt has been made to encourage the production of hogs by promising to maintain, if possible, a minimum price of $15.50 per hundredweight in Chicago. This was not an absolute promise on the part of the government, but it was believed that through purchases for the army and the Allies, the price could be kept above that point. This announcement undoubtedly en-

couraged farmers to breed and feed hogs during the winter, and the Chicago price has remained well above this minimum practically all of the time. Hog production is generally conceded to have been profitable to farmers in the corn belt during the past few months.

2. The Food Administration attempted to reduce consumption of meats by establishing meatless Tuesdays, porkless Saturdays, and one meatless meal a day. Parts of the country had two meatless days a week. The stock raisers of the country have never been enthusiastic about meatless days and have continually protested against them on the ground that they reduced demand, and consequently prices, with the result that their feeding operations were rendered unprofitable. It is undoubtedly true that many farmers who bought cattle at the high prices which prevailed last fall, merely to fatten them for market, have lost money during the winter, although those who have held long enough to obtain advantage of the increase in prices that has been occurring during March and April may have come out whole or even made a profit on their season's operations.

Since January, 1918, there has been a great increase in the number of hogs marketed and in their average weight. The number received at ten principal markets was 18 per cent greater for February and March, 1918, than for the corresponding two months in 1917, and the average weight showed an increase of about 14 per cent. This means that of late pork production has been nearly one third greater than it was last year. It was largely because of this situation that all bans on meat consumption were removed for a period of thirty days beginning the first of April. At present, pork is plentiful and the packers have larger accumulations of pork products than ever before. It is perfectly legitimate and patriotic to eat pork now (April, 1918); otherwise the price may fall and thereby discourage production.

Meatless days undoubtedly made available for shipment to the Allies larger quantities of meat than would otherwise have been the case. This is especially true of beef, which was accumulated by the packers in the form of frozen beef during the fall months of heavy receipts and held for future shipment. These stocks of frozen beef have subsequently been shipped to the Allies, and beef is none too plentiful at present although there is no shortage.

3. The Food Administration has centralized the purchase of

all meat supplies for the Allies in the Meat Division. This policy has been highly beneficial because it results in the better adjustment of purchases to actual needs and avoids duplication of effort.

4. The Food Administration has attempted to regulate the daily receipts of live stock in Chicago and Kansas City by establishing a zone system of shipment. Formerly live-stock shipments reached Chicago on two days of the week, chiefly Monday and Wednesday, and this custom, which grew up years ago, has been one reason for the fluctuation of live-stock prices. Although this zone system has not been entirely perfected, yet it is an important step in the right direction and has already proved beneficial. It cannot, however, cure the fluctuations in prices, because these fluctuations depend also on the varying receipts from week to week and from month to month, and also on the variations in the demand for meat.

5. Finally, the Food Administration has licensed the packers under the food control law, and it has also limited the profit of the five largest packers in the meat departments of the business to 9 per cent on the capital employed. This limitation amounts to a little over two cents on each dollar of sales. No profit whatever is guaranteed. On certain other branches of the business, which utilize by-products of the meat departments, the limitation is 15 per cent; and on still other branches, which have no connection with the meat departments, such as the butter and egg operations, there is no limitation at all. It would, of course, be discriminatory to limit the profits on these outside departments, unless the profits of other concerns outside the packing business were similarly limited.

PACKERS' PROFITS

There is a good deal of misunderstanding and misapprehension concerning the extent and significance of the profits earned by the large packers. Many consumers feel that the high prices of meat are due to extortionate packer profits, while many farmers feel that the prices of live stock are low for the same reason. To refer to my own company, Swift & Company's profits in 1917 were less than four cents on each dollar of sales. The profit on dressed beef was only about one-fourth of a cent per pound. Complete elimination of these profits would have had practically no effect on the prices of meat and live stock. There is probably no business in the country where the profit is so small in relation to turnover, and where it is such an insignificant factor in prices.

There are those who admit that the packers' profits are small as compared with sales, or as compared with unit of output, but who insist that they represent earnings which are too large with respect to capital employed. It is true that profits were larger in 1917 than for any previous years, but the volume of sales was also much larger, due principally to the high level of prices prevailing,—and it is an easy matter to prove that these profits were reasonable as compared with profits earned in other industries, and that more than a normal profit is necessary during these abnormal times as a protection against rapid industrial changes and price fluctuations, and in order to finance the business at the extremely high prices prevailing. So far as Swift & Company is concerned, everything earned over a fair rate of return to stockholders has been put back into the business to finance operations and to build additions and improvements.

If the large packers had a monopoly of the meat business, there might be more reason to consider a permanent policy of government control of the packing business and limitation of profits. Even if the five large packers worked together, they would handle only about one-third of the total meat supply of the country, and only about 60 per cent of the total handled through slaughtering houses that are inspected by the United States government. But the packers do not act in coöperation with each other in attempting to control either the prices of live stock or the prices of dressed meats. Any person who makes an impartial first-hand study of the methods of dealing in live stock and the sale of dressed meats through the branch houses of the packers, will be struck by the intensity of the competition rather than by any indication that there is monopoly control or manipulation of prices.

The large packing industry is essential in the carrying out of our war-time program. What other form of organization could have shipped 24,000,000 pounds or 800 car loads of meat in one week on three days' notice, as recently did the company that I represent? I may be accused of seizing this opportunity to do a little special pleading on my own account, but I consider it a patriotic duty to call attention to these facts in order to point out the injustice of trying to embarrass an essential and honestly conducted business, especially at a time when its services and coöperation with the government are so vitally necessary to the welfare of the country.

THE FOOD ADMINISTRATION AND THE FOOD SITUATION

On the whole, I feel that the Food Administration has done well in dealing with the live-stock and meat situation and that its efforts deserve the hearty coöperation of all people in the country. It has made mistakes, but it has been willing to correct them. The administration of the Meat Division has been honest and fair, and has been actuated by only the highest patriotic motives. Speaking of the work of the Food Administration in dealing with the food situation in its entirety, I also believe that on the whole it has done its work well and that it has been a great benefit to the country. There are two or three matters, however, in which its policies have not appealed to me as a scientific economist. I refer especially to the attitude of the Food Administration toward the marketing organization in general, and toward speculation.

Although the Food Administration has announced that it does not wish to disturb existing business machinery, I feel that some of its rulings and public announcements have tended to confirm the popular opinion that the present marketing system is wasteful and cumbersome in the extreme, and that goods pass through the hands of too many middlemen on the way from farmer to consumer. The marketing process is complex and costly at best. Many important and difficult services have to be performed, such as the gathering of goods from a myriad of sources; the providing of storage facilities (often with refrigeration); the tying up of capital; the giving of credit and the making of collections; the assumption of risks of loss from price fluctuation, deterioration in quality, etc.; the sorting and grading of commodities and the breaking up of large quantities into small units; the sending out of salesmen to make business connections and to see that each customer gets exactly the quantity and quality of goods that he needs; the delivery of goods to customers; and the maintenance of an accounting machinery to take care of myriads of transactions.

To eliminate a middleman does not eliminate the services that he performed. It merely means that someone else has to perform them. The middleman system has developed for the simple reason that it furnishes the most economical and expeditious method available for performing the marketing functions. It is simply a case of specialization—of division of labor—which results in the greatest product for the least effort, just as division of labor has this result in the manufacturing process.

Speculation and Price Fixation

And again with regard to speculation, I feel that the attitude of the Food Administration tends to confirm the popular notion that speculation—the holding of goods for higher prices—is something reprehensible. Speculation means the buying up of goods and holding them with the hope of re-selling them at a profit rather than at a loss. Since the production of farm products is seasonal, someone must tie up his capital and assume the speculative risk of holding commodities; whoever does so is a speculator, be he farmer, dealer, professional speculator, or consumer. Speculation is necessary; it is a benefit to all mankind. The speculator loses money as often as he makes a profit; his average long-run profit is no more than reasonable.

Speculative competition has two principal functions: it automatically distributes the available stock of commodities over a period of time until a new stock comes to market; and it automatically distributes the available stock at any one time geographically, so that each section of the country, each state, each community, each dealer, gets just the quantity needed. Let the government take away these functions from dealers by fixing the price below the normal price, and it, the government, immediately becomes responsible for the performance of these functions. This explains largely why the distribution of coal and sugar has been unsatisfactory, and why we used wheat too freely last fall and winter.

I am not saying that the government did wrong in fixing prices, which have been lower than they otherwise would have been, but I merely want to point out that speculation is a useful and beneficial thing, and that it does not deserve the popular prejudice that exists against it. Much of the unrest among farmers and consumers is due to a lack of understanding of the marketing organization and of the functions of speculation, and the only way to eventually cure the dissatisfaction resulting from this ignorance, is to gradually educate the public along sound economic lines.

In conclusion, to come back to the meat situation; the supply of meat has increased; the retail prices of meats have not advanced as much as the prices of many other commodities, nor as much as money wages; neither have they advanced as much as the prices paid to farmers for live stock. All war-time demands have been met in full and on time. The packing industry is being regulated by the government, its profits are limited, and live stock is being converted into meat and delivered to consumers at the lowest possible cost and profit. The situation is favorable and the outlook for the future is encouraging. Nevertheless, it is necessary to proceed with caution, and to maintain live-stock production at profitable prices. Overseas demands are increasing, and we must be prepared to meet successfully any contingency, such as a poor corn crop, a prolonged drought in the live-stock producing areas, or an epidemic of live-stock disease.

THE WORK OF THE FEDERAL FOOD ADMINISTRATION

BY JAY COOKE,

Federal Food Administrator for Philadelphia County

The Food Administration was created to meet an urgent war need. Just exactly what its work was to be no one clearly foresaw. All did foresee the large part that America's food would play in winning the war, but just what could be done was not known. Neither could any one foresee the type of problem that would arise. To the Food Administration, therefore, was committed the responsibility of meeting situations as they arose.

This paper will endeavor to state what some of these problems were, and how they were met. The examples have been chosen at random from those which have been constantly arising.

Upon our entering the war, the ordinary business forces that make for a fair distribution of products and a fair price for those products were suspended. It became the function of the Food Administration to put into force rulings that would protect the long term interests of producers and consumers. The fundamental principle on which the Food Administration proceeds is reliance upon the will and ability of a democracy to adjust itself to the needs of the nation without autocratic control.

WHEAT, MEAT AND SUGAR

When it became known that wheat must be shipped abroad in ever increasing quantities the government was faced with three alternatives. Inasmuch as a great deal of this wheat must come from the savings of reduced consumption, the Food Administration could have allowed the enormous purchases of the Allies to raise the prices to extreme levels. The wheat would have gone abroad but at the cost of untold suffering among the poorer classes, and consequent disturbance of labor conditions. A system of compulsory rationing was also possible. This would have involved an annual budget of $40,000,000 to $50,000,000, and would have been very difficult to administer owing to the wide variation throughout the country in the customs and habits of eating.

The Administration chose the democratic idea, and appealed to the intelligence and patriotism of the people to sacrifice in proportion to their ability. In a Pledge-card Campaign conducted among the housewives of the nation over 10,000,000 women registered themselves as loyally supporting the request of the Food Administration for food conservation by substitution. The result was all that the most optimistic had expected. By June 1 of this year we have sent 140,000,000 bushels of wheat abroad of which 130,000,000 bushels represents the intelligent self-denial of the American people. Gratifying results have also been attained in meat conservation. We are sending abroad each month five times as much pork products as we did in normal times, and twelve times as much beef products. This has been accomplished without inroads upon the herds.

The Food Administration is, first of all, a war organization designed to get food to our Allies, and it is accomplishing this with slight inconvenience to the American people. The legal powers of the Food Administration in regulating the production and distribution of food were strictly limited by Congress, but by voluntary coöperation of producers, manufacturers and dealers the Administration has accomplished without friction more than could have been done by relying solely upon wide legal enforcement.

Last year the war world faced a serious sugar shortage. By the laws of supply and demand the price to the retailer of sugar would have doubtless risen to 25 or 30 cents per lb. Mr. Hoover called the sugar refiners together and presented the case to them. They voluntarily agreed not to exceed a certain maximum differential between the price of the raw sugar which had been purchased and the finished product. The raw supply of the Cuban crop was then in process of growth. This was bought up at an agreed price which guaranteed a reasonable return to the grower, and the supply was then apportioned among the Allied nations. The sugar refiners have likewise agreed to accept the fixed differential on the new crop, and for the first time in history the price at which sugar sells is of no financial interest to the sugar refiners of the United States under their agreement with the Food Administration. Since the Food Administration has no money to buy sugar as it has been buying wheat through the Grain Corporation, the purchase of the Cuban crop at a stable price was done by private finance coöperating with the government. As every rise of one cent in the price of a pound of sugar means $18,000,000 out of the consumer's pockets, this performance is no mean accomplishment, especially as it was done in the face of an actual sugar shortage in the war world.

Under the influence of the Food Administration the baking trade has established a special protective service committee which is being organized in every state. The purpose is to put at the disposition of all the bakers in the country the benefits of the experience and knowledge of all in baking wheat substitute breads. The baking trade has, for the period of the war, waived consideration of business advantage and competitive skill. Leading bakers have thrown open their laboratories to their competitors. By conference and mutual aid they are giving the smaller bakers the advantage of their larger experience and trained experts in order that a palatable and wholesome wheat saving bread may be possible for all bakeshops.

The Food Administration is not authorized to fix the retail price of articles to the consumer. At best it can only prevent unreasonable profit or profiteering. Yet in towns all over the country the leading and reputable food vendors meet and determine reasonable prices which are given wide publicity in the newspapers. The public are thus informed as to what is a fair price, and any dealer who takes advantage of special conditions to demand, more immediately brands himself before the public as a profiteer.

WHEAT SUBSTITUTES

Early in this calendar year arose the necessity for saving wheat or our Allies. Mr. Hoover promptly met the requests of our Allies for wheat with the statement that the wheat would be sent to them. But the wheat could be secured for our Allies only by saving. Wheat could be saved only by substituting other foods for it. Hence the fifty-fifty substitute rule.

This ruling came from Washington at a time when all the railroads were more or less congested. Heavy snows had blocked the rail lines in the western part of Pennsylvania and branch lines were entirely closed. The trade was ignorant of the meaning of the law, and was unable to purchase substitutes, especially the kind available at that time. A small class of dealers not in sympathy with the ruling made the enforcement most difficult in some sections.

Substitutes were not available in large quantities, and the experienced housewife, in baking, found the problem very hard. Threats of strikes and riots by unpatriotic dealers, and pro-German propaganda of all kinds conspired to do away with the ruling. The conservation resulting made it possible to send to our Allies the wheat they needed.

To carry out the ruling required a policy of enforcement, first with the baker to see that he is using the correct proportion of substitutes in all his bakery products; second with the wholesale grocer to see that he is selling the correct proportions and quantities of flour, substitutes and sugar; and third with the retailer to see that he, too, is living up to the regulations with regard to flour, substitutes and sugar. The purpose of the fifty-fifty rule was to get wheat for our Allies. That purpose was accomplished.

In addition to these three principal classes of enforcement cases, there are all the other lines of food handlers, who are also licensed and subject to special regulations. The interpretation and enforcement of these regulations has been greatly assisted by the patriotic coöperation of men in the trades regulated.

Under enforcements comes also the question of profiteering. In this, the biggest problem constantly confronting the Administration, is to decide just what is a fair basis of cost and a reasonable margin, not only of profit, but for overhead.

The Food Administration is endeavoring to lay a foundation of constructive work in its enforcement cases, which will be of advantage to the various lines of trade in the future. For example there have been certain bad practices grow up in practically every line of business. It has been the endeavor of the Administration to do away with these through its control over shippers and receivers under the license system. Failure to live up to contract obligations on a declining market is a typical example of the bad practices the Food Administration has discouraged.

A SUPPLY OF ICE

Early in this calendar year it became apparent that the diminishing supply of ammonia was imperilling the supply of artificial ice for the following summer. Two measures were promptly taken by the Food Administration which resulted in a fairly adequate supply of ice at fairly reasonable prices. Local administrators were asked to call upon all who had or could get the facilities to store natural ice. This was followed by efforts to get other substitutes used for ammonia where possible and in all cases to conserve the product. As the summer approached, ice retailers were asked to zone their routes and save for the consumer the costs of duplicated service. A supply of ice fairly adequate to the demand at medium prices is the result.

DISTRIBUTION AND MARKET PROBLEMS

Distribution and market problems have been handled as they have developed and no set line of action covering such problems was projected. Two instances will serve to show the nature of the distribution problems with which the Administration has to deal and the method used in solving these problems.

With the arrival of the fresh fruit and vegetable season, came the question of marketing those perishables which were in grade and appearance such as to prevent their sale to the grocer or the commission man. The curb market proved the solution of this particular difficulty in a number of sections in Pennsylvania. These markets, which were established in about twenty localities, absorbed a considerable amount of food which would not otherwise have reached the consumer.

Any medium which insures increased production and economical distribution, lowers prices to the consumer and conserves food which otherwise surely would waste, is a valuable weapon to use in winning the war. Whether or not curb markets will survive at the close of the war is a question which must remain unanswered at this time. As a war measure, however, the Pennsylvania curb markets have been effective and they promise even better results as they are expanded and developed.

The truckers and farmers who gave the system a *fair trial* in 1917 indicated their determination to produce to the limit of their ability in 1918. Farmers, who have for years trudged the streets peddling from door to door, frequently carrying home a part of their produce, were able at the curb markets to sell their loads in a few hours, saving themselves and their horses time and labor.

The usual condition of a demand far in excess of the supply brought rather a competition in buying than in selling, which accounts for some complaints of curb market prices. Lower prices to the consumers were not always evident, owing to the fact that the reaction of the curb markets on the grocer and huckster resulted in a general lowering of prices in the towns and cities sustaining curb markets. Of particular interest was the working out of the law of supply and demand in connection with the price obtained on curb markets. Every effort was made to see that the farmer secured a price commensurate with the supply of his produce.

At the curb market the quantity and variety of the display stimulate the buying spirit. The woman who would buy in very limited quantities from the slender display of her grocer or huckster buys heavily at the curb. At the first curb market in Pittsburgh, for instance, 675 two-peck baskets were sold to people who did not intend to buy them when they came to the market.

Results indicate that the curb markets increase the consumption of perishables and thus automatically save a corresponding quantity of staples. They have proved especially advantageous in the sections whose inhabitants are the working class who are the first to feel the pinch of higher food costs. Particular attention has been given to the establishment of curb markets in such industrial centers.

Experience has shown that the fewer the restrictions in connection with curb markets, the better will be the result. The most striking successes were all obtained without special ordinance regulating the markets and with a minimum of rules. The Administration's thought is that it is far better to use up spare energy in developing a wide-open opportunity rather than to put a fence around it. Farmers in various counties realized as never before the buying power of their home city.

During the war and for sometime thereafter food prices will be high, particularly on meats and staples. Curb markets should continue to be popular through this period, both to the producer of non-standard stuff and to the consumer who is willing to go to market and carry home bargains.

PERISHABLE PRODUCE

The Food Administration of Philadelphia will this summer use every endeavor to keep consumers prices on perishables as low as distribution costs will properly permit in order that the farmers may get as good a market as possible for their products. Notices as to fair prices will be sent to the newspapers as has been done since last summer. Such price bulletins have long been issued by the market masters of European cities. Special educational campaigns as to the food value of leafy vegetables and special price campaigns to move these perishables will be undertaken. This work is based on the assumption that the lower the costs of distribution the larger will be the proportion of consumer's price that gets to the farmer. The benefit thus goes to both the consumer and the farmer and the local buying of local foodstuffs saves transportation.

MARKETING THE POTATO CROP

A peculiar condition confronted the Administration during the fall of 1917 in connection with the marketing of the season's potato crop. Consumers commenced to lay in their winter supplies early. This fact, coupled with the delay on the part of the farmers in getting their potatoes to market, due partly to a feeling that prices would rise as the season advanced and partly to the fact that labor was scarce and other crops besides potatoes had to be harvested, sent the price of potatoes soaring.

It was the feeling of the Food Administration that the high price could not last and that, unless farmers marketed their crops of potatoes in such manner as to strike a fair average for the season, financial disappointment would be the result. With this in mind a special publicity drive was made to encourage farmers to market at least one-third of their crop during the fall with the idea of disposing of the other two-thirds as the season advanced. Because of labor conditions on the farm and also because of the tendency to hold potatoes for higher prices, much of the crop was still unmarketed with the advent of cold weather. Climatic conditions and transportation difficulties growing out of these conditions were responsible for the failure of potatoes to reach the market in quantity during part of December and all of January and February. Even with the approach of spring and the consequent bettering of transportation facilities, producers failed to send potatoes to the market in any quantity, hoping for some break which would increase the price.

To overcome this condition and in order to bring potatoes on the market in such a way as to insure at least a reasonable price and in turn to encourage as large a planting of potatoes as possible in the spring of 1918, a special potato consumption campaign was launched. Special letters and plans for the conducting of a potato campaign and for a special potato week were sent to the Administration's county organizations. Several field representatives were sent into some of the larger centers to assist and render more effective these local programs. Campaigns were inaugurated by various women's organizations in the state and a special campaign was inaugurated in the public schools.

In addition to the educational measures adopted to secure a larger consumption of potatoes every assistance possible was given in individual cases and communities. In marketing surplus potatoes, growers were referred to reliable dealers in the principal Pennsylvania markets. Where it was possible local outlets were used to absorb potatoes to prevent needless tying up of transportation, and needless freight, labor and commission charges. Counties having a surplus were referred to other sections in which there was a scarcity and in this way the supply throughout the state was largely equalized.

The reports from potato producing centers in the state during the late winter and spring were interesting. In some cases where a large stock was reported it was found upon investigation that a little energy on the part of distributors in calling the potatoes to the attention of the public, stimulated the demand quickly, and this together with the normal, local consumption and the demand for seed stock, completely absorbed the originally reported surplus. In most cases the large surplus reports were found in a measure at least to exist only in the minds of those making the reports.

The fact that in the main both producers and consumers were satisfied with the prices which prevailed, is proof that the measure adopted was a success. Latest reports also indicate that, while in some sections the planting has been reduced, in other sections it has been slightly increased. The Administration has sought to pass along the word that the man who stayed in the game this year would be doing a wise thing and be rewarded accordingly.

THE PRICE OF MILK

The cost and supply of feed together with the difficulties in obtaining labor brought disheartening conditions to our dairy farmers this past winter. Prices to consumers had to be raised in proportion to the costs to the farmer. In other urban sections Mr. Hoover at the mutual request of farmers and dealers appointed Federal Milk Commissions with power only to recommend prices to producers and consumers.

The Pennsylvania branch of the Food Administration took up the matter under the following principles:

1. That the price to the producer should be determined as usual by conferences between producers and milk buyers.

2. That a representative of the Food Administration would be present at these meetings.

3. That the business of distributing milk would be regarded as a public utility with approach toward zone monopolies.

4. That the spread between the price of milk f. o. b. city and the price of milk to the consumer would be fixed by the Food Administration at a point that would allow a fair profit under a minimum duplication of service.

5. That milk is most economically distributed from the retail wagon and that duplication of service through grocery stores would not be encouraged.

6. That milk was a commodity which should be delivered to the consumer and not one that lends itself to the cash and carry methods, because it has to be delivered at stated times under sanitary and refrigerated conditions.

7. With control over the spread to the dealer the Food Administration would approve but not fix prices to the consumers, and would use this power of approval to make certain that producers' prices were as fair as could be secured under all circumstances.

8. The Food Administration joined heartily in campaigns to increase the consumption of milk.

The difficulty of getting condensed milk and other dairy products exported after January first added tremendously to the problem of getting a fair price for the farmer in this country. Nevertheless the farmers in the districts supplying Philadelphia have since January first received on the average a higher price than have the farmers in any other primary district, while the price to the consumer for bottled pasteurized milk was less than in any other city of any size in the United States.

That the consumer was satisfied with this program was indicated by the fact that the amount of milk now being consumed in the city of Philadelphia is as large at 12 cents as it was at 8 cents per quart. The production of milk has been maintained and the dairy herds have not decreased. All of this has in large part been due to the constructive efforts of the Food Administration.

The illustrations I have given will suffice to show the kind of duty coming before the Food Administration and the way that duty is being met. This résumé, which I give as typical, will indicate clearly that the first concern of the Food Administration is so to mobilize our food energies as to win the war. With this ever in mind the first duty is to maintain and stimulate production. Many have been the attempts to lead the unwary into believing that the Food Administration was not encouraging the farmer. The Food Administration can have no adequate conservation program save only as it has a production program. The two cannot be separated. In fact consumption and production have never been separated and cannot be separated. By following the standards set by normal business forces in normal business times as our guide, making changes as needed to meet war conditions, the Food Administration has created policies that have at once gained the confidence of the consumers, the merchants and the producers of the country.

There has been plenty of food in the country. The problem has been to get some foods used in America that we might send other foods to our Allies. This substitution was called conservation. This substitution program has not discouraged production. Other difficulties such as labor and supplies have made the farmers' problem a difficult one. But his difficulties the farmer met as heroically and as enthusiastically as the consumer met the sacrifice essential in substituting for the food he wants foods he does not like as well, or is not used to, or that cost more. With this spirit food *will* win the war.

PUBLIC OPINION IN WAR TIME

By George Creel,

Chairman, Committee on Public Information, Washington, D. C.

Now more than at any other time in history the importance of public opinion has come to be recognized. The fight for it is a part of the military program of every country, for every belligerent nation has brought psychology to the aid of science. Not only has Germany spent millions of dollars on its propaganda, but it has been very vigorous in protecting its soldiers and civilians from counter-propaganda. We are highly honored by having both Austria and Germany establish a death penalty for every representative of the Committee on Public Information, and imprisonment and execution are visited on everyone who is found in possession of the literature that we drop from airplanes or that we shoot across the line from mortars, or that we smuggle into the countries by various means.

Any discussion of public opinion must necessarily be prefaced by some slight attempt at definition. Just what do we mean by it? A great many people think that public opinion is a state of mind, formed and changed by the events of the day or by the events of the hour; that it is sort of a combination of kaleidoscope and weathercock. I disagree with this theory entirely. I do not believe that public opinion has its rise in the emotions, or that it is tipped from one extreme to the other by every passing rumor, by every gust of passion, or by every storm of anger. I feel that public opinion has its source in the minds of people, that it has its base in reason, and that it expresses slow-formed convictions rather than any temporary excitement or any passing passion of the moment. I may be wrong, but since mine is the responsibility, mine is the decision, and it is upon that decision that every policy of the committee has been based. We have never preached any message of hate. We have never made any appeal to the emotions, but we have always by every means in our power tried to drive home to the people the causes behind this war, the great fundamental necessities that compelled a peace-loving nation to take up arms to protect free institutions and preserve our liberties.

We had to establish new approaches in a great many respects to drive home these truths. We believed in the justice of our cause. We believed passionately in the purity of our motives. We believed in the nobility and the disinterestedness of our aims, and we felt that in order to win unity, in order to gain the verdict of mankind, all we had to do was to give facts in the interest of full understanding. It may be said that there was no great necessity for this—that this war was going on for three years before America entered it—but I cannot but feel that on April 6, 1917, there was very little intelligent understanding of fundamentals, for those three years had been years of controversy and years of passion—two things that are absolutely opposed to intelligent public opinion. You had your pro-Allies, you had your pro-Germans, you had your people who thought war was a horrible thing and who shrank from it without grasping the great significances involved; and so on the day we entered war we had a frazzled emotionalism, with people whose sensibilities had grown numb by very violence. We had to approach people to try to drive home to them some great truths.

Now, the press did not lend itself to our purposes in any large degree, because the press by its very constitution is not an interpretive or educational factor. The press chronicles the events of the day—it dies with the day that gives it birth—and so as far as historical record is concerned, so far as interpretation is concerned, so far as educational needs are concerned, we had to establish a new medium. So we called together three thousand historians of the country for pamphlet production, to set down causes in black and white, to put it so simply that a child could grasp just what we meant by democracy, just what we meant by freedom of the seas, and just what we meant by international law; so that people can read it and understand, and instead of being filled with a cheap and poisoning hate, they may be filled with a tremendous resolve, a great determination, that will last, not for a day, not for a week and not for a year, but until such time as a settlement is won as will forever safeguard our liberties and our aspirations.

There was also the spoken word that had to be organized. We had to try to substitute for the passions of the curbstone the logic and the reason of the platform, and so we formed the Four

Minute Men campaign, so that today 50,000 of them are receiving budgets of material and going out through moving picture houses all over the land preaching the gospel of America's Justice. We organized the speaking of the country, trying to bring some order out of oratorical chaos. We have brought men of every nationality from the trenches to speak to the people, and we have sent men from coast to coast, so that people might be brought face to face with the truth, not by controversialists, but by those who had seen, by those who actually knew what war meant, those who knew what defeat meant, and those who knew the necessity of victory. These were the fundamentals of the case, of which we tried to build foundations upon which to erect our house of truth.

Then there was the necessity also of giving people information. There has been nothing so distressing to me as this absurd assumption on the part of a large number of people that the Committee on Public Information is a censorship and interested in suppression rather than expression. We do not touch censorship at any point, because censorship in the United States is a voluntary agreement managed and enforced by the press itself. The desires of the government with respect to the concealment of its plans, its policies, the movement of troops, the departure of troops, and so on, go to the press upon a simple card that bears this paragraph: "These requests go to the press without larger authority than the necessity of the war-making branches. Their enforcement is a matter for the press itself." I am very glad and very proud to be able to say that this voluntary censorship has a greater force than could ever have been obtained by any law.

At every point we have tried to stimulate discussion, even to organize discussion. Aside from the disclosure of military secrets of importance, aside from any protest that is liable to weaken the will of the country to continue this war, or that may interfere with the prosecution of this war, we stand for the freest discussion that any people in the world ever had. I can conceive of no greater tragedy than that, out of stupid rages, out of the elevation of the mob spirit above reason, discussion should be stifled.

Just as we assembled historians to prepare pamphlets, trained speakers to form the Four Minute Men, so did we gather together the artists of the country to draw posters, and under the leadership of Charles Dana Gibson, the billboards of the country are filling with posters as beautiful as they are effective. We mobilized the advertising experts of the nation, and today every great advertising man in the United States is working for the Committee on Public Information, preparing the matter that goes into periodicals and on the billboards, and contributing millions in free space to the national service.

We have realized the necessity for specialized service. It was soon seen that we had to devise departments that would prepare matter for the rural press, for the religious press, for the labor press, for the magazines, and so on. We had to gather together the essayists and the brilliant novelists of the land—it was a proposition of touching up the high lights—to lay before the people the truth. Today 50,000 men and women are giving their time without money, without thought of reward, to the service of the government. Whenever the Committee on Public Information is attacked I think of these thousands of volunteers who are giving so freely of their service, and any slur at them is a blow in the back, a cowardly assault upon those who are serving behind the lines with as much devotion as the soldiers in the trenches.

Aside from the English speaking people of the United States, we have had to pay attention to the foreign language groups. Somebody once said that people do not live by bread alone; they live mostly by catch phrases. For long we have had the theory in this country that we could dismiss our responsibilities to the foreigner by glib references to the melting pot, but every man of intelligence knows that the melting pot has not melted for years. Foreigners came to this country with their eyes upturned to the flag, with the hope that they were coming to a land of promise, and we let them land at the dock without an outstretched hand to meet them. In one month that I remember, twenty thousand agricultural workers drifted into sweatshops in industrial centres near the seaboard, while all the rich acreage of the west called to them. No aid was given to them whereby they could buy railroad tickets to help bring them in touch with opportunity. They were simply dumped into the Ghettos of the big cities. We let sharks prey on them, we let poverty swamp them, we did not teach them English, and we forced them to establish their own foreign language church and their own foreign language institutions, and today when we need them and call upon them, we find we are called upon to pay for the utter neglect of the last twenty-five years.

We lost Russia. Why? Because thousands of people went back from the Ghetto of New York to Russia, and all they ever knew of America was the wretchedness and sordidness of the East Side, and they told them in Russia that America was a lie, a fake democracy, that there was no truth in us. They described America as they saw it, never having had a chance to come in touch with the bright promise of the land.

It was our task to repair the blunders of the past. We went into every foreign language group—among Hungarians, among the Greeks, among the Poles, among the Jugo-Slavs, the Cyecho-Slovaks, and a score of other nationalities that were seldom heard of before until this war came.

We organized loyalty leagues in these groups. We had to get speakers in their own language. We had to go into the factories and hold noon meetings. We had slips put in their pay envelopes, and in a hundred other ways we had to drive home the meaning and purposes of democracy. We have pointed out that democracy was not an automatic device but the struggle everlasting; that there is no evil in our national life that cannot be cured at the polling place; that the ballot was their sword, their remedy for every injustice; that all they needed to bring about the 100 per cent perfection for which we struggle was intelligence and education; and that if there were failures it was just as much their fault as it was the fault of the American born. The remedy for everything lies in a better and finer appreciation of the duties of the citizen. While we are driving home the truths of the war, this great Americanization work that we are carrying on is building foundations under the union. That is the thing to do—bring them into closer touch with American life.

What we are doing in this country we are doing in practically every other country on the globe. We are trying to "sell" America to the world. We have been the most provincial people that ever lived, the most self-satisfied people; we have always been sufficient unto ourselves, and the very fact that other people did not speak our language was accepted at once as a proof of inferiority. We had little touch with other countries, knew very little of them, and they knew less of us. All Europe ever knew about us was our earthquakes and our cyclones and the fact that we lynched darkies in the south—that we were a race of dollar grabbers, a race of money makers. So we had to begin to develop communication with them, to get in closer touch with them.

Our work has been educational and informative. Much has been said in praise of German propaganda, but from the first our policy has been to find out what the Germans were doing, and then not to do it. Rottenness and corruption and deceit and trickery may win for awhile, but in the long run it always brings about its own inevitable reaction. What we are doing in foreign countries is being done openly. What we are trying to do is to bring home to them the meaning of American life, the purposes of America, our hopes and our ambitions.

We go in first with our news service. I found that the wireless here was not being used to any large extent and immediately began sending a thousand words a day of American news. We send it out from Tuckerton to the Eiffel Tower, and from France it is sent to Switzerland, to Rome, to Madrid and to Lisbon. We send to London and from London to Russia, to Holland and to the Scandinavian countries. From Darien it is flashed to the countries of South America. It goes from New York by telegraph to San Diego, and from San Diego by wireless to Cavite; from Cavite to Shanghai, from Shanghai to Tokio. So we cover the whole world today with our American news. That is the best propaganda possible because it tells them what we are doing and what we are thinking.

We have sent to all these countries great motion picture campaigns, putting them out through the established theatres, or hiring our own theatres. These motion pictures set forth the industrial and social progress of the United States, our schools, condition of labor among women and children, the houses where our working people live, our sanitariums, the way we take care of the sick, our schools, and women voting in enlightened states like Colorado. We show them our war progress, how a democracy prepares for battle, all its thousands of youngsters coming from their homes, clean-eyed, straight-limbed, walking into training camps, and the splendid democracy of it. We show them our factories, our grand fleet, our destroyers and submarines, and we send those pictures all over the world.

We have our representatives trying to find out what the people are most interested in in America, and then we send people from America to these countries to make speaking tours. We find out what pamphlets will appeal to them and then we send those pamphlets from house to house, and we use airplanes in dropping messages in enemy countries. We had three printing plants in Russia at one time getting out material in all dialects of Austria-Hungary and sent it across by planes and by messengers to all the oppressed nationalities of Austria-Hungary.

So that the work that is carried on by the Committee on Public Information is not a censorship and never has been a censorship. It is a medium of expression. It is the medium through which the government is trying to bring home to all the people of the world what America means and what we fight for.

We do not want a public opinion that is based on the happenings of the moment. We want a public opinion that springs from the heart and soul—that has its root in the rich soil of truth. And this fight is going to win because it is a fight for truth, because we have nothing to be ashamed of. The other day, when asked the question, I said I had no sympathy with the conscientious objector, because I thought this war was holy enough to enlist the devotion of every man, whatever his religion. We waited three years, going to the very ultimate of humility, to prove our devotion to peace, and we drew the sword only when the seas were filled with our dead, when international law was set aside, when torch and bomb were applied to our industries, and when it was seen that the German government was dead to honor and decency. Having drawn the sword, being confident of the high motives for which we stand, we will never sheathe it until the heights of our determination are gained.

We are perfectly willing to have peace discussed. We are never going to shut our ears to peace, but there cannot be mention of any peace that savors of compromise. You can compromise questions of territory, questions of commerce and economic disputes, but you cannot compromise eternal principles. President Wilson's motive for entering this war was to establish certain solemn rights of ours for which every man of us must be willing to die and should be ready to die. This fight we are making all over the world today, this fight for public opinion, is a fight that is not going to be won until every man, woman and child in the United States here at home is made to realize that they are called to the colors as much as the sailor and soldier.

This is an irritating time in American life; it is the hour of preparation. We have not known the glory of the firing line yet to any extent. All we have known is the sweat and drudgery of getting ready. There have been failures and discomforts and inconveniences, but there is this to remember; we are here safe at home. While thousands of boys, our best and bravest, are going to France to offer their lives on the altar of liberty, the worst any of us can know is irritation.

When people complain about the annoyance of wheatless days and the fuel situation, and how intolerable it is to have to give up this or that, and how the trains are not running on time, how everything is going wrong, and all like pettinesses, let them remember Belgium and Serbia, and realize that unless we stand together shoulder to shoulder, heart to heart, in one tremendous brotherhood, big enough to look over every little, rotten thing, big enough to rise over peevishness and meanness, we are going to know the same fate as Belgium and Serbia. What we want in this country today is not the careless indifference that will overlook defects, for criticism is the most wholesome corrective in the world. But let care be taken that the criticism is constructive and that it is not put forward to conceal partisanship and other unutterable meannesses.

As for the censorship on free speech, it is not imposed by Washington, but by the intolerances and bigotries of individual communities. The government is not responsible for mobs that hang innocent men, that paint houses yellow and that run up and down the country trying to crush honest discussion. Norman Angell and E. K. Radcliffe, two of the brightest minds of all England, have been here all winter telling truths about England from the extreme radical viewpoint, and yet you do not find those men figuring on the front pages. The censorship that stops them is not of the government but proceeds from the prejudices of the press.

It is very easy to talk about the absurdities of censorship. In our voluntary agreement with the press of America, we asked that the arrival and departure of ships be not announced, because as far as able we want to try to protect them from the submarine. That may be a foolish way, but we are going to stick at it until we get a better way. Not even for the satisfaction of a news item are we going to endanger American lives. We ask also that they shall not mention the arrival of foreign missions and their train movements while in this country, in order to protect our guests as far as possible. The German government does *not* know how many men we have in France. It is all very well to say "the enemy knows, anyway," but there is no use in putting information on his breakfast table. We may be stupid about these things, but where lives of men are concerned we are not going to put news items above those lives, the lives of those men over in France. Certain items have been stopped by the able censorship from going abroad. And there will be others stopped, because while it is one thing to let the people of this country have all the information it is another thing to give aid and comfort to the enemy. When they say that our war preparations have broken down, let the facts be stated and debated here at home; but we do not want that sort of talk to get into Germany. When any man declares that "the war progress of the United States has stopped; everything is a failure, and we cannot come to the aid of the Allies in any degree, and everything that has been done is futile;" and such statements are put in the papers of Germany it is worth a million men to them, and they are not going to obtain them if we can help it. I am in favor of having all possible condemnation heaped on failures—but do not let us use every failure to tear down the whole structure of accomplishment.

If we have had failures we have also had our splendid victories. Nobody ever says one word about the fact that in less than a month after the declaration of war we overturned the policy of one hundred and forty-one years by the enactment of the selective service law; nobody says a word about our enrolling 10,000,000 men without friction, or a word about the wonderful record of the exemption boards; nobody says a word about the completion of the cantonments within 90 days after the driving of the first nail; nobody says anything about there being no scandal with regard to the food furnished our soldiers; nobody says a word about our medical service—how we gathered 12,000 doctors that give these men finer care than they ever received as individuals; no, nobody says a word about all this —just the failures are talked about. Nobody says a word about the difficulties that had to be overcome when we began sending our men over to France; how after they arrived, there was not a dock to give them and not a train to use.

That is no criticism of France or England. Their own tasks absorbed every energy and resource. Our men had to build their own docks; they had to build hundreds of miles of railroads; and they had to go into the virgin forests and cut down trees in order to make their barracks. They had to mobilize engineers, foresters, railroad men and construction men as well as soldiers—all this tremendous machinery of industry had to be created over there so as not to interrupt the war preparations of France or England; and the stream of men going across the Atlantic today exceeds the expectations of England and France and is a source of amazement to them.

People will tell about our failure to produce guns here in America at once, but they do not say anything about the fact that we selected the best foreign models, and gave contracts for their production in English and French factories so that we could give them money and give them work, and how we went to work in the meantime and produced the best machine gun in the world today—the Browning. They do not say a word about these tremendous accomplishments—how a nation is straining every energy to help in a great way and to the very best of our ability, but they take the aëroplane situation, where certain inefficiencies were shown, and they harp on it in order to throw doubt and confusion upon every other war preparation. Let us go after the failure, let us remedy it, let us have criticism, but let us not tear down the whole structure of achievement when we have to replace a defective brick.

FREEDOM OF DISCUSSION IN WAR TIME

By Norman Angell,
London, England.

I propose to deal with one phase only of the problem of the mobilization of the public mind. It is this: "What degree of freedom of public discussion will best fit a democracy to wage war effectively?"

It is not merely, or perhaps mainly, a governmental question, but one which confronts newspapers and bodies like universities and churches; one of its most important aspects is that of personal relationships. I shall not enter into the discussion of any proposed legislation, nor touch in any way on the attitude of the government.

Indeed, I have never been able to judge whether the administration is now blamed for being too repressive or too liberal. Reading one group of papers one can only conclude that the administration is perversely encouraging all the alien enemies in the country to carry on a propaganda against it. Reading another group of papers one must conclude that it is set upon ruthlessly stamping out all criticism of itself however honest and patriotic. Into that debate I shall not enter in the least. The question is mainly perhaps, as I have already suggested, an extra-governmental one. It is vastly important and we should judge it in the light of experience.

It is surely the duty of all of us belonging to the Alliance to compare notes of experience in anything that can bear upon our success. And let us hope that we have reached now a stage of unification by virtue of which that exchange can take place freely between different nationals within the Alliance without implication of unseemliness. I want to point out certain European experience in this matter and—in order to disentangle issues and present something resembling a clear thesis—suggest to you that that experience on the whole points to this conclusion: A democracy, and still more a group of democracies forming an Alliance, will wage war most effectively if public discussion is as free as possible. Certain limitations of course I take for granted, as that the dissemination of military information shall be controlled by the military authority, and that no direct incitement to resist the actual prosecution of the war shall be permitted. But there is a natural feeling in war time that control should go much beyond this, and, as a matter of fact, in the early stages of a war always does. Yet I suggest that such a policy, in the case of our democracies, is to the advantage of the enemy.

THE ADVANTAGES OF PUBLIC DISCUSSION

Experience would seem to show that a democracy will get the best results by a degree of toleration which would allow war aims and peace terms, the justice or injustice of the war, when it ought to stop and on what conditions, all to be freely discussed; and would allow the socialist, pacifist and semi-pacifist to do their worst. They might do a certain amount of harm; but less harm, in the long run, than is done in practice by their suppression. On balance, the advantage is on the side of toleration. Save for the limitations already indicated, freedom of press, speech and discussion should, in the interest of a sane and balanced public opinion even more necessary to democracies in war than in peace, be complete and unhampered.

I am aware it seems ridiculous to urge such a degree of toleration in war time. But I shall base the claim not on any ground of the rights of minorities to certain moral or intellectual privileges. Personally I cannot understand how any claim can be made on that ground when the existence of a nation is at stake; how, in such circumstances, minorities can have any rights, as against the common need, that should be regarded—but precisely on the ground of common need, of advantage to the nation as a whole.

Public opinion in the early stages of war, in every nation, is always in favor of a "truce to discussion." We remind one another then that the time for words has passed and the time for action come. "Talk" is disparaged. We demand the *union sacrée.* And almost always is that rule first broken by those who at the beginning were most insistent upon its enforcement. Take the case of England. A party truce was declared at the outbreak of war and the feeling against public criticism of the government or its policy was intense. Such public men as attempted anything resembling it were indeed driven from public life for a time, mainly by the influence of the group of papers controlled by Lord Northcliffe. What happened finally was that Mr. Asquith's government was driven out and replaced by another largely as the result of the criticisms of Lord Northcliffe's papers.

Now whether you take the view that that result was good or bad you justify public discussion. If the result was good, if the war was being mismanaged, the country was saved by virtue of public discussion—by virtue of abandoning the rule of silence. If you take the view that the result was bad you have a case where a government found it impossible to resist the intervention of public judgment, although it must have known that judgment to be wrong. And if it was wrong, it must have been because the public judged on an insufficient knowledge of the facts and made wrong conclusions concerning them; because in other words, public discussion was not full, had not all the facts, did not hear all sides. Either verdict pushes one to the conclusion that the public will judge either with or without the facts and opportunity for free discussion; and that the part of wisdom is to see that that discussion is as full and well-founded in fact as possible.

We may say: "That establishes the case for the full public discussion of the government's administrative capacity because all parties to the discussion are agreed upon the ultimate aim—the winning of the war. But no purpose is served by the discussion of war aims and peace terms during the war; or by tolerating veiled sedition." But the case for full discussion of aims and policy is even clearer than the case for public discussion of the government's administrative capacity. Let us again take the facts of the discussion of policy in England.

FREE DISCUSSION AND THE ENGLISH PRESS

What, in practice, did the truce to discussion of peace terms or war aims mean in the case of the English press? It meant in practice, not that the discussion ceased, but that all liberal contribution to it did. Again one can illustrate that by the role of what we know as "the Northcliffe Press." And you will note that I am not criticising or condemning the intervention of that press; I am supporting it; but I am asking that the freedom which is accorded to newspapers of that type should be accorded to all others. The Northcliffe Press, far from refraining from discussion of peace terms, began very early to discuss them most energetically. It was mainly due to its agitation, for instance, that the Paris Economic Conference was held to devise the economic conditions which should obtain after the war. That was a most important peace term. It created, right or wrongly, the impression that, whatever happened, Germany's trade would be met in the case of her defeat by very hostile combinations. That may be an entirely wise policy; I am not for the moment concerned to discuss it. But there are two points about it to be noted: the first is that members of the British Cabinet—one or two notably—were notoriously opposed to it; and the second is that the views of these members, and of others who opposed the policy of the Conference, got no expression in the press. The public heard only one side of the case: the case presented by the Northcliffe Press. The public, in imposing that policy upon the government may have been right—though as a matter of simple fact the overwhelming preponderance of opinion is now the other way—but in that case they were right by accident, for they certainly did not hear the case against it. I am merely taking that Conference, which of itself had not perhaps very great importance, as an illustration of the way in which public judgment is shaped on other matters of policy which are vastly more important and with which I shall deal presently. Why was the Liberal Press silent, or relatively silent, in criticising the policy of the Paris Conference? Because in the temper then prevailing any argument against the proposed economic punishment of the Germans would have been regarded as pro-Germanism and the Liberal Press could not face the implication.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF DISCUSSION

One must enter here a little into the elements of war psychology and the psychology of discussion. I will try not to be very abstruse. If you have ever taken part in a discussion of Protection and Free Trade during an election you know that when feeling has begun to run a little high the Protectionist becomes absolutely convinced that the obvious blindness of the Free Trader to the protectionist truth can only be accounted for by the fact that, by some moral perversion, the Free Trader is more concerned with the welfare of foreigners than with that of Americans. I need not remind you that for years every Free Trader in America was an Anglomaniac, if indeed he had not been suborned by the gold of the Cobden Club. Now if in times of profound peace an honest attempt to find the best policy for one's own country can in this way be interpreted as hostility to one's country, merely because the proposed policy is also good for the foreigner, how much more must we expect that kind of misapprehension in the immeasurably fiercer passions of war time. It is natural, human, excusable, a phase of the instinct of pugnacity and self-preservation, an essential element of war psychology, perhaps indispensable to national morale.

But note how it operates in the case of the press. We agree not to discuss peace terms. A paper of large circulation has an article demonstrating that there will never be any peace in the world until the enemy nation is utterly destroyed; that the people are as much to blame as the government. It strikes nobody that this is a discussion of policy or peace terms. A rival paper has an article arguing that no territory must be taken from the enemy and that we have no quarrel with the enemy people. In this case we realize, not only that it is a discussion of terms but a very irritating one, with a pro-German coloring to boot. And we have a general impression that that sort of thing ought to be suppressed. Now, when to the handicap on the liberal paper is added the prospect of legal penalties, its position becomes hopeless. Incidentally, when we suppress an obscure socialist paper, the importance of the act is not in that suppression, but in the effect that it has upon the policy of much more powerful papers who realize that they will have to look out and do not feel disposed to take any risks at all in such a public temper—which doubtless extends to government officials and to juries. The liberal press becomes silent, and control of opinion passes to those papers that appeal to the impulsive and instinctive, rather than to the reflective, element. This state of mind which I have described is progressively strengthened. And a good job too, you may say. You might quote the movie advertisement to the effect that you cannot put up a good fight until your blood boils; so the more it boils the better.

THE DIRECTION OF POLICY

What, then, is the job of us civilians who are left behind and do not have to go over the top and do the bayoneting? It is, I think we have agreed, the direction of policy. If the government is going wrong we correct it, or replace it, and whether we intervene wisely or not depends upon this state of mind of ours. And I am not sure that boiling blood is the best psychological condition for that judgment; for the public passes upon policies, and makes a choice between them, not by a cold intellectual analysis of their respective merits, but by virtue of a general state of mind and temper.

If we really are directing the fight in its larger aspects—and I think we are agreed on that point—a certain balance and sanity of judgment rather than violent temper may be desirable. I believe it is a ruse of a prize fighter who is getting the worst of it to try and make his opponent really angry. Then the opponent's bad temper may compensate for his superior strength or ability. The torreador manages to reduce an opponent twenty times his own strength by making that opponent literally "see red."

THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

Have there been any other definite problems of policy in which has operated the kind of process I have described in connection with the Paris Conference? I think there have been questions of policy so important that our success or failure may be determined by them. There was, for instance, our relation to the Russian revolution. It is easy, of course, to be wise after the event—and it is wise to be wise after the event, because it may be duplicated in the future. But we are probably pretty well agreed now that that event has been mishandled by the Allies. We in Europe did not sufficiently see it coming, and when it came, large sections of our public and press took a line which could only irritate and alienate the strongest elements in the revolution. It has been said very generally by many who have studied the revolution closely that if the Allies had acceded in time to Kerensky's desire for a re-statement of Allied aims, the German and Bolshevik agitation against him could have been checked and a separate peace prevented. That may not be true; we can never know. But if it had been true, or true in any degree, our public temper was such that it would have stood in the way of taking advantage of the fact; of doing what Kerensky desired.

There is an incident in our relations with Russia, small in itself, but which illustrates clearly the way in which public "violent-mindedness" may be responsible for disastrous errors of policy. When Arthur Henderson was in Petrograd as the representative of the British government, he realised the immense importance of conciliating the left wing of the revolution and undermining the movement for a separate peace. It happened that one particular British Labor leader, Ramsay Macdonald, had an especial influence in Russia. Henderson telegraphed urging that Macdonald be sent. The government agreed; his passport was granted—whereupon a British Trades Union, out of the intensity of its patriotism called a seaman's strike to prevent Macdonald's going. Had the union weighed the pros and cons in terms of sound policy of Macdonald's going to Russia? They did not even pretend to. They just did not like Macdonald whom they regarded as pro-German. For a year or two there had been an intense campaign on the part of certain papers against him on that score. He was a red flag to most patriotic Englishmen. Consequently, when it came to the question as to whether, whatever his personal views, it might not for a special purpose be wise to use him—as the government was prepared to use him—the state of public temper made sober judgment impossible. The action of the most intensely patriotic trades union in

Great Britain was undoubtedly of immense service to the German cause.

For remember this: the greatest disaster so far suffered by the Allied cause, whether that disaster was preventable or not, has been the defection of Russia. In so far as the enemy is succeeding on the military side that success is mainly explained by our failure to maintain the integrity of our Alliance. The enemy's success is in this sense a political success—his advantageous military position is due to our political failures. Yet here was a British trades union out of the very fierceness of its patriotism adding to the difficulties of this overwhelming need of retaining Russia within the Alliance. And that incident is merely illustrative of the fashion in which the general temper of the public for the time being, not any cold intellectual analysis of pros and cons, decides questions of policy which may have vast, catastrophic military results. If an Italian policy—since, it is now understood, abandoned—alienated important elements in our Alliance like the potential coöperation of the Southern Slavs and the Greeks, it was because a small minority of Italians were able to win over Italian patriotic feeling, as distinct from sober thought, to an unwise policy. And in such matters as our future policy to Russia—and Russia's position may determine whether the world is to have a preponderance of power in the future against Prussia—our relations to Japan, and to such problems as Irish Conscription, wise decisions will not be reached by boiling blood or intense emotionalism. It may help to carry us along the road, but it does not help us to determine the right road.

And what is the right road will be sometimes an infinitely difficult decision for this reason: Our cause is maintained by an Alliance made up of many different states separated by diversities of national character. Our success will depend upon whether we can hang together. Divergencies of aim there are bound to be, and if there cannot be a large measure of other-mindedness, of give and take, of sympathy at times with other views larger perhaps than we have shown in the case of Russia, disruption like that involved in the Russian defection will go on.

Why do I stress the Russian incident? Because it is evident that we have not learned its lesson. The forces which produced the Russian revolution—a striving of the mass after entirely new social and economic conditions—are at work in all European countries. Read the report of the English labor party. They will not work out in the same way of course in England that they did in Russia; but something of the same force is moving. What is the attitude of the American democracy as represented by organised American labor towards that movement? It is pretty much the attitude which British public opinion as a whole took towards the Russian radical groups a year or two ago. American labor seems disposed to take the ground that the British Labor Party is pro-German and defeatist, and it seems disposed to back the political opponents of the British Labor Party. If it did, that would be taking sides in British politics with a vengeance; but what is much more to the point, it would be taking the wrong side. For without any sort of doubt the British Labor Party is the coming greatest single force in British politics. Are we to see the monstrous spectacle of American organised labor in alliance with British and French reaction, with the enemies of British and French labor in their own country? Recent events seem to indicate that that is quite a possibility. If it were realised it would certainly not add to the strength of the alliance of the western democracies.

NECESSITY OF FREE DISCUSSION

Yet if we are to have any assurance that it is to be prevented there must be a very large measure of freedom of discussion of war aims and peace terms, and what French-British socialism stands for and what it does not. One may doubt whether hand-picked governmental delegations from either side of the Atlantic will be any more successful in maintaining the essential solidarity of aim of the democracies than have been similar methods in the case of Russia.

Those who urge resort in our case to the methods of Germany in the matter of the press and speech seem to overlook two vital differences between the enemy's case and ours. The unity of Germany's alliance can be maintained by the sheer preponderance of power of one member in it, imposing a common policy and aim. Our Alliance is not dominated by any one member who can impose unity of aim and purpose. Our unification depends upon the free coöperation of equals. And if we do not learn give and take, and what our respective purposes really are, we cannot attain that unity and our Alliance will go to pieces. That ultimately will give the advantage to the enemy even though the sum of our power may be greater than his. The second difference is that he has a long training in moral docility and subservience to government where we have not. Where repression really will "repress" with him, it will not with us. A policy which he could apply safely to Ireland, or to socialists or labor or what not, would in the case of certain Allied peoples undoubtedly cause rebellion.

The truth is that we have not yet formed our Alliance in the sense of deciding its common purposes; whether or not the purposes of Britain are those of the labor party, and France and Italy those of the socialists; what is to be the American relation to the conflicting claims of the various parties, as well as to the aims of Russia and Japan and Ireland and India. The decisions and adjustments in these things cannot be made by intense emotionalism, and violent-mindedness. Unless we keep alive the tradition of free discussions and the feeling for toleration of diverse opinion, we shall undoubtedly have that violent-mindedness and passion, and many of these questions will in that case be decided in that temper. If that is the case Russia will not mark the only rupture in the Alliance, and the outlook will be very dark.

The service that the heretic, political or religious, does is not necessarily to give us the right view; he generally perhaps gives us the wrong. What he does by his objections is to compel us to take stock of our own ideas, when otherwise they would remain unexamined, and so to modify them where they are faulty. That service we need in war time.

WHAT ARE THE REAL MOTIVES OF REPRESSION?

It is worth while to examine our motives in such things as these. The old inquisitor, and the mobs who watched the burning of heretics or massacred them, were quite sure that they were acting for the glory of God, and because they loved truth. But the simpler and perhaps truer explanation is that they did those things because they hated the heretic; that they were moved by what is perhaps one of the fiercest of human instincts and one of the most powerful motives in all history—the instinct to inflict pain upon those guilty of the insufferable presumption of disagreeing with us. We may really be convinced that we shall add to the solidarity of our Alliance, and understand better what to do about Russia, and Japan, and labor, and Ireland, and ship building, and coördination, and traffic congestion, and Congressional control and a thousand and one similar questions by an embargo on German music or by severe measures against elderly pacifist clergymen. But in times as grave as these it is worth our while perhaps to see which motive we really put first.

THE ATTITUDE OF PUBLIC OPINION TOWARDS CONGRESS

By Henry Jones Ford, Ph.D.,
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It is a wise saying that criticism is easy but performance is difficult. It is always the case when difficult and important tasks are being carried on that there are opportunities for fault finding and complaint. The important thing is that means should exist by which public opinion can act intelligently on the subject. Now saying everything in favor of the press that the press would say for itself—and you will admit that is a great deal—I think that I can ask you to bear witness that pure and unsullied devotion to the truth was not always conspicuous and ever manifest in the press even before we had the censorship. And is it not the case that the very idea, the essential characteristic of constitutional government, is that we shall not be dependent upon such outside agencies but that the government itself should be so organized that it would include the function of control; that the activities of the constituted organs of authority should be sufficient to define responsibility and to apportion praise or blame where it is justly due? What is representative government except representing the interests of the people and giving to them exact and effective expression?

There is a marked disposition to speak in terms of disparagment of the behavior of Congress in this emergency and I think it is important at the outset to say that you cannot possibly reach a fair judgment on questions of this kind if you approach the matter merely from its personal aspects. The general idea seems to be that members of Congress are not fully up to their duty and responsibility and that their personal defects are the cause of trouble, whereas the true ground of criticism is the character of the system under which they act. The Golden Rule of politics was laid down by Edmund Burke in his famous essay in which he said: "Where there is a regular scheme of operations carried on, it is the system and not any individual person who acts in it who is truly dangerous." And surely we have had sufficient experience to know that mere changes in personnel amount to little. Those who come in work in the same system and are subject to the same influences, so all we get is a fresh set of players at the same old game. If we are going to make any substantial improvement, it is necessary to make a change of system.

One feature of the case is the difficulty we are having in getting materials for intelligent judgment. The situation in which we now find ourselves was exactly described by Alexander Hamilton in the *Federalist*. He said:

> It is often impossible amidst mutual accusations, to determine on whom the blame or the punishment of a pernicious measure ought really to fall. It is shifted from one to another with so much dexterity, and under such plausible appearances, that the public opinion is left in suspense about the real author. The circumstances which may have led to any national miscarriage or misfortune are sometimes so complicated, that where there are a number of actors who may have had different degrees and kinds of agency, though we may clearly see upon the whole that there has been mismanagment, yet it may be impracticable to pronounce to whose account the evil which may have been incurred is truly chargeable.

At the present juncture there can be no doubt at all as to where the responsibility is truly chargeable. It certainly is the fact that there is waste, confusion, overlapping, duplication, friction and inefficiency in the departments at Washington. This is admitted on all sides. The question is as to whose account is it truly chargeable. As a matter of fact, the war broke upon us at a time when a struggle had been going on for about ten years between the administration and Congress over that very question. Our presidents have been trying to reorganize the departments to obtain economy and efficiency. President Roosevelt appointed what was known as the Keep Commission. This commission made a thorough examination of conditions and a series of recommendations, but the only response of Congress was to pass a law which has been extremely mischievous in this emergency. It was not that Congress denied the need of reform. Very strong views upon that subject are frequently expressed in Congress but questions of privilege caused

Congress to take the position that nothing shall be done until there has been time to consider every feature of the case. So instead of making use of the information for the purpose of introducing more efficient arrangements, Congress put a rider on one of the appropriations bill in 1909 providing that:

> Hereafter no part of the public moneys or of any appropriation heretofore or hereafter made by Congress shall be used for the payment of compensation or expenses of any commission, council, board or other similar body, or any members thereof, or for expenses in connection with any work or the results of any work or action of any commission, council, board, or other similar body, unless the creation of the same shall be or shall have been authorized by law.

Now it so happens that the Keep Commission was constituted by detail made by the President of experienced and capable officials in the various departments so that it was theoretically conceivable that this work of reorganization might have been prosecuted without an appropriation. Congress took pains to stop off that possibility by putting in a provision, "nor shall there be employed by detail, hereafter or heretofore made, or otherwise, personal services from any executive department or other government establishment in connection with any such commission, council, board or similar body." In other words, the executive department was absolutely precluded by law from making any arrangements for reorganizing the departments or even looking into the matter.

When President Taft came in he was confronted by this law, and so manifest was the need of action that he appealed to Congress for specific authority to undertake the work of reorganization. He succeeded in getting an appropriation for what is known as the Economy and Efficiency Commission which made a very thorough examination of the departments and issued a series of most valuable reports which will be of great use if the time arrives when it is thought to be really desirable to put the government upon a business basis. Not only did Congress take no action upon the subject, but as soon as there was any attempt on the part of the administration to give a practical effect to these labors, Congress acted with energy and effect. President Taft on January 17 and April 4, 1912, sent in special messages pointing out improvements which could be made, incidentally saving eleven million dollars a year over and above the gain through increased efficiency of service, and he proposed to transmit the budget estimates to Congress thereafter upon a new and improved plan devised by the Economy and Efficiency Commission. The response of Congress was to strike out the appropriation for the support of the Economy and Efficiency Commission, thus practically abolishing it, and then put another rider upon an appropriation bill prohibiting the administration from making any change in the mode of transmitting the budget estimates until Congress specially authorized such a change. President Taft took the position that it was his constitutional right to make his recommendations in such manner as he saw fit, but he was not able to enforce that view on Congress and as a matter of fact the budget is still presented in the same old disorderly way.

I think it is easy to understand that when this war broke out, it was necessary to create a great many new services. This old act of 1909 was simply a great public nuisance. Most valuable time was lost from the inability of the administration to perform functions which are considered as inherent and essential to the position of any general manager in any business concern. The President did not have the legal right to assign so much as a clerk or typewriter from any of the departments for the service of the new boards and commissions called into being. It is important to bear all this in mind because there is now pending a bill which is the direct successor of those previous efforts of the administration to introduce order and efficiency into the government departments. I refer to the Overman Bill which was introduced in the middle of February. It has been under discussion ever since. The *Federalist* lays down as a principle so obvious that it is axiomatic, that the persons from whose agency any ends are expected must be allowed the means to attain those ends. How can you expect the administration to be responsible for results when it is not allowed to have the necessary organization to attain those results? So far the attitude of Congress seems to be that it will vote all the money that is needed but will not vote the organization that is needed. It is the case in all business arrangements that organization is quite as important as the necessary supply of funds. The situation to which the world is tending in every democratic country, with the United States, I regret to state, so far lagging behind, is to give plenary power in the administration subject to absolute control by the representatives of the people.

We talk about power being dangerous. It is just as absurd a thing as to speak about force being dangerous. What is dangerous is the irresponsible exercise of power, and mere attempts to reduce power by limitation creates this very irresponsibility which is the true danger. We talk about legislation being dangerous. I do not dispute the force of the argument that the extensive powers sought to be conferred upon the President carry with them dangerous possibilities of abuse, but what power could possibly be conferred in civil life that is not necessarily involved in the power granted in waging a war? If the President can be trusted to be commander-in-chief of the army and navy, must it not necessarily be that he should be trusted with all of the civil arrangements to maintain the efficiency of the fighting organization? It is simply absurd to refuse the President powers to arrange and coördinate all the civil departments of government in connection with the military. They are really all parts of the same organization of the national resources.

These ideas which are working through the heads of our politicians so slowly have been acted upon from the first by every other country. In Canada the statute requires the administration to authorize such new things and cause such things to be done as may be deemed necessary or advisable for the security, defense, peace, order and welfare of Canada; and while there are certain schedules of principal things to be done, the act expressly declares that these particulars are to be construed not so as to restrict the generality of the foregoing terms. Is not every business man aware of the principle that if you are going to enforce responsibility you must give discretion to your agent or else you cannot hold him to account? What responsibility could be greater than is imposed by this Canadian statute? The administration having all power, and having a complete choice of things, is thereby held to a responsibility which could not possibly be enforced if there were a limitation upon the power.

That is a situation which is peculiar to this country, and it is becoming intolerable. I do not suppose any one doubts the fact that it is a chronic disease with us. And yet the Constitution of the United States would seem to be very clear as to the power of the President to propose to Congress whatever measures he deems necessary or expedient, and in that case, of course, responsibility would be promptly defined, because then either the President would obtain the measures he desires, or else their inadequacy would be shown by criticism and the necessary amendments would have to be made. A situation would then be created which would make it an inconvenient and undesirable thing for members to waste their time in introducing their own little bills. They could achieve distinction and perform public service better by studying questions and by acting as critics of the administration's proposals. The way it works out in practice is in this wise. I have been inquiring recently into comparative legislative statistics as between Great Britain and this country. The latest that I have been able to find were those of the British Parliament which began its sessions November 11, 1914. The session lasted until January 27, 1916, a little over fourteen months, and during that period 182 bills were introduced in the House of Commons, and 49 came over from the House of Lords, making 231 altogether. With a calendar of only 231 bills to consider, it is quite likely that there would be time and opportunity to form an intelligent idea of their merits and to discuss them with deliberation and knowledge.

We will now consider the situation which exists in our Congress. The session of Congress which began on December 6, 1915, and extended to December 8, 1916—nine months and two days, which is the latest session that I could compare with the British session—in that time, nine months as against fourteen months in England, 17,798 bills were introduced in the House, and 7,020 in the Senate, or a total of 24,818. In addition, there were 477 joint resolutions and 86 concurrent resolutions, making over 25,000 on the calendars to be considered. I have seen a computation made by an inquisitive member of Congress, in which he figured out that allowing an average of one minute to each member to debate each measure it would require over sixty-six years to go through the calendars in their regular order for one session of Congress.

The effect of that situation is, of course, to cause business to be done in irregular order—by special orders; by the reports of the committee of rules; by conferring special privileges upon particular committees to report at any time. The show of deliberation is mere legislative camouflage. The supreme object is to handle measures so that they can be referred to a conference committee where they may be put in such shape as is acceptable to the various interests which occupy positions of advantage. Our President, the man who is responsible for the results, who is carrying the heavy burden of this war, is kept in a position in which he has to act, not in his constitutional capacity as chief executive, but as a lobbyist and promoter, having to make use of secret influences and private interviews in order to accomplish his proper official purposes. That is the only way in which he is allowed to act under the methods and rules of Congress.

If I should say that the committee system of government which has been developed in Congress is our greatest public enemy, I fear one would think I was using rather strong language, and yet that is exactly what a calm, well-informed and judicious critic of our institutions, Justice Story of the Supreme Court, has said. In his *Commentaries* he expressed the opinion that, if ever the Constitution of the United States is overthrown, it will be owing to that fact—that the President, instead of being allowed his proper constitutional opportunity of presenting and defining his policy to the Houses of Congress, is compelled to resort to secret influences and to private arrangements. The encroachment of Congress upon the presidential function begets in its turn an encroachment of the President upon congressional functions, and it is just in that way and in no other way all through history that dictatorship has been erected upon the ruins of a free constitution.

So then, it is not merely the war we have to consider. We have to consider what really in many respects is a more serious situation still—what is going to happen when the war is over? What is going to be done with the millions of men who have been taken away from homes and occupations and put on the fighting line? Are they to be simply dumped upon the community when the war is over? Enormous tasks of government will devolve upon every civilized nation as a result of this war. Do you think they can be performed by such clumsy, ill-contrived methods as prevail at Washington today? That is a point to which we all ought to give our most serious attention. We talk about making the world safe for democracy, which is certainly a grand ideal, but there is another ideal which is associated with it, and that is the importance of making democracy safe for the world. The point upon which public opinion should concentrate now is to make Congress safe for democracy. That is the weak spot in our institutions, and that is the place which has to be strengthened to enable this nation to rise to its full stature. We must exert all our forces and throw all our energies into this tremendous contest.

BOOK DEPARTMENT

THE BUSINESS MAN'S LIBRARY

Advertising

Higham, Charles F. *Scientific Distribution.* Pp. 183. Price, $1.50. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1918.

This book is really written about one suggestion or idea which should prove stimulating to publicity and advertising men—that the making known of facts through publicity methods need not be confined to commercial purposes. In a word, scientific distribution, as the author sees it, means not only the distribution of commodities but the distribution of ideas and ideals.

Mr. Higham sees in the tremendous force of publicity a "potential ally" of righteous government and sound education, a disseminator of intelligence and good will. He thinks that publicity has a part to play in all forms of distribution, but that we today distribute goods with far more skill than we distribute thought.

Something like this idea has come to publicity and advertising men before, but Mr. Higham is one of the first to set out clearly its possibilities of employing newspaper display, posters and other mediums in disseminating ideas as to state policies, party principles, social problems, literature, and, in fact, all activities in which organized society is concerned.

The new elements in this book have been confined to the last third of it, the other parts being devoted to the historical and modern aspects of advertising. While some analysis of commercial advertising is necessary to explain more clearly and fully the "distribution of ideas," the book seems over-balanced in this respect.

Mr. Higham brings considerable experience to his task, having been a dominating figure in the London advertising fields, and is one of the leading advertising agents in the world.

There is no question but that the field of publicity is broadening, new fields for its employment having been opened up by the war. In political matters it has been employed to some extent, but Mr. Higham believes that political parties could employ it much more effectively than they are doing by their present wasteful methods of printing long speeches and pamphlets which few people read. For the stimulating suggestions the book gives it was well worth the writing and ought to be of great service to the agents of publicity in any field.

J. W. Piercy.

University of Indiana.

Kastor, E. H. *Advertising.* Pp. xiii, 317. Chicago: La Salle Extension University, 1918.

This is a work primarily for the average business man. Mr. Kastor is a member of the firm of H. W. Kastor & Sons, an advertising company of Chicago and

St. Louis, and the knowledge he has formulated in his pages, he says, has been gathered and verified by the observation and practical experience of more than twenty years. Further than this, his advertising knowledge is backed by wide experience as a traveling salesman, merchandising man and sales-manager. The book is listed among the courses of business administration by the La Salle Extension University, of Chicago.

The purpose of the book is well carried out. It explains to the business man the important aspects of advertising. While much detail is necessarily excluded from a book of 312 pages, nevertheless Mr. Kastor has clearly and succinctly set out the fundamental things. He begins by treating of the nature and function of commercial advertising and by showing how an advertising campaign is planned. With this as a groundwork he takes up the questions of appeal, effective copy, illustrations and display, layouts, typography, proofs, mediums, catalogues and booklets, outdoor advertising, dealers' literature, selling merchandise direct, and retail advertising. Two of his chapters that are especially suggestive are those of "The Appeal that Sells," and "Effective Copy." The color process is shown by colored plates.

The book lacks some of the elements of the academic text in that the laboratory proofs or conclusions have not been given and in its neglect of outlines, yet it could well serve the needs of classes of beginners in the subject. The assertions of the author are explained and supported by numerous illustrations or examples of actual advertisements.

J. W. PIERCY.

University of Indiana.

BANKING INVESTMENTS AND FINANCE

CONYNGTON, THOMAS. *Corporate Organization and Management.* (4th ed., rev. by H. Potter.) Pp. xxvi, 778. Price, $5.00. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1917.

One who has seen earlier editions of Conyngton's *Corporate Organization* and *Corporate Management* thumbed with earnest attention by corporation secretaries endeavoring to learn in one matter after another the duties of their office, looks with interest at a new and combined edition of these works. For the new edition the work was revised by H. Potter of the New York bar, who, one learns in the preface, is Miss Helen Potter. The reviewer has noticed elsewhere the disguise of the feminine under the non-committal initial in the publication of work on financial topics. If this is at the behest of the publisher, one may well raise the question of fairness. If at the desire of the person whose personality is thus partly disguised, why the hesitation about a fuller disclosure?

The work has become familiar enough not to call for extended comment. Though not primarily a lawyer's book the authority of citations is given for most of the statements made, but they are kept in an unobtrusive form and do not interfere with easy consecutive reading. The main object of the work is to present what an interested layman wants to know about the legal aspects and mechanism of the operation of corporations, and for this purpose it is careful, complete and effective. It may be useful to a lawyer as a rapid general review to refresh his recollection of matters to which he should give consideration.

Some of the presentation of the financial aspects of corporations, as, for example, in the chapter on bonds, is perhaps too brief and general to be of substantial value and seems a little out of focus with the treatment as a whole. The chapter on associations under declarations of trust, which seems to be new matter, is clearly stated and interesting.

There is a considerable collection of forms. The presentation of brief comments on their use is valuable. Such comments might well be a more frequent feature of form collections.

HASTINGS LYON.

New York City.

FOREIGN TRADE AND COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY

MORGAN, H. E. *Business Organization.* Pp. viii, 253. Price, 5s. London: E. Nash Company, Ltd., 1917.

This volume is composed of a series of short essays that first appeared in the column of the London *Daily Telegraph*. The articles fall into four groups each with its own theme. The first section deals with national organization; it looks upon the nation as a business community, and suggests ways by which commercial efficiency may be promoted by combined action, laying particular stress upon coöperation between the state and business units, or between those units themselves. The need for industrial education is also forcefully brought forward.

In the second part the author treats of the opportunities for trade made possible by the war. He takes up in detail the cotton, hosiery, chinaware, lace and curtain, and paper industries, preaching the gospel of commercial aggrandizement in war-swept markets. The topics of factory location, and the human element in business are given considerable space in this section although they bear little direct relation to the group. Following is a portion devoted to office and staff problems. This, less philosophic than the preceding sections, outlines systems of office management and descends to description of office fixtures. In the last section Mr. Morgan returns to his thoughtful vein in writing about the art of selling. He touches upon such matters as advertising, window-dressing, and illumination. The concluding essay is a plea for the small store; its necessary economic place in neighborhood service is set forth convincingly.

To American readers the book should prove interesting because it helps to prove the international character of business problems. In some respects such as in office appliances we have advanced beyond our British cousins, but in others such as in foreign trade, they can teach what we need to learn. Business men and economists ought to find Mr. Morgan's book a stimulant.

MALCOLM KEIR.

University of Pennsylvania.

INDUSTRIAL MANAGEMENT

BABCOCK, GEORGE D. *The Taylor System in Franklin Management.* Pp. xx, 245. Price, $3.00. New York: The Engineering Magazine Company, 1917.

This is a book for the "man from Missouri"; it shows what may be done with the Taylor principles of management, by setting forth what was accomplished in one concrete instance. There are a great many business men who, having heard about scientific management, are wondering if it is practicable and just how they would go about installing it in their works. Mr. Babcock answers these questions. He tells the painstaking investigation made by the Franklin Company before it undertook to apply the new ideas in their own management. When the company was thoroughly convinced that Taylor's principles were workable, then changes in the existing organization were made gradually. First, the methods of receiving, storing and accounting for stores were overhauled; second, product tools and methods were classified and standardized; third, new systems of control were installed; fourth, time studies and wage adjustments were made, and last, new machines and equipment were put in place. Two features in this recital stand out, one the ingenious control boards invented by Mr. Babcock, and the other a method of payment whereby wages were brought into accord with the workers' reduction of fixed charges.

Mr. Babcock claims that the Taylor system has reduced Franklin costs, increased wages, and turned out a better product for a lower selling price. The book has two appendices that give in detail the Franklin wage system and examples of the results of the application of scientific management. The volume should prove invaluable to any "doubting Thomas" hesitating over the adoption of the Taylor system of management.

MALCOLM KEIR.

University of Pennsylvania.

ECONOMICS

LAUGHLIN, J. LAURENCE. *Credit of the Nations.* Pp. xii, 406. Price, $3.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1918.

There is a possibility that many readers may be misled by the title of Professor Laughlin's volume, thinking it a discussion of governmental rather than of private and banking credit. Governmental fiscal problems are given some attention, but the leading emphasis is placed on individual, bank and corporate financing. As a survey of these subjects it is comprehensive and stimulating.

After two introductory chapters, credit operations in England, France, Germany and the United States are treated in order. The first chapter surveys most admirably the economic situation from 1880 to the present, indicating the rapid progress in all lines of industrial, commercial and financial life and their bearing on the war. This is followed by a discussion of war and credit in which the author presents his general theory of credit, whose main features are familiar to his former students and to others who have become familiar with his views through his writings. Their significance in the present crisis is pointed out with particular emphasis on the disasters accompanying inflation.

Professor Laughlin has great confidence in the ability of the English to carry their colossal war burden and believes that experience has shown the strength of the British credit system, particularly as contrasted with the German. One of his chief criticisms is directed against the issue of the government currency notes when an amendment of the Bank Act, allowing the issue of 1 pound and 10 shilling bank notes, would have met the need. On the whole the reader feels that while the author's confidence in the English financial structure is warranted, he has perhaps been too extreme in some of his conclusions. An illustration of this is his insistence (*e. g.*, pp. 105, 119 and 131) that there is no depreciation of the currency notes in terms of gold. A failure to have this evidenced in actual transactions does not seem to prove its non-existence, while the author's view is so much at variance with that of some other writers (*e. g.*, Professor Shield Nicholson in "War Finance") as to indicate the need for further elaboration.

It is very properly indicated that the grave weakness in France is the confusion of fiscal and monetary functions which has worked itself out through the Bank of France. To an unfortunate degree the French government has relied on the Bank for funds with the result that a large volume of demand notes has been put in circulation, the assets against them being "Advances to the government." The analysis of German conditions is the clearest and most convincing that has come to the reviewer's notice. The general conclusions seem in a few instances rather sweeping, but the key note is struck near the end of the chapter where it is pointed out that financial "comparisons for the purpose of estimating the duration of the war are mechanical. . . . . All depends on the spirit to sacrifice."

In the final chapter dealing with credit in the United States, most of the space is devoted to a review of the facts. Emphasis is placed on the importance of the federal reserve system as a part of our financial machinery and on the possibility of saving and the significance of what has already occurred. Here again it is hard to agree in full. There seems to be considerable ground for fearing that as yet American savings have not increased as they should and must, but that much of the apparent increase has been secured at the sacrifice of maintenance and depreciation. Also the statement (p. 352) that the volume of federal reserve notes "can create no concern" will bring an emphatic dissent from many students.

E. M. PATTERSON.

University of Pennsylvania.

WITHERS, HARTLEY. *Our Money and the State.* Pp. x, 119. Price, $1.25. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1917.

A popular, simple presentation of problems of public finance in which the author contends that the burdens of the war must be met in the present. He advocates heavily graduated taxes, drawing a distinction between earned and unearned income,—that is, between service and property income. He expresses a hope and thinks it possible that a further distinction can be drawn between property accumulated during one's lifetime and property inherited, this distinction to be of considerable weight in imposing taxes.

C. H. C.

POLITICAL SCIENCE

HOAR, ROGER SHERMAN. *Constitutional Conventions: Their Nature, Powers and Limitations.* Pp. xvi, 240. Price, $2.00. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1917.

This book was very much needed, and Mr. Hoar has performed a distinct public service in bringing it out at this time. We appear to be in a period of constitutional change in our states. Steps were taken in at least ten states at the last sessions of the legislatures to provide for constitutional conventions, and active movements are in progress in several other states. But, despite the direct and concrete interest in *Constitutional Conventions: Their Powers and Limitations*, there is no treatise to which one can turn which brings the law of the subject down to date. The great work of Judge Jameson, which is the main authority on the subject, was published in 1867 and revised slightly in 1887. Much water has passed over the mill since that time. Dodds' book, *The Revision and Amendment of State Constitutions*, helped considerably to supply the deficiency, but that book is historical rather than legal.

The timeliness of Mr. Hoar's book cannot be better illustrated than by the fact that it was scarcely off the press when it was quoted by both the majority and dissenting opinions of the Indiana Supreme Court in passing upon the constitutionality of the Convention Act of 1917.

The book is divided into eighteen chapters, and in all cases the legal principles are briefly and concisely stated. It is an easy book to consult, and even the layman will find it of great interest if he happens to be at all concerned with the problems of constitution making. The chapter headings indicate the scope of the book: The Origin of Conventions, Fundamental Principles, Analysis of Questions, Popular Conventions are Legal, Who Calls the Convention, Legislatures as Conventions, Executive Intervention, The Convention Act not Amendable, Legislative Control, Popular Control, Extraordinary Powers Claimed, Judicial Intervention, Does the Constitution Apply, Internal Procedure, Status of Delegates, Submission of Amendments, The Doctrine of Acquiescence, Conclusions.

Particular reference should be made to the last chapter containing the conclusions of the author. These conclusions are boiled down to the minimum of statement, and the summary contained in the chapter is invaluable. The volume gives evidence of a tremendous amount of expert work. The author has made a first-hand examination of the cases and has not relied upon the interpretations of other authors. He has, moreover, proceeded without any set convictions, such as beset Jameson. His sole inquiry has been to determine what the legal status is, rather than what it should be. We may disagree with the conclusions of the courts, but we can hardly disagree with the conclusions of the author regarding the conclusions of the courts. If, as it appears, we are to have a reorganization of our state constitutions, this book will grow in importance.

JOHN A. LAPP.

Columbus, Ohio.

McBAIN, HOWARD LEE, *American City Progress and the Law.* Pp. vii, 269. New York: Columbia University Press, 1918.

This books covers the principles of law on such general matters as Home Rule, Smoke, Nuisance, Billboards, Zoning, Excess Condemnation, Municipal Ownership, Municipal Markets, Parks and Playgrounds, and the Promotion of Commerce and Industry. It contains nothing new but may serve as a handy reference for those who do not have the standard works at hand.

C. L. K.

LUTZ, HARLEY LEIST. *The State Tax Commission.* Pp. ix, 673. Price, $2.75. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1918.

Within recent years American students of taxation have been giving increased attention to problems of administration. One can easily be convinced of this fact by examining the proceedings of the National Tax Association. A factor in fiscal administrative systems that has been much discussed has been the state tax board. Except for Chapman's monograph in 1897, however, no special study of this important subject had been attempted prior to the publication of the present volume. Chapman's study was comparatively brief and is now out-of-date. Lutz's contribution offers a complete and up-to-date critical history of great value.

Dr. Lutz first deals in a general way with the evolution of centralized administration in state taxation. Next he reviews the development of the early boards of equalization and assessment. The organization and the equipment of state tax departments are also touched upon. Then follows the most useful part of the book, a detailed historical critique of eleven chapters dealing with the tax commissions of as many states. The states selected are those (including Indiana, New York, Ohio and Wisconsin) where such commissions are of especial interest on account of their age, experience or powers. The commissions of all the remaining states, excepting Idaho, Montana, Arkansas and North Dakota, are treated together in three other chapters.

The writer's study of the tax commission has compelled him to pay considerable attention to the general development of state tax systems. Accordingly he has given us what is perhaps the nearest approach to a treatise on state taxation that has yet appeared. However, his treatment of taxation as such has been carefully subordinated and the emphasis of the volume falls on the problem of centralized administration.

The book is rounded out by an appraisal of the work of tax commissions and by several valuable conclusions concerning the control central boards should have over local assessments. The author argues against "bureaucratic centralization," such as Ohio once had, yet he believes that state supervision of local administration has been highly beneficial thus far and that it should be extended in several directions.

This study was awarded the David A. Wells Prize for the year 1915–1916, a recognition fully deserved.

FRANK T. STOCKTON.

University of South Dakota.

MUIR, RAMSEY. *Nationalism and Internationalism.* Pp. 229. Price, $1.25. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1917.

The main thesis of this work is that the growth of the national state constitutes a step in the development of internationalism. The author takes issue with those who believe that the growth of intense nationalism has been the cause of most international conflicts and is at the root of the present world struggle. He emphasizes the importance of having political boundaries co-terminous with national units. Boundaries determined by conquest are certain, sooner or later, to be the source of further conflict. Furthermore, with national ambition satisfied through the corresponding arrangement of political boundaries, there is furnished the basis for the growth of orderly relations between states. The author believes that with national ambitions satisfied, there will be no danger of international aggression.

His lucid presentation of the subject, combined with the judicious use of historical material, makes this book one of the most illuminating presentations, thus far published, of the relation between nationalism and internationalism.

L. S. R.

SCOTT, JAMES BROWN. *A Survey of International Relations between the United States and Germany.* Pp. cxiv, 390. Price, $5.00. New York: University Press, 1917.

The title of this work is a bit misleading. It indicates that the book is a treatise on the relations between the United States and Germany, but in fact the contents embrace much more than the title suggests. To start with, there are 114 pages (about one-fourth of the entire matter of the text) of documentary material consisting of extracts from the writings of German philosophers like Hegel and Lasson, of militarists, like von Clausewitz, von Moltke and Bernhardi, of the historians Treitschke and Mommsen, from the utterances of Frederick the Great, Bismark, Betthmann Hollweg and William II, and from the *Kriegsbrauch im Landkriege,* all selected for the purpose of illustrating German conceptions regarding the nature of the state, of international law and of international policy. They appear to have been translated by the author from the German original, and in some cases they are accompanied by critical bibliographical and expository notes. They illustrate well enough the immoral, not to say brutal, theories which have long been current in Germany, although it is submitted that in some cases more apt selections could have been made, notably from von Clausewitz and the *Kriegsbrauch.* Interesting and valuable enough as illustrations of Germany's philosophy, they of course have no immediate relation to the subject of the treatise as announced in the title. This elaborate exhibit is followed by a chapter on the genesis of the war of 1914 in which the international relations of Europe since 1815 are reviewed.

The author then proceeds to consider the problem of American neutrality following the outbreak of the war in Europe and he examines in turn the various charges of unneutral conduct made against the government and people of the United States as they are set forth in Senator Stone's letter of January 8, 1915, to

Secretary Bryan. The author shows convincingly enough to an impartial mind that none of the charges had any basis in international law.

Then coming to the more immediate questions at issue between Germany and the United States, he considers in turn the controversies raised by the German methods of submarine warfare, the German position as to armed merchantmen, the destruction of prizes, war zones, blockades, mines, reprisals, etc. The book concludes with two chapters of special merit, one on arbitration showing how the Germans defeated at the second Hague Conference the project for an obligatory arbitration treaty, and the other on the freedom of the seas, in which the views of Grotius and the doctrine of the United States Supreme Court are set forth at length.

By reason of the great learning of the author as a jurist and his special familiarity with many of the questions of international law involved in the controversy with Germany, due to his official connection with the neutrality board which passed upon those questions, his analysis of the points of law raised is both illuminating and sound, and as such, his treatise presents the American case against Germany in an able and convincing manner. As to his interpretation of the principles of international law, applicable to the questions discussed, there is little to criticize. Unfortunately the enormous amount of quoted matter which encumbers the pages of his book makes it rather hard reading. We could only wish that there had been less of this and more of the distinguished author's discriminating analysis and comment.

J. W. G.

THORPE, FRANCIS NEWTON. *The Essentials of American Constitutional Law.* Pp. xii. Price $1.75. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1917.

This epitome of the leading principles of American constitutional law and their application in judicial decisions, is designed for the use of college classes and the general reader. Starting with an effective exposition of Sovereignty in the American Constitutional System, the author discusses in turn Legislative Powers, Taxation, Commerce, Contracts and Property, Executive Power, Judicial Power, State Comity, Territories and Possessions, Limitations, Fundamental Rights, and Citizenship. To the twelve chapters of text are added the Constitution of the United States, a table of cases cited, facilitating the use of court reports and case-books, and a brief index.

The chapter on judicial power might well precede the analysis of legislative and executive powers, thus capitalizing the unity inherent in our constitutional law, owing to the unique function of American courts in protecting individual rights against governmental encroachment. And since fundamental constitutional rights limit the exercise of both federal and state powers, it seems advantageous to accord the former prior treatment. Further, to scatter the discussion of fundamental rights in several chapters primarily devoted to other subjects, invites confusion and duplication, as evidenced by the author's account of "due process of law."

Grave omissions and errors are noted. There is no reference to such well known cases as *Standard Oil Company* v. *the United States* (221 U. S. 1) and *Muller*

v. *Oregon* (208 U. S. 412). Certainly the Eleventh Amendment did not "deny to the courts of the United States any jurisdiction whatever in any case in which an American Commonwealth is made a defendant" (p. 114). Nor did the United States Supreme Court, in *Lochner* v. *New York* (198 U. S. 45), sustain a law of New York State establishing a ten-hour day and sixty-hour week for bakers (p. 209, note).

LEONARD P. FOX.

Princeton University.

VEBLEN, THORSTEIN. *The Nature of Peace.* Pp. xiii, 367. Price, $2.00. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1917.

With each of Mr. Veblen's books there comes the gratifying certainty that every problem which he treats will be approached from a new viewpoint and that even the most hackneyed questions will acquire new interest when subjected to his searching analysis. In this work he has given an illuminating critique of the part played by the state in peace and in war. The conclusion reached by the author is that the state is an organization growing out of warlike operations, and that while it is an instrument adapted to the making of peace, it is not adapted to perpetuating it.

Probably no more scathing arraignment of the doctrine of balance of power has ever been made than that contained in this book. He shows how this doctrine has disregarded real national interests, subordinating them to a desire for power and domination, and that in the desire to secure power the welfare of the mass of the people has been completely lost sight of.

The book contains an excellent analysis of the effect of industrial life on the militant and aggressive tendencies in national organization. The author evidently believes that through such industrial development, the pacific tendencies of the masses of the people, and the spirit of solidarity of the working classes, will be so strengthened that political leaders can no longer arraign nation against nation.

Probably the most important conclusion reached by the author is that we cannot hope for anything approaching a durable peace until "the present pecuniary law and order, with all its incidents of ownership and investment," is completely changed.

L. S. R.

VON SCHIERBRAND, WOLF. *Austria-Hungary: the Polyglot Empire.* Pp. vii, 352. Price, $3.00. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1917.

Dr. von Schierbrand was in Austria from 1912 to 1916, thus having ample time to see the Dual Monarchy both at peace and at war. While disclaiming the production of another "war book," the author nevertheless and necessarily touches upon war topics, especially near the end where he discussed refuge camps, visits to war prisoners, the future of Austria-Hungary, and so forth. For the most part, however, the work is a description and interpretation of the forces at work in this many-sided country. The historical background is given in the opening chapters, showing how the "polyglot empire" came to be; the racial question, with its disrupting tendencies, is adequately presented; the political and social life of the country outlined. Of special interest at the present time is the chapter on economic troubles and their remedy. The generally undeveloped condition of agriculture and the prevailing inefficiency of industrial life as described by the author is in strong contrast with the conditions prevailing in Germany. In fact, we are told that, with a few notable exceptions, German initiative, German managers, German methods, and, to a large degree, German capital, are principally responsible for what modern economic progress Austria-Hungary has made. As for the future, the author concludes that Austria-Hungary must come, in increasing measure, under the sway of Germany, in political as well as in economic life, unless liberal forces win out, and the many nationalities in the polyglot empire be given their freedom to work out their own life by the establishment of something analogous to a "United States of Austria-Hungary."

G. B. R.

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FOREWORD

The title of this volume is descriptive of its contents to the extent to which the word "relief" receives the larger connotation demanded by the exigencies of the war. For decades social scientists have sought to emphasize the fact that a program of constructive relief is essential to national efficiency. The essence of real democracy is not in competition and individual struggle, but in coöperation and collective struggle.

One of the greatest contributions of the war to our social thinking is the realization, forced upon us by the severity of the struggle, that not merely armies and navies are involved, but that the whole nation is at war. This concept is phrased in "the mobilization of national resources" and includes man and woman power, material wealth, industry and the social mind. It follows as a natural consequence that public health, baby saving, child welfare, social hygiene, wholesome recreation and protection of workers are as essential to national vitality and strength as a capable army and navy, quick and liberal response to liberty loans, efficient industrial organization, or sound patriotism.

The feverish development of modern industrialism precluded any quick and clear perception of the need for conserving either the material or the vital resources of nations. *Laissez faire* philosophy was too deeply intrenched in the popular mind. Social programs were being developed, however, to meet specific needs and the public consciousness was slowly being awakened. Far-sighted statesmen were becoming active in the advocacy of social readjustment for the effective accomplishment of the pursuits of peaceful civilization.

Then came the war. In the fierceness of the early days of the conflict, when it seemed that the struggle would be short and decisive, it was to be expected that every energy should be utilized; that future needs should be sacrificed to present necessities. With the prolongation of the war, however, it began to be apparent that the problem was one of national endurance. This meant not only the organization, equipment and maintenance of vast military forces, but the unification of the nation and the development of a public morale that could withstand the strain of war for an indefinite period. Increase of poverty, social unrest, increasing mortality, low birth rates, social disorganization, could now be seen to be as dangerous as army mutiny.

Those with clearer visions have perceived that the supreme national test will come in the reconstruction period after the war is over. Though victorious at arms, a nation may suffer such a loss of national vitality as to menace its future. It is even possible to lose the democratic spirit at home while fighting for democracy abroad.

In order to mobilize the entire nation, to unify its activities, to conserve its resources and to guarantee its success during the war and its prosperity after the war, it became necessary, not only to organize its military machinery on a gigantic scale, but to develop as well certain constructive programs, which for want of an adequate term, yet to be coined, to describe this enormous group of social activities we call "war relief work."

First of all this work involves the enlargement and intensification of the activities of all existing social agencies. The nation can ill afford to neglect its present wards or to allow their burden to increase for lack of care. Then new agencies must be created to meet specific or emergency needs incident to the war. The dependents of soldiers must be provided for on a scale never before contemplated or undertaken. The modern public conscience demands that this shall not merely be provided but that it shall be provided adequately.

The principle of accident insurance, now so thoroughly established in the field of industry, has been extended to cover war risks as an improvement upon previous pension systems. To the emergency work of the Red Cross now so tremendously enlarged has been added that immense field of activities known as civilian relief work. All the allied nations have realized as never before the necessity of placing fit armies in the field and to this end have organized on a magnificent scale departments of training camp activities. The service this branch of "relief" renders, especially in the United States, is incalculable. Religious activities have been increased mainly through the work of the nonsectarian organization of the Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A., but aided by the Catholic and Jewish organizations. A whole volume might be devoted to the work of the Council of National Defense in the United States. Other social welfare organizations interested in child welfare, vocational education, housing of industrial workers, etc., have enlarged the scope of their activities. Methods of financing war relief work of such huge proportions had to be created.

The Academy has had in mind two principal objects in presenting this volume to its readers. First, to provide up-to-the-minute and accurate information in regard to the whole subject of war relief work at home and abroad. This has been done as thoroughly as the facilities of the Academy would permit. Second, to contribute to the development of that large and wholesome public social consciousness without which it would be difficult if not impossible to win the war and without which the benefits of democratic civilization could not be conserved to the future of mankind.

J. P. LICHTENBERGER.

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WAR RELIEF WORK IN EUROPE

By Edward T. Devine,

American Red Cross, Paris.

The time has not yet come, probably it never will come, for any attempt at a comprehensive account of the official and voluntary relief activities of the war. They have been on such a vast scale, and have been undertaken from such various motives—humanitarian, political and military—that it would be a stupendous task to assemble and analyze the financial, statistical and descriptive data which could make any general survey possible.

The war has its spiritual blessings. We must by all means make the most of them. America, especially, latest of the great nations to enter the war, had no alternative, if she were to save her soul alive; and right gloriously she has—even as I write—brought her sacrifice to the altar. Clear thinking and clear seeing as to the cost of the war in terms of human life and physical well-being, will not diminish but increase our appreciation of its regenerating influence on national character and its revolutionary effect on spiritual values.

The broad fact, is that wealth is daily destroyed—deliberately on our part—that civilization may live. The broad fact, is that daily young men and men in middle life, vigorous, normal, sound in mind and body, are crippled for life or disabled for weeks, months, or years, and so made into dependent hospital patients; and that others are killed outright. The broad fact, is that families are dependent for their daily bread on the state or on voluntary charity because their natural breadwinners are at the war, or have been killed or disabled. The broad fact, is that whole communities, populations which must be counted now by the millions, are dislocated, driven away from their homes to live—often unwelcome—among strangers: doubly dependent because their sons and fathers are fighting and their women and old men and their children are civil prisoners or refugees. The broad fact, is that the war has suddenly blocked or diverted into other channels a great volume of good will, experience and trained service which in every country had begun to show concrete results from organized social efforts, to reduce human misery and promote social welfare. These five, broad, incontrovertible facts—(1) diminished social income, (2) disabled soldiers, (3) dependent soldiers' families, (4) dislocated populations, and (5) crippled social movements—especially those which are educational or preventive in character—indicate the general lines of appropriate, inevitable war relief activities. We may consider them in order.

DIMINISHED SOCIAL INCOME

Relief activities cannot, of course, from the social point of view' affect the actual loss of wealth and of income caused by the destruction of war. Houses, farms, animals, corps, railway rolling stock, ships and cargoes destroyed by shells or submarines, and ammunition used to destroy life and property, are simply gone. The effort put into their production is lost; no humanitarian effort can change the profit and loss account. But relief measures can and do, by a sort of rough insurance indemnity, change the distribution, the incidence of the burden. Indemnity for war losses has already been the subject of extensive European legislature, and courts and commissions have already begun to adjust claims created by old or new laws on the subject. Relief funds have been raised from private sources, and public appropriations have been made for emergency relief of those who have suffered by the destruction of their houses or their means of livelihood. Such individual losses swell the claim of reparation and compensation which the victorious nations may expect to collect at the end of the war, even though they accept the principle of no punitive indemnities. The fact, however, that the war, whatever its origin, has become a world disaster, from which the whole world will suffer economically for a long time, may as well be recognized sooner as later; and this implies that its ravages wherever they are—in Russia, Armenia, Belgium, or Serbia—must be met as far as possible from the surplus wealth wherever it is—in Germany or England, in North America or South America—in victorious or conquered, belligerent or neutral nations. This will be done in part by the terms of peace; but in large part it will have to be done by relief measures voluntary adopted: relief appropriations of governments, generous gifts of foundations, splendid and heroic gifts of large and small contributions through the Red Cross and through all sorts of voluntary agencies.

These activities are now in progress all over the world, helping to redistribute the available resources in accordance with human needs. They are practical socialism if one likes to call them so, or applied religion, or old fashioned charity, or democratic recognition of a public obligation. It does not matter what it is called. The world is poorer than it was five years ago. There is not as much to eat, to wear, to enjoy or to waste. Official and voluntary measures of control and relief are contributing to insure the use of what there is, in such a way, as to prevent as many as possible from having too little to eat, and others from wasting, notwithstanding the shortage. That is the first and greatest, although somewhat vague, function of war relief as it is of social control in general.

DISABLED SOLDIERS AND SAILORS

In spite of official commissions, elaborate legislation, systematic educational propaganda, inter-allied conferences and brave promises, the age-old problem of dependent ex-soldiers crippled by the loss of limbs, of eyesight, of nervous stability, of the capacity of self support looms large on every national horizon. Economic independence, through vocational re-education when necessary, through help in readjustment in an old occupation when that is possible, through stimulating confidence on the part of everybody that is possible oftener than not, is to be cherished as an ideal for the individual who has lost an eye, a hand, or a lung. We are not to be sentimental over these discharged soldiers or indifferent to their lot. We are not to allow them to be exploited nor are we to allow them to depress the standards of wages for their fellow workmen. We are neither to make heroes of a day nor wrecks of a lifetime out of their deeds and their bad luck. I have seen them already in their American uniforms going cheerfully home, having done their part, unconquered in spirit and rejoicing at having had their good chance.

Schools and scholarships; special employment agencies and workshops; definite liberal pensions not so extravagant as to discourage efforts at self-support and not to be reduced because of exceptional individual success in self-supporting effort; coöperation with trade unions and with employing industries; continuing interest on the part of some carefully constituted local committee in solving the hard cases; official protection against neglect and assurance of attention to medical and surgical needs—are the outstanding features of an adequate provision for disabled soldiers and sailors. Any national policy which is based upon the theory that insurance, re-education, orthopaedic care and employment exchange will insure the complete absorption of our war cripples into the economic life of the nation, so as to eliminate the necessity for public and voluntary supplement to their earnings, certainly awaits early disillusionment.

The lesson of European relief for war cripples, is that education and economic adjustment are the very best means for those who can take advantage of them; but that large financial resources and infinite patience and persistence are necessary to insure even a minority of the war victims getting the advantage of them; and that the state, the local municipality, the Red Cross, and all the well disposed private individuals who can be brought to take any permanent and effective interest in the individual cripples will have their hands full. Organized national provision for education—trade, technical and professional—and for placement is a sort of solid foundation on which to build; but what needs to be built on this foundation is a retail personal interest in the individual, first of all on his own part, and then on the part of his relatives, former employers, fellow craftsmen or neighbors, and a kindly, unsentimental helping hand from an understanding friend at the right moment.

THE FAMILIES OF THE KILLED AND DISABLED ACTIVE SOLDIERS

This war differs from all the wars that precede it in the vast number of producers withdrawn at one time from ordinary industrial pursuits. It differs also in the extent to which the state has assumed the financial burden of the resulting loss to the families affected. For the first time there has been all but universal recognition of this obligation. In France the soldiers' pay is only a nominal token, but his family allowance is liberal. It includes not only a daily payment sufficient for food, but the free occupancy of whatever home the soldier had at the time of his enlistment, and numerous allowances for fuel, for sickness, for large family, for invalidity, etc., some of which are merely the common provision of the community for such contingencies, but interpreted with special liberality in the case of soldiers' families.

It is hardly too much to say, that in Russia, before the revolution, the great body of the agricultural peasantry had actually an appearance of prosperity because of the official provision for the families of soldiers. War prices for food, the supression of vodka and other influences no doubt contributed to this appearance, and the appearance was no doubt deceptive as the destruction of capital and the diminution of production were undermining the national economic life there as elsewhere. The fact remains that those village families in which perhaps the father and one or more sons were in the army, and which by the labor of women continued to raise and market the usual crops and lived meantime under a régime of enforced temperance, found the state allowance so generous that they had no cause for complaint as to their standard of living. England and the colonies have not been less vigilant than their Allies in looking after the families of soldiers and sailors, and they have made rather more use of voluntary local service in carrying out the system of national care.

THE DISLOCATED PEOPLES

The mobilized armies unfortunately do not represent the whole of the abnormal displacement of populations caused by the war. The invasion of East Prussia and Galicia by the Russians, the invasion of Russian Poland by the Germans, the overrunning of Belgium and of the Balkans by the central powers, the descent into Triuli of the Austrians, the ebb and flow of the warfare in Asiatic Turkey, and above all the occupation of the flourishing departments of northeastern France, have resulted in refugee problems, unique in history, appalling in character, overwhelming in magnitude.

In Russia and in France, a state allowance for refugees early became as clear a necessity as the allowance for soldier's families. The Russian Government established four central commissions on national lines, one for the general Slav population and one each for Poles, Jews and Lithuanians, through which state applications were distributed to refugees. France has its allowance of a franc and a half a day for adults, and a franc for children besides free rent and relief in kind, according to local resources and needs. Obviously, however, such public provisions are only the beginning of refugee relief—a necessary but wholly inadequate measure, giving a sort of substantial material basis for voluntary and official measures of a far-reaching kind—all of which together mitigate only in the slightest degree, the immeasurable misery of the displacement of civil populations by modern invading armies. To stay behind as civil prisoners or hostages—to go instantly by military order under a forced evacuation—to wait until the last moment and then flee as voluntary refugees dependent on the hard chances of the roadway and, at the railway station, on the possibility of a canteen,—to look some days or weeks ahead and leave while trains are running or country roads are not yet crowded, with the possibility that after all the tide may turn and the refugee find himself in the uncomfortable position of one who has been too easily frightened—such are alternatives which some millions of human beings have had to face in the past four years. Some have gone because they were afraid to stay, some because their homes have been destroyed by bombs or shells, some because they were in the way of the armies, some because it was time to go and their neighbors were going. Refugees doubled the population of Moscow, they have doubled and trebled the population of towns and villages in southern France.

THE WAR AND EXISTING CHARITABLE AND SOCIAL ACTIVITIES

It must, of course, be borne in mind, that during the war most of the ordinary relief tasks of peace times remain, some of them made enormously heavier by the war—both because there is more to be done and because financial and personal resources are to some extent diverted to war activities. Hospitals of civilians; orphanages; reformatories; asylums for the aged, insane, feebleminded, epileptic; child caring agencies; general relief societies; the whole vast net work of organized philanthropy, whether official, semi-official or voluntary, is profoundly affected by the war, in some ways no doubt for the better but certainly on the side of income more often for the worse.

Where such established relief agencies are conducted by the state, or where, as in France, if not public, they have accumulated through bequest or otherwise substantial endowments which are carefully protected by law and by custom, the effect of the war on their means of support may not be fatal. The larger established activities may thus go on, reducing the number of their beneficiaries, transferring some responsibilities to the special war relief agencies, accepting on their own account some war victims and making this the basis for sharing in the special "war benefit," or borrowing is necessary to tide over the emergency. They do not often close their doors solely for financial reasons, although sometimes these have a certain influence in connection with other causes for changing the character of the work or for moving from one place to another. They are often overcrowded, and very often wholly unable to receive as many as apply to them. Sheer neglect of those who actually need shelter, nourishment, a doctor's care, an asylum in old age or mental incapacity is a familiar sight in every European country affected by the war.

It is not, however, the orphanages, hospitals and general relief societies that have been most seriously affected, but rather those activities which we in America are accustomed to group together under some such phrase as preventive or constructive social measures, as for example improved housing, educational work for the control of infection and the elimination of insanitary conditions, the care and instruction of mothers in the conservation of prenatal and infant life, the development of playgrounds and athletics and of special children's courts, the probation and parole system of preventing young offenders from becoming criminals, the coördination of philanthropic and civic activities through social service exchanges.

It is in the dynamics of the social organization, rather than in its statics, that we must look for the effects of the war. We shall find those effects complex of course. There is, I believe, a current impression that they have been on the whole favorable; that because the world has had to fix its common mind on human suffering and abnormal conditions, we are getting on faster in dealing with them. There is some justification for this impression in certain limited fields, as for example in welfare work in munition factories and in the conservation of food. There has been more intense study of certain problems arising from the war, and new knowledge so gained has been applied in other fields. Heroic efforts are in progress to do something about the prevention of tuberculosis and to lessen the waste of infant life.

Generally speaking, however, the war has certainly obstructed the social movement rather than aided it. Organized and related efforts to promote the common welfare and to eliminate the recognized and preventable causes of human misery had begun in Europe, as in America, to show concrete results in a diminished death rate, better physique, cleaner homes, better ordered communities, higher standards of living. Perhaps there are those who would deny that such social progress was taking place, who would still, if they could be taken back to the Europe of five years ago, see only increasing poverty in the midst of progress, signs of a cataclysm sure to result from the final separation of society into two opposing classes of exploiters and proletariates. The hardships of those times appear, generally speaking, in a different perspective to those who in the last four years have been the constant companions of the families that mourn, of the families who have literally lost their homes, who may be strangers in their own country or prisoners in that of the enemy, of the broken families and mutilated human beings, as the French, after all not so inappropriately, call those who even in their country's service have lost a leg or both legs, an arm or both arms or a part of the face.

The war means not only diminished wealth, lower standards of living, less food, lowered physique, poorer homes more overcrowding, neglected children, harder, more grinding and more exhausting work, less play for children, greater moral dangers: it means, unless we highly resolve to the contrary, an actual slackening of the effort to prevent these evils, even as they exist in normal times. The significance of the Departments of Civil Affairs in the American Red Cross in France—a department which has no analogy in the Red Cross of other nations—is that there is at least one very great and determined effort to prevent this culminating disaster. The Children's Bureau, the Bureau of Tuberculosis, and the Bureau of Refugees and Home Relief represent on a scale heretofore unprecedented, for which there never has been a similar need, a national participation in relief measures carried on in another country, with complete official and popular approval, as a part of the common effort to save civilization. It is a feature of the Alliance, although one which is spontaneous and unconstrained. It springs from the war, and supplments the military operations, but it began before we were actually in the trenches and it will have results far outlasting the war. It happens to be taking place in France because this is the field of the war. It is not a gift from America to France, so much as a common investment in all that makes for the security and enrichment of our common heritage.

THE EXPANDING DEMANDS FOR WAR RELIEF IN EUROPE

BY PAUL U. KELLOGG,
Editor of *The Survey*.

A recent Red Cross bulletin tells of food distributed (as a measure of preventive medicine), to supplement the school luncheons of 30,000 Paris school children. In one ward, the supplement was given in the shape of a mid-afternoon "gouter" of chocolate, and a "specially and scientifically compounded Red Cross bun," made from American sugar and white flour and French milk. Apply the recipe if you will to war relief: American good-will and resources and French self-help,—or Italian, or Belgian self-help. For, in any consideration of war relief on the western front, it must always be borne in mind that the great burden of it is not shouldered by outside agencies or even by the governments concerned, although that is the greater of the two,—but most of all by the people themselves.

At every stage, American help has had to adjust itself to existing institutions, points of view and habits. It has had to adjust itself to rapidly changing situations, resulting from military events. It has built up staffs piecemeal and drawn supplies mostly from sources 3,000 miles away and through uncertain and restricted channels of transportation. These things add to our enthusiasm, at cables telling of squads of Red Cross workers hurdling obstacles and serving the stream of refugees from the recent German offensives. These things must be borne in mind in any attempt later on, to pass judgment on the execution of the American Red Cross as a whole. At this juncture, there is no independent and inclusive body of facts as to the actual working out of Red Cross operations in the last twelve months which would enable a person to pass such judgment. Rather, we are in the position of laymen at the outset of a health campaign for the eradication, for example, of an infectious disease. We turn to the physicians and sanitarians and ask: "What is it you need to accomplish results?" And we can hold them responsible for results in so far as we give them the means, the equipment and the personnel which they say they need. That, is the attitude of the American public to the great overseas work of the American Red

Cross. We have confidence in many of the men who have been called to the service,—experienced in executives, transportation and purchasing, in medicine and engineering, in relief and child welfare and other phases of social work; we have supplied the War Council with such a relief fund as the world has never known; we recognize that the Red Cross has been handicapped, as has the army, in the matter of tonnage; we know that until this last month it was further handicapped by the short-sighted masculine army order that trained persons, nurses or social workers could not go overseas if they were women and had brothers in the service.

Because of these things, or in spite of them, we shall expect results. But what sort of results? And it is just here that the progress of medical and social work within the last thirty years, has tremendously broadened the base of our expectations and of our judgment; just here that the statements, the monthly reports and publicity matter issued by the Red Cross at Paris and Rome and Washington give us confidence that in conception, no less than in mass, American war relief is to prove as great a development over the standards of, for example, Spanish War days as has been the development in fighting weapons.

What some of these new conceptions are, how far they are drawn from the advances and inventions of peace times, will be clearer if we relate certain great phases of war relief to domestic developments. The historic field service of the Red Cross is the care of the sick and wounded. There is practical military justification for such service, although the professional militarists of Europe fought it until the Sanitary Commission in our Civil War carried conviction, that such field service is not an interference with battle. Rather it salvages an increasing number of casualties; it removes the dread of neglect which more than the fear of death may prey on the minds of the troops. Our medical and military observers, returning from the Balkan wars, held that this service was too essential to be left in the hands of any private agency; and it has since become with us an army function. From the stretcher bearers back to the base hospitals, the army medical department is charged with the care of the sick and wounded; and while the American Red Cross organizes and equips the base hospital units, these are mustered in as part of the military establishment.

This has relieved the Red Cross of its chief historic burden; it has also, in a sense, thrown open to the Red Cross a wider opportunity for service as auxiliary to the army medical department—through installing rest stations and infirmaries on lines of communication, recuperation stations back from the war zone, neighborhood dispensaries in army villages, diet kitchens and homes for nurses, auxiliary plants for the manufacture of anaesthetics, ice and splints; and through building up great reserves of emergency supplies of everything from a bandage to a mobile hospital. The head of the Military Affairs Department of the American Red Cross in Paris wrote last January:

> Today we must look forward six months and calculate the needs of an army fighting in summer weather, while at the same time we must supply the winter needs of the soldiers at the ports of entry, on the American army lines of communication, in the training camps and at the hospitals. We are the army's emergency depot. If the army wants splints or dressings or magazines for our recreation huts, diet delicacies—any number of a hundred different things—we supply them in the natural course of the day's work. But beyond that we must be supplied with vast stocks of material in the right quantities and of the right kind to meet the unexpected.

In everything human, somebody's guesses go wrong, and the outstanding justification of this Red Cross procedure as a medical army of reserve, is the plight in which earlier in the war the British would have been in the near East, had the British Red Cross not built up at Malta great reserves for the army medical service to fall back upon.

Since the Red Cross took them over last summer, the hospital supply and surgical dressings services, which today serve both French and American hospitals, have been doubled and trebled in capacity. In the course of the first six months, the monthly output of the former had increased from 2,826 bales sent to 1,116 hospitals to 4,740 bales sent to 1,653 hospitals. Not a little of these supplies are drugs or instruments difficult to obtain or not on the regular army lists. Similarly last fall, the American Army Division of the Red Cross investigated a wide range of mobile plants and blocked out plans for operating experimental units under a "ravitaillement" service. These included portable kitchens to supply hot food to the wounded back of the casualty clearing stations, portable ice plants to supply hospitals with ice packs and refrigerated foods, portable laundries to serve field hospitals, portable sterilizing plants for serving surgeons at advanced dressing stations, dental and ophthalmological ambulances and the like. There should be the same pressure upon the army medical department to keep abreast of the most advanced equipment in such directions, as upon the air service to keep abreast of plane and motor development. But as a foraging and demonstrating agency, more flexible than the military establishment, the Red Cross has a very real function.

What is missing, or out of reach, or emergent, or new, or out of routine, or experimental in medical and surgical equipment and practice is, in truth, a special charge upon the forethought and ingenuity of the Red Cross, relieved as it is of the main burden of care for the sick and wounded.

Let me cite two further illustrations in which the Red Cross has pushed to an outer belt of service. At one of its three military hospitals, in or near Paris, a corps of bacteriologists has been at work studying the causes of trench fever. It has organized a research society, subsidized individuals to investigate surgical problems and set going a medical and surgical information service. This brings the isolated army doctor or surgeon promptly in contact with the experience of his fellows facing similar problems and with the experience of the French and British profession.

The second illustration is the dispensary service instituted in the region where American troops were first quartered. The health of the men was seen to be bound up in the health of the countryside. Most of the local doctors had long since been called out of civil practice and had gone into the French army. For example, but eighteen physicians were found in a district which before the war had employed a hundred, and these eighteen were aged men. Where American troops were encamped near by or were billeted in the villages, these dispensaries opened their doors to the neighboring people and district nursing was instituted. Under the genitourinary service of the army medical department, a special corps of army physicians was assigned to the Medical and Surgical Division of the Red Cross, which itself supplied the nurses, motors and equipment. Each motor unit made up of one doctor and two nurses was assigned to a route of villages, much after the manner of a rural mail delivery. Concern for community conditions (as distinct from camp activities such as carried on by the Y. M. C. A. and the Knights of Columbus), early led to the development of the war camp community service on this side of the water. There is need for its projection to France. In the meanwhile this little constellation of forty dispensaries, centering at Neufchateau in the first American army zone, was a recognition that sick soldiers are more than patients; they are human beings with a matrix of life and human relations which has to be reckoned with by the doctor in uniform or by any one who would successfully deal with them. It was the same revolutionary change in outlook which lies back of the rise of hospital social service in American cities. To cure a patient in a bed is of no practical use if he goes back to the same tenement conditions that made him sick or under the same workshop stress that broke him. Frayed spirits and worried minds, we have come to see, no less than germs and wounds, lay men up and impair their fitness. And in our schemes for recreation, our health campaigns and social reform movements affecting food and environment, we set out to prevent these things.

The recreational work of the Y. M. C. A. is described elsewhere in this number. But two phases of Red Cross work should be noted here, which are a radical expansion from its historic succoring of sick and wounded, but which by the analogies just suggested, will be seen to be kin in the same way that a modern health department is kin to a primitive hospice.

One is that development of the home service of the Red Cross at Washington, which is placing representatives with the American army units abroad, through whom the soldier who is worrying about his family can have direct word from a friendly visitor in his home town and can go at his soldiering knowing that help is within reach in case of trouble. This is a modern application to states of mind of the more customary bedside work of letter-writing for the sick and wounded.

The other development is that of the canteens of the French army division of the Red Cross. Something like three million men were fed in the canteens at the Paris terminals in the four fall months. Twenty thousand soldiers a day were being served at canteens located on junction points on the lines of communication. Before these last were opened, troops on "permission" not infrequently had to spend hours waiting for trains to take them home, without means for rest or food or shelter in case of rain. Such junction points were poor stepping stones from the trenches to the homes of France; such men, tired, dirty, hungry, infested with trench vermin, were poor emissaries. Hot meals, sleeping quarters, wash rooms, clean linen, writing rooms—these make up the new stepping stones. In addition, 700,000 rations had been served up to January 1 by rolling canteens, each manned by an American and French convoyer. A French major in command of an advanced post 400 yards from the German lines attributed the fact that there was no sickness in his battalion to these canteens. The men went in by companies to a marshy wood where the water prevented then from digging in deep. The canteen workers carried in kettles of bouillon and chocolate which could be heated up over small fires; and the food and warmth forefended against the effects of the wet and winter.

Thus it would appear that had this war been like other wars—like such wars as England has known in the past, for example, with expeditionary forces sent overseas and the course of home life proceeding much as usual—the scope of Red Cross work would nevertheless have had to be expended and socialized. But, of course, war itself has changed, or rather, tendencies which manifested themselves in our Civil War and the Franco-German War of the 'Seventies have come to dominate. While with us, in our second year, many of the characteristics of the expeditionary war still hold, with the continental nations those characteristics have long since given way to others. Whole peoples are fighting: in a very real sense it is a struggle of nations. And, as the greatest charge upon Red Cross energies and resources, comes civilian war relief.

Several causes have entered into this American development, so distinctive from that of the British Red Cross, which clings much more closely to its task as adjunct to the military arm. Since the San Francisco earthquake, the Red Cross had become our national agency for disaster relief in the case of cyclones, floods and fires. Even this past year, and all but unheralded, our American body has been doing a remarkable work in aid of the Chinese flood sufferers, at the same time that it has been projecting its great war-time undertakings on the western front. Again, in our long period of neutrality, American sentiment and desire to help naturally found expression in scores of war relief organizations operating notably in France. When the American Red Cross commission first reached Europe, it was found that the American army itself was prepared to take over the care of the sick and wounded, and that the Y. M. C. A. proposed to hold fast to the recreational and related activities among the soldiers, which it had carried on so successfully on the Mexican border. It was clear that months would elapse before American troops would be in France in such numbers as to employ the resources and staff which the Red Cross could bring to bear, even if these phases of work were not closed to it. At the same time it was increasingly clear, that throughout all of these months, there was pressing need to carry home to the Frenchman in the street and in the ranks the fact that America was with them.

A similar call came in the weeks following the invasion of Northern Italy last October when to spread a single blanket more in an "asilo" or stick up a flag at a station counted incalculably. The American men and women on the ground, who for two and three years had been putting in unstinted time and effort on existing war relief agencies, were eager to persuade the incoming Red Cross administration as to the opportuneness of this civilian work, on military no less than on humanitarian grounds. More than that, the commission was fortunate in mustering to its service by early fall, a group of trained executives in social work who scored a series of definite accomplishments on this civilian side, which carried conviction both at home and in the minds of the French public. In the recent weeks of counter-offensive American troops have played an increasing and stirring rôle on the western front. In the earlier weeks of strain the German drives were stemmed and held. The work which the American Red Cross and other agencies had carried on among French troops and French civilians throughout the fall and winter, was a very definite element in building up that resistance in war zone and provinces alike on which hung the fate of the republic.

But while these considerations entered into the decisions which made for Red Cross war relief development, the major and governing one, after all, was the fact already referred to: namely, that not armies alone but whole peoples were in the struggle. Back from the battle-fronts have come not only streams of sick, wounded and gassed soldiers, but streams of civilian refugees. Their hunger and thirst, their infirmity and distress have cried out for help which could not be gainsaid. Their helplessness has been also a source of military embarrassment; their health and salvage a source of national strength.

In his little summary of "The Red Cross on the Front Line in the Great Battle of 1918," Edward Eyre Hunt, chief of the Bureau of Reconstruction and Relief of the American Red Cross, Paris, draws a picture of such a stream of civilians last March:

> From the human side the evacuation is, and always will be, indescribable. It was a vast lava flow of men, animals, and materials. Every little country road and every highway was jammed with the endless lines of camions moving back off the aviation camps, pulling out immense guns, salvaging military supplies of all sorts, and at the same time removing the cilivians and their little possessions. The immense importance of the agricultural work in the devastated district, was symbolized by the presence of batteries of American tractor plows, shuffling along in the midst of convoys of camions, and by the yokes of oxen or teams of horses pulling out Brabant plows, drills, cultivators, disk harrows, reapers and binders. Civilians came away in every conceivable vehicle, in wheelbarrows, in baby-carriages, in little dog-carts, in farm wagons; but most of them came on foot, walking in the ditches besides the long lines of troops. Roads were as dusty as in midsummer. Every tree, every blade of grass by the wayside was white with the fine powder churned up by innumerable wheels and feet.
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> The refugees in their weak misery, and the soldiers in their stout-hearted calm passed each other on the roads; the one moving forward to stop the invaders, the other fleeing back to where they were shortly stopped by their new friends, men and women whom they had come to trust—the workers of the American Red Cross and its affiliated societies. It was like some mediaeval pageant, for the weak and the strong, the dazed and the keen all bore spring flowers, yellow daffodils or pale anemones, which they gathered as they went along.

The American workers who had been engaged in the devastated region, now for a second time become a great battlefield, deployed all manner of vigorous aid to these folk. Motor trucks and Fords were set going as a "dry land ferry service," carrying the aged, the women and children back to the bridges over the River Somme. Canteens were set going at cross roads and rail heads; food and medical aid given out to the fugitives on their way to Paris and thence to points of refuge.

This was the second of the great emergencies of the sort in which the American Red Cross has functioned since the United States' entry into the war. The first was that in Italy, last fall, before the permanent Red Cross commission to Italy had started from the United States, and when a temporary force of executives was dispatched to Rome from the French organization. In France this spring—in Picardy, in the country back of the Flanders front, and later in the region of the Marne, the Red Cross for the first time was on the field, with rolling stock and warehouses, medical and reief workers, when the crises broke. While primary responsibility had to rest with the resident military and civil officials, there are many indications that, in promptness, vigor and adaptability, this American help was of the sort which we have come to expect from the Red Cross in times of domestic disaster. In gathering up broken families and getting them to safety, the work was analogous to such emergent disaster relief.

There has been another stream of war refugees less spectacular less emergent, but in other respects not less heart rending, which the Red Cross has dealt with since last December. These are the "rapatries"—or fugitives from the regions of occupied France transferred by the German Government to Switzerland, thence sent to the clearing station at Ebian. Prior to the March offensives, a convoy of six hundred "rapatries"—those who had neither friends nor relatives to receive them—left the frontier each day to be housed in some one of the departments of France. Since last fall, the Red Cross through its children's bureau has aided in the medical examination and care of the incoming little folk at Ebian. In fifteen weeks, 34,228 children were examined. Last December the French Government asked the American Red Cross to assist in the reception of the "rapatries" at the point of placement, and this soon became a first charge of the Bureau of Refugees and Relief which by April first, was represented in fifty-eight of the seventy-six uninvaded departments of France. Seven thousands "rapatries" were thus aided in January, most of them industrial discards whom Germany had returned because they could do little work—old women, women with little children, and children under fifteen. The Red Cross delegates have helped in the extremely difficult task of placing them in industries where they could become self-supporting, in bettering housing conditions, and furnishing food, clothing and furniture, which last is paid for by the refugees on the instalment plan. By arrangement with the French Government, American coal was turned over to the French Ministry of Armanents at an Atlantic port, and its equivalent was withdrawn by the Red Cross delegates in small amounts from the local reserve stores in the departments. Thus fuel could be obtained quickly for these new households. This whole service was, of course, turned to immediate use when trains of refugees from the war zone were sent down this spring to the departments of the south and east.

Here, if one were looking for an analogy in American social work, it would be that of the immigrant aid societies which have helped incoming families to get a foothold in our American towns and cities only. Following the invasion of Northern Italy last fall, the Red Cross promoted similar work through its system of regional representatives, and interestingly enough, coöperated in several cities with a voluntary agency which had originally been created to help emigrants—the Umanitaria.

The month following the invasion, a Red Cross committee of three made a tour of the peninsula from the Piave line to Sicily to explore this problem of settlement of refugees in the cities and countrysides of a war beset nation. It brought forward a constructive program for refugee work based on French experience, covering such factors as furniture, health, employment, and protection, through which the Red Cross might coöperate in preventing the crystallization of those abnormal living conditions which may be worse in their consequences than the more spectacular flight from home. To quote a paragraph which will show the general approach of the committee:

> We find refugees living in hotels, hospitals, convents, schools, all kinds of converted buildings, some admirable as far as physical comfort is concerned, others leaving much to be desired even in this respect. This manner of life is one which should be ended as soon as possible. Even if clean and warm and commodious, they seldom afford possibility for a normal home life, for privacy, for natural employment. In one city, for example, some four hundred men, women and children were living in the wards of a hospital under conditions as institutionalized as those of an almshouse, as promiscuous as those of the steerage of an ocean liner. . . .
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> Of course the worst conditions are not to be found in the refugees but in overcrowded rooms in private tenements or in old and filthy hotels. We have frequently seen eight ot ten, and in one instance as many as fifteen persons in a single living-room and it is an urgent part of the housing problem to enable such families to move from their congested and insanitary "furnished" rooms into decent dwellings. We must bear in mind that the refugee families have in many instances been accustomed to very much higher standards of living than those even of the self-supporting working people in the communities where they now are. Many of them own property and all of them household goods which they have had to leave behind. They are in the position of people who have lost everything by a fire or a flood. They are not in danger of being injured by prompt and generous assistance in such an emergency. They are in grave danger of demoralization and injury from being left in their destitute condition without employment, without privacy and wholesome atmosphere of family life, and without

the social environment of the neighborhood, to which they have been accustomed. The best form of relief, therefore, would seem to be assistance with furniture such as would enable them to take suitable accommodations in a place where by their own labor, supplemented by the government allowances, they can become self-supporting. To make good some part of their war losses in this way, would be analogous to social insurance.

In France, public and private agencies, French and American, have long been dealing with this resident refugee problem. Even before the repatriations of the fall and winter and the evacuations of this spring, the numbers involved were staggering. The total of French and Belgian refugees in 1918 was placed, roughly, at 1,500,000, of whom between eight and nine hundred thousand were so destitute that they had received government aid either in the form of transportation or the monthly allocations. Since the refugees are mainly women and children and invalid men, and since many of the families have no able bodied workers at all, the allowance from the government and from existing French agencies has been supplemented in many cases out of American Red Cross funds. The level of life under what are practically exile conditions is difficult at best, but the effort has been to attack certain vulnerable points where inertia could be overcome and regenerative forces within the families could assert themselves. Health conditions have been attacked through special dispensaries and health centers for refugees.

In the cities and towns of the provinces, as in Paris, [wrote Edward T. Devine in outlining the work of the Bureau], the greatest single blessing that can be conferred will be to move as many as possible of the "refugie" families from the so-called furnished rooms into houses or apartments in which the living conditions will be more tolerable, the overcrowding and the danger to health less, and the moral atmosphere more like that of the normal French family before the war. The essentials are dwellings, furniture and fuel. It is not a question of permanent support but of a substantial lift to enable the largest possible number of families to be re-established in something like a normal household life. Barracks erected wholesale would not solve the problem. The people must live sufficiently near their work and where the children can obtain an education. However inexpensive, the apartment should be decent and even, if possible, attractive. Only by such means can the depression and discouragement which are the inevitable result of three years' physical hardship, accompanied nearly always by repeated bereavement and long-continued anxiety, be in some degree lessened. Only in such ways can American generosity take up its appropriate and modest share of the accumulated misery and anguish of the three years of war in France.

The matter of housing has been approached from still another angle. Following the lead of an able Frenchwomen who had taken houses that were only partially constructed when the war broke out, finished them, furnished them, and installed some 3,000 families, the bureau last fall made a census of unfinished apartment buildings in Paris, and thereupon made arrangements with various French refugee and housing organizations for the completion of buildings to house 5,000 persons. In all cases the Red Cross provided furnishings; in most, it made advances to cover the cost of the final stages of construction;—sums which will be repaid later from rentals. At Havre, a seaboard town, where 50,000 additional people have come since the outbreak of the war, but where there has been no house building whatever in that interval, the Red Cross through its Commission for Belgium appropriated money for the erection of a temporary village for Belgian refugees.

But it has of course been in the war zone itself, and especially in what was called the liberated area—the region evacuated by the Germans in March 1917 only to be the scene of fresh offensives this spring—that the Red Cross had broached the further and more permanent problem of rehabilitating families not in the cities that harbored them, but in their own villages and countrysides. The war zone had been divided into six main districts: warehouses were stocked, district agents placed and American and French "oubres" supported in giving out work and supplies, patching roofs and stables for the winter, plowing land and the like. The French Government was itself engaged in the largest tasks of barrack building and cultivation. But in the six months ending January 1, the Red Cross had shipped some 40,000 articles to the devastated area, from pumps to clear polluted wells to window glass to repair damage done by air raids. This work fell under its Bureau of Reconstruction and Relief, and is a forecast of the first steps toward the reconstitution of civilian life once invaders are gone from northern France. As a matter of fact, actual loss in Red Cross equipment or building this spring was small, for little more than temporary patch-work had been attempted by its own repair crew or by its affiliated organizations such as the Friends' Unit. Relationships had however, been established with people which counted tremendously at the time of the drive, and which will be invaluable in the period of reconstruction to follow.

A field worker is quoted as saying:

> When the material works were lost, the best of all remained, that best which, after all, was the inner purpose of it all. The influence of neighborliness, friend-

ship, kindliness, sympathy—these are made of stuff that no chemistry of war can crush, any more than death can cut off the influence of a man's personality. We face half a year's work torn to pieces. Yet I believe the influence of our work will live in the lives of our French neighbors, and in our own lives. I believe the fact of the final sacrifice will deepen its effect

The cables told of the return of peasants around Chateau-Thierry in the very wake of the counter-offensive. In all such primitive work of rehabilitation, the Red Cross worker has been not so much the pioneer as the follower of the farmer or villager who is fired with the notion of getting back to home and land. And from one end of the western front to the other, this work of rehabilitation is, of course, shot through with harbingers of the new day of peace and reconstruction—of the free homes of a free people. The Belgians are planning alike the rehabilitation of towns and flooded land. On the Dutch border their King Albert Fund is gathering portable houses to be carried to the old sites as shelters for the first builders. The Venetians transported some of their groups of work people intact, so that they could be self-supporting economic units while Venice was in danger, and could resume their work-a-day life again on their return. There is a ferment in Italy among the peasants for agricultural and land reform. Government, employers and labormen in England speak in terms of reconstruction. But it is, of course, in northern France that that term had its most excruciating meaning.

The part which the American Red Cross can and will be able to play in permanent reconstruction remains to be seen. But its sequence to the phases of war relief which have been described, once the currents of the refugee families are turned back to the stricken countrysides, needs no demonstration. And its appeal to the imagination of America, and through the imagination, to the heart and pocket-book, is such as should warrant the Red Cross in its planning of a post-war work as vigorous and meaningful as that which it has engineered while the war is on. A beginning has been made in assigning George Ford, formerly expert of the New York City Planning Commission, to the Red Cross Department of Civil Affairs, to cooperate with French authorities and to direct the part which the Red Cross will play in an educational campaign to improve houses and villages from a sanitary point of view without destroying the characteristic regional architecture. A public health administrator and a practical agricultural director were to be added to the staff last spring; and word comes from France that with their indominatible spirit, the French architects and agriculturalists and officials continued their weekly meetings without break throughout the spring offensive.

But reconstruction is a matter of more then brick and mortar, fence and well. Reconstruction after the war may be too late. The regenerative and recreative processes are needed in France today if the future is to hold not only safety but life and the fullness thereof for the people of the republic. And here enters in the far-flung work of the Civil Affairs Department in conserving the childhood of France, in promoting health, and in working in other directions, which could be made the subject not of one but several articles very much longer than this. The Civil Affairs Department's budget for the six months ending April 30 last totaled 40,548,658 francs and the staff under the directorship of Homer Folks included 738 persons operating at 120 towns and cities of France and at nine points in the war zone. Eight civilian hospitals and forty dispensaries and dispensary stations were in operation. To follow its workers to their tasks it would be necessary to go to a dispensary in the roaring steel center of Saint Etienne; to a studio in the Latin quarter where life-like copper masks are made for "mutiles"; to the hen-coops and harness shops of the training farm at Chenonceaux; to a war zone village as a camion load of old folks leave it and as the shots from the machine guns patter in the streets; to Lyons, with a baby-saving show in full swing—necessary to go not only "somewhere" but "everywhere" in France. And this would leave out of consideration the corresponding development in Italy and in what remains of free Belgium under the parallel commissions,—all under the American Red Cross Commissioner to Europe.

For not only has Red Cross work broadened into war relief devised to succor, conserve and rehabilitate the fugitives from the war zone, but war relief has in turn broadened—as charitable relief in our own domestic life long since broadened—into a constructive program of social work and engineering. This program is one calculated to strengthen the fiber of the nation in stress, and to help make secure in its different way, as the armies are making secure on the battle field, the future of a race to whom democracy and civilization are so much in debt that without pretention or misunderstanding Americans can thus play their part in the household affairs of France.

A Frenchman of distinction, L. Chevrillon, French member of the Belgian Relief Commission, in interpreting the work of the American Red Cross to his fellow countrymen, said:

> Above all, the work of the American Red Cross should intensify the natural current of sympathy which exists between France and America. . . . .
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> It should be an institution not conducted merely from the point of view of intelligent relief or of proper management, but it should be also a great work of inter-penetration of the two nationalities. . . . .
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> Taking into account the fact that France has had to sacrifice to military necessities and has had therefore to give secondary consideration to the relief of war sufferings, it will help with its capital, its men, its personnel, with the ability of its technical advisers and with the work of all its staff, all those institutions which have not been able to come to a complete development in the midst of the universal drama, which has brought them into being. It will hasten the solution of certain problems which appear to the French minds as still far distant. It will busy itself with the needs of orphans, children, the tuberculous, "refugees," "repatries." It will study the great problems of after-the-war, such as depopulation, rehabilitation of households, reconstitution of devastated areas, and in a general way will do its best to prepare a thorough and rapid renaissance of all the vital forces of the country.

BELGIUM AND THE RED CROSS—A PARTNERSHIP

By Ernest P. Bicknell,
Lieutenant-Colonel, American Red Cross, Commissioner to Belgium.

The Commission for Belgium, of the American Red Cross, has its headquarters at Sainte-Adresse, a suburb of Havre, France, which is the seat of the Belgian Government. The work of the commission is not limited by geographical lines, but is intended to assist Belgians, both military and civilian, wherever they are in need, either within free Belgium or in allied countries or neutral countries. It is to be recalled that the greater part of Belgium is held by the Germans, but that approximately 600,000 citizens of Belgium are refugees in England, France, Holland and Switzerland, where they are entirely cut off from home and from their ordinary and normal environment, resources, laws, customs and associates. These unhappy people are very widely dispersed in the countries named and are gathered in groups ranging from a score or so in small villages to aggregations amounting to approximately 70,000 in Paris, probably as many in London, and perhaps 30,000 in Havre.

The Belgian government itself is established in an alien land, its usual revenues entirely cut off, and dependent wholly upon money loaned to it by its Allies. Many necessary services which would be provided by the government in the case of any of the other Allies, the Belgian Government cannot provide for its people because of a lack of resources and a lack of facilities to solve the problems of food and clothing, transportation, hospital service, and the care of children.

It should be added that besides the 600,000 Belgian refugees in alien countries, there remain in the small corner of Belgium still unconquered, a population of approximately 75,000 persons who live under conditions of extreme difficulty and constant peril as they are at all times within reach of the enemy's guns and are subject to bombardment by enemy aviators.

For the purpose of this summary, the work of the Commission for Belgium will be classified by headings.

MILITARY HOSPITALS

It has been necessary for Belgium to send a large proportion of her sick and wounded soldiers for care into French hospitals. She has, however, maintained a number of hospitals under the direct charge of the sanitary service of her army or of her Red Cross society. The American Red Cross has assisted the Belgian hospitals in gifts of important electrical apparatus, surgical equipment, halls of recreation for the hospital patients, water and bathing installations, hospital supplies, games, amusements, etc. In the instance of the Belgian Red Cross hospital at Wulveringhem, the Commission for Belgium has contributed largely to the construction of a new hospital which the Belgian Red Cross was unable to complete from its own funds.

The military hospitals which the Commission for Belgium has aided are, in Belgium: La Panne, Wulveringhem, Beveren, Hoogstadt and Cabour; in France: Le Havre, Aberville, Angerville, Mortain, Rouen, Port-Villez, Sainte-Adresse and Montpellier. These hospitals accommodate a total of approximately 9,000 patients.

Advanced surgical posts almost in the front line trenches are now being provided for the instant care of those suffering from wounds which cannot bear transportation to hospitals. Necessary surgical equipment for first line surgeons is also being provided on an extensive scale.

WELFARE WORK FOR SOLDIERS

Work for soldiers, not in hospitals, is restricted to those behind the lines who have been sent back to recuperate from the hardships of the trenches or are convalescent from wounds or illness or are stationed on lines of communication.

The Belgian Army is cut off from its own country. The families of most of the soldiers are in occupied Belgium. The soldiers, in many thousands of instances, have had no word from their families for more than three years. When they get permission to leave the front for a short rest, they cannot go home, but must go among strangers who, in many instances, do not understand their language. Eighty per cent of the army is Flemish.

The Belgian soldier receives pay amounting approximately to nine cents per diem. This does not permit him to accumulate any savings. He cannot pay the expenses involved in going away from the front for rest even when he has permission to do so. The result of this is that thousands of these men have had no furlough since the war began; no chance to get away for a taste of normal life, rest or enjoyment. No fact is more fully recognized than that soldiers must have an occasional opportunity to get away from the monotony and the rigors and privations of life at the front, if they are to retain their spirit and their health.

The American Red Cross is doing what it can to remedy this unhappy situation among the Belgian soldiers. The work of amelioration aims first to make easier the lot of the soldier in active service behind the lines and second to make it possible for the soldiers to take and enjoy the furloughs to which they are entitled from time to time. To make this plain, it should be explained that the soldier's time when on duty is divided into three shifts. He spends a period in the first line trenches, then moves back a short distance, perhaps two or three miles, and spends a second period on intermediate duty ("demi-repos"), where he has not a great deal of responsibility but lives very uncomfortably and is subject to instant call to the trenches in any emergency. Finally he goes further back to quieter places where he remains a few days "en repos" but with large numbers of his fellows and without opportunity to go away alone to visit friends or see new places or enjoy complete quiet and rest. At the end of this third period he again takes his turn in the first line trenches and begins the round all over again. Naturally on occasions of great military activity this routine is interrupted.

In addition to the régime here described, each soldier, once in four months, is entitled to a "permission" (a furlough) of ten days. When on "permission" the soldier is free from all military duty and may go away to visit friends or to rest quietly or even to take temporary employment and earn a little money for his own use or to send to his family. Parenthetically, it is surprising how many of the Belgian soldiers on "permission" seize the opportunity to earn a little money by hard work. Several patriotic agencies devote themselves to finding or providing employment for those who desire it.

The welfare work of the Red Cross is among the soldiers on duty at the front, during the second and third periods of their routine as described above, and for those who need assistance to enable them to take the permissions to which they are entitled and which many of them cannot take without help. Help is also given toward making life more tolerable for soldiers employed at industrial centers, in munitions works, at important seaports, etc.

This attempt to soften the hard conditions under which the Belgian soldier lives, far from his own country and totally severed from his people, takes many forms. For the soldiers at the front it may broadly be divided as follows:

Food, which is supplied through two types of organizations: first, canteens which serve meals and hot drinks at centers where the clientele is constantly changing; second, messes where small regular groups take two meals per diem.

Rest and recreation in the form of reading and writing rooms, recreation barracks and tents, theatrical entertainments and moving pictures, music, libraries both stationary and circulating, educational classes, athletic fields, equipment and contests, games, prizes for excellence in athletics and class work, etc.

Individual gifts to men who have been decorated or have been cited for especially courageous or meritorious conduct. To every soldier who thus proves his mettle the Red Cross sends a letter of congratulation and a small present as a token of appreciation. Gifts are also given to severely wounded men in hospitals to cheer and comfort them. Substantially 6,000 men a month share in these gifts which include the most varied articles.

For soldiers on "permission" and for soldiers stationed on lines of communication and at munitions centers the work of the Red Cross takes the form of rest homes (usually fine chateaux with spacious grounds and farm lands), comfortable and cheap lodgings in cities with economical restaurants, club rooms provided with reading matter, writing materials, games, theatrical entertainment, assembly halls for lectures, concerts, etc., and in some instances a small sum in cash for pocket money while resting.

The plants or establishments of a fixed character through which the Red Cross works number thirty-two at this writing (June 22), and the number of Belgian soldiers who are using them will average something over 25,000 each day. This does not include an extensive system of recreation tents and canteens attached to the soldiers' cantonments and billets for the use of the men on intermediate military duty (the second period of the three described earlier in this article). These tents and canteens, maintained by the Red Cross, are moved about with the shifting of troops and camps. They number not fewer than fifty and provide entertainment and refreshment for probably 30,000 men daily.

It may be of interest to speak somewhat more specifically of a few helpful activities which have given great satisfaction to the Belgian soldiers.

Athletic competitions. This work, which stimulates the soldiers physically and mentally, is of increasing importance. As a preliminary to both large and small competitions, the prizes are sent on and exhibited. In the larger or regimental competitions, a very large proportion of the men enter, at least 2,000 taking part per regiment. Among the events are football, "balle-pelote," rifle and machine-gun shooting and foot races. There are also company competitions, and companies as well as clubs and rest stations are fitted out with athletic goods.

Books. The library system is very complete. There are two large central libraries which have a wide selection for the soldiers "en repos." There are also 800 cases of 100 books each—a case for each battery or company—for men on intermediate duty ("en demi-repos"). The two large libraries are supplemented by the Livre du Soldat Belge, a society supported by the American Red Cross which supplies every soldier with a book which he chooses himself and keeps as his own. If he wishes to change it, it goes into one of the two large libraries, and the society buys him another book which he may select. This comprehensive scheme supplies the men "en repos" with a very large choice of books; those on duty, but with some spare time, with a selection of 100; and the man in the trenches with a book in his pocket which is his own property. Probably 30,000 books are out of these libraries if not actually being read every day. A large proportion of them are technical in character.

Entertainments. The Red Cross pays expenses, with the exception of board and transportation, of the companies of actors and musicians who are sent to give entertainments to the soldiers at the front. Several hundred men are entertained every day by each troupe.

Cinemas are operating in ten centers, delighting thousands daily. More are being installed as occasion offers. The Red Cross not only pays for the plant, but helps to rent films and meet operating expenses.

Phonographs, after cinemas, are the most popular source of amusement, and over forty have already been supplied to the smaller centers.

Educational program. A large and valuable educational work carried on through the "Belgische Standaard" is subsidized by the Red Cross. Sixteen reading rooms are maintained in free Belgium and Northern France, special dramatic and literary libraries have been formed, and stereopticon lectures are provided. The educational work in the narrower sense of the term is divided into primary courses (5,000 students), which are given directly. Correspondence courses prepare pupils for state examinations (1,200 pupils), and for professional work (650 students), including mechanics, metallurgy, wood-working and type-setting. Art is encouraged by exhibitions and 800 men are studying philosophy and theology. Thus, 7,650 students are regularly enrolled. The committee not only supplies teachers and courses, but paper, pens, books, etc., and in addition, does welfare work by distributing tobacco, soap, footballs, accordions, chocolate, cards, and writing-paper.

ASSISTANCE TO NURSES

Belgian nurses in military hospitals receive compensation at the rate of seven francs a day. From this pay five francs a day is deducted to cover the cost of room and food. The nurse therefore has two francs a day from which to pay for clothing and all incidental and personal expenses. Like the Belgian soldier, the nurse cannot save money enough to take her away from the hospital for a rest and vacation when her opportunity comes; nor can the worn-out or convalescent nurse afford the period of rest and extra diet which her condition demands.

The commission has undertaken to maintain a small convalescent home in which nurses suffering from overstrain or who are recovering from illness may find a few weeks of rest and quiet and good food amidst agreeable surroundings. The commission has also made it possible for every nurse to take her vacation when her turn comes, by giving her a small cash grant sufficient to meet her necessary expenses. This arrangement applies to 600 nurses.

CIVILIAN HOSPITALS

In time of war the health of the civil population has a direct relation to the health of the army. This is doubly true as regards the civil population in the midst of which the army is operating and has its encampments and its billets. An epidemic of a comparatively harmless disease among the civilians of a village may spread to an army with disastrous results.

Apart then from the humanitarian and economic aspects of the problem of health conservation among the civil population, there is, in the allied countries of Europe today, the additional duty of protection for our armies. Tuberculosis, typhoid, diphtheria, pneumonia, smallpox, measles, mumps,—the whole familiar list,—have a multiplied horror when their effect upon an army is contemplated. And when contagious disease appears in an army it has usually had its beginning among the civil population.

Belgian civilians who have taken refuge in neighboring countries are thus separated from the hospitals and physicians and other guards to health to which they have been accustomed. They do not know the language or the laws or the provisions for health protection in the countries in which they now find themselves. They have great difficulty in finding healthful living accommodations, especially in cities. Their resources are gone and they are compelled to pay high prices for wretched living rooms while they find it difficult to provide enough nourishing food for their families. The complete uprooting of these ultra-conservative, home-loving people, their bewilderment, their separation from friends, the necessity of adjusting themselves to unfamiliar occupations—all these facts and others tend to break down morale and to create conditions unfavorable to health.

One method by which the Red Cross is helping the Belgian people in exile is by coöperating with them in the establishment of civil hospitals at strategic points when such institutions are not already available. Nine such hospitals have now been established, with a combined capacity for about 2,000 patients. This work is being extended as opportunity offers.

CARE OF CHILDREN

The lot of Belgian children is peculiarly hard. Their families refugees, and their fathers in the army, the means of giving them proper care have been reduced to a minimum. Especially in the small section of Belgium still free, the children have been subjected to great hardship and constant danger. While it is sad to see men wounded by shell and bomb, it is still more tragic and pathetic to find little children torn and mangled by the shells and bombs which the enemy has thrown upon Belgian territory. Many children and mothers have been killed and many others wounded. Especial efforts have been made to rescue as many as possible of these children from the dangerous and difficult position which they occupy in Belgium.

The work in behalf of Belgian children undertaken by the Commission for Belgium, follows four lines:

a. Evacuation from zones of gas and shell attack.

b. Evacuation from the semi-famine conditions in occupied Belgium.

c. Baby-saving work in congested refugee centers.

d. Baby-saving work at the front.

The Belgian Government, through the Minister of the Interior, has evacuated over 8,000 children from places of danger in free Belgium, and is caring for them in school colonies in old Normandy, along the coast from Calais to Dieppe and in Southern France. This burden long ago became too heavy for the Minister to bear, and the Commission for Belgium has therefore been helping during the past ten months. It has provided buildings, clothing, blankets, shoes, extra food, games, sewing machines, books, tools, cows, etc.

The Queen of Belgium has been active and generous in the rescue of children at the front, and the Commission for Belgium has built an additional pavilion for her colony at Vinckem to care for very young children. The evacuation of children from occupied Belgium likewise has been undertaken under the leadership of the Queen. The children on arriving do not look emaciated, but are undernourished, and in many instances suffer from rickets and lack stamina. Especially children from four to eight years old have suffered severely. In the lovely hill country of Correze, France, at Le Glandier, was found an old Carthusian monastery which the Commission for Belgium has turned into a beautiful home for 750 children from the eastern part of Belgium. Four other suitable locations in great country chateaux and monasteries have been obtained in Southern France, and the children are coming in through Germany and Switzerland to fill them. Eventually the number of children in this group of colonies will reach 2,000 or more. Children from occupied Belgium are also coming to colonies under the Minister of the Interior aided by the commission.

Almost from the beginning of the war Switzerland has been a place of refuge for children from Belgium. Generous and sympathetic Swiss people formed committees and organized to receive and care for these children, some of which came from free Belgium, fleeing before the advancing Germans and some from occupied Belgium behind the German lines. In 1916, the Rockefeller Foundation undertook the support of 500 of these children. Later the supervision of this effort, by arrangement with the foundation, was assumed by the Commission for Belgium of the Red Cross. The commission has extended its work in Switzerland to partial support of the Belgian children not included in the foundation's group of colonies. The total number of these children now under care in Switzerland is approximately 2,000.

Holland, first of all the neighboring countries to open its arms to the refugees from Belgium, has never faltered in the hospitality which government and people extended in those terrible days of panic and flight. But the people of Holland have themselves suffered bitter hardship as the war has progressed. The societies and committees organized to help refugees have found their resources dwindling while the cost of food and clothing and shelter has steadily increased. The Red Cross Commission for Belgium has undertaken to assist somewhat in bearing the burden of these agencies. It is helping especially in the care of children, by contributing to the funds of the societies in charge of them. The organizations to which financial help is now being given have permanent responsibility for more than 2,000 children, while giving temporary care annually to about 5,000.

Summarizing this work for Belgian children, it may be stated that the total number of children under colony care at this time is about 15,000 distributed among eighty-five colonies in France, free Belgium, Switzerland and Holland. In every colony, especial emphasis is laid upon health and education. Every colony has its regularly organized schools, taught by Belgian teachers under the general direction of the Minister of Sciences and Arts of the Belgian Government. With few exceptions, the colonies are in the open country where opportunities for play and work in the open air are all that could be desired. And in every colony also, provision has been made for the moral and religious instruction of the children.

At Havre, where the Belgian population is 30,000, and housing conditions are very bad, the commission has established a health center containing a children's dispensary, a crèche, and a maternity hospital, as the beginning of a campaign to save Belgian babies. From this center, doctors and nurses visit the children in their homes and teach mothers how to care for sick babies. Special diet and necessary clothing are also provided. Several thousand children are treated in this center every month.

At the front, where armies crowd every little Flemish village, seize the food, and cause inevitable disarrangement and demoralization, the mortality among babies is high. In coöperation with the proper authorities, the commission is gradually extending among the civilian population near the front, a system of care for babies which includes dispensary service and consultation with mothers, home visiting, milk distribution and hospital care. At various points, also, crèches have been created for the care of babies whose mothers must work in munitions factories and other industries. Steadily, if the plans of the commission are not interrupted, it is intended to expand the provision for children, for in no other way is it possible to give service of greater importance to the Belgian nation than by the preservation of the lives of those on whom the nation's future depends.

REFUGEES

Problems which are confronted by the Belgian refugees are those of transportation, housing, food and clothing, medical care and employment. The able-bodied have little difficulty in obtaining employment, but it is always to be emphasized that a large proportion of the refugees are incapable of hard, steady work. The vigorous men are in the army. The younger women are usually the mothers of small children. A majority of the refugees are old men and women, mothers with children, and the sick or otherwise physically disabled.

In all parts of France, England, and Holland, these refugees are to be found. As the chief exodus from Belgium occurred in the first months of the war, most of them have become settled in the communities into which they were distributed at that time. Some have moved to points where employment was more available. It may be said that a majority of the refugees have solved their own problems and have assumed full responsibility for their own lives. Many have found self-support in munitions factories, or on farms or roads or as domestic servants. Ordinarily the Belgians in any community have come to form a sort of national colony with their own priests, their own relief committees and often their own schools and doctors. Recent military offensives, however, have driven other thousands into exile from free Belgium, while a varying number, forced out in earlier evacuations, have failed to get settled, and move from place to place. Thus there are always problems of transportation and readjustment to be solved.

Problems of health, ever present, require constant attention. Under the head of "Civilian Hospitals" the subject of health has been briefly discussed. It may be added here that a majority of the doctors and nurses of all the European allied countries have been absorbed by the armies and that civilians find great difficulty in procuring proper medical attention. On the other hand, the importance of adequate medical care is increased, because the congestion of population in those centers into which refugees have crowded has accentuated the dangers from a lack of sanitation. War conditions have also decreased the supplies of wholesome foods and proper clothing while greatly augmenting their cost.

The Commission for Belgium of the Red Cross has attempted to enter into the lives of the refugee colonies sympathetically but wholly without ostentation. Particular care has been taken to respect the activities, customs, and institutions which the colonies have established during their years of exile. The Red Cross endeavors to avoid upsetting or confusing any local situation. It carries on its work through the agencies which the Belgians themselves have set up, supplementing their activities by means of money or relief supplies or friendly counsel. It acts always in coöperation with the governmental authorities whether local or national. Whenever and wherever a helpful work needs to be done and the Belgian agencies are unable to do it through their own resources, the Red Cross endeavors to step in quietly and lend a helping hand. A few concrete instances will illustrate the character of the work of the Red Cross in this connection, perhaps better than a more general description.

Evacuation of refugees. This is made necessary by every advance or withdrawal of the armies at the front. Generally these movements of armies find the civil populations who are occupying the territory involved, quite unprepared for departure. The people cling to their homes always in the hope that nothing will happen to force them away. Then when the necessity comes it allows no deliberation or study of a plan of action; the people must fly at once, taking with them such small articles as can be carried on their backs or trundled in wheelbarrows or handcarts. Occasionally a horse or an ox is available with a cart to take away some of the household goods. It is a time of breaking the bonds of a lifetime and abandoning treasured possessions, of hasty farewells, of confusion and bewilderment.

The people are instructed that they are to go at once to some designated point on the nearest railway line. There they are gathered together with their bundles and when enough have arrived to make a trainload, a long line of box cars is shunted to a siding and the people are crowded on board with their belongings. They do not know how long they are to be on board the cars nor are they aware of their destination. The train moves away, travelling slowly, delayed by the necessity for keeping the tracks clear for military trains. The discomfort and the fatigue of such travel as this, when it extends into several days and nights without the opportunity for rest, constitute a very heavy tax upon the strength and endurance of the refugees. The sufferings of the sick and those weak and frail because of age or infancy, become intense. Death has not infrequently occurred on these refugee trains. There have been instances of entire trainloads of people being without food for a whole day or even more. These hardships are not the results of carelessness or indifference, but are an inevitable product of the military situation.

The Red Cross has been of some assistance in softening the distress and hardship of these evacuations. Along the Flanders front it has provided large motor-trucks, which have worked at top speed day and night removing the refugees from their places of danger to designated railway stations. Ambulances have carried the sick. Food supplies and clothing have been provided at the assembly points on the railroad; supplies of food, with doctors, interpreters, and nurses, have been put on board the trains on their departure. Within the period from the middle of March to the middle of April, it is probable that 30,000 refugees from this small part of the front were thus sent away in trains to distant places of safety. The Red Cross was, of course, not alone in this work: the representatives of the Belgian and French governments were active, and an ambulance unit of English Quakers gave most efficient service. This ambulance unit and the Red Cross worked as a single agency, all the ambulances and motor-trucks of both organizations being directed by a single head.

The Red Cross has provided clothing and food for these refugees upon reaching their destinations and at stopping points en route. While the movement of refugees is spasmodic and dependent upon military operations in general, there is, at the same time, a small but continuous movement of those who day by day are giving up the struggle for existence near the front. It is to be remembered that the areas behind the lines for a distance of many miles are always subject to aeroplane bombardment. Great destruction of lives and property has resulted in hundreds of communities from this cause. People at first think they can remain in spite of these bombardments but gradually the danger becomes more obvious, neighbors and friends are killed or injured, and their homes destroyed. Eventually, the constant menace overcomes the love of home and the desire to protect property, and the people gather together a few belongings and start in search of places of security among strangers. This steady movement is more easily controlled by the authorities, but there are always demands for assistance in the form of food and clothing and direction.

Shelter. Refugees from Belgium and the invaded part of France, repatriates from invaded France, and refugees from the areas near the fighting line have poured into those parts of France which are remote from danger, to the total number of probably 2,000,000 persons. This great body of homeless people has created an extremely acute housing problem in many cities. It is especially difficult for families with young children to find suitable accommodations, and this is particularly true of Belgian families, in part because these families are likely to be large, and in part because many of the Belgians do not speak French.

The Belgian Government and Belgian private agencies have made great efforts to provide shelter for their refugees, and, in this, the French authorities have coöperated most generously. Vacant monasteries, unoccupied chateaux, summer hotels, unused schools and groups of temporary barracks erected for the purpose have been utilized. The Red Cross has found an opportunity to assist in meeting the demand for shelter by providing furnishings for unfurnished buildings, by supplying food and clothing, and by the erection of barracks.

In the city of Havre, where many Belgian refugees are occupying dark, noisome and most unhealthful rooms, where frequently families of from four to eight persons occupy a single room, the Commission for Belgium has undertaken a building project which is not without interest. A tract of land, agreeably situated on a small hill in the outskirts of the city was taken, and a village of small cottages is now being erected. The ground had previously been provided with paved streets, while lines of water-mains and electric wires are conveniently near. This village will consist of one hundred cottages, each of three or four rooms. At the rear of each cottage will be a small shed to be used as laundry and storage space. Each cottage will have a small garden plot and will be enclosed by a neat rustic fence. Electric light will be provided, and in the center of the village will be a public water supply. Two schoolhouses will meet the needs of the children, and a coöperative store, which is a familiar and successful institution among the Belgians, will be established in its own quarters. A central building will provide administrative headquarters for the village, and a meeting place for the people on all occasions.

The population of the village will consist of families selected from the worst quarters of the city, but no family which has less than four children will be granted a cottage in the village. The cottages will be rented fully furnished for thirty francs (six dollars) per month. If any occupant of the village cannot pay the rent, the payment will be made from some charitable source, but no cottage will be given gratuitously. The income from the rent of the one hundred cottages will meet all the expenses of keeping up the streets, attending to the plumbing, lighting, cleaning, repairs, etc.

This village which, at this writing, is well on toward completion, will be like a transplanted bit of Belgium. Not only will the people be Belgian, but the schools will be Belgian taught by Belgian teachers. A Belgian priest will look after the moral welfare of the people, and Belgians will have charge of the administration. When the war is ended, the cottages, which are all of the demountable type, may be taken down and shipped into Belgium, there to be set up again in some of the destroyed towns of that unhappy country.

Food and clothing. The distribution of food and clothing, as already stated, has been carried on chiefly through the established relief agencies of the Belgian people themselves, in their refugee colonies and through certain general, governmental and private organizations. This work has been widespread, extending into scores of communities and reaching many thousand persons.

A stock of food and clothing has been established near the front especially for the assistance of the civilians affected by military operations, and at the clearing houses near the front where the dislocated people are cared for temporarily, pending their despatch to safer regions. These clearing houses have been erected by the

Red Cross and several hundred persons are at all times to be found in them.

Clothing for discharged soldiers. Soldiers who are discharged from service because of disability, immediately become civilian—they are no longer permitted to wear the military uniform. Large numbers of them have no means with which to buy civilian clothing, and as they have been in the service for several years, they have not been able to preserve such civilian apparel as they possessed before the war. A very real need has been shown to exist for assistance to these men and the Commission for Belgium has accordingly undertaken to provide necessary civilian clothes for men who are not able to obtain such articles for themselves. The number of men thus provided with clothing by the Red Cross amounts to approximately 300 per month.

Miscellaneous activities. It is unnecessary to outline further the character or variety of the work of the Red Cross for refugees, although the range of effort continually expands, and the work which today is unimportant may tomorrow become vital. The Red Cross has encouraged, by money and advice, the establishment of workrooms in which refugees may be given self-supporting employment. It has assisted in the support of centers of social service and recreation; it has assisted in the establishment and maintenance of health centers; it has provided for the distribution of milk for children in many places in which milk is difficult to obtain; it has helped in controlling epidemics of disease; it has made possible the provision of supplies of pure water, and has provided bathing facilities and other means of health and cleanliness. It is unnecessary to prolong this list which might be much extended. It will be enough to say that the Commission for Belgium of the Red Cross has always kept its organization so elastic that it can extend its help to any urgent need, whether it be large or small, which affects the welfare of the Belgian refugees.

BELGIAN COÖPERATION

From the beginning the Commission for Belgium has acted on the principle that the Belgian governmental authorities and the Belgian leaders in private life are better prepared to administer the relief activities necessary to the interests of their people. Adhering to this principle, the Red Cross has avoided setting up administrative relief units of its own. It says in substance to the Belgian authorities and leaders:

> Yours is the chief responsibility; you know your people, their language, their customs, their needs, their habits of thought; this knowledge is essential to the wisest and most effective conduct of relief operations. The American Red Cross does not possess this knowledge, nor can it relieve you of your responsibility to your own; therefore, the Red Cross will not replace you or assume your duties of administration, but it wishes to establish sympathetic and cordial relations with you, to be a partner with you in all these works, to advise with you, and to help you bear the load wherever it becomes too great for your strength or resources.

The response of the Belgian leaders to this proposal of the Red Cross has been wholehearted, prompt, and complete. A coöperative relationship has grown up between the commission and the government through which the commission is in constant and cordial communication with the several ministers composing the government. Daily personal contact between the ministers and the representatives of the Red Cross have simplified and expedited all operations and activities. Any request or suggestion from a minister or from the Red Cross is communicated instantly and informally by personal conference, conclusions are quickly reached and followed promptly by whatever action is requisite.

I cannot permit myself to close this article without paying a tribute to the courage, the coöperative spirit, and the fine sense of responsibility on the part of the leaders of the Belgian people, whether in official or in private life, as we have learned to know them through a year of close and constant contact. To them and not to the staff of the Commission for Belgium is chiefly due the credit for whatever measure of success the commission has achieved.

CANADA'S WAR RELIEF WORK

By Sir Hebert Ames,[1]
Ottawa, Canada.

To Canada's instant and unreserved adoption of the dependents of her soldiers as objects of sacred trust is due the Canadian Patriotic Fund, a form of war relief work peculiar to Canada, arising from her own particular problems and reflecting, in tangible form, her characteristics as a nation. To the sincerity of her promise made to the first of her soldiers to go overseas in the autumn of 1914 is due the thorough business methods which have characterized the management of the fund from its inception to the present time. To the broad vision of her Governor General, H. R. H., the Duke of Connaught, and the leading men and women of the nation is due the happy circumstance that from the start the fund was Dominion-wide in its workings whether of creation or administration. As a result of this wise forethought there was secured coördination and uniformity of both effort and sacrifice throughout the Dominion with a complete elimination of overlapping and its inevitable waste of time, energy and money, coupled with minimium results which would have been the inevitable result had local centres been made independent dispensers of relief.

INFLEXIBILITY OF GOVERNMENT PROVISION

Examination into the provision made for the dependents of its soldiers by the Canadian government drove home the fact that the entire scheme was worked out on a military basis which made home of secondary consideration. There was a separation allowance of $20 a month for the wife of each married man, but the soldier's pay was according to rank instead of in proportion to his need. The size of his family and local conditions affecting the cost of living were not considered by the government although in real life both are determining factors in budget making.

This lack of elasticity did not appeal to the conference called at Ottawa to organize the patriotic fund. Individual sympathy with individual needs was conspicuously absent and conspicuously necessary if there was to be that close, old-fashioned neighborliness implied in the acceptance of these words of the nation. It is that touch which has endeared the fund to every Canadian, rich or poor, and that touch alone accounts for the magnificent response made to every appeal for contributions to the fund. It is that touch which causes every Canadian to regard the fund as his personal promissory note. He feels that he is standing back of his soldiers in a very near and individual sense.

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[1] This article was prepared in the office of the Director of Public Information from facts supplied by the Honorary Secretary of the Canadian Patriotic Fund.

NATURE OF RESPONSE OF THE PEOPLE

Proof of the wonderful response of the people is given in the two sets of statistics—enlistments for overseas service and applications for relief through the fund. In the autumn of 1914, Canada's overseas forces numbered 36,000. Within a year there were 165,000 of all ranks; by the next autumn the number had grown to 361,500 and only once, in 1915, did the monthly output of the fund exceed the income. In that year the monthly output increased from $175,000 to $325,000, showing how Canadians regarded the fund. These were anxious days for the executive and it was at this time that the great wisdom of the Dominion-wide idea became apparent. As a rule recruiting was greatest in provinces least favorably situated financially. Common service, common sacrifice, the principle of giving money or men saved the day. The basis for giving was that of ability; the basis for helping was that of need.

By 1916 the needs of the fund were placed at $8,000,000. "Give till it hurts," became the slogan. Systematic allotment of each province's share of the total contribution was made. Ontario was asked for $4,500,000; Quebec, $1,500,000; the Maritime Provinces, $700,000; Saskatchewan, Alberta and British Columbia, $500,000 each. Every province was subdivided, each city and town asked to assume its share. Publicity was given the campaign through newspapers, posters, leaflets, buttons, Speakers' Patriotic League and skilled organizers of campaigns. The close of the year showed an increase of 20 per cent in demands on the fund and an increase of 50 per cent over the contributed amount asked in the campaign. On New Year's Day, His Royal Highness had asked for $8,000,000; Canada's answer was $11,573,345. Since June, 1916, the fund has expended an average of $900,000 a month which has given timely help to 165,000 individuals. This means that the promise has been kept to 60,000 men fighting "over there."

BULK OF FUND MEANS SACRIFICE

Since the campaign of 1916, responses have been more and more generous. Provinces and the larger cities have reached wonderful heights of generosity, but while individuals have given cheques for princely amounts the bulk of the fund has been contributed by the small wage-earners. This is, of course, most gratifying and shows how thoroughly the fund represents Canada's war spirit. British Columbia furnishes a striking case in point. Leading all other provinces in recruiting according to population, it is, nevertheless, essentially a province of wage-earners. Yet its contributions to the fund have been nothing short of marvelous.

In the mining towns it is the established practice among miners and smelters to contribute "a shift a month" to the fund. Trail, with a population of 4,000, contributes $50,000 per year, or $12.50 per capita. Rossland with a similar population gives $36,000 per year; Headly with a population of 400 gives $9,000 per year, or $22.50 per head. Greenwood with its 600 gives $15,000, or $25 per head; Phoenix with 1200 gives $18,000, while Silverton with 800 gives $16,000 per year. In some districts the workmen have instructed the superintendents to deduct 3¼ per cent or one day's pay per month from their wages.

Rural communities, in order to make certain that they are included in this beautiful work, have overcome the difficulties attendant upon collections in sparsely settled districts by requesting councils to levy assessments whereby rural contributions might be equalized. This contribution of the council represents the various individual contributions of the constitutents and is purely voluntary. The rural communities of Canada contributed in this way during 1917 the sum of $3,000,000 to the fund.

It is next to impossible to find a community that cannot furnish more than one example of wonderful generosity on the part of someone who can scarcely afford the sacrifice. A certain mutual fire insurance company in Ontario at a general meeting of shareholders voted to the patriotic fund its entire yearly dividend of $50,000. An old lighthouse keeper near Vancouver raised flowers and sold them to the tourists, realizing therefrom more than $1,000 which he donated to the fund. Gaspé fishermen, lumberjacks from the Quebec bush, cheese-makers, road-makers, all find their greatest pleasure in denying themselves in order to contribute to the fund. Nearly $12,500 has been sent in by Indians on the reserves and even from Herschell's Island within the Arctic Circle comes a gift of $20 from the Eskimo Chikchagalook. These warm-hearted people make the "million a month" possible. The town of Waterloo numbers 95,000 inhabitants of whom one-half are of German birth or German descent. Up to 1917 its contribution to the fund was more than $350,000 and its promise for 1917 was $250,000 provided the war lasted till the end of the year.

The individual records just cited and thousands more just like them are powerful arguments for keeping the fund as it is—the free-will offering of a generous people standing back of its soldiers. It is peculiarly the people's own movement near and dear to their hearts and should not be taken over by the federal government as was once proposed.

HOW THE FUND OPERATES

A short outline showing the working of the fund will make still clearer the reason why it is so loyally supported. All contributions are deposited to the credit of the Honorary Treasurer of the National Fund in Ottawa. As soon as deposited the funds pass under the control of the National Executive. Each local branch sends to Ottawa an estimate of the amount needed for the month. The sum is promptly sent to the local branch treasurer and deposited by him as his working account. All cheques issued for relief by him during the month are drawn against this account. At the end of each month the branch treasurer makes out a disbursement sheet, on a standardized form, bearing the names of those who have received help, together with full information.

The amount paid each family is compared with that family's scheduled allowance. Careful comparisons are constantly made between groups having similar conditions. Niggardliness or over-generosity on the part of local boards are this prevented. A splendid feature of the Ottawa office is the card index containing over 100,000 records covering every man who has enlisted for service and reported to military headquarters as having dependent relatives. Each man's record is strictly up to date. Military camps, hospitals and discharge depots send daily reports to the fund headquarters, and enlistments, discharges, transfers, promotions, casualties, pensions and everything else concerning the military standing of the soldier is a matter of knowledge every day and entered on the card. This record is invaluable in checking up the disbursement sheets received from local branches.

On enlistment, the wife of every soldier receives from the government a separation allowance of $20 a month, recently increased to $25 a month. She also receives part of his assigned pay which differs according to rank. The two average $35 a month. The beneficient work of the fund becomes apparent at this point and supplements the government allowance with a sum sufficient to overcome the difficulties of living imposed by local conditions and size of families.

In order to become eligible to the fund the applicant must furnish:

(a) Positive proof that the soldier has enlisted for active service.

(b) A wife must produce her marriage certificate and the ages of all children must be verified.

(c) A mother or other dependent must furnish proof of actual dependence upon the soldier.

There must be a thorough investigation as to sources of income other than that furnished by the government and also into the mode of living and general moral standing of the applicant.

SCHEDULE OF ALLOWANCES

Having been accepted as a beneficiary the applicant begins to receive help from the date of application or in extreme cases, for one month antedating application where that has been delayed or neglected by the applicant. The monthly allowance is as follows:—

Wife with Children.—(a) For herself, $10. (b) For one child: girl 10 to 17 years, $7.50; boy 10 to 16 years, $7.50; child 5 to 10 years, $4.50; each child under 5 years, $3; second child over 10, $4.50; third child over 10, $3; second and more 5 to 10, $3.

Wife without Children.— If young and not under the necessity of maintaining a home, $5.

Widowed Mother.—(a) Dependent on son, $10. (b) If the government separation allowance and assigned pay are less than $35 the rates quoted are increased; if they exceed that amount the fund allowance is decreased. Under no circumstances can the maximum rates named by the fund be increased.

Partial Dependence.—Each case of partial dependence receives individual treatment dependent entirely on the merits of the case. The first point considered in the net value of the son to his mother previous to enlistment. When determining this the fact is kept in mind that the son's wages in 1918 would in all probability have been greater than he was receiving in the year of his enlistment. Relative wage standards at day of enlistment and at date of application to the fund must be considered. Another consideration which is always present in the calculations is the amount of the assigned pay.

Cost of living varies greatly in different provinces and the average allotment varies accordingly. In Prince Edward Island it is $10 per month; Nova Scotia, $12.50; New Brunswick, $14; Quebec and Ontario, $15 to $16; Saskatchewan, $21; Alberta, $20; British Columbia, $20. The monthly average for Canada is $16.25. This means that the typical Canadian soldier's family consisting of wife and two children receives from all sources about $51.25 per month. The administration of the fund is in the hands of persons who serve without remuneration and there is incurred an exceedingly small running expense. Interest on the reserve bank deposit covers all expense of administration. The management has been able to assure the contributors to the fund that of every dollar given, the soldier's family has received one hundred cents.

INTERNATIONAL IN SCOPE

While the fund exists primarily for Canada's own men no soldier's family is discriminated against. Families of reservists who lived in Canada and are fighting with the Allies on any front are allowed to benefit by the fund. Indeed, the outlay for French and Belgian families is the greatest of all because the government grant in the former case is small and in the latter entirely lacking. Now that American soldiers are overseas their families would be cared for, if necessary, exactly the same as would the Canadian soldier's family.

One of the prime objects in creating the fund was to supply the sympathetic element which is needed especially in war times. The object has been gained in a wonderfully successful way through the fact that much, indeed almost all, of the executive work of the local branches has been in the hands of warm-hearted, patriotic, women who have spared themselves in no particular but have given time, energy, affection and executive ability of the highest order to the cause they love best.

THE SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF WAR RISK INSURANCE

By Thomas B. Love,
Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.

Insurance in all its forms is the best expression in organized business terms of the great social principle of mutuality or coöperation. War risk insurance is nothing more than the extension by the government of the United States to some of the risks of war of business methods with which the people of the United States are already familiar in nearly every department of their life and ordinary daily business.

The new thing about it which is of the greatest social significance is that it is a national governmental enterprise with the authority and financial strength of the greatest and most democratic government in the world. It began on September 2, 1914, when the Bureau of War Risk Insurance in the Treasury Department was established by Congress and authorized to insure American ships and their cargoes at rates which private carriers could not afford to take because of the unknown and uncertain new risks of naval submarine warfare, and in order to maintain the commerce of a neutral nation on the high seas. Later this authority was extended by the act of June 12, 1917, to cover the insurance of masters, officers and crews of merchant vessels, and again by the act of July 11, 1918, to insure the vessels of friendly nations when such vessels are chartered or operated by the United States Shipping Board or its agent, or chartered by citizens of the United States, or the cargoes on vessels of friendly nations whether or not they are so chartered.

This business is operated by the Marine and Seamen's Division of the War Risk Insurance Bureau and has been of the greatest national service. It has demonstrated the wisdom of the government going into a business undertaking that it alone could afford to enter and one which no combination of private capital would have dared risk, at rates which have given our shipping, both as a neutral and belligerent nation, cheap, reasonable, adequate protection and thus far without costing the government of the United States a single dollar. From September 2, 1914, to the close of business on June

30, 1918, $43,185,770 were paid in premiums, the losses paid amounted to $28,894,848, and after allowance for all costs of administration there was a surplus in the Treasury of more than $14,000,000. Indeed, the cost of administration for nearly four years had been only about $130,000 and the full amount of such insurance written was $1,244,671,238.

The greatest development of war risk insurance, however, dates from the act of October 6, 1917, which together with various subsequent amendatory acts is now officially known as the War Risk Insurance Act. It is of still greater social significance because it has introduced the principle of insurance as part of the contract of employment between the government of the United States and millions of its citizens called upon for military and naval service.

The government of the United States is now an employer on a larger basis than ever before in its history. It is the largest employer in the world, and it is not too much to say that there is no single element in all our great war task that is of more importance than wisdom and prudence and essential justice in all of the phases of the nation's employment. The government at this time is the employer of something more than two million soldiers and sailors representing our fighting forces, and with respect to the basis upon which this employment is laid I think it may fairly be said that the government is an employer on a better basis than ever before in its history.

In all of the conflicts and contending opinions since the war began, upon questions arising out of employment and incident to employment, there are some elemental facts upon which all schools of thought have agreed. An honest contract of employment, whether made by a government or a private employer, individual or corporate, and whatever the grade or character of the employment, must provide for a living wage; and it is generally agreed that a living wage means something more than the mere cost of subsistence for the worker while he is at work. It must also provide for the expenses of living for his natural dependents, and for the expenses of living of the worker and his natural dependents during the hours of the day and the days of the week when he does not work. Further, it must provide for them during those periods when he is unable to work through his physical disability, arising from disease or injury, whether occupational or otherwise, or from old age; and it must include provisions for the support of his dependents after his death so long as the conditions of dependency may continue. These things are essential to the living of the employe. Without them life is not worth living. They are simply the fuels of service without which there can be no efficient service.

Contracts guaranteeing these things may contemplate that the employe shall be paid a fixed periodical stipend representing the cost of his ordinary living, and in addition the cost of providing for the contingencies which may arise in the event of his disability, old age or death. Such a contract may contemplate that the worker will set aside and conserve the portion of the wage representing these contingencies, so that when they arise he will have the means in hand to meet them; or it may contemplate that he will provide for them through purchasing insurance protection against them. Another means is that the worker shall receive a fixed periodical stipend, and shall be committed to a reliance upon the voluntary contribution of the employer in the event of his disability or death or old age. Yet another would contemplate that the employer will pay the employe a fixed periodical stipend somewhat less than if the employe were to carry the risks I have described, upon the condition and with the agreement that the employer himself will undertake to make certain and definite provisions as a part of the contract of the employment and as a part of the compensation of the employe, for carrying him through periods of disability and carrying his dependents in the event of his death.

This method of compensation under which our two million and more soldiers and sailors are employed by the government of the United States is nowhere better illustrated than in the basic principles of the War Risk Insurance Act which is a part of the contract of their employment. In the War Risk Insurance Act and other acts which fix the basis of employment for our fighting forces, the government says to the enlisted man:

> We will pay you a certain fixed monthly compensation. We will furnish your food and clothing and all medical service. If you have a wife and children, either or both, we will require you to make a definite allotment out of your monthly pay, which shall not exceed one-half your pay, and to this allotment the government will add an equal or greater amount as an allowance and pay this allotment and allowance to your family and dependents monthly for their support. If you have no wife or child, and have other relatives dependent upon you for support, and you wish to make a voluntary allotment for their support; or, if you have

besides a wife and children other relatives dependent upon you for support, and you wish in addition to the compulsory allotment you are required to make for the support of your wife and children to make a voluntary allotment for their support in either such case, the government will supplement the voluntary allotment with an equal or greater allowance, and disburse those allotments and allowances to the dependent relatives on a monthly basis.

In this way the government agrees with the soldier to make a certain definite dependable provision for his wife and children and other dependent relatives while he is in the service.

It says also that if he becomes disabled or discharged on account of injury or disease arising in the line of duty, and not due to his own wilful misconduct, the government will pay him a certain fixed monthly compensation contingent in amount upon the number and personnel of his family, so long as his disability shall continue. If he loses his life in the line of duty and not as a result of his own wilful misconduct, the government will pay to his wife or child or dependent mother or father, all of them if he has them, if not, such as he may leave, a certain fixed monthly compensation so long as the widow or widowed mother remains a widow and the parents are dependent, and to the children until they arrive at the age of eighteen years.

In addition to these provisions, the government declares that if he desires to purchase additional protection against his own total permanent disability, and against the loss of his breadwinning ability for his dependents through his death, it will provide that he may take not less than $1,000 or more than $10,000 of insurance, which shall be furnished him at the ordinary peace-time rates less any loading for expense and without any addition for the war hazard, the average rate being about $6.50 per month for a $10,000 policy. If the soldier is totally and permanently disabled, whether in the line of duty or not, this insurance shall be payable to him in 240 equal monthly installments until his death, or in the event of his death before the total number of installments have been paid, the remainder of such installments shall be paid to his designated beneficiaries. If he dies, the total amount of insurance is paid to his designated beneficiaries in 240 equal monthly installments.

This scheme or provision for our fighting men is certainly the most liberal provision ever made by any government in the history of the world for its fighting forces in time of war. It has seemed to me that it represents probably the soundest and wisest and most prudential form of employment ever used by any nation in time of war or in time of peace. May it not be that it will have an added value in that it will point the way to our country and to the nations of the earth for a rational and sound system of employment which will be mutually beneficial to society and to the worker for peace times as well as for war?

Although this provision for the military forces of the country has entailed the building up of the greatest insurance business in the world in a few months, there are already signs that it must be extended immediately beyond the confines of the military forces. General Pershing cabled the Secretary of War several months ago that he had with the Expeditionary Forces in France many hundred civilian employes who were subjected to extraordinary war risks, but not being part of the military forces were not eligible to benefit by the insurance features of the War Risk Insurance Act. He asked that they be included by regulation if possible, if not, by new legislation. Amendments have been proposed in Congress to meet this request.

The Russian Railway Corps is not an official body of government employes either military or civilian, but is composed of hundreds of American engineers and workmen who are doing essential war service helping the cause of the Allies and bravely meeting a great many dangers of war. They ought to have the protection of war risk insurance, and bills have been introduced in Congress to give it to them. The War, Navy and Treasury departments have all sent hundreds and thousands of civilian employes to France engaged in supplementary war work. Many of them, like the hundreds of telephone girls, working under conditions required by extra-hazardous service, and the hundreds and thousands of Red Cross workers, Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. employes are all doing their part to help win the war. Many of them are making as great financial and personal sacrifices as any soldier or sailor in the fighting forces, and all of them are subject to the dangers of the submarine at sea, the aerial bomb on land, and in some cases to the more usual hazards of bullets and cannon by reason of proximity to the fighting lines. Undoubtedly Congress, in the same spirit of fairness and liberality that characterized the provision for soldiers and sailors, will in the near future extend the provisions of war risk insurance to a considerably larger body of persons than that comprised in the strictly speaking military service.

It will be hard, however, to draw the line in all justice to include only those who are in some way subject to strictly war risks and to exclude hundreds of thousands of civil employes of the government of the United States who are doing unusual tasks in Washington and in every part of the country at home in the spirit of war service, if not liable to special war risks. I have in mind particularly the railway employes of the United States, who in some measure when they enter their employment, like the soldier, lose their "insurability" because of the extra-hazardous character of their occupation. They are now a part, for the time being at least, of Uncle Sam's great and growing civilian army engaged in national service. But it is not possible to draw the line even here at the point of the extra-hazardous character of the employment. Social justice demands and a wise and patriotic Congress will undoubtedly eventually recognize, that a just contract of employment between the government of the United States and everyone of its employes must include some provision for such protection as it has already provided for our soldiers and sailors in the War Risk Insurance Act.

A descriptive account of the detailed provisions of the War Risk Insurance Act, setting forth the three important war tasks, namely, provision for allotments and family allowances, compensation and indemnity for injury, and insurance against death or total and permanent disability, is given elsewhere in this volume, likewise some account of the enormous task in establishing the Bureau of War Risk Insurance and all the administrative problems which have confronted the government during the first year of its operation. I have, therefore, confined myself to pointing out merely the larger social aspects of the policies underlying this legislation and administration.

PURPOSE AND SCOPE OF WAR RISK INSURANCE

By SAMUEL MCCUNE LINDSAY,
Professor of Social Legislation, Columbia University.

The War Risk Insurance Act is now the official designation of that body of law which began with the establishment of a Bureau of War Risk Insurance in the Treasury Department by the Act of Congress of September 2, 1914. The Bureau's powers and duties have been greatly expanded and modified by numerous amendments and subsequent enactments. It may be well to trace briefly at the outset the various steps in the history of this momentous legislation which constitutes so important a chapter of our special war legislation.

The act of September 2, 1914, passed within a little over a month after the outbreak of the European war and while we were still a neutral nation, explained its purpose in a preamble which said:

> Whereas the foreign commerce of the United States is now greatly impeded and endangered through the absence of adequate facilities for the insurance of American vessels and their cargoes against the risks of war; and whereas it is deemed necessary and expedient that the United States shall temporarily provide for the export shipping trade of the United States adequate facilities for the insurance of its commerce against the risks of war; therefore be it enacted, etc.

Then followed the authority granted to the Secretary of the Treasury, through the Bureau of War Risk Insurance, to issue insurance on American vessels and their cargoes, and the appropriation of funds for these purposes. It was intended as a temporary measure and the President was authorized to suspend the operations of the act whenever in his judgment the necessity for further war insurance by the United States ceased to exist; and in any event such suspension was to take place within two years after the passage of the act without, however, affecting outstanding insurance or claims pending at the time. This provision for suspension of what is now the Division of Marine and Seamen's Insurance has been extended by subsequent acts until by the amendment of July 11, 1918, it is required to take place when the President so directs, but in any event within six months after the end of the war, except that "for the purpose of the final adjustment of any such outstanding insurance or claims, the Division of Marine and Seamen's Insurance may, in the discretion of the President, be continued in existence for a period not exceeding three years after such suspension." It would seem, therefore, that as far as marine and seamen's insurance is concerned Congress has consistently declared its intention to provide government insurance merely as a temporary war measure.

INSURANCE ACTS OF CONGRESS

Congress extended the scope of marine insurance by the Act of June 12, 1917, which directed the bureau subject to the general direction of the Secretary of the Treasury to make "provisions for the insurance by the United States of masters, officers and crews of American merchant vessels against loss of life or personal injury by the risks of war, and for compensation during detention following capture by enemies of the United States whenever it shall appear to the Secretary that in any trade the need for such insurance exists."

This act not only authorized the bureau to make provision for insurance and compensation for injury, death and detention following capture by enemies for officers and crews of American merchant vessels, but it made such insurance and compensation compulsory by providing that in the event of failure of the owner of any vessel to effect the insurance of master, officer and crew prior to sailing, in accordance with the plan it outlined, the Secretary of the Treasury was authorized to effect it with the bureau at the expense of the owner. The expense of the premium with interest and a penalty not to exceed $1,000, in addition, with interest and costs was made a lien on the vessel.

The compensation provided by this amendatory act for seamen is as follows:

> In case of death or permanent disability which prevents the person injured from performing any and every kind of duty pertaining to his occupation, or the loss of both hands, both arms, both feet, both legs, or both eyes, or any two thereof . . . . An amount equivalent to one year's earnings or to twelve times the monthly earnings of the insured, as fixed in the articles for the voyage . . . . but in no case . . . . more than $5,000, or less than $1,500.

A percentage of this sum is allowed for the loss of one hand (50), one arm (65), one foot (50), one leg (65), one eye (45), total loss of hearing (50) and the bureau may include in its policy specified percentages for other losses or disabilities.

In case of detention by an enemy of the United States, following capture, payment is made during the continuance of such detention at the same rate as the earnings immediately preceding such detention, but the aggregate payments under all these provisions may not exceed one year's earnings as above determined. Payments are made only to the master, officer or member of the crew except, in case of loss of life, to his estate for distribution to his family free from liability of debt, and in case of capture, to his dependents if such have been designated by him.

Another extension of the scope of marine and seamen's insurance was effected by an amendatory act of July 11, 1918, whereby "When it appears to the Secretary of the Treasury, that vessels of foreign friendly flags, or their masters, officers, or crews, or shippers, or importers in such vessels, are unable in any trade to secure adequate war risk insurance on reasonable terms," the bureau is "authorized to make provisions for the insurance by the United States of (1) such vessels of foreign friendly flags, their freight and passage moneys, and personal effects of the masters, officers, and crews thereof against the risks of war when such vessels are chartered or operated by the United States Shipping Board or its agent, or chartered by any person a citizen of the United States, and (2) the cargoes to be shipped in such vessels of foreign friendly flags, whether or not they are so chartered." The bureau may also, at the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury, issue insurance in the above circumstances to protect masters, officers, and crew against loss of life or personal injury and to include compensation during detention following capture.

The business success of marine and seamen's insurance which has not cost the government thus far a dollar, and the extent of the benefits and protection it has given to our shipping are referred to elsewhere in this volume.[1]

The second stage in the development of war risk insurance began with the amendatory act of October 6, 1917, which was in reality three great legislative proposals in one. Any one of the three features of this act was destined to relegate to relative insignificance the provisions for marine and seamen's insurance and the previous work of the Bureau of War Risk Insurance. This act sought to apply the principles of mutuality, governmental coöperation and insurance to lighten the burdens of war for our soldiers and sailors, their families and dependents. The act was drafted after preliminary studies had been made of Canadian and European experience by Lt. Col. (then Captain) S. Herbert Wolfe and others for the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor; after numerous conferences with experts in various fields including representatives of commercial life insurance interests; and after a careful study of many of these reports and of the whole problem by the Committee on Labor of the Council of National Defense, whose representative, Judge Julian W. Mack, rendered the greatest service of all not only in drafting but in piloting the bill through its legislative history. It had the intelligent personal and active support of Secretary McAdoo and the unqualified endorsement of the President.

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[1] See articles by Assistant Secretary Thos. B. Love and Lt. Col. S. H. Wolfe.

Before describing the three great governmental services it established for our fighting forces, we may complete the legislative history by stating that it has been amended by two joint resolutions, one[2] extending the period for application for insurance from men in the active war service as to whom the time for making application would expire before April 12, 1918; and the other[3] making provision for insurance to be taken out by third parties (within the permitted class of beneficiaries) for uninsured persons taken prisoner prior to April 12, 1918.

The act establishing the bureau as amended October 6, 1917, has also been amended in important particulars by two subsequent acts, the detailed effects of which will be taken into account in our subsequent description of the provisions for soldiers and sailors of the War Risk Insurance Act. The act of May 20, 1918, regulated the activities of claim agents and attorneys who solicited business in the adjustment of claims of beneficiaries under the War Risk Insurance Act, fixing the maximum charges for such services at $3.00 per case if any such services are necessary or to be allowed one in most cases, and providing that the benefits to the insured should be protected in every way possible from diminution by the costs of unnecessary legal services.

The second act was that of June 25, 1918, which represented the administrative changes which the experience of the bureau in the first six months operation of the Division of Military and Naval

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[2] Pub. Res. No. 22—65th Cong., Feb. 12, 1918.

[3] Pub. Res. No. 27—65th Cong., Apr. 2, 1918.

Insurance had shown to be desirable. It simplified considerably the records of the bureau and diminished the delay in payments of family allowances (due to some 200,000 changes per month, owing largely to changes in rate of pay), by providing for a flat allotment of $15 for Class A dependents or Class B dependents alone, or $20 for both as a condition for the granting of a family allowance, instead of a varying amount equal to the allowance but not less than these sums in the cases mentioned, nor more than half the man's pay. Other changes likewise were made in the direction of greater liberality on the part of the government, and some of them were made retroactive by this act and will be noted in the description of the act of October 6, 1917, which follows.

Insurance benefits in the strict sense are only part of the benefits provided for soldiers and sailors and intended to safeguard the welfare and morale of the army and navy by the act of October 6, 1917, which created the Military and Naval Division of the Bureau of War Risk Insurance. It provides for three new, effective and far-reaching services of the federal government, namely: (1) Allotment of pay and family allowance; (2) compensation and indemnity for death or disability; (3) insurance against death or total and permanent disability.[4]

I. ALLOTMENTS OF PAY (COMPULSORY AND VOLUNTARY) AND FAMILY ALLOWANCES

Congress had already prior to October, 1917, laid the right foundation for this part of the War Risk Insurance Law by raising the pay of the enlisted men in the army and navy, making the minimum pay for nearly all in the service $30 a month, or double what it was before in most cases, and higher than that of any other army in the world. This was a just measure to protect the highest standards of living in any country at a time when so many citizens were to be called upon to forsake their usual peaceful occupations. But this was not enough to equalize the sacrifices which all citizens must make in time of war. No rate of pay for the army and navy could be made high enough to do that. So Congress proceeded to supplement the regular pay upon the theory that since the call to arms does not annul the moral and legal obligations of every man to support his family and those who have a blood-tie claim upon his earnings, it is the plain duty of the whole country which he serves to aid him financially to do this without undue lowering of his standard of living, and without requiring a disproportionate sacrifice on the part of his dependents.

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[4] In the description of these three services liberal use has been made of the descriptive accounts given by the author in articles published in the *Review of Reviews* for October, 1917, and April, 1918, and in a paper read before the General Meeting of the American Philosophical Society, April 20, 1918 and published in its *Transactions*.

This is sound doctrine, however, only when the enlisted man first does his part and contributes from his own resources all he can reasonably spare. Therefore we begin with the allotment which must precede a request for an allowance. Allotments and family allowances are not provided for commissioned officers or for members of the army or navy nurse corps (female). The allotment is compulsory for every enlisted man who has a wife, or child under 18 years of age or of any age if the child is insane or permanently helpless, or a divorced wife to whom alimony has been decreed by a court, and who has not remarried. These persons constitute what is known as "Class A" dependents. A common-law wife is entitled to the same consideration as a legal wife and the claims of a legal wife and of all children take precedence of those of a divorced wife. Every enlisted man is required to file with the War Risk Bureau a statement, for which an allotment and allowance blank is furnished, showing whether or not he has any dependents, and if so how many, and what are their blood or marriage relationships to him.

More than half of the men in the army and navy claim that they have no dependents for whom allotment of pay is compulsory or for whom they wish to make a voluntary allotment. Some of these no doubt will be found to have a wife or child for whom they seek to evade responsibility, and such wife or child or someone on their behalf should make application direct to the bureau if they do not receive the allotment and the man will be brought to account. If an allotment is made for any beneficiary and through inadvertence or otherwise no request has been made for a family allowance, the wife, child or beneficiary, or someone on their behalf, should apply to this bureau for the family allowance. Some will later want to make voluntary allotments for Class B dependents when perhaps they find it more convenient to do so. Class B dependents for whom the allotment is voluntary include parents, brothers, sisters and grandchildren. Parents include fathers and mothers through adoption as well as natural parents, and grandparents and step-parents either of the person in the service or of the spouse. Brothers and sisters include those of the half blood and step-brothers and step-sisters and brothers and sisters through adoption. Even if Class B dependents are in want, an enlisted man is not compelled to make an allotment for their support, but he must do so before the government will pay any family allowance to them.

The allowance in all cases both for Class A and Class B dependents is granted only when applied for, after the required allotment of pay has been made. The monthly compulsory allotment is $15 for class A dependents where such exist whether a family allowance is applied for or not.

Where a man has Class A dependents, but no Class B dependents and has allotted $15 per month, the government grants on application a family allowance according to the following schedule: For a wife but no child, $15; a wife and one child, $25; a wife and two children, $32.50, with $5 per month additional for each additional child up to a total of $50, which is the maximum government allowance to the dependents (Classes A and B) of any one man under all circumstances; no wife but one child, $5; two children, $12.50; three children, $20; four children, $30, and $5 for each additional child. These allowances to Class A dependents are made without reference to dependency or need except that they may be waived by a wife who gives evidence of sufficient means for her own support, but may not be waived by a child, and a man may be exempted in certain exceptional circumstances from making a compulsory allotment.

When a man in the service has Class A dependents for whom he is making an allotment and in addition has Class B dependents for whom he wants an allowance he must make an additional allotment of $5. Class B dependents receive allowances as follows: One parent, $10; two, $20; each grandchild, brother or sister, or additional parent, $5, provided the total family allowance for Classes A and B dependents for one person does not exceed $50 per month.

As there are no compulsory allotments for a woman in the service, her dependents are always Class B dependents. For Class

B dependents where there are no Class A dependents men and women alike in the service must allot, if they want allowances for their Class B dependents, $15 per month. In the case of a woman, the family allowances for a husband and children are the same as in the case of a man for a wife and children except that dependency must be proven to exist, as in the case of Class B dependents.

Class B allowances are subject to two conditions: (1) The person receiving the allowance must need it and be dependent in whole or in part for support upon the person making the allotment. They need not be wholly dependent. They may have earnings of their own or also other sources of support. (2) The total of the allotment and the allowance paid to the dependents must not exceed the amount of the habitual contribution from the man to the dependents in all cases where dependency existed prior to enlistment or prior to October 6, 1917. Otherwise the government allowance will be proportionately reduced.

The bureau, in its regulations made under the authority of the Secretary of the Treasury, has sought to interpret this provision of the law in a broad and sympathetic way. The regulation which defines dependency says:

> For the purposes of the War Risk Insurance Act, a person is dependent in whole or in part, upon another, when he is compelled to rely, and the relations between the parties are such that he has a right to rely in whole or in part on the other for his support.

Also, if a Class B dependent, for whom a family allowance is claimed, becomes dependent in whole or in part on the enlisted man, subsequent to both enlistment and October 6, 1917, the limitation as to habitual contributions is regarded as not applicable, and the family allowance is paid without regard to it.

Family allowances are payable for one month after a man is discharged from the service, but are not provided for more than one year after the termination of the war.

The conditions of dependency and habitual contribution make investigation necessary to prevent fraud, and adjustment to the changing conditions affecting dependents, such as births and deaths in the family, children reaching the age of eighteen, or contracting marriage before that age, and economic conditions affecting the family income, of the greatest complexity and difficulty in maintaining the necessary records in the War Risk Bureau in order that awards may be made promptly and allowances paid accurately each month as they become due. Severe penalties are provided for intentional fraud. Anyone knowingly making a false statement of a material fact in connection with claims under the act is guilty of perjury and will be punished by a fine up to $5,000, or by imprisonment up to two years, or both. A beneficiary, whose right to payments under the act ceases, and who fraudulently accepts such payments thereafter, will be punished by a fine up to $2,000, or by imprisonment up to one year, or both.

II. COMPENSATION FOR DEATH OR DISABILITY.

The application of the principles of mutuality and insurance to the risk of death or disability resulting from personal injury suffered or disease contracted in the line of duty, and not due to wilful misconduct on the part of the injured person, is not new. It has been successfully tried out on a large scale through the admirable workings of the national and state workmen's compensation laws now operative for the civilian employes of the federal government and for the industrial workers of thirty-six states of the American Union. These laws have largely displaced or superceded the old employers' liability remedies for industrial accidents. They have proven themselves to be increasingly satisfactory to employers and employes alike. They operate also to place on each industry the cost of the financial burden of its unavoidable industrial accidents as far as that burden can be translated into dollars and cents. They operate to distribute among the consumers of the goods produced the cost of industrial accidents incurred in their production to the extent of providing for the payment of a sum proportionate to the loss of earning power and a fair recompense for the suffering that an industrial accident causes the individual workman and his family. They also operate to encourage industry to adopt and develop every possible safety device for the elimination of preventable accidents.

The analogy of this industrial experience with compensation remedies to the problem of caring for the hazards of war is plain. In the case of our military and naval forces the industry is an "extra hazardous" one, the payments for compensation must be liberal and the cost will be heavy. The government of the United States is the employer and the nation or the people of the United States are the consumers or those for whom the operations of war are carried on. The government therefore should bear the whole cost of compensation for death or disability for officers as well as for enlisted men, and for members of the nurse corps (female), and distribute the burden through taxation. It does not require any contribution from the beneficiaries as it does in the case of allotments of pay upon which family allowances are based or in the case of premiums covering the peace rates for insurance. The soldier or sailor does his part when he risks his life and bears the unavoidable personal suffering from injury or disease incurred in the service of his country. Compensation is a payment in addition to regular pay, family allowances and insurance benefits, and serves to equalize the burdens and risks of military service which inevitably are unequally distributed between those called upon to serve in front line trenches as compared with those serving in no less necessary operations behind the lines.

This second great service of the War Risk Insurance Law, which makes provision for compensation for death and disability, is necessarily a complicated and technical one and I cannot attempt here to describe it fully, but only in its general outlines. It is more liberal and far more just than any pension law that has ever been passed or now exists, and it should make any supplementary pension legislation for those engaged in this war wholly unnecessary. While it will cost the government huge sums of money depending upon the number of men engaged in this war, the length of the war and the severity of our casualties, it will doubtless cost less, be far more just and equitable in its benefits, and give more aid and comfort where it is needed than any general pension scheme could possibly provide.

Compensation for death or disability is provided for all members of the United States military and naval forces, including not only enlisted men but also commissioned officers and members of the army and navy nurse corps (female). The only person entitled to receive compensation for disability is the man himself. In the case of his death, the widow, child, dependent mother and dependent father receive the benefits provided. Compensation is not paid automatically, but must be applied for on blank forms furnished by the Bureau of War Risk Insurance. It varies in amounts from $30 to $100 a month paid to the disabled man, and from $20 to $75 a month paid to his widow, child, dependent mother or dependent father.

Unlike industrial compensation the amount does not vary in proportion to the wage or previous income of the disabled person or of the deceased. It is based on a new principle, namely that of the family need, on the theory that under the conscription law the family is conscripted when the bread winner is taken away. Therefore, the amount paid, if the man is disabled in the line of duty, varies according to the size of his family and changes from month to month or year to year as the family status changes. If a man is a bachelor and is totally disabled, he gets $30 a month; if he has a wife but no child living, $45 a month; a wife and one child $55; a wife and two children $65; a wife and three or more children $75; no wife but one child living $40, with $10 for each additional child up to two; a mother or father, either or both dependent upon him for support in addition to the above amounts, $10 for each. He is entitled, in addition, to free medical, surgical and hospital service and supplies, including artificial limbs, etc., as the Director of the War Risk Bureau may determine to be useful and reasonably necessary: and for certain claims of disability such as the loss of both feet, or hands, or both eyes, he gets, in lieu of all other compensation, the flat sum of $100 a month. Partial disability is prorated at a percentage of the compensation for total disability equal to the degree of the reduction in earning capacity resulting from the disability.

In case of death resulting from injury in the line of duty, the monthly compensation paid is as follows: For the widow alone, $25; for the widow and one child $35; for the widow and two children $42.50 with $5 for each additional child up to two; if there be no widow then for one child $20; for two children $30; for three children $40 with $5 for each additional child up to two; for a dependent mother or dependent father $20, or both $30, except that the amount paid to a dependent mother or dependent father or both when added to the total amount payable to the wife and children shall not exceed $75. Compensation is payable for the death of but one child. No compensation is paid to a dependent mother on account of a child if she is already in receipt of compensation on account of the death of her husband.

Compensation is further limited by the following considerations. None is paid if the injury or disease was caused by the man's own wilful misconduct. None is paid for death or disability occurring later than one year after the man leaves the service, unless a medical examination at the time of his resignation or discharge or within one year thereafter proves that the man was then suffering from an injury or disease likely to cause death or disability later. None is paid for death inflicted as punishment for crime or military offence unless inflicted by the enemy. None is paid unless the claim is filed within five years after the death was recorded in the department in which the man was serving at the time of his death, or in case of death after discharge or resignation from service, within five years after death. None is paid for disability unless the claim is filed within five years after discharge or resignation from the service or within five years after the beginning of disability occurring after leaving the service. None is paid for any period more than two years prior to the date of claim. None is paid during the period in which the man is reported as missing, if during that time his pay and family allowance go on: a man is not considered dead until reported so by the department under which he is serving. None is paid to those receiving service or retirement pay.

Dishonorable discharge terminates the right to the compensation. Compensation is not assignable and is exempt from attachment execution and from all taxation, and the law providing for gratuity of payments for death in the service and all existing pension laws does not apply to persons in the active service at the time of the passage of this act, or to those entering into the active service after, or to their widows, children or dependents, except in so far as rights under such laws shall have heretofore accrued. In addition to the benefits mentioned there is provision for the payment by the United States of burial expenses not to exceed $100. The compensation to a widow or widowed mother ceases upon her remarriage, and to a child when it reaches the age of 18 years or marries, unless the child be incapable because of insanity, idiocy, or being otherwise permanently helpless, in which case it continues during such incapacity.

In the interpretation of the compensation provision, the Bureau of War Risk Insurance has endeavored to be as liberal as the spirit of the law permits. An illustration of this is found in the definition by regulation of the term "total disability," which is defined as "an impairment of the mind or body which renders it impossible for the disabled person to follow a gainful occupation," and again in the regulation which says that "total disability is deemed to be permanent whenever it is founded upon conditions which render it reasonably certain that it will continue throughout the life of the person suffering from it."

In addition to providing compensation for disability and death, the government promises in this act to do everything in its power to restore a man who has been injured by accident or diseases incurred in the line of duty to the fullest possible physical and economic power. The people of the United States do not want this war to produce a large crop of "corner loafers," that is, men who will come back injured more or less seriously by their war experience, and without ambition, to rely upon what the government will do for them and consider that it owes them a living. They will be far happier if they can be restored in part, if not in whole, to their previous earning ability and have found for them some new occupation which they can successfully pursue even though maimed and impaired in physical powers. Courses of education and rehabilitation will be provided by the United States.

Already rehabilitation work and vocational training have been begun by the Surgeon General of the Army and by the Surgeon General of the Navy, who make provision for bedside instruction and training during convalescence until the men are discharged from the service. The Vocational Rehabilitation Act of June 27, 1918, makes provisions whereby the Federal Board for Vocational Education is authorized and directed to furnish, where vocational rehabilitation is feasible, such courses as it may prescribe, to every person who is disabled under circumstances entitling him after discharge from the military or naval forces of the United States to compensation under the War Risk Insurance Act. While taking such courses the injured person receives monthly compensation equal to the amount of his monthly pay for the last month of his active service, or equal to the amount of his compensation under the War Risk Insurance Act, whichever amount is the greater: and in the case of an enlisted man, his family receives compulsory allotment and family allowance in the same way as provided for enlisted men in active service. It also authorizes the bureau to withhold the payment of compensation during the period of any wilful failure to follow any prescribed course of rehabilitation or to submit to medical examination whenever required to do so, or to enlist in any service established for the purpose of rehabilitation, re-education or vocational training. The board may also pay additional expenses where necessary to enable injured men to follow successfully its prescribed courses of rehabilitation.

III. INSURANCE AGAINST DEATH AND PERMANENT AND TOTAL DISABILITY AS ADDED PROTECTION

The third great national service provided for the military and naval forces by the War Risk Insurance Bureau is intended to copper rivet the protection afforded by the other two—allotments and family allowances, and compensation and indemnity. It is what is generally known as annual, renewable, term insurance with premiums paid monthly. It is voluntary but may be taken by officers, enlisted men, and members of the army or navy nurse corps (female) in amounts of not less than $1,000, in multiples of $500 up to a maximum of $10,000. Its chief purpose is to restore the insurability which a man in prime physical condition who passes the medical tests required for active military or naval service, either loses or finds impaired when he enters such service. This lost or impaired insurability is restored by giving him the opportunity to buy insurance at peace rate cost renewable from year to year, and convertible into any of the ordinary forms of insurance within five years after the end of the war, without physical examination.

The premium rates are based upon the American Experience Table of Mortality and interest at 3½ per cent per annum, and represent the actual cost of the insurance, not including administrative expenses which the government bears, or any loading for solicitor's commissions, advertising, inspection or medical examinations. The extra hazard of the war risk is created by the government's call to service and it properly bears that cost also.

Therefore the man gets insurance in an extra hazardous occupation at less cost than the same form of insurance would cost him in peace times in any commercial insurance organization. He has 120 days after enlistment or entering the service in which to elect to take the insurance and to decide upon the amount he wants. After that time he may drop any part of his insurance he does not want to carry but may not increase his policy. The insurance is in force immediately the signed application is mailed or delivered and even a formal application is not necessary, as the bureau recognizes any written application which sufficiently identifies the applicant and specifies the amount desired. The acceptance is of course conditioned upon the man passing his physical examination and being admitted to the active service if that is not already the case.

Premiums may be and usually are paid automatically by monthly allotment of pay. The rates during the war run from 63 cents per month per thousand dollars of insurance at the age of fifteen to $3.35 at the age of sixty-five, increasing annually upon the anniversary of the policy to the age rate for the next age year. The insurance will run as long as the premiums are paid whether the man leaves the service or not, provided it is converted into permanent forms of insurance within five years after the close of the war, unless it is terminated by the discharge or dismissal of any person from the military or naval forces on the ground that he is an enemy alien, conscientious objector, or a deserter, or as guilty of mutiny, treason, spying, or any offense involving moral turpitude, or wilful and persistent misconduct.

The amount of the policy, in the event of death or total and permanent disability, is payable in 240 monthly instalments, except that if the insured is permanently and totally disabled and lives longer than 240 months, payments continue at that rate as long as he lives and is so disabled; and in the event of his death before 240 payments have been made the remaining monthly instalments go to his beneficiary.

In the event of death before any or all of the 240 payments have been made, the insurance is payable likewise in monthly instalments to any beneficiary designated by the insured within a limited class consisting of a spouse, child, grandchild, parent, brother or sister as defined above in the case of allotments, allowances and compensation. If no beneficiary within the permitted class is designated by the insured or if the designated one does not survive the insured, the payments go to such persons within the permitted class of beneficiaries as would be entitled, under the laws of the state of the residence of the insured, to his personal property in case of intestacy. If no such person survive the insured, then there shall be paid to the estate of the insured an amount equal to the reserve value, if any, of the insurance at the time of his death, calculated on the basis of the American Experience Table of Mortality, and 3½ per centum interest in full of all obligations under the contract of insurance.

There are no other provisions for lump sum payments. The insurance payments are further protected, however, by the provision, which applies also to payments for allotments and family allowances and compensations, that they are not assignable, nor subject to the claims of creditors of any person to whom an award is made, except claims of the United States against the person on whose account the allotments and family allowances, compensation, or insurance is payable.

The act of October 6, 1917, contained a very wise provision for automatic insurance whereby all men in the active service on or after April 6, 1917, the date when war was declared, who during the 120 day period immediately following the date of publication of the terms of the contract of insurance (Oct. 15, 1917), were totally and permanently disabled or died without having applied for insurance, were to be deemed to have applied for and to have been granted insurance payable to such person during his life in monthly instalments of $25 each. This was about the equivalent of $4,500 of insurance. In the event of death, however, the payments of the balance of 240 such payments to beneficiaries were restricted to a widow remaining unmarried, a child, or a widowed mother. This restriction was amended June 25, 1918, so that the beneficiary might be a widow during her widowhood, or if there is no widow surviving, then to the child or children of the insured, or if there is no child surviving him, then to his mother, or if there is no mother surviving him, then to his father, if and while they survive him. This provision was made retroactive and the bureau was directed to revise all awards of automatic insurance in accordance with its terms on July 1, 1918.

The appreciation on the part of the men and women in the military and naval forces of the benefits of this voluntary insurance is abundantly shown by the fact that over twenty-three billion dollars of insurance have been applied for and over 95 per cent of the entire army and navy is covered by it in amounts averaging nearly 85 per cent per person of the maximum allowed.

The voluntary insurance feature of the War Risk Insurance Act, superadded to the compensation and allotments and allowances, constitutes one logical and far-reaching scheme to promote and protect the welfare and morale of our fighting forces whether abroad or at home. It is a governmental undertaking of the greatest magnitude and importance, and one in which every American may take just pride. Almost automatic in its operation, it is a self-respecting, well-balanced and democratic expression of a new sense of social solidarity and unity of national purpose.

EIGHT MONTHS OF WAR RISK INSURANCE WORK

By Lieut.-Col. S. H. Wolfe,[1]
Quartermaster Corps, United States Army

Shortly after the United States entered the war it was felt that a more detailed knowledge was desired of relief measures required by modern war conditions. Canada was visited, and the results of my investigation have been published as Bulletin No. 10, Miscellaneous Series, Children's Bureau, Department of Labor. The realization of the necessity for doing away with haphazard methods and of substituting therefor a scientific program of government relief led the Secretary of War to direct me to prepare a system of relief for the dependents of enlisted men in our army—a question which was then being considered by the members of the cabinet forming the Council of National Defense, and by the Secretary of the Treasury.

The various steps leading to the preparation of the War Risk Insurance Act are matters of record and it is unnecessary to refer to them at length. The act was enacted by Congress, was approved October 6, 1917, and became effective November 1. In a little over three weeks, therefore, the bureau was called upon to prepare for the handling of a proposition requiring administrative work of a greater magnitude than any bureau of any government had ever been called upon to face in the same length of time. In the brief space of three weeks it became necessary to obtain quarters, to employ and educate a force of clerks, to purchase office furniture, equipment and supplies, to prepare copy for the printer and secure the printing and distribution of millions of application forms, bulletins and explanatory literature, to establish the necessary rules and regulations for the bureau, and to prepare instructions for the information and guidance of army and navy officers who would be called upon at their various posts to explain the provisions of the act to the men serving under them. Precedents did not exist, and it was impossible to forsee how much floor space or how many clerks would be required properly to handle the situation.

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[1] For several months after his return from France, Lieut.-Col. Wolfe was detailed to the Bureau of War Risk Insurance by the Secretary of War.

Even a cursory examination of the act will enable the reader to note that the government activities have moved along two distinct avenues which for want of better terms I shall designate as remuneration and service. The act was created with the idea that no man should become entitled to any pecuniary reward merely for injuries incurred in the service of his country, but on the other hand it was felt that as the government had taken men from society in presumably a perfect physical condition, a moral obligation rested upon the government to either return the soldier in the same good condition or to compensate him for the damage inflicted as far as it lay within its power.

To make the distinction between reward and compensation more clear, two cases may be assumed: first, that of the soldier who had been grievously wounded, had suffered great physical and mental anguish but as a result of skillful surgical treatment and careful nursing was finally discharged in perfect physical condition; the second soldier had been injured in such a way as to cause but little suffering, with the result, however, that his earning power was materially decreased—say 50 per cent. The first will receive no bonus or payment for the sacrifice he made but the fact that the second was no longer able to occupy the same useful position in society as he had formerly occupied would entitle him to compensation based not only upon the extent of his disability but also upon the family needs, *i.e.*, if he had a wife and children, the amount to which he would be entitled would be larger than if he were a single man, and within limits, the amount of the increase would depend upon the number of his dependents.

The second field of activity is illustrated by the service which is rendered to the soldier by the bureau furnishing information to and acting for him with respect to any contracts of insurance which he may have either with the government or with private companies.

If, for example, he will deposit with the bureau the premiums called for by his insurance contracts with private corporations, the bureau will see that payments are made upon the due dates and that the insurance protection does not lapse. Other services are rendered by the Soldiers' and Sailors' Civil Relief Act, which is operated by the bureau and to which a more extended reference will be made later.

An attempt, however, to draw too sharp a distinction between the two fields of activity, remuneration and service, must inevitably fail, as certain of the bureau's activities are a combination of the two: for example, the payment of allotment and allowance based upon the existence and needs of dependents is a function which combines both financial relief and service in the distribution of part of the soldier's pay among those who might otherwise fail to receive suitable support.

Before proceeding to the presentation of the statistics showing the accomplishment of the bureau during its brief existence, it may not be amiss to point out the theory underlying some of the departments created by the act, and in doing so, emphasis must be laid again upon the basic principle stated before, namely, that the government aims to mend any damage which it has inflicted as a result of calling a citizen from his usual occupation to serve with the colors. This principle is well illustrated in that portion of the act relating to insurance, for, after providing for the payment of definite amounts in the event of death or the injury of the soldier, the government realized that there still remained a damage which it had inflicted, but which it had not repaired. By calling men into active service, it destroyed their "normal insurability." It may be stated safely that the government did not start out with the idea of including a system of insurance as part of its war relief program, but the action of private insurance companies in requiring new insurants to pay additional war premiums—in some cases prohibitive—when serving out of this country, brought to the government a full realization of the fact that the measure of the damage which it had inflicted upon the members of its fighting forces was shown by this additional premium. No reliable statistics existed for expressing the war risk in dollars and cents and the only logical course open to the government, therefore, was to offer to its fighting forces the privilege of protecting themselves and their families with insurance which would be sold to them at normal peace rates with no margin for expenses or profits.

Lest the casual reader may construe these statements as criticisms of or reflections on the private insurer, it should be noted that in most of the cases, the companies have acted with commendable liberality, having charged no additional premiums to their policy-holders who took out their contracts before the declaration of war, and in only a few cases has it come to the attention of the bureau that restrictions have been insisted upon which seem unusually harsh. For obvious reasons, no private company could carry out a program practicable for the government and the plan very properly placed the cost of this additional war hazard where it belonged—among the general expenses of the war, distributed in the form of taxation over the entire population and falling, therefore, with no undue severity upon any particular individual or group.

The activities of the bureau may be divided into the following broad general divisions: Allotments and Allowance, Compensation for Death, Compensation for Disability, Insurance, Reëducation, Civil Relief Measures.

Allotments and Allowances. The theory of this section of the act may be briefly stated as follows: A man when entering service is thereby prevented from following his usual occupation and his dependents, therefore, would be deprived of the necessary funds for living expenses, unless some aid were received from the government, for in most cases the pay of a soldier is not sufficiently large to equal his previous earnings necessary for the support of his family. Dependents are divided into two classes: Class "A," consisting of a wife and child, or children, and Class "B," a parent, brother or sister, in respect of whom the soldier has been making an habitual monthly contribution. The government, however, will not contribute an allowance for the benefit of the dependents, unless the soldier himself contributes part of his pay; in respect of Class "A" this contribution or allotment is compulsory, while in respect of Class "B" the action upon his part is purely voluntary. It is unnecessary to recite the regulations which fix the amount of the allotment and of the allowance, the object of the foregoing statement being merely to furnish the groundwork for a proper understanding of some of the problems which have arisen in connection with the administration of this phase of the work.

On July 1, 1918, there were 2,532,481 statements or applications on file in the bureau. These are all called "applications," but sometimes that term is a misnomer, for in 1,496,060 of these cases the enlisted man (this designation throughout this article including enlisted men and women of all branches of the armed forces of the United States), has declared that he has no wife, child, or other dependent, and, therefore, makes no application for a family allowance. Of course, all of the cases just referred to are not correct statements of facts as the daily experience of the bureau shows, for either through failure to properly understand the blank, or through confusion, many enlisted men fail to report the existence of dependents.

In other cases, the fact that dependents exist has been deliberately hidden, the soldier in this way hoping to escape the necessity of having part of his pay withheld. When a wife writes to the bureau and claims an allowance on account of a soldier whose application cannot be found or who has filed one which indicates that he is a single man, she is asked to file an application, a certified copy of her marriage certificate, and statements from reputable witnesses who know of her marital state and who are prepared to make affidavit to the fact that she has not been divorced. The Adjutant General of the Army is then communicated with and if her husband is in the service, the payment of the allotment and allowance is made to her and the commanding officer of the soldier is apprised of the facts in order that the necessary allotment may be withheld from the enlisted man's pay each month. In some cases, the soldier states that he should not be compelled to contribute to his wife's support, a variety of reasons being advanced, such as desertion or infidelity. In these cases, he is given an opportunity to formulate charges in proper form and to furnish the names of witnesses; the papers then go to the Exemption Division under the direction of the general counsel of the bureau and a notice is sent to the wife with the request that she file an answer to her husband's charges. The case is then judiciously considered and the exemption claim allowed or disallowed. It is interesting to note that in the eight months just past, 25,547 claims for exemption were filed, of which 9,562 were granted in full, 1,825 granted as to wife but denied as to children, and 6,688 were denied, the balance being in process of investigation July 1.

One of the things which surprises the investigator is the duplication of names and the necessity for care in communicating with the proper parties. A large number of names which ordinarily are considered unusual are duplicated in the records of the bureau, and when one enters the field of usual names, he becomes absolutely lost in the maze: For example, there are 123 "John J. O'Brien" in the index files and 105 "John H. Smith." As many of the letters received by the bureau fail to give the organization of the soldiers, it is manifestly impossible to identify them, and correspondence—that bugbear of an administrative bureau—must follow. At the present time the army is installing a serial number system, whereby each soldier will have a number assigned to him, and this will materially aid in the identification of the men in service.

After the application has been found in proper form it is passed to an awarder who computes the allotment and the allowance. Up to July 1, 1918, the allowance was dependent upon two factors—(a) the soldier's pay and (b) the family status. If the size of a family justified an allowance of, say, $32.50 each month, the soldier was expected to contribute a like amount if his pay justified it, but in no case was more than half of a soldier's pay taken in the form of a compulsory allotment; an amendment to the act, just approved, provides that on and after July 1 the allotment withheld on account of Class "A" dependents is to be $15, irrespective of the rank and pay of the soldier or the family allowance paid by the government, $20 if he has both Class "A" and Class "B" dependents, and $15 if he has Class "B" dependents but no Class "A" dependents. This procedure will materially simplify the process of awarding.

After the award has been checked, an award card is made out and sent to the disbursing officer in order that it may serve as a basis for the checks which he will send monthly to the allottees The number of checks sent out each month is constantly increasing as will be evident from the following:

Sent out during month of		Number of checks	Amount
December	1917	21,000	$468,329
January	1918	459,520	16,739,332
February	1918	591,664	19,976,543
March	1918	545,354	16,085,508
April	1918	596,852	16,852,915
May	1918	704,296	21,499,076
June	1918	857,638	26,623,623

At the present time these checks are being written on the typewriter, and this necessitates considerable work in comparing the names, addresses and amounts with the original award card; it is planned to install a mechanical system whereby checks will be printed from plates and the necessity for verification, therefore, will disappear. Some idea of the cosmopolitan nature of our army and navy may be gathered from the fact that many of the checks are sent to beneficiaries living in foreign countries; a partial list of the countries to which checks are being sent each month and the approximate number of such checks are as follows: Italy, 20,000; Sweden, 500; France, 2,000; British Isles, 5,000; Switzerland, 300; China, 550.

Some of the troubles of the bureau are caused by the failure of the soldier in the first instance to give the proper address of his dependents, or the failure of the allottee to notify the Post Office Department of her removal. At the present time over 12,000 checks each month are returned by the Post Office Department, the incorrect address having prevented their delivery. In such cases clerks trained in the vagaries of incorrect addresses attempt to interpret them: when this proves unsuccessful the soldier is communicated with and in the meantime the check is filed away in a systematic manner in the hope that an indignant demand to know why the usual monthly check has not been delivered may furnish a clue to the proper address. Delays have undoubtedly resulted in a number of cases, but they were inevitable when account is taken of the necessity for haste in creating the bureau and that it was compelled to employ for filing and indexing purposes a force of clerks who did not have sufficient time to prepare for the proper treatment of the applications before they arrived in overwhelming numbers.

Compensation for Death. If the death of a commissioned officer or enlisted man results from an injury suffered or a disease contracted in the line of duty, the government will pay compensation if he leaves a widow, a child, or a widowed mother. (The act has been amended so that after July 1, compensation is payable to a widow, a child, a dependent mother or a dependent father.) The amount of the payment is based upon the family needs, a widow alone receiving $25 monthly during her widowhood, a widow and child $35, a widow and two children $42.50, etc., etc., the payment to the children being continued until the age of eighteen is reached or until marriage. (It is neither possible nor desirable to state here the various provisions relating to children mentally or physically incapacitated, all of the references to provisions of the act being necessarily abridged.) Up to July 1 there have been 15,088 claims for compensation due to deaths in the service, of which 6,716 have been disallowed as not coming within the act, 1,446 calling for monthly payments of $38,642 have been allowed and the balance are in process of investigation and adjustment.

Compensation for Disability. The problem of determining the merits of disability claims is more complicated than the one involving questions of death. In the latter case the army records furnish a useful guide to assist in determining whether the death resulted from causes consonant with "line of duty;" but in the case of disability not only must the "line of duty" be determined, but the degree of disability also ascertained. Experts connected with the bureau are now engaged in preparing schedules which will tabulate all disabilities resulting from injuries or disease and express them as percentages of a condition of total disability. This schedule will attempt to refer each injury or combination of injuries to the usual occupations, so that a proper estimate of the resultant reduction in earning capacity may be determined. The loss of three fingers, for instance, in the case of a carpenter will represent a greater degree of disability than the same injury in the case of a lawyer.

One of the most useful and necessary duties of this department will be to prescribe and furnish medical and surgical treatment in order that disabilities may be reduced or caused to disappear entirely, the idea being not only to reduce the disbursements of the government but also to restore the injured man as a useful member of society. Up to July 1 there have been 5,405 disability claims, of which 985 have been disallowed and 1,156 have been allowed, requiring monthly payments of $32,009, the balance being in process of investigation and adjustment.

Insurance. No government has ever adopted a similar plan for insurance for its armed forces, and no proper estimate of the number of men who have been called to active service was obtainable when the War Risk Insurance Act was prepared in July and August of last year. To those two factors can be ascribed the wide divergence between the estimate of the actuaries and the results which have been obtained in the insurance section. Up to July 1, 2,579,912 applications have been received, covering $21,640,065,000 of insurance, an amount approximately equal to all of the outstanding ordinary insurance of all the legal reserve companies operating in the United States. Without any form of organized solicitation from the office of the bureau, about one billion dollars of insurance are applied for every week or ten days. As new men are called to the colors, the flow of applications will continue and it is estimated now that about 95 per cent of the armed forces have taken out this protection. It is the proud boast of some regiments that 100 per cent of their strength are insured and that each man has taken out the maximum permitted—$10,000. It may safely be stated that no army of any country in the history of the world has ever prepared for active service with the same provision made for the care of their dependents at home, a factor which must have its effect upon the morale of the soldiers. This is evidenced by a cable which has just been received from General Pershing, commander-in-chief of the American Expeditionary Forces:

> All ranks of the American Expeditionary Forces appreciate deeply the generous measure the government has taken to provide insurance for their families, in proof of which more than 90 per cent of the men have taken out insurance. Wisely to make provision for their loved ones heartens our men and strengthens the bonds that unite the army and people in our strong determination to triumph in our most righteous cause.

The administrative work of the bureau is greatly simplified by the absence of any necessity for a medical examination, it being assumed that each man who has been accepted for service is a proper risk for insurance: the effect of the medical selection is not allowed to wear off, as the insurance must be applied for within one hundred and twenty days of the man's entrance into service.

The death claims which have accrued are divided into two classes—automatic and contract. By the terms of the act, any person in the active service on or after April 6, 1917, who failed to apply for insurance and whose death or total disability occurred on or before February 12, 1918, was presumed to have applied for and to have been granted insurance, payable in 240 monthly installments of $25 each, the commuted value of these payments being about $4,300. A number of such disability and death claims have accrued and have been given the name of "automatic claims."

Up to July 1, 63 automatic disability claims have been presented, of which 45 have been disallowed and 14 calling for monthly payments of $350 have been allowed: during the same period 6,942 automatic death claims have been presented, of which 3,471 have been disallowed and 1,081 calling for monthly payments of $27,025 have been allowed. The difference represents those claims about which doubt exists as to whether they belong to the automatic class or whether some application exists which would cause them to be classified as contract insurance. These cases are being rapidly cleared up.

The claims which have accrued under applications which have been filed with the bureau are called "contract claims," and up to July 1 about 295 total disability contract claims have been received, of which 196 have been disallowed and 3 calling for monthly payments of $172.50 have been allowed; during the same period 6,423 contract death claims have been received, of which 7 have been disallowed and 4,696 calling for monthly payments of $231,460 have been allowed.

Re-education. Section 304 of the act originally provided that in cases of injuries commonly causing permanent disability, the injured person could be required to follow courses of rehabilitation, re-education and vocational training. By an act approved June 27, 1918, a Federal Board for Vocational Education was created and Section 304 of the War Risk Insurance Act was repealed.

Every person who is disabled under circumstances which entitle him to compensation under the War Risk Act and who after his discharge is unable to carry on a gainful occupation or to follow his former occupation, will be furnished by the board with vocational rehabilitation whenever such a course is possible. While following the prescribed course, the discharged soldier will receive monthly compensation equal in amount to his monthly pay for the last month of his active service or to his compensation, whichever amount is the greater; if such a person was an enlisted man at the time of his discharge his family will receive the same compulsory allotment and family allowance as are provided under the War Risk Act for payments to the family of an enlisted man.

The courses of rehabilitation are furnished without cost for instruction and may utilize, with the approval of the Secretary of Labor, all of the facilities of his department in the placing of rehabilitated persons in suitable or gainful occupations. In the attempt to provide a continuous process of vocational training the board is directed to coöperate with the War Department and the Navy Department. The Surgeon General of the Army has established systems of vocational education in several hospitals for the benefit of the enlisted men prior to their discharge from the army. This results in the saving of much valuable time, in addition to the beneficial therapeutic effects.

Civil Relief Measures. By an act approved March 8, 1918, Congress enacted the Soldiers' and Sailors' Civil Relief Act "for the purpose of enabling the United States the more successfully to prosecute and carry on the War in which it is at present engaged." It is unnecessary to refer to those articles of the act which relates to judicial proceedings, the payment of rent, installment contracts and mortgages, for the Bureau of War Risk Insurance is concerned only with that portion relating to insurance policies within certain limits held by persons in the military service. The benefits of the act are available in respect of contracts of insurance which have an aggregate face value of not more than $5,000, where such policies were issued and premiums paid thereon before September 1, 1917, providing that the policy was in force on that date and there was not outstanding against it a policy loan or other form of indebtedness equal to or greater than one-half of its cash surrender value. Under certain conditions, certificates issued by fraternal organizations also come within the act.

If a person in the military service having a policy or certificate described above desires to have the government pay his premiums for him during the war and for a period not more than one year after the termination of the war, he can make application to the company or society which issued the contract and as the premiums fall due the Secretary of the Treasury will deposit with the proper officer of each insurer the necessary bonds for the amount of such premiums. To indemnify it against loss, the government will have a first lien upon any contract of insurance receiving the benefits of the act and no settlements of any kind may be made which will interfere in any way with the security of such lien.

If within one year after the termination of his military service, the insured does not repay to the insurer the amount of his premium with interest, the policy immediately lapses and becomes void, and the insurer then becomes liable for the cash surrender value thereon, refunding to the government the advance on account of premiums which it has made.

It is interesting to note that up to July 1 only 2,802 applications have been received by the bureau from men in the military service who wish to avail themselves of the foregoing privileges, but this is undoubtedly due to the fact that those who are entitled to participate are not as familiar with the provisions of the Soldiers' and Sailors' Civil Relief Act as they are with the War Risk Insurance Act.

The foregoing is a brief statement of the activities of the bureau during the first eight months of its existence. As pointed out before, no precedents existed for the guidance of those charged with its administration, and in consequence it became necessary to blaze a trail which has now developed into a broad path. Pending the completion of a ten-story building on the site of the old Arlington Hotel, which will be given over to its activities, the bureau is housed in twelve buildings in Washington; the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution have patriotically turned over the entire New National Museum for the use of the head office, thus enabling over 110,000 feet of floor space in an admirably lighted, fire-proof building to become available for this war activity. On July 1 there were over 7500 employees, and it may be safely stated that none of those engaged in the preparation of the act foresaw the enormous machine which would be required, or appreciated the effect which the act would have upon the morale of the fighting forces. It is believed that when the history of this great conflict is written, recognition must be given to the part which has been played by the bureau.

TRAINING FOR THE HOME SERVICE OF THE RED CROSS

By Porter R. Lee,
Director, The New York School of Philanthropy.

At the outbreak of war, the home service of the Red Cross assumed the task of dealing directly and individually with the families of soldiers and sailors, in those matters of finance, counsel and skilled service concerning which they might wish its assistance. It was evident at the outset, that the fighting forces of the United States might be numbered by millions, most of them attached to families potentially in need of home service. The Red Cross at the time had no adequate equipment for the task. The number of trained workers in the field of social work for families and individuals had been steadily growing; but even by drafting such workers in the largest possible numbers from the organizations to which they were attached, the Red Cross would still lack a sufficient force. It became necessary to supplement the staff secured by this form of draft, with a much larger group of workers especially trained for home service.

In planning a comprehensive training scheme three definite factors had to be reckoned with. First, the urgent need for workers made it necessary to keep the period of training as brief as was consistent to the maintenance of a reasonable standard. Second, successful training for work of this kind has been found to involve a combination of practical class work and field work, under expert guidance, facilities for both of which are available only in a comparatively limited number of places. Third, the need for home service was sure to be as wide-spread as the population of the country, even if facilities for training were not: training courses might be set up where satisfactory facilities could be found, but since other places required workers, it would be necessary to recognize less ambitious efforts to equip them. In other words, it was necessary to set a standard of training which could be approached in a group of specially organized courses, distributed over the country, and to recognize for the time being that in addition to these, local courses would be maintained by local chapters. These latter might be influenced at least by this standard even if they could not reach it. The specially organized course, given the name of Home Service Institute, representing the standard training of the home service worker, has been controlled by the National Headquarters of the Red Cross. The local course known as the Chapter Course has been controlled by the local chapter.

THE TRAINING REQUIREMENTS OF HOME SERVICE

The term "training" implies a definite task, the nature of which determines what the training should be. It requires no analysis to visualize the kind of human interest and material benefits which a nation, emotionally aroused, would like to make available for those whom its fighting men leave behind them. Once the task of bringing this interest to bear upon the persons affected is undertaken, however, it is found to bristle with difficulties which spell humiliation and disaster unless the person undertaking it knows how to handle these difficulties. These difficulties are not related alone to the problems of daily bread. They are frequently stubborn problems of business: the adjustment of insurance or benefits; the complicated matter of legal rights; the meeting of financial obligations; the carrying on of business. They are frequently baffling problems of home administration: the discipline and guidance of children; the family budget; responsibility for household decisions in which the absent member has been a factor. They are frequently the subtle but soul-wearying problems of adjusting the mind and spirit to a round of living from which one dominating personality has been removed. Every sort of family crisis, from birth to death, has been described to the home service worker with an implied or direct appeal for the suggestion, the sympathy or the concrete service which would lighten it.

These home problems which the war created are the familiar problems of disorganized family life in meeting which social agencies in America have developed increasing skill. The experience of such agencies offered a source of sound methods and principles for dealing with them. Indeed, when the Civilian Relief department of the Red Cross took over large numbers of workers from such social agencies, it insured the application of these methods and principles to its own task. Work with the families of soldiers and sailors, however, was from the first placed upon a unique basis, in that such families, as a group requiring social services, were marked not by dependence but by the fact of their own supreme contribution to the welfare of the nation. Their needs were familiar human needs which could be met in specific ways, by those who knew how to meet them; but they could not for a moment be treated as objects of charity. The training of home service workers, therefore, was a training in the established methods and principles of social work and of their application to a new, homogeneous social group.

THE PROGRAM OF THE HOME SERVICE INSTITUTE

The history of the training of skilled workers in any field shows a steady lengthening of the period of training. This is true of medicine, nursing and engineering, for example. This experience has been repeated in social work, for which two year courses of training are now offered in several American schools. Undoubtedly such a course, modified to meet the peculiar requirements of home service, offers the best possible training for this purpose. To meet the urgent need for workers, however, it was decided to set up a short course which would cover as thoroughly as possible the fundamentals of social work with families, omitting everything except those features, which were essential as a foundation, upon which a worker might later build his own further training out of his own experience. This plan of abbreviated training was embodied in the Home Service Institute, the first series of which were started in October, 1917.

The institute provides for a six weeks' course taking the full time of students. It is divided into two parts, approximately twenty-four hours spent in class work which follows a prepared syllabus, and approximately one hundred and fifty hours spent in field work, in which the student has actual experience in dealing with disorganized families under competent supervision. The topics covered by the syllabus are as follows:

1. The Organization and Administration of the Red Cross.
2. The Field of Home Service.
3. The Fundamental Methods of Home Service.
4. The Unstable Family.
5. The Racial Equation.
6. The Use of Financial Assistance.
7. The War Risk Insurance Law.

8. Health.
9. Home Economics.
10. Child Welfare.
11. Employment of Women and Children.
12. Re-education and Re-adjustment of the Disabled.
13. The Personal Factor in Dealing with Disorganized Families.
14. Community Resources for Home Service.
15. The Use of Other Agencies in Home Service.
16. Qualifications and Responsibilities of the Home Service Worker.[1]

The field work which in every instance is done in connection with a regularly established agency for dealing with families, is intended to give the students a first-hand knowledge of the problems of disorganized family life, training in making helpful contacts, familiarity with the resources of the community and the conditions upon which they can be used, and some insight into the routine of an organization.

Those who complete the work of an institute, are awarded a certificate by the National Headquarters of the Red Cross. The award is based upon the work in class, which is tested by examination and by the quality of the field work, as shown by the applicant's ability to take increasingly heavy responsibility in dealing with families. The field work of the students has usually been done partly in a family agency and partly in a home service section.

A Year's Experience with Home Service Institutes

On May 28, 1918, forty-four institutes had been completed. One or more had been held in each of the following cities: with a few exceptions they were conducted in affiliation with a university or a school for the training of social workers:

Atlanta, Georgia
Baltimore, Maryland
Birmingham, Alabama
Boston, Massachusetts
Cincinnati, Ohio
Chicago, Illinois
Cleveland, Ohio
Columbia, South Carolina
Columbus, Ohio
Dallas, Texas
Denver, Colorado
Indianapolis, Indiana
Los Angeles, California
Milwaukee, Wisconsin
Minneapolis, Minnesota
New Orleans, Louisiana
New York City, New York
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

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[1] Limitation of space forbids an elaboration here of the content of these topics. Those who wish such an elaboration are referred to a recent number of *The Annals* on "Social Case Work."

Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Portland, Oregon
Richmond, Virginia
St. Louis, Missouri
San Francisco, California
Seattle, Washington
Springfield, Illinois
Washington, D. C.

The geographical distribution of these institutes is significant, for they have reached all sections of the country. In most instances the institutes have been repeated, and the plan involves a continuing series of them in practically every city where they have been established, and where experience shows that satisfactory facilities for conducting them can be secured.

Something of the achievement of the institutes is indicated by the following data which was compiled as of May 27, 1918:

Number of Students registered	742
Number of Students graduated	607
Number of Students sent officially by chapters	78
Number of Students from Institute city	290
Number of Students with college education or equivalent	123
Number of Students with high school or equivalent	148
Number of Students with normal school education	23
Number of Students with grammar school only	5
Number of Students with previous social service experience	17
Number of Students with other previous professional experience	22
Number of Graduates in volunteer work	144
Number of Graduates in salaried work	54

The institutes in session as this article is prepared will graduate enough students to bring the total for the first year, which ends in October, well over one thousand.

The work of the institutes has been made possible by the ready and efficient coöperation of those who were invited by the Red Cross to conduct them. The directors of the institutes in every instance have been either college teachers of social economy or sociology, or social workers with experience in training new workers. For many of them, the institute represented a new type of instruction which was added to their regular duties; for all of them, whether accustomed to the training of social workers or not, it involved modifications in their customary teaching practices. This service they have rendered gratuitously to the Red Cross. The field work of each institute has been provided by established social agencies, such as charity organization societies, and by home service sections, It also has been arranged for without charge.

The administration of the institute plan has been in the hands of two national directors of home service institutes, who have been responsible for the organization of institutes and for the maintenance of standards of instruction. It was recognized that the requirements of different sections of the country and the different academic experiences of the directors of institutes, would necessitate considerable flexibility in the actual program outlined. To permit this and at the same time to definitely indicate the ground which must be covered, the Syllabus of Instruction was prepared, with a detailed development of each topic and copious references to source material.

In limiting the membership of the institutes to twenty-five students, the Red Cross authorities had in mind the necessity of making the most out of the short time available. This seemed to be as large a group as could receive the desirable amount of individual attention from the director and the supervisor of field work. In recruiting the membership, it was found necessary in many instances to select from a much larger group which had applied for admission. This has been especially true of the later institutes, which may be taken as evidence that the plan is succeeding by the acid test of experience. Local chapters are finding that institute graduates have an equipment for home service which is worth the time and money required to secure it.

In selecting the membership from those who apply, consideration has been given both to the qualifications of candidates and to the needs of the communities from which they come. The selection has been made, in consultation with the division directors of civilian relief who have been able to advise as to the communities where workers were most needed. Much time and patient effort has been expended in many such communities, to persuade the local Red Cross authorities that to send a representative to an institute, would pay dividends in better service to the families in whom they are interested.

If the class work alone of an institute were its most important factor, it would be possible to establish one wherever a teaching institution competent to follow the syllabus could be found. The field work, however, has from the first been reckoned as the more important. Therefore institutes have been established only where satisfactory field work could be secured. Field work as conceived in the institute plan, is something more than mere experience in dealing with disorganized families. It is such experience planned, supervised and interpreted by a competent worker. It requires well organized work, a sufficient number of families under treatment to keep students busy, and workers qualified to train. Obviously, facilities for field work for twenty-five students each devoting approximately twenty-five hours a week to it, can only be provided in larger cities. This fact puts a definite limit on the extension of institute centers.

A modification of the institute plan has been worked out in a few colleges, where a selected group of students, usually seniors, have followed the institute syllabus under instruction, usually taking a full semester of fifteen weeks for the purpose. They have then arranged to do the required amount of field work during the summer vacation, in some agency approved by the Red Cross. Upon completion of the class work and the field work they are eligible for a college course certificate.

CHAPTER COURSES IN HOME SERVICE

Practically every chapter of the Red Cross is using volunteers in its home service. The number of volunteers in a few chapters run into hundreds. As the maximum number of institutes in operation at any one time, each training twenty-five students, has been twenty-six, it has obviously not been possible to meet the entire demand for trained workers in this way. It is also true, that despite the effort to distribute the institutes widely, many sections of the country are remote from the nearest one. A few cities, also, have found it possible to arrange for their own training of volunteers.

To meet this demand for local training, chapter courses have been recognized. They have been organized and controlled entirely by the local chapters, although the national and division headquarters have stimulated them and have rendered all possible assistance. These chapter courses have followed no such definite standard of instruction as have the institutes. Under the influence of the divisional headquarters, however, they have tended to become more and more substantial. The teaching material prepared for the institutes, including the syllabus, has been available for them, and in some divisions instructors have been provided by headquarters. In some instances the standard of instruction in class has been as high as that in the institutes, although chapter courses usually cover less ground and do not include as much of the indispensable field work. One division reports sixty-eight such courses having been held up to May, 1918, with a total registration of 1,820.

The most immediate and important result of this plan has been a substantially higher standard of service to the families of soldiers and sailors, than would have been possible without it. Its hurried launching made it inevitable that it would have to develop by experience. Six weeks is at best a morsel of time in which to prepare inexperienced persons for the delicate task of understanding and influencing troubled lives with which they have no natural contact. The experience of the year has revealed wide variations in the use which different institutes have made of the time allotted, and the training program outlined. Nevertheless, the evidence is abundant, that those who have taken the training offered have gone to the work of home service with a clearer understanding, a surer touch, a wider resourcefulness and a more effective gift of helpfulness than they could have had without it. It has been impressed upon the members of institutes, that they have not qualified as completely trained workers in six weeks. Rather they have had revealed to them what it means to be a trained worker, and along what lines they must think and act in order to complete their training as they acquire experience.

Those who have been close to this experiment in training for social work, come to have a profound belief that it will lead to a wider acceptance of the importance of training for all forms of social work, and to the more rapid development of material and facilities for giving it. Faith in training for social work has been none too widespread in this country. The Home Service of the Red Cross has revealed to a multitude of persons fired with the zeal for service, that zeal, knowledge and proficiency are not the same things. To combine them effectively, requires preparation under the guidance of those who have learned through their own training, whether formal of otherwise, to do so. That which can be done, the uninitiated with the right natural qualifications can be taught to do. Recognition of this fact in the field of social work was never so general as now.

THE SCOPE AND ORGANIZATION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF CIVILIAN RELIEF

BY MARGARET F. BYINGTON,
Assistant to Director General, Department of Civilian Relief, The American Red Cross.

Within the past year nearly three million men have received from the selective service boards a brief notice that they are now in the service of the United States Government and on a given date are to report for duty. To each man this has meant a total revolution, a break from all accustomed routine and personal ties that must be very overwhelming. In the few days interval before he starts, innumerable decisions seem called for and endless anxieties arise.

Perhaps the man is leaving a young wife who needs his counsel as never before. He knows that the government will make an allowance to his family from its funds, but he wonders how much it will amount to and what he has to do to get it. He is buying a home; what will he do about the payments which fall due while he is away? He had planned to send his sister to normal school; will she have to go to work instead? His mother is just able to do her work now; what will happen if her rheumatism gets worse next winter? Everyone who has ever started on a long journey knows how, as the moment of departure approaches, such questions as these throng into one's mind. It is at that moment that the Civilian Relief Department of the American Red Cross steps forward and offers, through its home service sections, to serve as next friend to the fighting man's family while he is away, helping it to meet these problems and other unexpected ones which will arise later.

The government in calling men to serve in the National Army has indeed accepted a definite responsibility for the welfare of their families and has, to this end, provided through the War Risk Insurance Law allowances from government funds to supplement what the man contributes from his pay. It offers the men insurance at a low cost; it provides medical care and reëducation for every man who is wounded or disabled by sickness; it provides compensation as long as he is disabled. This program, however, must of necessity be developed in the large without relation to the needs of particular communities or individuals. Skillfully as the law has been drawn, the allowance for a family of a given size will not be equally sufficient for one which owns its house and garden in a village and for one which lives in a city tenement. Nor can the government possibly create any machinery through which it can help people solve these intimate personal problems which grow out of the man's departure.

The Department of Civilian Relief has therefore undertaken to help in the adjustment of these inevitable inequalities; to see that the families of men in the service maintain their normal standards of living; to stand by the lonely and discouraged wives and mothers. If all is going well at home and letters are full of cheering news, the men at the front will have courage for their task overseas. Mr. Persons said on his return from France:

> That our men may be protected as far as possible from worry about their families, and that nothing else that will maintain morale be left undone, it is obvious that the American people must see to it that no family of a soldier lacks for anything that will enable it to write honestly cheerful letters abroad. Any condition which would disturb its representative on the front and make him anxious to return and set things right must be cured and without delay.
>
> An American commander at the front and a leading military surgeon in Paris, both stated that the Red Cross could do nothing more important from a military standpoint than to maintain the welfare of the homes of our fighting men. The American soldier is a man of spirit and action; not disposed to worry about himself, but likely to be deeply anxious about the welfare of those dear to him, who, far away, are beyond any help that he can give in time of acute emergency or trouble.

So the Civilian Relief Department will play its part in helping to win the war and in seeing that family life is kept as wholesome as may be in this time of suffering and loss. To provide wise and helpful service to every soldier's family which seeks it is, however, a colossal task. A year ago the Department of Civilian Relief was carrying on its only activities through its thirteen division offices and national headquarters. Now nearly 5,000 chapters scattered all over the country are organized for this service, with 20,000 workers enlisted in their ranks; 300,000 families have already asked some service of their local home service sections.

How is this colossal program in organization being achieved? At one end is the Washington headquarters office with its bureaus which endeavor to relate the activities of the great government departments to individual needs as indicated in the succeeding articles on "Information Service" and "Disabled Soldiers." The department also has special home service representatives in the camps both here and overseas with whom any man who is worried about some home problem can talk things over. These representatives will, through appropriate channels, report this difficulty to the home service workers in the town where the man lives; they will in turn try to adjust the matter and then send word back to the soldier telling him how affairs are progressing at home.

These two cables taken just by themselves show what it must mean to a disheartened worried soldier to receive back through the home service section this prompt assurance that all is well at home.

From the home service representative in France:

> Stevens is much worried about his wife and child as he has not heard from them since March. He would greatly appreciate a report on their present welfare and the assurance that the Red Cross will take care of them should they need any assistance.

From the home service worker in the man's home town:

> Our visitor known Mrs. Stevens well all winter. Red Cross aided regularly until allotment over two hundred dollars came in May making her very comfortable. Some money advanced. Wife and baby well, going to seashore for change. Mrs. Stevens writes husband regularly, probably incorrect hospital address. Writing details.

Between this national headquarters and the local sections are thirteen division offices, in each of which is a director of civilian relief, whose task it is to stimulate and direct the organization and work of the home service sections. While a considerable degree of initiative rests with the local committee, they are nevertheless subject to direction and advice from these offices. There are now some 200 workers on the division staffs, including field representatives who visit the sections, helping to see that their committees are properly organized and to develop higher standards of service in the newer or weaker ones.

These division offices are also responsible for another phase of civilian relief work and one which has been its most important peacetime activity, the care of civilians suffering as the result of some disaster, fire, flood or tornado. This is also a war service, since through it the Red Cross stands ready to assist in disasters growing out of war activities. It organized, for example, extensive relief after the Eddystone explosion. It had a squad of workers on the dock at half-past six in the morning to meet and care for the survivors of the torpedoed *Carolina.*

The heart of the work, however, lies in the 5,000 chapters of the Red Cross now organized all over the country. Each of these chapters, which is usually responsible for a county, has a number of committees dealing with various activities such as surgical dressings, hospital garments, etc., one of which, the Home Service Section of the Civilian Relief Committee, has special charge of the work for the families of soldiers, sailors and marines. On this committee are serving those people in each community who would be best able to advise people in perplexity, such as the doctor, clergyman, school-teacher, business man or lawyer, women of intelligence and tact. Each of these committees has a chairman and secretary responsible for carrying on the work; most of them have an office and a telephone. The chaplain tries to make widely known the fact that any family which has a representative in the fighting forces can turn there for advice on any problem by advertising in the local newspapers, by letters to the men before they leave and to their families afterwards, and by placards in post-office and church and grange.

Money for running expenses and for the relief of the families who need it is a just charge on chapter funds. So far, over $2,000,000 has been spent in the relief of families by the whole department. This included loans to tide over people until their allowances were received; grants to meet special needs such as medical care, needed vacations, interest on mortgages, etc.; regular allowances when government checks are not sufficient to provide a wholesome life. Large as this sum is, the giving of material relief is a small part of the service rendered to these families, as we shall note later.

In the larger cities the burden is already a heavy one, requiring extensive organization. The Boston chapter had, before March 1, been in touch with 2,239 families. In March it had a staff of over 200 workers, most of them volunteers, and spent about $10,000 in relief. A similar burden of work is being carried in New York, Philadelphia, Chicago and all other large centers of population.

Even in rural districts, however, home service work must also be organized, since the few families in some small town should have just as careful and sympathetic help as the many in the big city. The divisions aim to secure a home service representative within an hour's journey of each family in the United States. This cannot of course be achieved in sections like the Mountain Division where one representative lives on a ranch forty miles from the railroad and many miles from her nearest neighbor. The Red Cross is definitely striving, however, to make its interest available for every lonely or disheartened wife or mother by organizing for effective service the original impulses of neighborly kindness.

Is there need of this elaborate organization and what are the actual services which these groups are rendering? Home service sections are not given to compiling statistics,—in fact, it is hard to get some chapters to even report the total number of families who have been seeking their advice. In order to make tangible the problems confronting them, it may be well to quote a few facts from a special study made of 50 families in one city chapter, showing how many of these personal complications which the war creates are brought to home service workers and the kinds of service they have been able to render. Of these 50 families, 38 were feeling especially the loss of the wage-earner. Nine of the women seemed overwhelmed by the loss of the man's companionship; 46 of them were worried about his welfare (one wonders about the four that were not). Twenty-seven of the men in service were worried about those families of theirs; 46 families asked for information about allotment and allowance.

Let us put these figures into more human terms. One little Italian widow cannot sleep nights because of her terrors in the lonely house now that her son is gone; an old Yiddish mother, half paralyzed and dependent upon the care of her one son, weeps night and day inconsolably. Mrs. Hart, for all that her Paul was as erratic as husbands come, "couldn't get used to keeping house just for the children and it was terribly hard on Sundays as she missed her husband so." Young Ecco, his aunt said, "was the light of the house, always merry and joking and kept up the spirits of the family."

The visitors from the home service sections are trying to overcome in some measure this loneliness and anxiety by giving to these wives and mothers the assurance that someone cares and will stand back of them. As one soldier writes, "It is you who have again brought sunshine into our home." It is often possible, too, to give those who do not read easily or who live in remote districts, a more vivid sense of the meaning of the war, so that they may perhaps feel themselves part of the nation in its war sacrifice.

One wishes that it were possible, as it never can be, to put into words the quality as well as the quantity of service rendered. Because these volunteers have offered their services in a spirit of patriotism and enthusiasm, because so many of them wear service pins themselves, they are able to establish unusually helpful relations. While it is impossible to sum up the services rendered, a few illustrations of what was done for these 50 families will indicate the breadth of the work. In 27 instances the men were urged to take advantage of the War Risk Insurance Law, and in 19 the men's officers were asked to talk to the men about it. In 17 instances men in service were informed about facts concerning the welfare of their families, including announcements of the arrival of two new babies. There was much sickness, not all of it due to war worry, and 35 families received medical care. Employment was found for 10 people, several of them too handicapped to secure it for themselves; 6 families were helped to move to better homes, 13 mothers received much-needed instruction about how to buy more wisely or how to solve financial problems—a difficulty that often arises where the man has always been the financial manager. In half these families, at least, special plans were made to stimulate their interest in life by means as varied as parties and participation in Red Cross work. Some material relief, chiefly temporary, was given to 45 of these 50 families. Often more serious service problems were encountered—death, moral delinquency, desertion. The problems of these families are as varied as human life, and call for skill and patience in the solution.

The chapters in rural districts are proving to have problems as difficult. The blind wife of a man in the Regular Army was visited almost daily by the members of the home service sections. At the time when her baby was born the child of three was sent to relatives in a nearby town. When the home service secretary asked the mother if she would like one of the motor service girls to take her for an automobile ride she asked timidly whether she could be taken as far as this other town—"so that I can feel my little girl's face again." Her life is built these days around the sympathy and understanding of these workers.

A woman who had been suffering from ill health for years was sent by the home service section to a nearby city for an operation; the little child with trachoma was brought from her mountain home for treatment. There are some even more distinctively rural problems to be encountered, as in the case of the chapter that secured the promise of 200 farmers to give the hours from seven to nine any evening, on call of the home service secretary, to work on the farm of women whose husbands had gone a-soldiering.

We may quote from the recent report of one field representative in the southwestern division, "The request for advice on coöperating with the guardians of Mississippi Choctaws which opened the question box on family problems in Oklahoma City may have been somewhat disconcerting but need cause no surprise, for rural neighborhoods have every problem of the city and more. Blanket Indians riding in automobiles with chauffeurs, Bohemian colonies living old-fashioned, hard-working, thrifty lives, little oil towns with shifting populations of as many as thirty-two different nationalities and three small villages exclusively of negroes who will tolerate no white folks in their midst are some of the varieties of background in Oklahoma's home service problem. The Mexican colonies throughout the southwest, so picturesque to the tourist, contribute a full share of complexity to the standards of family care. The little cotton farms of Texas and Arkansas, often held by negroes, present acute difficulties when the sons who were farm hands are drafted; and Kansas and Missouri's rural situation is no less pressing though so large a proportion of the population is American white. One may get off the train at a way station almost anywhere, however, to find a home service sign posted by the ticket office window, and feel the comforting assurance that the Red Cross is on the job.

The home service program is, in short, to let every soldier and every soldier's family know that this group of people in his own home town is ready to stand by his family during his absence in any crisis that may arise. It does not intrude its services, going only to those families which have expressed the desire to have such advice. Its first responsibility is to provide the simple human friendliness that is so needed in the dark days which inevitably come. But it also seeks to give intelligent as well as kindly service, to solve some of the problems which the family itself has always considered insoluble; to give material relief when that is needed.

The great problem confronting the national organization has been to see that this service is intelligent as well as kindly. Obviously it is not possible to find enough trained social workers to put one in every county in the United States, even if the amount of work always justified it. Yet in serving some of these families there is need for just as skilled service as that given by the organized social agencies of our large cities. In the large cities the problem, while difficult enough, has not been carried out on any new principle. Trained social workers have been put in charge and have drawn into service large numbers of volunteers. Nothing has been more illuminating than the number of women who have been willing to take training to prepare themselves for this work and who are, even through the hot summer months, serving with unfaltering devotion.

The problem in the small towns and the rural districts is more difficult and while it has by no means been solved, experiments are being tried which will be instructive in the whole field of rural social work. It is the first time that an attempt has been made to cover the whole country with a network of local agencies and to establish in them sound standards of social service. Knowing that it would of necessity have to place this responsibility in the hands of local people, the Department of Civilian Relief has been developing plans for giving them some training for the task. The field representatives of the division offices who are, most of them, trained social workers, have also been chosen for their flexibility and willingness to adapt their standards to the needs and opportunities of rural life. Such a representative when visiting a small chapter may spend a whole day with the secretary and chairman, going over individual family situations with her, showing her what are the problems that need consideration and skilfully suggesting possible methods of solution.

Conferences are also held from time to time. Recently in Kansas 165 delegates from home service sections in various parts of the state came together for three days of solid discussion of these problems, one delegate coming 375 miles to attend it. Slowly but surely they are coming to see by what methods their work can be made truly valuable.

Another method for training the workers is through the home service institutes, six weeks' training courses which are now given in twenty-six cities, in affiliation, usually, with a local school for social work of the sociology department of a university—twenty-four hours of lectures are given on the methods of dealing with home service families, child welfare, health, women in industry, etc. In addition each student has to do 150 hours of field work in some case work agency of good standards. Already 718 students have graduated from such courses and practically all of them are doing active home service work.

By these methods, by the careful preparation of literature and by constant correspondence, the Department of Civilian Relief is slowly but surely developing its work throughout the country. It hopes soon to be able to say that no soldier's family need to carry any anxiety which can be solved by intelligent helpfulness. Through its educational activities, moreover, some understanding of the significance of social welfare work is spreading into our rural communities and will be of service not only to the families of our fighting force, but as a nucleus for an increasing understanding of the means of social regeneration.

Unquestionably one of the great opportunities of the war as well as one of its dangers, lies in the tendency to centralize all activities in great governmental or quasi-governmental bodies. Communities and individuals will accept suggestion and direction from without as never before. On the other hand, if local initiative and interest should thereby be lost, the after-the-war problem would be greatly intensified. The American Red Cross is attempting to secure the advantages and minimize the dangers of this situation. Through its national headquarters it works out relationships to other national organizations, it develops policies and offers training. Through its local groups it is drawing into service thousands of devoted men and women who are getting a new vision of the possibilities of social service and community betterment which they will carry over into peace times. In the meantime they are loyally performing this essential war service.

PURPOSE AND METHODS OF A HOME SERVICE SECTION

By Mary Willcox Glenn,
Chairman, American Red Cross, New York and Bronx County Chapters, Home Service Section.

The service of the Red Cross is typified in one of the most popular posters of the second war fund drive by the tense figure of a woman who with outstretched arms urges her claim that the marching forces against whose shadowy outline she is silhouetted be not forgotten. What she, trained for a specific work, can give the wounded needs no defining. Neither does the service represented by the "Greatest Mother in the World," another poster of universal appeal. The child, a victim of war's ravages, must be tenderly, skillfully treated. An authentic portrayal of bodily anguish quickly brings the means of redress. The public knows that what the nurse and doctor have to offer is something more than money in itself can buy. Emphasis on the need of funds will not lessen the recognition of the important rôle the nurse and diagnostician will have to play.

But the purpose and methods of home service cannot so readily be depicted. A popular pictorial appeal, one which stimulated the imagination to conceive of threatened family life as steadied by simple direct means, would, in itself, be a denial of what home service aims to be. The aim is to individualize the family, to treat each as unique, never to make the assumption that money in itself is necessarily a solvent of difficulties. The public's tendency is to assert in one breath that home service is no charity, and to demand in the next that it be chiefly an almoner of funds. The property inherent in money does not suffer change because the name of a process of distribution is arbitrarily altered. An office characterized as a place where money may easily be obtained because the applicant has a right to it, and in which, because of the "right," few questions are asked, will tend to become an agency for the financial relief of the least resourceful families in a community. It will, moreover, be unlikely to relieve any family continuously, for the habit of the dispenser of funds will be to alternate quickly between facile credulity and sharp distrust. The honest intention to give money as a right carries with it a sense of the community's right to have money conscientiously used. The corollary of the thoughtless, emotional giving of money is distrust of the subject of the aid. An office safeguarded against suspicion of laxity or parsimony because in it the right of the individual to receive liberal treatment, of the community to have its money conserved as a trust, are each acknowledged and each secured through trained thinking, will be one to which the sensitive, the independent in spirit, will be willing to go. Such an office will be blessed if it bear steadily in mind the fact that the great lovers of humanity have been able spontaneously, helpfully, to give goods to their fellowmen, because of their unfailing intuition that the immaterial gift of their spirit transcended the material in value.

Financial relief, solicitude for family health, an immediate lessening of physical or mental suffering, are incidental to home service. A consideration of family life which envisages the future while provision is made for the present, is basic. The morale of the fighting man is kept in mind, a duty of the patriotic home service worker being to help maintain army morale by assurance given that family life is safeguarded. There is, however, a deeper claim. The service is a trust. The trust is to deliver to the returning soldier not the fabric of the home he left, but a home which potentially, however housed, will *carry on*, refined by common sacrifice. If he fail to return, if he return broken in mind and body, the demand of the trust is that there may abide in his home a quality which will perpetuate its value. If he return a stranger to his old responsibilities, his one-time affections, the trust is to try to revivify the attributes lost in the big demoralization of war. Any tale of service rendered fails to give an impression of the fine shades of difference in treatment which should characterize any sound family case work. Some instances taken from the records of our section may, however, suggest variety.

An instance of physical care, reminiscent of the "Greatest Mother in the World," is after care for a sergeant's little daughter, who suffered from infantile paralysis. Helpless when she left the hospital, the doctor promised ultimate recovery if she were given careful oversight and enabled to get regular exercise. Providing a tricycle was the means used on the physician's advice.

An ambitious boy given an opportunity to study law, a capable girl lessons in typewriting, are instances of educational opportunities. An artificial leg for a soldier's father to enable him to work and stop street begging, a position as stewardess for a woman so that she might work her way back to England and be near her British husband fighting in France, make promise of better security of the home through industrial openings. A second mortgage secured on a piece of real estate, a canceled contract which overtaxed a family's resources, a readjustment of expenditure so that a household might manage on a reduced income without lowering any essential of the standard of living;—each is an instance of economic adjustment.

Correspondence with police authorities in Ireland, learning thereby the regimental number of a man who deserted his wife and enlisted in the British army, and securing subsequently an allotment of his pay; re-instating in the navy a boy whose family in Montana were anxious about his status because they knew he had tried to desert from the United States navy and enlist in the Canadian army, and getting his officer's promise that he would keep an interested eye on him; protecting a wayward girl whose brother in the service was apprehensive about her conduct, are all instances of intervention in behalf of a better morality. A widower, whose child by his request was withdrawn from an institution for fear parental control would be forfeited, and was placed in a boarding-house where the father might visit his boy at will and advise care shows one way in which family solidarity may be served.

An instance which suggests that home service may be international in scope and may strike down to racial roots, is illustrated by the request of a Jewish father in the British army to have his little daughter taken from a public institution in New York state and boarded in a private family. A good home was found through a Zionist society. The family boarding the child promised, in fulfilment of the father's wish, to take her later to join her grandparents in Palestine. Securing care in a neurological hospital for a girl subject to mental aberrations, placing a distraught mother under observation in a psychopathic ward, validating the compensation claim of a woman whose husband became insane in the line of naval duty prove the need of protecting the interests of the mentally unbalanced.

Any statement of treatment recently planned and executed fails to prove that desired results, even if attained, will be held. Quotations from letters received by members of our staff will, however, give positive proof of the regard in which we are held by some of the men and their families. They are witness to the influence the section begins to exert.

One man writes that his family feels neglected because the visitor had not called recently; another that he turns to the Red Cross for "advice, help and comfort." A sergeant says, "I have heard from home and the news which I got cheered me a great deal. . . . . It is a great consolation to me to see how you and the Red Cross have helped them (his mother and his wife) out." A private writes that he had not forgotten the kindness shown his wife and adds, "I would like for you to visit her as often as you can spare the time, as I left her in a bad condition and I certainly feel sorry for her." "It has lifted a great weight from my mind to know that they have someone to give them the proper care while I am absent from home," writes a soldier from a southern cantonment. From another southern cantonment comes a letter in which the private says, "Glad that you will think and pray for me. . . . . I wish that you will look into my family and take care of them while my brother and I are away. . . . . I will always write to you and think of you as a true friend of the family." And from still another cantonment, "I received a letter from home stating how a very nice woman representing your people was home and that she encouraged my mother very much."

A wealth of family affection breathes from the simple words, "Your favorable report of the courage of R— and S— (two small sisters) during their trying time with adenoids is also a source of much pleasure to me. Tell them I am proud of them for being so brave." And in the extract from the letter of another man, "I guess you all know how a soldier feels when the only sister that he has is sick and don't hear from her for some time." A soldier "at sea en route to somewhere in France" wrote: "Miss ——— has helped me to be more efficient than I thought I'd be when I left my family and answered the call." After speaking in some detail of what the home service visitor had meant to his family, he continued: "that alone is enough to spur one on to use the best that is in him." The place of home service in the great scheme of patriotic duty fulfilled is recognized by the aviator who wrote: "I must say that you are certainly doing your bit."

The testimony of two women may be added to this partial exhibit of how the families under care react to the thought given to their homes. "My husband . . . . says he can go away with a much lighter heart now that he knows his little girl is in the hands of two good women like you both," writes one, and the other, a trained nurse whose husband was in a training camp says, "I want to thank you for all the time and trouble you had to take to attend to the . . . . matter for me. . . . . I know when you read this that you will say that I should give the Red Cross the full measure of my gratitude for the wonderful help they have given me in my trouble. I do, but I realize very keenly that if you were not gifted with such a wonderful insight into human nature and a great fund of sympathy, all the good would have been taken out of all visits and help given."

There is a tender little missive from which one is tempted to quote. It was written by a little girl who had been sent in the spring to the country for a needed change. "I did not forget about the doll youse send me. I was afraid to take it along. I fell in love with that sweetheart doll," she wrote; and in reading one felt in her response to the gift which had been inspired by affection a something that was creative in quality.

Two gifts came to the office which also had the power to stir the imagination. One was some stalks of cotton grown in Georgia and sent by a soldier; the other a medal cast in Germany in 1914 in anticipation of the German army's triumphal entrance into Paris, and brought by a sailor who had bought the medal in Birgenhead as a souvenir,—the typical product of the south offered in token of appreciation of what a northern office was doing for boys in the service of the United States, and the corroboration of Germany's sinister design given in recognition of Red Cross service by one of the men America had sent to annihilate the Central Powers' gross assumption.

A sailor appealed in behalf of his three children under five. He wanted home service to supervise their care and act as custodian of the money he would appropriate for board and other necessities. He had always tended them at night, and supervised their feeding. His wife, a young actress, came later to look us over. Her method of investigation being to trust to her intuition, her decision was quickly made to acquiesce heartily in the father's plans. "You'll do," she said, as she looked critically at the visitor. To include her in the effort made in behalf of the family group became our problem.

A widow's only son enlisted, and she could not bear the cost of the sacrifice. She persuaded him to secure a first discharge, and later when he had been drafted, a second. But he grieved over his failure to be in the service, and she gave final consent to his enlisting a second time. A home service visitor learned to know her intimately during these periods of devastating decision, and in winning her affection got a heartening impression of the moral courage which underlay the ultimate decision. This act of heroism, whose distinguished service cross must be stamped on the heart, not worn on the breast, was cited by the visitor in speaking before a small country audience. After the meeting a woman present came forward to say that she had two sons. She had consented to the going of one but had held the other. Now she would restrain him no longer.

The conviction grows, as I read letters such as those from which I quote, and as I listen to what the visitors say about their contacts with families, that men in the service want assurance that the Red Cross will protect their homes through steadying family morale, giving the right chance to the child, interpreting to the woman the shifting value of coin and custom. The men who fight know that the federal allotments and allowances will in the main cover essential needs, but that financial sacrifice is the common demand. The place of Red Cross relief funds in a scheme of family protection will be rightly conceived by those who shrink neither from making or suggesting sacrifice, but who consider in each case how far the standard of comfort may be altered without jeopardizing the essentials of a right standard of living.

When the New York and Bronx County Chapters established a Home Service Section late in March, 1917, there was no body of detached trained case workers. The established social agencies in the community had not only absorbed such workers as were trained but were training new recruits to augment their own staffs. The newly organized section manned its office with a worker whose experience of many years had been in a district of the New York Charity Organization Society, supplemented by service under the Red Cross in two periods when the local civilian relief committee was called on to provide relief and rehabilitation following on a disaster. Around the worker gathered a rapidly growing body of volunteers whose training came in large measure through action.

The readiness of the School of Philanthropy to give a lecture course, of the districts of the Charity Organization Society to provide practical experience, of women eager to train for patriotic service, meant that when families began in large numbers to apply to the office there was a staff eager, and comparatively prepared, to meet their needs. The grip of the work itself holds steady those who come under its human influence, draws many in to give larger portions of time than was contemplated, develops an ability to stand the physical and emotional strain involved, quickens the intelligence to finer appreciation of human variations and reactions. A learning through doing, when the thing to do is to meet human need, the will to do a response to a patriotic impulse, can bring illuminating results. But the learning how to do the thing aright depends on someone being at hand to furnish clues and inculcate principles of action.

How to provide adequate supervision has become a difficult problem to meet not only by the New York and Bronx County Chapters, but by the chapters throughout the country. The two needs have run side by side: to increase the force of field visitors, and to add to the staff of supervisors. The advertising of courses of study, appeals made in colleges and churches, frequent calls on war enrollment bureaus, urging friend to enlist friend, have been tried simultaneously, repeatedly. The hand-picked method has proved the most successful in securing quality, but too slow in results to be used alone. There is the competition with other war activities to meet, and the rule not to cripple the force, professional or nonprofessional, of the continuing community agencies to observe. But there undoubtedly is sufficient energy to meet the requirements of each agency if those responsible for building staffs learn how to voice their appeal so that it reaches the imagination and satisfies the intelligence of women who have a margin of time.

In beginning a second winter of work when our section can count on the services of a group of supervisors and assistants, of visitors and office workers which on October first will doubtless number nearer four than five hundred, we shall be prepared to assume responsibility for conducting continuous general chapter courses and special courses for selected groups. This past season, two of our chapter courses have been given by a member of our staff. One course, arranged by us, was given at the University Settlement to a small group of neighborhood young women. One of this number is now able to assume responsibility for running the home service information center, opened at the settlement. Plans are being made to repeat this particular experiment in another part of the city next winter. A course offered by the School of Sociology of Fordham University will be conducted by members of our staff, the practice work given under our supervision.

Those responsible for supervision have turned to the School of Philanthropy for inspiration. The director of the school has agreed to conduct a class of twenty-five members of the home service staff, who will bring into the class room current case problems, there to get a deepened appreciation of guiding principles and to learn how to evaluate the fresh reactions families are making to the new conditions. Out from the class room the supervisory force should carry a stream of influence which should vitally affect the community's attitude towards family life, after as well as during the war.

The readiness with which the various social groups work for and with the Red Cross in behalf of soldiers' and sailors' families makes unified effort unprecedentedly easy. Newly organized groups such as the regimental units, the Jewish Welfare Board, and the National Catholic War Council are not only ready but eager to use and be used by home service. This spirit of trust imposes a serious obligation. The field is clear of obstruction, the sole hindrance to satisfying achievement lies in the staff's immaturity; but the staff has the will to use its many sided opportunity.

America more fully reveals herself to those who through home service reach out to protect her interests, who, purged of detachment, become at one with her peoples of many races and different creeds, who, as part of her fighting forces, battle for the ideal which lies in the treasury of her homes. The service is uneven, the effort crude, but it has the quality of youth which holds it on tiptoe. Expectancy, in fact, is the distinctive note. The attitude of alertness gives the force a resilience which carries it over periods of emergent demand. The strain of answering the call to help an unanticipatedly large number of families to carry their burdens could be borne with equanimity only if there were love for one's God, one's country, and one's fellows; faith in the power of one's fellowman to respond to one's effort; hope in what home service will bring to the child.

Charles Peguy, one of the finest spirits the war has disembodied, wrote:

> "Mais, ma petite esperânce
> Est celle qui tous les matins
> Nous donne le bonjour."

What our section strives to hold is the power to face each day's task with a gallant, a buoyant salutation.

INFORMATION SERVICE OF THE RED CROSS

By Clarence King,
Director, Bureau of Information Service, Department of Civilian Relief, American Red Cross.

Giving information to families of soldiers and sailors is as much a part of home service as giving them aid when sick or in want. This information service constitutes a prominent part of the work of the home service section of each chapter of the Red Cross. Relatives of enlisted men desire information of many kinds. There is hardly a family from which a man has gone to camp or to the front which sooner or later does not feel the need of prompt and accurate information such as the Red Cross is equipped to furnish. Home service sections are advising how mail should be addressed to soldiers and sailors; how information may be obtained of those sick, wounded, captured or missing; what the War Risk Insurance Law means, and how to take advantage of its provisions.

Each home service section has in this work a two-fold opportunity: first, it can save untold anxiety and suffering, Sympathetic, prompt and accurate information, quieting fears, relieving anxiety and encouraging self-help serves materially to maintain the comfort and health of these families who have spared their breadwinners and protectors to the service of their country, and thereby also helps to sustain the morale of the fighting men themselves. Second, it can give such information, which is the most natural means to establish acquaintance and confidence between the home service worker and the family, and thus to discover opportunities for further service.

Therefore, the information service is not operated as a separate bureau but as an integral part of each home service section. Where possible, men of legal training are placed in charge, but with offices immediately adjoining the rest of the home service section, for every care should be taken that the seeker for information does not depart until the Red Cross has learned what other kinds of social service may be needed.

Early in the war when five hundred families had received assistance from a home service section in one of our largest cities a count was made of the kind of help which had been rendered. In every instance the acquaintance with the enlisted man's family had commenced by one of his relatives coming to the Red Cross for information regarding family allowances or government insurance.

WAR RISK INSURANCE LAW

By an act of Congress approved October 6, 1917, known as the War Risk Insurance Law, the United States made certain provisions for the insurance of members of the military and naval forces against total disability and death, for the payment of allotments and allowances to families and dependents of enlisted men and for the payment of compensation to disabled men, or to families of deceased men. The act supersedes existing pension laws and guarantees to our fighting men what has been characterized as "the most complete and generous system of safeguards and benefits ever provided by any nation in the history of the world."

The benefits of this act may be sketched briefly as follows: If the enlisted man has a wife, whether or not he also has any children, or if he has one or more children but no wife living, he is compelled to make an allotment of $15 per month. This is taken from his pay each month. To this the government adds, for a wife $15; for a wife and one child $25; for a wife and two children $32.50 and $5 more for each additional child.

If there is no wife living, there is added to his allotment $5 for one child; $12.50 for two children; $20 for three children; $30 for four children and $5 more for each additional child.

If the soldier has no wife or children, but has parents or brothers or sisters who are dependent on him he may (but is not compelled to) make an allotment of $15 per month. The allowance added by the government is $10 a month for one dependent parent;

$20 a month if both parents are dependent; and to each dependent brother or sister $5 per month. If he has a wife or children and hence is making a compulsory allotment to them, he need only allot $5 of his pay in order to secure the allowance for a dependent parent, brother, or sister.

The act provides for compensation very similar to the workmen's compensation given to factory operatives. Compensation in the case of death to a widow without children is $25 per month until her death or remarriage; to a widow with one child $35, and so on increasing with larger families. To a child, where there is no wife, $20 until he is 18; two children $30, etc.; to a dependent parent $20. If both parents survive the deceased they will receive $30 jointly. If the enlisted man is totally disabled, he receives from $30 to $100 per month according to the size of his family and the nature of his disability. If he is partly disabled, the payment is proportional to his loss in earning capacity.

Under this act, an enlisted man can also secure insurance from $1,000 to $10,000 for death or total permanent disability at a cost which is only a small part of the cost of insurance in regular insurance companies. The exact cost varies in accordance with his age. The premium is deducted from his pay monthly. If he is totally and permanently disabled, or dies, the principal is paid to him or to the person named by him as beneficiary in equal monthly payments running for twenty years. At the end of the war the insurance can be changed into the usual forms of life and endowment insurance, even if the soldier has contracted some illness in the meantime which would make him uninsurable in an insurance company.

Of course the payments made to the beneficiary in the case of the soldier's death or to himself in case of total disability are additional to the compensation payments described above, which are a free grant without payment on the part of the soldier. The rates of the government insurance are so low that a private soldier can pay a $15 allotment and also carry $10,000 insurance and still have several dollars left for spending money, so it gives him a splendid chance to protect his own future as well as that of his family.

FURNISHING INFORMATION AS TO ALLOTMENTS, ALLOWANCES, ETC.

It is, of course, of great importance that all relatives of soldiers and sailors should understand fully these provisions of the law relating to family allowances, allotments, compensation and insurance. Accordingly the Department of Civilian Relief early in October, 1917, urged upon home service sections that this matter be given thorough attention. That the help of the home service sections is appreciated and desired is made evident by a letter dated December 27, 1917, written by William C. DeLanoy, Esq., director of the Bureau of War Risk Insurance, from which the following paragraphs may be quoted:

> I am informed that under your leadership there has been established a home service section in all of the Red Cross Chapters throughout the country. This home service appears to be admirably adapted to fill an existing need as conveyer of information and advice to the dependents of the American soldiers and sailors respecting the operation of the act of October 6, 1917.
>
> Nothing could be more essential to the maintenance of the morale of our fighting forces than the belief by the soldiers and sailors that their dependents are being cared for. To accomplish this it is necessary, not only that the men in the army and navy receive full information, but also that dependent wives, mothers, parents, and children be apprised of their rights and the means of securing them.
>
> In disseminating this information and giving such advice no organization that I know of has greater potentiality for service than the American Red Cross. May we count upon your coöperation?

This coöperation has been rendered by sending to all home service workers information about the War Risk Insurance Law in the form of a handbook with supplements from time to time, containing the latest information as to changes in the law, Treasury Department decisions, and other regulations and rulings in reference to its application.

In the accomplishment of the Herculean task imposed upon this new Bureau of War Risk Insurance, it was inevitable that many wives, children, parents, and other dependent relatives should find the financial assistance due them from the government long delayed. In such instances these relatives come to the home service section. Here they are furnished with information as to how to proceed with the official application blanks and with instructions for filling them out. These blanks are forwarded to the registrar of the Department of Civilian Relief at Red Cross Headquarters in Washington for presentation to the Bureau of War Risk Insurance. Inquiries in reference to delayed allotments and allowances are also forwarded to the registrar from home service sections.

Under his direction a trained force handle these inquiries, working in conjunction with a special force in the Bureau of War Risk Insurance which works only upon cases referred through the Red Cross. By this method the Department of Civilian Relief investigates and straightens out such difficulties in over five thousand cases per month.

CURRENT INFORMATION FROM WASHINGTON

In addition to sending out information concerning the War Risk Insurance Law and its administration, the Red Cross keeps in touch with official departments at Washington, sending through its fourteen division offices to home service sections other current information in reference to the rulings of the Navy Department, or of the Adjutant General, the Surgeon General, or the Judge Advocate General of the United States Army, and other important information of interest to the families of soldiers and sailors. Latest advice as to new legislation for protecting the legal rights of enlisted men from infringement during their absence, for permitting furloughs so that farmers' sons may help in putting in the crops, and for after-care and vocational rehabilitation of disabled soldiers has been relayed promptly through Red Cross channels to the families of enlisted men.

To be of use the information thus issued from national headquarters must, of course, be communicated to the relatives of soldiers and sailors or to the men themselves. For the most part this information is furnished orally by home service workers in response to questions put by relatives of enlisted men, when these relatives come to the home service section for information. By posters, by articles in the press, through the local exemption boards, by circular letters and in many other ways the existence and location of the home service section is made known to these relatives. In some of the smaller communities it has been possible for a home service worker to call personally upon the family of each drafted man without intrusion and thus to make known the information service and other service which the local chapter is equipped to render.

Frequently home service workers have been able to talk with all drafted men from the locality at the office of the draft board before their departure for camp. In such cases the representatives of the Red Cross have urged the importance of taking out the government insurance and have explained the provisions of the War Risk Insurance Law as to allotments, allowances, and compensation.

In the camps and cantonments the provisions of the War Risk Insurance Law are explained to the newly drafted men upon their arrival by the personnel or insurance officers. There is, however, in each of the large cantonments a Red Cross field director and also an associate field director in charge of home service. This associate field director is supplied from National Red Cross Headquarters through the division offices with much of the same information as is issued to the home service sections, so that he may answer the many questions asked him by enlisted men, not only questions as to the War Risk Insurance Law, but many other important questions as well.

If a man is in need of legal assistance or advice, the associate field director in charge of home service obtains the facts and refers them to the home service section in the man's home town for action or opinion by the lawyer or legal committee coöperating with such section. In the vast majority of cases such legal questions cannot be dealt with effectively at the camps. However, cases which demand the services of a lawyer at the camp are handled by the division or camp judge advocate, frequently at the instance of the associate field director.

FRUITS OF INFORMATION SERVICE

An abstract description of the information service of the Red Cross is less informing and less interesting than a recital of actual cases of service rendered.

In March, 1918, the crippled parents of a man who had been drafted and had not claimed exemption, drove all the way from western Pennsylvania in a ramshackle buggy to see the President, because their customary financial support had been cut off. They reached Washington, soaked to the skin, having spent the night before in their buggy because they could not afford to go to a hotel. From the White House they were referred through the War Department to the Red Cross. The home service section of the District of Columbia not only cared for their bodily comfort but informed them how to secure the family allowance, how to make application for their son's discharge, if necessary, and also told them of work which the crippled father could secure in manufacturing munitions in spite of having lost one leg.

In April, 1918, a mountaineer, eighty-two years old, tramped eighteen miles from his cabin in the mountains of West Virginia to a home service section where he obtained information as to what the government would do for him during his son's absence in the army.

Early in the war a drafted man from western Pennsylvania was discharged from the army for tuberculosis. He returned to his home town totally disabled, without funds to support himself or to secure the needed treatment, and without knowledge that he was entitled to compensation from the government. This information was furnished him by the Red Cross. He was assisted in making out his claim and is obtaining a monthly compensation of thirty dollars from the government and is now receiving treatment in a sanatorium.

A laborer enlisted and left behind him a wife, an aged mother and a younger sister. The wife obtained a position at thirty dollars a month and endeavored to support the mother and sister. They had no other income although they owned their home. After a few months, news arrived that her husband had died in camp. She was without funds to meet the burial expenses and had no knowledge of the assistance due from the government. From a home service section she learned that the government would pay for the transportation of her husband's body and the burial expenses and that she was entitled each month to twenty-five dollars compensation and twenty-five dollars automatic insurance, and that twenty dollars compensation would be paid to the mother. She was advised how to make application for these payments. In her distress it was a great help to have someone who knew how to remove the immediate practical difficulties of the situation.

Perhaps the Red Cross information service which is most appreciated is that rendered to a wife or mother who is worried about the health of the enlisted man. They are told how to get in communication with him through Red Cross channels and how they may secure prompt and accurate information as to his whereabouts and condition through the associate field director at the camp or the Red Cross representative at the hospital.

A few months ago in Arkansas the wife of an enlisted man received an official telegram directing her to forward identification marks which would serve to identify the body of her husband who was stated to be dead in Brooklyn. She had had no notice of his death and had received a cheerful letter from him dated on the day when he was said to have died. She took the matter to a home service section. The Red Cross worker knew how to get in touch by telegraph with the proper authorities and within a few hours the wife was assured that it was a case of mistaken identity and that her husband was alive and well.

Due apparently to pro-German propaganda circulated throughout the southwestern portion of Virginia, the family of an American soldier in France received a rumor that this man had been wounded in battle, that both of his legs had been amputated and that he had died after two weeks in the hospital. The home service section in the town telegraphed to the division director whose office in this case was in Washington. The division office communicated with the Adjutant General of the Army and received positive assurance that no casualty report of any kind had been received concerning this man, that he had not been in the hospital, and that undoubtedly the statement both as to his being wounded and as to his death was false. Within six hours after the family had first heard the alarming news they received a telegram containing this reassuring information.

Sometimes the information is rendered to the enlisted man concerning his family. In such cases the need is no less acute. Recently a soldier at one of the large cantonments became worried because his father was sick, and, he feared, in financial distress. The home service section near his home was able promptly to assure him that his father was convalescing in a free hospital and would soon be discharged and that the government allotment and allowance were being received regularly.

A soldier at another cantonment went to the Red Cross home service man at the camp stating that twelve years before he had run away from home and that before he embarked for France he wished, if possible, to get in touch with his family of whom he had heard nothing in the meantime. He asked the assistance of the Red Cross. The only information he could give as a basis for the search was the name of the town and the street upon which they had lived twelve years before. On the basis of this information the home service section in that town, after searching the directories without result, finally learned through a former neighbor where the family had moved. A happy reunion was brought about and the boy sailed for France with his morale distinctly improved.

The Red Cross has assumed definite responsibility for maintaining the welfare and the standards of home life of the families of American soldiers and sailors. Officials in America and commanders in the American Army in France have declared that there is nothing which the Red Cross can do which will contribute to a military victory more directly than this. To discharge its responsibility adequately and to render this service effectively, it is essential that the entire home service organization of the Red Cross shall be well equipped with a complete, prompt, and accurate information service.

It is a serious responsibility which the Red Cross has assumed in undertaking to advise and assist enlisted men and their families in securing the benefits of legislation and regulations enacted for them. These families have come to rely upon the Red Cross as their legal counsel in securing allotments, allowances; in obtaining advice as to compensation, government insurance, and in many other matters. The Red Cross must neither fail to give prompt information when needed nor err by furnishing hasty and inaccurate advice. Failure properly to discharge the obligation immediately may seriously prejudice the interests of the enlisted man and his family. Wrong advice may deprive the man's wife or mother of the government allowance or prevent her from securing the government insurance in the case of his death.

By the initial request of the Bureau of War Risk Insurance and by the exigencies of the situation, the Red Cross, through its information service, has become, whether it would or not, an unofficial adjunct to the Bureau of War Risk Insurance, to various branches of the War Department and other departments in Washington, in answering a multitude of important questions as to laws and regulations affecting enlisted men, which are directed by families of these men to Red Cross chapters throughout the country. Neither the importance of the service nor the responsibility which goes with it can be overestimated.

THE AFTER-CARE OF OUR DISABLED SOLDIERS AND SAILORS

By Curtis E. Lakeman,
Assistant to the Director General of Civilian Relief, American Red Cross.

Will the United States be as successful in making civilians out of its soldiers as it has been in making soldiers out of its civilians? Much hard effort must be expended and many forces must pull together with a single purpose before this result comes to pass, but we can at least say that a promising beginning has been made. Congress has unhesitatingly recognized a national responsibility toward the disabled soldier and sailor, has clearly defined the program of the federal government for their rehabilitation and has provided the funds. Administrative plans based upon careful study of the successes and the failures of other countries in this field are being put into effect. The chief factor of doubt is whether the American people will back up these plans with the weight of a public opinion so intelligently formed and so dominating that no disabled man shall fail to receive the most generous and constructive assistance nor shall any be permitted through neglect or misdirected sympathy to degenerate into dependency.

A philosophical patriot, if there still be leisure in which such a creature can exist, would find much to ponder in the record of our first year of participation in the Great War. Our successes have been as unexpected as our failures. If our pride in the ability of the American business man to solve every problem of the mobilization of industry on the colossal scale of the war has gone into an occasional nose dive, who, on the other hand, would have dared to predict some of our striking achievements in the social and political field, in projects involving the rapid integration and expression of the national will? Who, for example, could have foreseen the success of the selective service act either in its unanimous and unquestioning acceptance by the people or in the foresight, rapidity and precision of its administration? In the light of our too well-known pension legislation who could have dared hope for the enactment of a national measure so enlightened, so just, so permeated with sound social statesmanship as the War Risk Insurance Act?

THE VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION LAW

And now we have, in the Vocational Rehabilitation Law, approved by the President on June 27, 1918, a registration of national purpose, and an assumption of national responsibility toward the disabled soldiers and sailors of the present war, which place this new statute on the same high level of social vision, while in effect rounding out and completing the compensation provisions of the older law with a broadly conceived scheme of governmental training designed to restore every disabled man, so far as physically possible, to economic self-dependence.

To be sure we started, as in so many of the purely military phases of the present national effort, with the tremendous advantage of the experience of other countries before us. Earnest students of the subject had watched the evolution of the plans of other nations for the care of the disabled. Beginning in nearly every instance with reliance on local and private philanthropic effort, each of the major belligerents has been forced to assume national responsibility for the treatment, training, and replacement in industry of the men injured in battle, and to coördinate under government control all the local, sporadic and sometimes misdirected activities in this direction. An exceptional example has been set by our valiant neighbor on the north. From the beginning Canada has seen the problem of the disabled soldier as a national one, and has attacked it as courageously and as successfully as her brave men fought at Vimy Ridge. To our own credit be it said that we have promptly recognized her leadership and have adopted bodily, with the necessary adoption to our needs, the essential features of the Canadian system.

In the first place our law, following closely the spirit of the Canadian plan, emphasizes the principle that the making of civilians out of soldiers is a task which should be administered, at least in its later stages, by civilians. This principle would appear to be justified by the same logic which requires that soldiers should direct the reverse process of turning civilians into soldiers. Accordingly the mobilization of the educational resources of the country, in order to provide the vocational and professional training which will fit the disabled soldier to make his own future as secure and as profitable, if not more so, than before he entered the army, is entrusted to a civilian branch of the government, the Federal Board for Vocational Education. The same agency is charged with the duty of finding the reëducated man a place in which to demonstrate his new earning power, and with the further responsibility of following him up with protecting influences until he is again on a safe and sound economic basis, capable of supporting himself and his family with what he earns, supplemented by a generous compensation for his physical injury, which cannot be reduced merely on the ground that he has succeeded in overcoming his handicap.

A second fundamental principle of the Vocational Rehabilitation Law is that the man's choice of occupation, as well as his decision whether to take any course of reëducation at all, should be entirely free. The law has no element of military or economic compulsion in it, except that once having elected a course of training the man must stick to it, or face the possibility that the Bureau of War Risk Insurance may withhold his compensation, in whole or in part, during the time of his wilful refusal or neglect to continue his studies. The insistence on the superior expediency as well as justice of the voluntary choice implies the need of expert vocational guidance, and of systematic educational propaganda in order to reach and form the man's own will to make the best of his residual powers. It is believed that in the very method of persuasion and utilization of many kinds of sound influence, while leaving the eventual decision to the man himself, there is something essentially consistent with American principles of individual freedom and self-determination. Undoubtedly the method is harder, just as it is sounder, than the simpler expedient of ordering a man into school under the force of military discipline. Its very difficulty, relieved as it is by the advantage of accord with established educational theory, is a challenge to the forces, such as those of Red Cross Home Service, which can bring to bear the weight of their constructive influence in helping the man decide right and "carry on" to the successful end.

The new law wisely leaves the whole range of medical and surgical treatment to the military medical authorities. Taken in conjunction with the present policy of the army this means that the soldier will remain in the service until his physical and functional restoration and cure are complete. Here again we have a new recognition of a national responsibility. Formerly it was the first thought of the army to get rid of incapacitated men as soon as possible, transferring the burden of their after-care to civilian agencies. Considerations of justice as well as those of expediency have revolutionized the practice in this respect. If the modern army of militant democracy takes a man for service, even for but a few weeks, public opinion demands rightly that he shall be restored to civil life only when disability incurred in line of duty shall have been removed so far as modern medical skill and resources are capable to effect such cure. And after a man has been expensively trained to be a soldier it is likewise good sense to keep him in the service, if the restorative treatment has made this at all possible, even if he is assigned to special and limited duty. An admirable illustration is the proposed use of disabled men with the necessary personal and educational qualifications to teach their disabled fellow comrades. Many a private under this plan may attain a commission which he might not otherwise have reached, even after having himself received a disabling injury.

During the time a man is in the army and undergoing treatment for his disability, the varied resources of modern therapeutic effort will be unsparingly applied. This means that, among other means of treatment, work in the form of bedside and ward occupation, or the more purposeful activities of the hospital workshops will be prescribed for its curative effect. This is an essential part of the medical treatment and will remain under the control of the military medical authorities. But obviously it may well lead to the formation of a vocational taste, and should develop without a break into the more consciously applied vocational training which the Federal Board will offer immediately upon discharge from the service. Indeed, the period of hospital treatment, sometimes extending over many weeks or months, is a critical time in determining the man's vocational future, and in establishing new ambition and new habits of industry. The fullest measure of success of the American plan of re-establishment in civil life will not be attained except with the most cordial and complete coöperation between the military and the civilian official agencies dealing with these complementary fields of treatment and training. The law makes this possible, in fact prescribes it so far as any law can guarantee administrative results, by requiring the Vocational Board to coöperate with the War and Navy Departments "in so far as may be necessary to effect a continuous process of vocational training."

This brief summary of the Vocational Rehabilitation Law is necessary to any adequate consideration of the relief and after-care of the disabled American soldier or sailor. Taken with the War Risk Insurance Law and the policies now in force under the general statutory powers of the army and navy, it clearly defines what the government will do for the men and the families of the men incapacitated by wounds or disease for further military service, and thereby marks out the residual field within which private individuals, organizations, community forces and the general public in its unofficial capacity can express the universal desire to do something for the heroes of the war. No rational plans for the relief and assistance of disabled soldiers and their families can be made except by building upon and extending the foundation thus laid by the official agencies of the government. Indeed, the first concern of relief agencies must be to provide information and advice as to the rights of the soldier or sailor under federal and state laws and as to the benefits which the government and its auxiliary agencies are ready and anxious to confer upon him.

Among the private organizations whose efforts will supplement the national program, it is natural to think first of the Red Cross. The purpose and field of activity of this organization are in an unusual degree colored with public interest and controlled by government authority. With its 22,000,000 members, its 3,000 local chapters and their 15,000 additional branches, the Red Cross is equipped as no other organization to give aid and comfort to our soldiers and sailors and to assist their families at home. And this responsibility, once assumed, must carry forward into and through the critical transition period from military to civilian life. This means that when a soldier or sailor is discharged on account of disability, the Red Cross will not abruptly break off existing relations of service to him and his family, but will continue such aid as may be necessary and desirable until the man is completely re-established in normal civilian life, or until the burden of his permanent relief, if totally incapacitated, is taken over by relatives or by appropriate public or private agencies; and the Red Cross will make no distinction between the man suffering from a disabling wound requiring special measures of physical reconstruction, and his comrade incapacitated by tuberculosis, heart disease, shell shock or any other non-surgical ailment. Honorable discharge for disability makes each and every soldier eligible for any assistance the Red Cross can render to him or to his family.

This leads to the question of the distribution of the causes of disablement as affecting profoundly the plans for the after-care of soldiers and sailors. The emphasis with which the needs and interests of a particular group of disabled men are advertised can hardly be relied upon as a safe index to the relative importance of the group, either as to number or urgency. Some classes, such as the blind, make an instant and universal appeal to the sympathy of all. Yet there were only twenty-seven cases of blindness out of a total of 41,000 Canadian soldiers returned during the first three years of the war. Again, so much interest is naturally felt and expressed in the visibly mutilated that one forgets how small a fraction they account for in the total of disability. Out of each million soldiers at the front, 10,000 a year may be expected to become subjects for physical reconstruction and vocational rehabilitation. Of these 10,000 about half will be medical cases, that is, men suffering from tuberculosis, shell shock, rheumatism, diseases of the heart, stomach, and other organs. The other 5,000 will be the actually wounded, but of these surgical cases only 500 will have lost arms or legs. There are many other forms of injury which result in more or less permanent disability. A man may have a piece of muscle shot away, or a wound causing a stiff joint, or partial or total paralysis. Often the outward appearance of such a man is not visibly affected and it is difficult to realize the seriousness of his disability as regards the taking up of normal occupation. Tuberculosis accounts for a much greater share of disablement than is commonly realized, and it is difficult to arouse as much direct interest and enthusiasm for the after-care of those suffering from this great prince of the forces of disease. Likewise it is surprising to learn that 24.4 per cent of the men already returned from France were sent home on account of nervous or mental disorders.

PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTOR INVOLVED IN AFTER-CARE

The after-care and relief of the disabled soldier is complicated by a psychological factor of the utmost importance. The change from the military to the civilian status involves a radical mental readjustment. For many months, perhaps years, the man has given no thought to the source of his daily bread. Superior authority has regulated his daily conduct, telling him what to do and when to do it. A long period of hospital care with solicitous attendance may have accustomed him to pass the time with little or no concentrated effort and attention to anything more strenuous than playing games or enjoying concerts, "movies," and other diversions. To be sure, an effort will have been made to offset this danger by a prescribed régime of diversional and curative occupation even in hospital days, and with a certain number, a period of thoroughgoing vocational reëducation will have supervened. But at best there is a vital difference between going to school and going to work and the soldier has to go again through the adjustment to a new and different mode of life which this change involves.

Anyone who leaves his customary round of business and domestic life to travel extensively, even for a few months, finds it difficult to get back into harness. Much more is this effect likely to be felt by young men at the most restless time of life, taken abroad into the new scenes and into indescribably strange experiences, while in the case of those who are wounded, all this is further complicated by the terrible ordeals of battle and suffering. It is surprising that men returning from such experiences adjust themselves as successfully as they do to the round of factory or office routine. No clearer evidence of the high average character of our returned soldiers will be found than in the success with which they fight these new battles and make good as civilians just as they have done in their service at the front.

Thus everything that is done for returning soldiers and sailors must be based on a sympathetic understanding of their spiritual as well as their physical sufferings. Relief and rehabilitation agencies must recognize, first of all, that they are dealing with a changed man, and with a range of psychological problems quite different from any they are likely to have met with in civil life. Inevitably when the returned soldier strikes out again in the world there will be periods of heavy discouragement. He may find uncongenial working conditions, unsympathetic employers, inconsiderate foremen, sharply competing associates. All these things or any of them may dash his reviving hope and interest in his own future. Then is the time to call out the reserves of sympathetic counsel and encouragement. The Red Cross through its trained home service workers and other good friends, neighbors and relatives must not be slow to rally to his support. The man must be assisted to meet and overcome these psychic obstacles. If he loses one job, another must be found, and if necessary a third, fourth, fifth, and so on until the right and lasting connection is made and the worker is settled in his work, in his mind, and in his outlook on life.

IMPORTANCE OF FAMILY INFLUENCE

In all plans to assist the returned soldier the influence of the family is a great force which must be mobilized and guided to its constructive task of rebuilding determination, ambition and character. It is quite as important to keep up the soldier's morale through the encouragement of his family while he is convalescing and refitting himself for work as it was while he was in the service. This factor of family influence is all the more important when we remember that never until this war have so many men left their home life to enter the army. To a large extent our Regular Army was made up of unmarried men, forming in effect a professional group. The Civil War to be sure called out our citizens in great number, but no such great change has ever faced American family life as at present. This gives a different aspect to plans for the care of those who will return never to fight again.

At the present time the United States maintains nine national homes for disabled soldiers, caring for upward of 20,000 veterans of the Civil and other wars. In addition many of the states maintain their own homes for disabled soldiers, in which some 12,000 more veterans are cared for. No concerted systematic effort was made by the government to restore the wounded veterans of the Civil War to earning capacity. The legless or armless veteran became a common and pitiful spectacle of our daily life. Only those of sufficient strength of character and will power fought out their own problems and made their way in spite of such handicaps. But a different method and spirit must hereafter prevail. The return of a single American lad now fighting in France only to become a life-long inmate of a soldiers' home is to be thought of only as a last resort. Every consideration demands that the boys who suffer disablement in this final battle for democracy must be restored to their own homes and given every chance to work and play with the rest of us.

The family influence, fostered and directed when necessary by wise and sympathetic counsel, may be effectively brought to bear at several stages. In the first place, at the time he is making up his mind as to the occupation in which he will be trained to ensure his future economic welfare, the coöperation of the family is required to give the vocational counsellor the necessary background of information as to his tastes, past successes, and ambitions. When the choice is made with the full concurrence and advice of the immediate relatives there is greater chance that family encouragement will be given all the way through and that the man will stick to his work and make good.

The first desire and impulse of every wounded man is to go home. This is natural and doubtless arrangement will be made for at least a brief visit when the man's condition warrants, as soon as he returns from the other side. But his best interests require usually a more or less extended period of hospital treatment and the wise family will concur in this attitude of the army medical authorities and forego their desire to have the boy come home at once, so that he may remain to receive the fullest benefit of the treatment which the government under its present liberal policy is ready to give him.

In the same manner the wholesome influence of family must be exerted all through the course of treatment, training and early days of work in the new position. Friends and neighbors, the government and the Red Cross may do much for the disabled soldier at all of these stages in his progress toward normal life, but unless the family understands and assists him at every turn his fight will indeed be uphill and against heavy odds.

But to have the family strong in its moral support, the family itself must be beyond the reach of suffering. To this end the government and the Red Cross must still continue their service. Wisely therefore the government will give the same allowance and the man must make the same allotment from his pay, while he is taking re-education as when he was in active service. Likewise the Red Cross, already familiar in many instances with the man's family problems, stands ready to keep on with every form of assistance, advice, counsel and material relief which it has given while the soldier or sailor was at the front.

Indeed it is impossible to separate relief to the disabled man from relief to his family, and in Red Cross practice no different committee will intervene upon the return of the man to a family already under care by the home service section. Obviously assistance in any form to the family is assistance to the soldier and vice versa. In the Canadian experience the assault of present war-time conditions upon family life is a most formidable factor. Problems of separation, delinquency, divorce, desertion and family disintegration have arisen in a manner to daunt all but the stoutest of heart, and the same problems may not unreasonably be expected here as we go deeper and deeper into the war.

FINANCIAL PROVISION FOR RELIEF

Turning now to the more concrete problems of after-care, the first factor applicable uniformly to all disabled men discharged in line of duty, is the financial provision for relief made by the War Risk Insurance Law. Based on the solid rock of a just and impartial general law, this measure makes liberal provisions for men while in service and for their dependent families both during the war and in the future to which the latter must look forward after the disablement or death of the principal wage-earner. The underlying theory was well stated by Judge Julian W. Mack, Chairman of the Committee which drafted the bill last year, as follows:

> The proposed provisions for the men and their dependents should not be offered as gratuities or pensions, and they should not be deferred until the end of the war. The wives and children, the dependent mothers and fathers of the men, should not be left, as in previous wars, to the uncertain charity of the communities in which they live. The minds of our soldiers and sailors should be put at rest, so far as their loved ones are concerned, by the knowledge that they will amply be provided for by their government as a part of the compensation for the service they are rendering to their country. In like manner they should know in advance that if they are killed in battle, definite and just provision has been made for their dependents, and that if they are disabled, totally or partially—if they come back armless, legless, sightless, or otherwise permanently injured—definite provision is made for them.

Article III of the law therefore aims at a new and better pension system based upon the accepted principles of modern compensation legislation. The schedule of monthly compensation for the total disability of an enlisted man or officer provides for payments ranging from $30 a month if he has neither wife or child living, up to $75 a month if he has a wife and three or more children. Ten dollars a month additional is provided for a dependent widowed mother or father.

To an injured person who is totally disabled and in addition so helpless as to be in constant need of a nurse or attendant, an additional sum not exceeding $20 per month may be paid in the discretion of the War Risk Bureau. For the loss of both feet, both hands, or both eyes, or for becoming totally blind or helpless and permanently bedridden from causes occurring in the line of duty in the service of the United States, a compensation of $100 per month is to be paid without allowance in that case for a nurse or attendant.

Compensation for partial disability is adjusted on a sliding scale according to the average impairment of earning capacity resulting from similar injuries in civil occupations. Thus the compensation of a disabled soldier or sailor varies with the degree of disability and with the size of his family, and the amount cannot be reduced by reason of individual success in overcoming the handicap and increasing the earning power.

Over and beyond the provisions for compensation for death and disability in the service, the War Risk Insurance Law in Article IV also makes available to every commissioned officer and enlisted man and to every member of the Army Nurse Corps (female) and Navy Nurse Corps (female) when employed in active service, the benefits of life and disability insurance carried by the government at a very low premium. In the event of death *or total and permanent disability* the amount of the policy (which may be any sum in multiples of $500, between $1,000 and $10,000) is payable in 240 monthly installments. If, however, the insured person becomes totally and permanently disabled and lives longer than 240 months, payments will be continued as long as he lives and is so disabled. With the mutually advantageous object of reducing physical disability and lowering the burden of compensation upon the government, the law further provides that every person in receipt of compensation for disability shall submit to reasonable medical or surgical treatment furnished by the government. The Bureau of War Risk Insurance in coöperation with the United States Public Health Service has made arrangements to meet this requirement of the law. Discharged soldiers and sailors entitled to compensation may now receive free examination and treatment by private physicians or at private hospitals or at the hands of the medical officers of the United States Public Health Service and in the hospitals of that branch of the government. The application for compensation automatically puts into effect the procedure leading to such examination and treatment.

Obviously the first duty of those who give practical aid to returned soldiers is to see that they and their families take advantage of all the benefits conferred by the War Risk Insurance Law and other federal, state and local measures for their relief. To this end the legal aid and information service, as described in another article of this series, is an integral part of the work of every home service section of the Red Cross. At the time of writing there are approximately 3,500 home service sections with perhaps 5,000 additional branch offices, representing altogether an enrollment of over 20,000 volunteer workers.

SPECIAL PROBLEMS OF AFTER-CARE

The relief and after-care of the tuberculous soldier constitutes a special problem of unusual importance. From the beginning of the war up to June 1, 1918, almost exactly 10,000 men had been discharged from the army on account of this disease. Under the older policy many of these were discharged "not in line of duty," the government taking the position that service was not responsible for the disease which, it was held in such cases, existed previously and had escaped detection. Pressure of public opinion has aided in changing the policy of the army and now once a man is accepted for service at any military station any subsequent disability, unless clearly due to his own negligence or misconduct, is held to have been incurred in line of duty. This means that men who develop tuberculosis in the service will be sent to army hospitals and kept if possible until the disease is arrested, certainly as long as they will stay. In order to meet the greatly increased requirements, the army is rapidly developing new and adequate facilities for the hospital treatment of tuberculosis. In addition to the Regular Army sanatorium at Fort Bayard, New Mexico, new buildings have been constructed or acquired at New Haven, Connecticut, Otisville, New York, Markleton, Pennsylvania, Azalea, North Carolina, Waynesville, North Carolina, Denver, Colorado, and Whipple Barracks, Arizona, which before the coming winter will bring the total of beds available for the treatment of tuberculosis in the army up to 5,875.

With the approval of the Surgeon General, an arrangement has for many months been in force whereby lists of all men discharged on account of tuberculosis are sent to the state public health authorities, the state anti-tuberculosis associations and the division bureaus of civilian relief of the Red Cross. Local plans of coöperation are then worked out between these agencies so that the health authorities and the anti-tuberculosis workers provide any necessary examination, medical attendance and sanatorium care while the Red Cross charges itself with the provision of financial assistance and relief to the family for as long a time as may be necessary until the burden of permanent care and relief is transferred to the appropriate civilian community agency.

Somewhat similar arrangements are being made for the care of men discharged on account of nervous and mental disorders. During the first year of the war, over 20,000 men were rejected from the army on account of some form of nervous or mental defect. It is an unusually delicate and difficult task to attempt to reach and assist many of these men, and doubtless thousands of those who have been rejected after a short term of service in the cantonments will not need or will escape any follow-up arrangements which may now be made. Of course many of these men were rejected for what might be called from the point of view both of the individual and the army, prophylactic reasons—not that they were in immediate danger of breakdown but because they were of a sufficiently well-defined type to make it more than likely that they would collapse under the strain of active service.

It is a fact of sinister significance, not widely appreciated, that the insanity rate of men in the army increases nearly 300 per cent in time of war. Facilities for the treatment of war neuroses are being developed at the army hospital at Plattsburg, New York. It has come to be recognized that nervous breakdown in the service does not differ essentially from the same conditions observed in civil life except that the ordeals of battle and the trying sights and sounds which the soldier experiences are the aggravating cause. The same methods of treatment which have been found to be successful with civilian patients are applied with good results in the army. Work and play which enlists the mental activity of the patient and diverts his attention into wholesome and constructive channels is found to be an essential factor of the treatment. The insane, who are in quite a different category, are treated at a different hospital at Fort Porter, New York. Those who are incurable are discharged from the army when relatives or the state hospitals of their native state will undertake their proper care. The remainder of the incurable cases are transferred to St. Elizabeth's Home, Washington, D. C.

Although the proportion of blind is far smaller than is commonly supposed, unexcelled arrangements for their treatment, teaching and social and economic supervision during the remainder of their lives have already been made. Blinded soldiers are sent to General Hospital No. 7 at Baltimore, where the military hospital and school is located on a beautiful private estate loaned for the purpose. Through a special appropriation establishing the Red Cross Institute for the Blind, facilities for after-care which would not be possible under the army law have been provided. The Federal Board for Vocational Education is coöperating with the arrangements for industrial training. All this work and the administration of additional private gifts is under the single and competent direction of the officer of the Surgeon General's staff directly charged with the work for the blind. Here again complete data as to the family background is necessary and is being provided through the coöperation of the Red Cross Home Service workers. Following the example of successful work in England, a member of the family of each blind man is taken to the Baltimore School and given much of the same training that the blind man receives. This insures the essential understanding on the part of the family of the blind man's difficulties, limitations, capabilities, needs and ambitions. Through its knowledge of the home and family background, the home service section in the place of the man's residence is often able to advise as to which member of the family should be chosen for this devoted service.

The Red Cross Institute for the Blind will also make possible the establishment of a central selling and purchasing agency for the products of those men who cannot re-enter factories, while for those who can be trained to take up commercial life, typewriters and special stenographic machines will be provided. The institute will further make possible additional facilities for the production of literature for the blind, arrangements for the after-care and supervision of the men returned to industry, the provision of special workshops and home work and the formation of a savings association to encourage thrift, especially among those receiving the very liberal compensation and insurance benefits which the law provides for the blind.

With these and other groups of disabled soldiers, the Red Cross through its home service organization is working in close coöperation with the army medical authorities to give every possible assistance in the measures designed to ascertain the exact nature of the disability, and to provide for the most effective treatment and after-care. Here again the most effective care of the patient demands a clear knowledge of his family background and the continued support and relief of his dependents. Information as to a soldier's personal, community and family history is often of the highest value in determining whether, for example, he is suffering from an acute condition of real shell shock or whether the nervous collapse is but the manifestation of a chronic defect which existed previous to the period of military service. Not only does this distinction involve a difference in responsibility of the government for his compensation and after-care but it may well mean an important difference in the line of treatment prescribed. The trained social workers now enlisted with the Red Cross will often be able to supply this necessary information or, under expert guidance, will be able to obtain it promptly. In other instances the hospital authorities will be ready and willing to discharge soldiers to the care of their families for convalescence if they can be assured that a wholesome mental atmosphere exists in the home. Reliance will more and more be placed upon the home service workers to inform the medical authorities whether the mother is hysterical, the father alcoholic, either or both unable to comprehend the nature of the boy's ailment and to provide the wholesome environment required for his return to health, or whether opposite and wholly favorable conditions permit his convalescence at home.

Consideration of the classes requiring special hospital and institutional treatment must not blind us to the fact that even when taken altogether these form a small proportion of the total. Out of all the men who are discharged from the army on account of wounds or disease, probably 90 per cent will be able to go back to their usual life after a relatively short period of hospital treatment and without special measures for physical reconstruction and vocational training. A few weeks, or a few months at most, in the hospital will suffice for these men, many of whom are suffering from more or less familiar chronic medical conditions. The need for measures of after-care for this great group must be not overlooked. They will not have received the same advantages of special instruction and incitement to a constructive future which their more seriously disabled comrades will obtain at the hands of vocational counsellors and other friends, official and unofficial. Their return to their communities, and perhaps an over-zealous effort to return to the same work in a factory or office, may cause an unlooked-for breakdown, bringing on a resultant family problem. Therefore the Red Cross Home Service and other relief agencies must, at least for a limited period, be prepared to safeguard and assist these men and their families.

In the last analysis, the success of the whole national scheme of "soldiers' civil re-establishment," as the Canadians call it, depends upon the intelligent support of public opinion. An hysterical tendency on the part of the community to pamper the returned soldier with trivial entertainment, or the offer of immediate employment, really resting upon a basis of charity or exploitation, may have the most untoward effect in demoralizing the ex-soldier's will and character. In a few years, when the too-ephemeral desire to help the wounded hero has been forgotten, and the man faces the competition of able-bodied workmen in a labor market again over-supplied, he may have good reason to blame the public which gave him the wrong kind of reception. True friendship for the disabled soldier can still accompany the utmost expression of real gratitude and respect. It is best for the soldier himself in the long run that the community should expect him to continue doing his duty by making good as a civilian. Employers will help and not hinder the success of the soldier's effort to make his own way in the world if they will find and reserve jobs which disabled men can hold on the basis of skill and competence alone, and will not attract them, by unthinking offers of unsuitable jobs, to neglect their opportunities for the thorough training which will make them permanently independent in spite of their handicap. It will be one of the most considerable by-products of the war if we may dare hope that the social attitude toward the crippled and disabled shall change from one of lavish and ill-guided charity, to an insistence on a square deal which shall give the injured more than the average chance to make good, and shall demand that he make the best of that opportunity. If also the interest in the men disabled in this business of the war should carry over into the field of peaceful industry, and enforce adequate laws and provisions for the prevention of work accidents and the rehabilitation of the immensely greater number of workmen injured in factories every year, this could indeed be counted as another social victory of far-reaching consequence, arising directly from our embarkation upon the present great adventure.

THE WAR AND NAVY DEPARTMENTS COMMISSIONS ON TRAINING CAMP ACTIVITIES

By Raymond B. Fosdick,
Chairman, Commissions on Training Camp Activities.

There was nowhere for the men to go and forget the weariness, the homesickness, the loneliness, that prevailed all along the Border when our troops were concentrated there in the summer of 1916. There was nowhere to go and get away even for a short time from the monotony of drill and the almost unbearable heat. There was no organized entertainment, no decent diversion. There was not even a book to read, or the facilities for writing a letter home. There were the small border towns with saloons and red light districts for their sole attractions, and from lack of decent diversions, the men gravitated there in their off time. Such was the situation I found, when Secretary Baker asked me to go down and make a survey of the soldiers' environment for the War Department. It is no wonder that there was an ingrowing staleness and tendency to mental and moral disintegration. It is no wonder an appallingly large percentage of the troops there were at some time or other disabled through personal immorality. There was a great need for something wholesome to compete with the only forms of diversion to which the men had access, and out of this need grew the War Department Commission on Training Camp Activities.

Emerson's saying, that we never realize a truth fully until we have contended against it was fully exemplified, then, in the attitude of the War and Navy Departments toward the environment of our soldiers and sailors from the very first of their mobilization for the present war. The deadly effects of suddenly narrowing the whole life and thought of the naturally versatile and many-sided young American man, down to the inexorable round of military duties, had been thoroughly demonstrated. Moreover the men had heretofore volunteered their services; now they were to be drafted. The President and Secretary Baker determined that new social conditions must be created in connection with the military environment; camp life must be made wholesome and attractive. Already existing agencies were to be asked to come in and coöperate, and wherever necessary these were to be supplemented by the government direct. The function of the War Department Commission, was the coördination of all these agencies, that there might be no friction or overlapping on the one hand, or unfilled needs on the other. A corresponding Navy Commission was created at the request of Secretary Daniels.

By a comprehensive recreational and educational program, the commissions have surrounded our fighters with such clean and wholesome influences as they conceived a democracy to owe to its fighting men. The undertaking was experimental. It was perhaps the largest social program ever undertaken. It was the first time a government had ever combined educational and ethical elements with disciplinary forces, in the production of a fighting organism. No one knew exactly what the outcome would be. New precedents had to be set. When one considers that the hundreds of thousands of men who began pouring into the army and navy camps had been suddenly wrenched loose from all their familiar social contacts of families, friends, clubs, schools, theatres, athletics, libraries, etc., to enter the bewildering military environment, the need of some rationalizing force becomes apparent if there is to be that *sine qua non* of fighting efficiency—contentment.

Broadly, the work of the commissions has fallen under two general heads. The first embraces a vast positive program set up to compete with the twin evils of alcohol and prostitution. The more perfect its development, the less the necessity for the other phase of the organization—the suppressive work. Working together to assist in supplying the former are the agencies that, already in existence, have been accorded official recognition and placed under the direction of the commissions.

THE CLUB LIFE OF THE CANTONMENT

The club life of the cantonment, for instance, is in the capable hands of the Young Men's Christian Association, the Knights of Columbus, and the Jewish Welfare Board. With its wide experience in army and navy work, the Y. M. C. A. was particularly well equipped to furnish recreational and social facilities within the camps, and it has made good use of the money privately subscribed for this purpose. In each of the national army cantonments, there are from nine to fourteen "Y" buildings, and a somewhat smaller number in each of the smaller national guard camps. The Knights of Columbus organization has fewer buildings, but it is well represented and its functions are practically the same as those of the Y. M. C. A. The Jewish Welfare Board has not buildings in all of the camps up to the present time, and frequently holds its religious meetings in the building of another faith. One of the stipulations of the commissions was that no meeting was to be held in any of these buildings to which all the troops were not invited, regardless of religion. In fact the way in which all creeds and denominations are coming together is one of the miracles of modern democracy taking place within the camps.

The buildings brought into the camps by these organizations are so distributed, as to be easily available to the greatest numbers of men. A typical hut or bungalow presents a reassuring picture for those who have fears as to the social well-being of the uniformed men. Groups of men will always be found there occupying the rocking chairs and big arm chairs, smoking, playing games, or reading. A victrola and a piano are included in the equipment of each building and the men make full use of them. Around the entire wall space writing desks are built in, and these are never entirely deserted. It is estimated that more than a million and a half letters daily are written by the soldiers and sailors on the stationery that is furnished free by the Y. M. C. A. alone. The men soon learn that the building secretary is available day or night, and is not only willing but anxious to serve them as counsellor or friend.

Besides the Sunday religious services held in the auditorium which is a part of the equipment of each social building, moving picture shows, illustrated lectures, Bible classes, concerts, amateur or imported dramatic performances and indoor athletics provide attraction for each night in the week in each building. These are in addition to the programs provided through the large Y. M. C. A. auditorium which in the larger army camps has a seating capacity of 2,000 to 3,000—and the liberty theatre entertainments.

Much of that intangible "spirit of the army" is engendered in these buildings. I dropped into a Knights of Columbus hall one evening at the hour when the building was practically deserted, in time to witness a young Italian evidently as yet unfamiliar with his environment, rocking back and forth in his chair seemingly in great anguish of body or mind. A young soldier left the group around the stove as soon as he noticed him and went up and began talking to him. The youth shook his head uncomprehendingly. Gradually the others gathered around him solicitously but it was apparent that he understood no English. They thought that he was ill and attempted to pick him up bodily and carry him to the hospital, and then he produced a letter,—the evident cause of his distress. It was in Italian. A hasty survey showed that the building secretary was absent. One of the men went to the telephone. I do not know whom he called up but the door was opened soon and another young fellow joined the group. They handed him the letter which he read, announcing that the recruit's father was dying in a town halfway across the state.

"There's a train in twenty-five minutes—let's get him on that. I'll call up headquarters," one of the men was saying while the newcomer addressed the Italian in his own tongue—but he only shook his head, thrusting his hands into his pockets and bringing them out empty with a shrug. Carfare was a small matter. Within five minutes, the little group had pooled their loose change and one of them was at the telephone again calling up headquarters, to arrange for a pass out of camp, while the others escorted their friend in need down the railroad track toward the station.

The camp clubs promote democracy and they also effectively bridge the gulf that lies between the recruit and his environment. By giving men a chance to express themselves, they help to preserve their moral relationships to society. Among the means of self-expression furnished by the Y. M. C. A. is "Trench and Camp," the soldiers' newspaper in which is chronicled all the happenings of the week. The paper is published in each army camp, and now appears in one naval training station under the name of "Afloat and Ashore."

IMPORTANCE OF THE LIBRARIES WITHIN THE CAMPS

Another important agency coöperating in this work within the camps, is the American Library Association, to which has been delegated the task of solving the problem of the soldiers' and sailors' reading matter. This organization has undertaken the seemingly impossible task of seeing that there is always a good book within reach of the fighting man. A special library building has been erected or is in the course of being erected in each of the army cantonments. These are in charge of trained librarians. The entire work is carried on under the general supervision of Dr. Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress, who has been appointed General Director of the Library War Service. That the public appreciates the importance of this phase of the work, is evidenced by the fact that when in September, 1917, the public was asked for a million dollars for the conduct of the work, the fund was over-subscribed more than a half-million; and in March, 1918, when the big book drive was started with a goal of two million volumes, more than three million attractive readable books were received at the time set for the closing of the campaign and more were coming in every day.

The libraries are conducted along lines similar to those in towns, but the books are taken out with less formality and a widespread circulation is promoted in various ways. Besides the central building in each camp, branches are maintained in the Y. M. C. A., Knights of Columbus buildings, the hostess houses, base hospitals, and in the mess halls and barracks, and books may be taken from any of these at any hour of the day or evening.

It is natural that a visitor's first question to the librarian should be "What do the men read?" The number of books circulated, generally, show that fiction holds first place, which is natural enough. A good story helps to tide over long, lonely evenings, when otherwise the soldier would be a natural prey to homesickness. But there is an almost equally large demand for books on pure and applied science. Men are doing a surprisingly large amount of studying and reading up in preparation for promotion. There are many sorts of specialties in demand in the army and navy today, and books on various kinds of machinery, gasoline engines, aeroplanes, electricity, chemistry and U-boat engineering are greatly in demand. An army camp is a cross-section of masculine American life, with all grades and classes represented, and the books in circulation in one day in any camp library will offer an interesting study, and will range all the way from a catechism, requested by a negro trooper, to the profoundest philosophical treatise. A librarian told me lately of a soldier coming to him with the request for "something interesting in the way of modern Grecian history."

"I think you will like this," said the librarian taking down a new book about the Balkan war. "Oh, *that!*" said the soldier. "I don't want that. I fought all through *that* war," and he slipped his shirt off his shoulder, displaying a great scar. "I want something that I don't know all about."

The library work in camp is linked up definitely with the educational program being carried on direct by the commissions. In many divisions gathered in by the first draft, the percentage of men who could not speak a word of English was appalling. In the Syracuse camp, there was one regiment who could not understand the commands given them. Men from the Kentucky and Tennessee mountains could not read or write. In every camp in the United States classes in English, French, spelling, reading, writing and primary arithmetic were started, and are now being conducted. Two hundred thousand men are studying the French language at the present time, in classes run under the direction of the Commissions on Training Camp Activities. Vocational training classes are being carried forward; in fact, in every camp there are classes on certain evenings of every week representing all subjects from first lessons in spoken French to lessons in electrical engineering. In this connection, the educational machinery of the Y. M. C. A. is being largely utilized. Text-books of all sorts are procurable through the librarians, and those that are not immediately available are purchased.

Instructors are recruited from all sources. Men from the ranks are teaching French and other subjects. Men and women from near-by towns volunteer their services for certain evenings each week, and officers and chaplains are also assisting. It was recently estimated that more than 100,000 men were enrolled in our educational classes, and the number is growing.

OBJECT AND USEFULNESS OF THE HOSTESS HOUSE

The Young Women's Christian Association, by establishing the hostess houses in camp, has solved one of the biggest problems with which military authorities have had to contend,—that of women visitors to camp. In the old days they had to stand on windy corners, or parade the often wet and muddy streets: there was no place for them to go. Now they can go to this homelike spot and talk with their men friends or relatives amid pleasant surroundings. There have already been seventy-six hostess houses erected within the army and navy camps, and more are in the course of construction.

The hostess house is usually built near the entrance of the cantonment or training station, and is placed so as to be easily accessible to visitors. The buildings are like large bungalows, and are a decided ornament to the camps. They vary in size and architecture according to the varying needs, but their general plans are similar. They were designed and the interior decorations planned entirely by women. The "big room" of each house, which is a large, homelike living-room, has a large chimney, usually in the middle, where in the double fireplaces log fires burn when they are needed. There is found a parcel-checking room, a rest-room for women, and a fully-equipped nursery on the main floor of the hostess house. The rear of the building is usually devoted to a cafeteria for catering not only to the women on visiting days, but to the soldiers themselves all during the week. The upstairs is devoted to living quarters for the resident secretaries. Some of the women from the hostess house meet every arriving train to make sure that no woman is left to wander aimlessly around the camp. The commissions have asked the Travelers' Aid Society to place their representatives in the stations near the camps, and these work in coöperation with the hostess house women in assisting visitors to the camp.

On visiting days, the hostess house is filled with groups of soldiers and civilians. Some of the old army officers did not like the idea of the hostess house at first. "Send along anything you want to," they told the commissions, "but keep these women away." However, no personal hardship or discomforts can keep them away, so long as there is a chance of their seeing their men who are soon to go to the front. They come by the thousands. They come penniless, oftentimes. They come with stories of misery and want. The hostess house is a recognition of their rights to come and the hostess house is playing a large part in conserving the camp morale. The officers no less than the men are coming to look upon it as indispensable. Often now we hear from those who were loudest in objecting to the idea. They say that they are being discriminated against; that some other camp is getting a second hostess house or a special house for taking care of colored women visitors while they have only one. There will certainly never be another military post without its hostess house.

The Recreation Association of America was asked to organize the social and recreational life of the communities, adjacent to the training camps, for the benefit of the men in uniform. Working under the name of the War Camp Community Service, it has placed trained workers in two hundred towns and cities and has mobilized the hospitality of churches, clubs, lodges, and other organizations, as well as large numbers of individuals. In a word it has aroused the community to its sense of responsibility toward the men.

The civilian public comes into contact with the soldier and the sailor for the most part when they are on leave. It is this phase of their soldiering in which the commissions take the greatest interest, for their reactions to the removal of restraint are apt to be the antithesis of those under the restrictions of camp life. Discipline, character, and ideals must stand the strain of an afternoon or a week-end away from the cantonment, for on those largely depend the physical welfare of the army and navy. Thus, it is obvious that the men must have "somewhere to go." There has been a gratifying response to the demand made on the civilian population in their behalf. The towns and cities adjacent to the camps have assimilated the soldier and sailor population in a remarkably effective manner. Instead of patronage, the men have been given genuine hospitality, and they have responded in kind. That this has been brought about by a national society working along almost scientifically exact lines, is a striking commentary on the personality that may go with the efficient organization of social work. Their well-tested theories and principles had to be applied to an entirely new set of conditions.

The personal hospitality of those who have entertained the soldiers and sailors, is one of the most heartening results of the work of the commissions, for it has developed closer ties between the men and the communities and acted as a conservator of home ideals. The war camp community workers as well as the workers back of the hostess house idea have found that one of the greatest sociological needs in training camp life, is the opportunity to see and talk with women. The boys want the feminine society they were used to back home; many of them want a bit of mothering; and the people of this country are doing a great work in seeing that they get this feminine society of the right kind.

These are some of the agencies whose already organized forces are aligned by the commissions. There is hardly a civic or social organization in a war camp community or within reach of service men anywhere, that is not coöperating actively in some branch of the commissions' work.

Social Program within the Camps

But there were certain necessities that early became apparent in the completion of the program. The government wanted to send a singing army to France. From time immemorial troops have gone into battle singing. But they have not sung always in tune or as a whole. Song, even the random sort, has a powerful effect on the morale of the troops, and we began to visualize the effect of our million and a half men being trained to sing correctly and in large groups. Accordingly, we have placed trained song leaders in the national army and national guard camps, and in the naval and aviation centers, and in many smaller units. This innovation met with scepticism in certain quarters. The relationship between singing and fighting was not apparent to the more matter-of-fact, but, as I see it, no other single phase of the program has made a greater contribution to discipline. Just what is the relationship? It is too intangible a thing to be analyzed. It deals with the essence of discipline—and back of that—morale, and one must witness a "sing," where from ten to twenty thousand men lift up their voices all together, in some old familiar song that has become in a way a part of their national life, to understand its real significance. Our men are singing in France today, in groups or in units, and we have had an undeniable demonstration of the effect of music in the army and navy.

And then there was the matter of athletics which no existing organization seemed equipped to administrate in the army and navy. Educational and recreative athletics seemed vital in the development of the whole man. Athletics offers a legitimate expression for the healthy animal spirit which, when put up, will invariably assert itself in some form of lawlessness. Important as this is, the greatest function of athletics is to educate the men into better fighters. Men of skill and experience have been selected by the Commissions on Training Camp Activities, to take charge of this work. Among them are some of the foremost athletic coaches of the country.

Nearly all of the sports known to American life are carried on in the camps, and all of the men are not only permitted, but are encouraged to participate freely. A continually-growing emphasis is being placed especially in the army upon the semi-military sports. Trench-rushing, wall-scaling, grenade-throwing and boxing are all being promoted. Boxing is conducted under the advisory direction of the most eminent exponents of the art,—men calculated to arouse the enthusiasm of our fighters in the making. It is taught both as a sport and as a part of the curriculum of a soldier. I have seen a boxing instructor stand up before a group of two thousand men and put them through a series of evolutions that would later be tried out in sparring contests, and eventually be invaluable to them in hand-to-hand encounters out in no man's land, for there is a close relationship between boxing and bayonet fighting. I have also seen games of soccer in which four hundred players took part, and soccer, too, is one of the forms of sport which has a close parallel to fighting. While playing it, a man must be ready constantly to strike the ball with either foot. In this way he naturally acquires the short gait and balance that will serve him in good stead when he comes to crossing furrowed and shell-torn stretches of devastated land. It is a highly exhilarating game combining the maximum of exercise and recreation with valuable training.

Besides the better known sports, such as baseball and football, there is a great variety of games such as volley ball, push ball, medicine ball, cross-country running, tennis, fencing and swimming. Laughter-provoking games are played regularly by great numbers of soldiers and sailors. This is important, for good humor is one of the vital elements of discipline. The men get a wild sort of joy out of "swat tag," prisoner's base, duck-on-the-rock, and such childish games as promote good fellowship at the same time developing self-control, agility, mental alertness and initiative. It must not be forgotten that all this is a part of the military training. Muscle must have behind it driving force and control for the winning of battles.

Supplying the means for theatrical entertainments is an obvious part of the program which has undertaken to create a rational social life for the men. Every army camp now has its well-equipped modern liberty theatre building, and the best Broadway attractions are being booked throughout the circuit so that the men have all they would get in New York. The national army camps' theatres have a seating capacity of 2,500 to 3,000, and the national guard camps seat 1,500. The naval training stations do not have the regular liberty theatres, but they do not lack for high-class theatrical entertainment. Many of the stations have theatres that compare favorably with the best of those in large cities. Stations such as those at San Diego, Gulfport, and Hampton Roads, had buildings already provided in the exposition buildings that were already on the grounds, when the government took them over. These have been remodeled and adequately equipped for entertainment purposes. The marine barracks at Quantico, Virginia, has in its theatre scenery and a stage which are duplicates of those in Keith's Theatre at Washington. This building seats 5,000. In the marine camp at Paris Island, South Carolina, there is an auditorium seating 2,500. The station at Great Lakes has a large and complete theatre building. The only liberty theatre outside of a camp or cantonment is in Norfolk. Here, the Navy Commission has arranged to have the city armory fitted with stage and scenery. Although the theatrical situation has not been handled in the same uniform fashion as in the army camps, no naval training station has been neglected in the matter of adequate entertainment.

The government bore all of the initial expense of these theatrical buildings, but made no appropriation for the operation of the circuit. In order to raise the necessary funds for financing companies on the camp circuits, "smileage" books, exchangeable for admission to the liberty theatres or other charge entertainments in camp, were placed on sale to the public. "Smileage" sale corresponds exactly to the advance sale of theatre tickets,—good until used. The admission charge to the theatrical entertainments is usually from ten to twenty-five cents, with a few reserved seats sold for fifty cents.

The War Department Commission is doing more than entertain the soldier; it is helping him to entertain himself. Through a committee on military entertainment, dramatic directors are now being sent into the camps to train the men in organizing their own dramatic talent. Thus, with their song coaches organizing glee clubs and other musical units, the companies going over will be more self-sufficient as to their leisure time recreation. Nothing gives the men more joy than the forms of entertainment in which they themselves actively engage.

Not only the liberty theatres and other similar buildings, but the Y. M. C. A. and the Knights of Columbus halls are equipped with the latest type of production machines for giving continuous performance of moving picture shows. The War Camp Motion Picture Bureau, under direction of the commissions, has the co-operation of the National Board of Review, in the selection and censoring of the best and newest pictures from the various producers. Arrangement has been made through the Y. M. C. A. whereby films are supplied to vessels in the fleet.

STEPS TAKEN TOWARDS VICE SUPPRESSION

The young American's instinctive preference for sound and healthy occupations and recreations, has been met on every side by all this positive, constructive work. Strict repressive measures have at the same time been taken against alcohol and prostitution, and vice and the opportunities for intemperance—those factors deadly to military efficiency have been reduced to a minimum.

The Law Enforcement and the Social Hygiene Divisions of the commissions' work, have assumed the responsibility of stamping out these evils. The Law Enforcement Division solicits the coöperation of war camp communities and their various public-spirited organizations, in carrying out the special Congressional enactment for clean conditions wherever uniformed men in any numbers go to spend their off time. It also utilizes every other form of law enforcement machinery, state, federal, and military, for effectively cleaning up and keeping clean the military environs. At the instigation of the commissions, California, Arkansas, Minnesota, Texas, Virginia, and Maryland have created state welfare commissions and have appointed executive secretaries to carry on the work of vice repression.

The Law Enforcement Division has created a section to deal with the problem of the camp followers, who always spring up by the thousands in war camp communities drawn by the lure of the uniform and the stories of fabulous salaries paid. This section aims to provide safeguards for these women and girls, many of whom are forced into paths of prostitution, by the unstandardized commercial and living conditions; to aid in securing laws against prostitution and street walking; to obtain institutional care for the feeble-minded; and to provide reformatories to prevent such women having to be thrown into over-crowded and unhealthy county jails while awaiting trial. The municipalities are taking over a part of this work and making appropriations to cover the salaries of women patrols and policewomen, as well as the up-keeps of reformatories and detention houses. The responsibility is a civic one, and in some cases the city has been ready to acknowledge it as soon as the commissions have pointed out just where it lay. In other cases, the expense is being divided.

The Social Hygiene Division is educational in its function, having been created for the purpose of informing the public, both men and women, as well as army and navy, as to the necessity of combating prostitution and the resultant venereal diseases. The section devoted to the education of soldiers, sailors, and others in the service, has reached millions of men with lectures illustrated with official stereopticon slides and with informative pamphlets. The section on men's work seeks the aid of prominent citizens in bringing about local reforms, and in the revival of laws which have never been enforced, or the passing of new laws in support of the government's program against vice and liquor. The Section of Women's Work was planned to bring the women of the country to a sense of their responsibility, in the big nation-wide campaign for clean camps and clean communities.

The war is going to be won by manpower. We have profited by the experience of other nations and have reduced to that small inescapable minimum, the percentage of men placed on the ineffective list through immorality. It is no longer news that eighty-nine red light districts have been closed and the venereal disease rate of our army and navy has been reduced more than fifty per cent since the beginning of the war. These are the most obvious achievements in the conservation of manhood and manpower. In the last analysis, the whole suppressive program but prepares the way for the building up of a fighting force with such ideals as will stand the strain of the great encounter on the other side and bring them back better citizens for the experience. To make men fit for fighting—and after—is just plain efficiency plus.

MAKING THE CAMPS SAFE FOR THE ARMY

BY LIEUT. GEORGE J. ANDERSON,
Director, Section on Vice and Liquor Control, Commission on Training Camp Activities.

"I am determined that our new training camps, as well as the surrounding zones within an effective radius, shall not be places of temptation and peril."

Into these words, written six weeks after America's entry into the world conflict, the Secretary of War condensed a policy not only strikingly new in American preparations, but also in the military history of the world. They were included in a letter written on May 26 to the governors of all the states. Essentially they only gave expression to the conviction which had been previously incorporated in the legislation known as sections 12 and 13 of the Selective Draft Act. The sentence gave notice to the nation and the world that the new American Army, so far as the efforts of the War Department could be made effective, was to be in every sense morally fit for the high cause in which the United States had just enlisted. Secretary Baker further had expressed the policy in these words:

> Our responsibility in this matter is not open to question. We can not allow these young men, most of whom will have been drafted to service, to be surrounded by a vicious and demoralizing environment, nor can we leave anything undone which will protect them from unhealthy influences and crude forms of temptation. Not only have we an inescapable responsibility in this matter to the families and communities from which these young men are selected, but, from the standpoint of our duty and our determination to create an efficient army, we are bound, as a military necessity, to do everything in our power to promote the health and conserve the vitality of the men in the training camps.

The policy had not been chosen at random in the first place: as with so many other factors involved in our entry into the war, we had the benefit and the experience of our Allies and of our foes as well. Publicity has been given to the bitter lesson of one of the allied armies, which, during the first eighteen months of the war, saw more of its men out of action through the ravages of venereal disease than from all other physical causes combined. A Vienna specialist has estimated that at one time and another an equivalent of sixty Austrian divisions have been on the non-effective list for the same reason. In addition to these and many similar facts, the War Department was in possession of data gathered as a result of our own mobilization on the Mexican border in 1916. At that time each division commander had been a law to himself in the matter of the vice and liquor problems, and their policies had ranged from extreme liberality to strictest repression. The results of a comparative investigation gave unmistakable proof that the latter method insured not only the healthiest but the most effective troops. Above all were those high moral considerations, which are so tersely spoken in the Secretary's words quoted above, and which fitted so pertinently the course of an administration always hewing close to the line of practical ideals.

Into the care and keeping of the War Department Commission on Training Camp Activities, itself symbolic of the broad ideal upon which this policy was based, was entrusted the responsibility for making the wishes of the administration a reality. During the spring and summer of 1917, a small group of men specially trained in the social hygiene movement were operating in the field under the direct supervision of Mr. Raymond B. Fosdick, chairman of the commission, whose own experience with this problem had made him a peculiarly effective choice for the leadership of the commission. As the scope of the mobilization increased with the fall weeks, it was seen early in October that the work must be specially organized and enlarged. Thus was evolved the organization of the Law Enforcement Division. The appointment as its director of Bascom Johnson, who had been counsel for the American Social Hygiene Association, and who scored notable successes against commercialized vice in California, and more particularly in the wiping out of the notorious "Barbary Coast" of San Francisco, was a particularly happy and efficient one. It guaranteed a practical and yet sympathetic handling of the new policy, as yet only dimly realized by the army and scarcely at all by the public at large.

In the Surgeon General's Office, the appointment of Major William F. Snow, M. R. C., also an officer of the American Social Hygiene Association, being at that time its executive secretary, to be in charge of the Section on Combating Venereal Diseases, had laid the ground work for extensive army coöperation. Through his efforts, a group of lieutenants in the Sanitary Corps were commissioned and sent out into the field in the vicinity of thirty-two cantonments. Under the direction of Major Johnson, they began a systematic and fruitful campaign; first, to secure the stimulation of law enforcement against both prostitution and the illegal liquor traffic, and, second, to study the medical aspects of the problems so far as the army was involved.

To this end they worked with every possible agency and utilized every available weapon, federal, state, county, municipal and military. They acted primarily neither as vice investigators nor as prosecuting assistants, though able to assume either function temporarily should the occasion require, but devoted their energy to securing results through designated officials, and to keeping the War Department informed of the conditions prevailing in their territory. Moreover, they acted as especially effective evangelists for the new gospel of civic decency and military efficiency involved in the policy which they were sent out to execute. So effectively have they operated that, at the present time in more than two hundred cities of the United States, the officials are actively coöperating in the most drastic methods of vice suppression, and, in many instances, in methods which were directly contrary not only to the long established habit of the community but to the private convictions of the citizens themselves. Such is the power of patriotism wedded to the ideal of a great cause.

THE DRIVE ON ALCOHOL

I wish to discuss first the lesser of the two evils, prostitution and alcoholism, so far as the military viewpoint is concerned. The liquor problem had been considered in the enactment of the now famous Section 12 already referred to. After several subsequent revisions, each of which only drew the regulations more tightly, the act provides essentially the following: A dry zone of five miles around every military camp, where two hundred and fifty or more men are being trained for a period of thirty days or longer, except that within the limits of incorporated cities and towns, the zone is made one-half mile, and further that it shall be an offence not merely to sell, but to give liquor to members of the military forces within the United States or its possessions, even in private homes.

In this way, the civilian offender or agent was taken care of. Within the military régime, the soldier who was found under the influence or in the possession of liquor was subject to the usual discipline of the army, and, in addition, it was later provided that if he were a party, even as purchaser, to transactions which Section 12 sought to prevent, he was also liable to court-martial. With the pressure thus made heavy, both from within and without, the crusade to protect the new army from the effects of alcoholism progressed. So far as it is a health problem, the sentiment against liquor has for a long time been more or less pronounced in the army. Medical officers, whose opinions and attitude on prostitution may have been somewhat antiquated, were quite definitely opposed to the effects of an evil, which, in their minds, rendered the subject not only less fit for military duty, but even more definitely exposed to the ravages of venereal disease.

The representatives of the Law Enforcement Division, however, did not stop merely with the use of Section 12 and its enforcement through the Department of Justice. They invoked every local reïnforcement which existed on the statute books against illegal liquor selling, in some instances providing penalties even more severe than the federal act, and, if necessary, sought to add still more effective legislation, both state and municipal. In this sense, the prohibitive effort has had no more powerful ally than patriotism and the appeal to "protect the boys in the service."

A few concrete illustrations will show the lengths to which some communities have gone to make good their assurances in this regard and to place the welfare of the army above the immediate desires or interests of the citizens. In Texas, for example, a special legislative session placed around every camp an absolutely dry zone of ten miles with no exceptions for cities and towns. When it is realized that this involved the welfare of over a quarter million troops and over forty military points, it will be seen that the later passage of the state-wide prohibition act was almost reduced to a generous superfluity. Louisiana followed the same example with a twenty-five mile zone around its single cantonment at Camp Beauregard. In addition to state-wide actions of this sort, there have been many effective local methods of defeating the "boot-legger." In some cities the liquor dealers, either by voluntary agreement or by municipal ordinance, have forbidden the sale of any liquor in packages to be consumed off the premises. Hotels have voluntarily suppressed the sale of alcoholic beverages above the main floor. In the best cafés liquors are not served at tables where members of the military forces are seated, even though they may be accompanied by civilians. And all over the country the life of the "boot-legger,"—that surreptitious outlaw of the alley and dark corner, who has been naturally the chief source of supply,—has been made miserable under the combined assault of all sets of authorities, federal, state, local and military.

So the unrelenting crusade has gone on. It has not achieved the impossible, but it has scored an undeniable success. Statistically and otherwise it has demonstrated that prohibition can prohibit, if applied continuously, and without fear or favor. In some of the largest commands, the arrests for drunkenness have been reduced almost to the vanishing point; in short, the results upon the whole have justified the following comment by an editorial writer in the *Military Surgeon*:

> If this war has proved anything, it is that prohibition in the hands of military authorities can be, and has been, enforced. Since the civil authorities realised that the Army proposed to carry out the extra cantonment zone law against liquor and corruption, alcoholism and its results have practically ceased to be a depressing factor in army health and army discipline. A drunken soldier is rarely seen, and alcoholism assumes a steadily dwindling importance in medical statistics.[1]

THE ANCIENT AND UNNECESSARY EVIL

Coming now to the main point of attack, prostitution and the evils of commercialized vice, we face a much more difficult and much more universal problem. The foes, attacked by the War Department policy which I am discussing, are analogous to the two main enemies across the sea. Alcoholism and prostitution stand somewhat in the relation to each other of Austria and Germany, both powerful and dangerous, but the one far less capable of prolonged resistance than the other. With the liquor traffic practically out of the way, as in some southern states where prohibition was in effect even before the war, prostitution had entrenched itself behind strong barriers of custom, prejudice, politics and illicit gain. Moreover, lust for women is a much more universal and more intense appetite than the craving for alcohol, and while the latter is undoubtedly a stimulation both individually and commercially to prostitution, its removal in no wise defeats, though it may weaken, the forces of commercialized vice. Some of the most difficult situations with which we have had to contend in the latter respect have been in the "dry" community where vice defences have been built up over a long period of general patronage.

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[1] Even more illuminating is this comment quoted from a report of the Judge Advocate General of the Army, making an analysis of recent courts-martial:

"A comparison of the part that drunkenness played in the criminal statistics of the Army during the first three months of this year as compared with the first three months of the war in 1917 shows a decrease in the number of crimes involving drunkenness. During the first three months of the war 5.31 per cent of the men who were tried by general court-martial were tried for offenses involving drunkenness, and during the first three months of this current year this percentage dropped to 2.71. In other words, proportionately only about one-half as many men are now being tried for offenses involving drunkenness as were tried for similar offenses a year ago."

The local viewpoint on this crusade may be deduced from the following excerpt from *The Post* of Houston, Texas, a city where the conditions in February last were such as to be largely in mind when the War Department applied to the Governor of Texas for remedial action:

"Is it really dry in Houston?" asks the inquisitive subscriber of Wharton. "Dry? Say, it is so dry that when a Houston man gets out of his bath, instead of using towels to dry himself he merely dusts himself with a whisk broom."

When the battle line on this front is surveyed after a year's conflict, the results are little short of amazing. In brief, during the past twelve months and more, parts of the United States have undergone what is tantamount to a social revolution in this respect. Old things have passed away, giving place to new. And as regards the vile business itself, prostitution has steadily undergone such rapid changes that constant readjustment in the lines of attack is necessary to meet the new conditions presented by those foes of military efficiency and public welfare, the prostitute, the pimp and the procurer.

When the department launched its forces against the problem last year, prostitution, particularly in the area where the majority of the troops were mobilized, was definitely established on three main lines—the segregated, or so-called red light, district; the scattered house of ill-fame in its various forms of parlor houses, call-in flats, assignation houses and the like, and the street-walking or clandestine woman.

The first line of defence, as it may be called, namely, the red light districts, was carried with a rush under the operation of Section 13 of the Selective Service Act, a companion weapon to Section 12. This legislation authorizes the Secretary of War to prohibit not only all such areas publicly or tacitly set aside for prostitution, but all scattered resorts within an absolute ten mile zone of every military establishment. At the time of this writing, the first of August, ninety-one red light districts alone have been wiped out of existence through representatives of the Law Enforcement Division acting in coöperation with the Department of Justice. It should be added, however, that a large proportion of these have been abolished simply by local action after the request or pressure had come from representatives of the War Department. Some have been located nearly one hundred miles from a military camp and have been suppressed in response to the argument that the community was a point in transit for troops, and that its existence imperiled not merely their welfare but the health of the young men not yet summoned to the new National Army. Even that Gibraltar of commercialized vice, notorious not only on this continent but abroad, the New Orleans district, which comprised twenty-four solid blocks given over to human degradation and lust and housing six to eight hundred women, has gone down with the rest.

As a result of these successes it may be stated that there is not now in the United States a red light district within the effective radius of any military establishment. More than that, the district itself has become an anachronism in American life, and the so-called segregation policy has been to all intents and purposes laid away in its burial shroud. Such is the victory of moral and military efficiency over the most brazen expression and dangerous form of commercialized vice.

The assault on prostitution's second line of defence has been almost as successful. Of course no such sweeping statement can be made in regard to the scattered resorts as applies to the red light districts, but in the camp communities, at least, their operation has become so dangerous and unprofitable an enterprise that it has been well-nigh abandoned in the retreat toward the third and most easily defended entrenchments.

The single clandestine prostitute, moving secretly from city to city and even changing her residence with significant frequency in each city, is now the main source of infection. Hotel appointments, made through the agency of porters and bell-boys, and automobile excursions into the countryside with the chauffeur acting as go-between, now represent the bulk of her business. It is to outwit these unscrupulous partners that the later methods of fighting commercialized vice have been generally devised. Ordinances and statutes providing the severest penalties especially for those who act as procurers and go-betweens, and the use of both military and civil police with motorcycles and automobiles have increasingly served, though they cannot suppress the traffic entirely, to keep it at a significant minimum. The owners and keepers of hotels and rooming houses, who permit their premises to be used for assignation purposes, have been reached through the use of the now widely enacted injunction and abatement laws, and through special ordinances directed at the licensing of these establishments. In other words, the heavy hand of civil and military law has been felt not simply by the wandering delinquent, who sells her body for hire, but by all those who seek to profit from her wretched and difficult gain. In no respect, perhaps, has the suppression policy more strikingly vindicated itself than in its successful and repeated assaults against the secret salients of the clandestine scarlet woman.

Reconstruction as Well as Destruction

So far I have described the purely destructive aspects of our warfare against vice and alcoholism. Out of its victories have come, however, the more attractive and more constructive services which are described in other pages. In the spring of this year, the work of the then-called Law Enforcement Division was entrusted to a subdivision under the name of the Section on Vice and Liquor Control, to which were added the Section on Women and Girls and the Section on Reformatories and Detention Houses, all three united to form the new and enlarged Law Enforcement Division, under the general direction of Major Bascom Johnson. Together they have moved forward to present a united and coherent front, which provides not merely for the drastic suppression of the offence, but the humane and sympathetic up-building of the offender.

In this work the Law Enforcement Division has had the invaluable support of the Surgeon General's Office and the Public Health Service, and all have moved on together toward the partial solution, at least, of a problem which men for centuries have either been so content, indifferent, or eager as to term insoluble. We hear very seldom now the old familiar phrases of "the necessary evil," or "changing human nature," or "turning back the history of six thousand years." In short, numbers of these same contented or indifferent citizens have come to understand that this great plague was evil, but not necessary; that humanity and not nature must be changed; and that in this regard, at least, the history of six thousand years is a long roll of error from which we now turn away to better things.

In offering a statement of this kind, it is only fair to respond to the natural demand for results which is dear to every Yankee heart. As evidence of our victories the venereal rate decreased 50 per cent for the American Army, and is the lowest known in the military history of the world. We can provide from the prophylactic statistics even more striking evidence of 50 per cent decrease in the exposures to infection within a month after law enforcement measures have been instituted in such widely separated and socially different communities as San Francisco, California; Des Moines, Iowa; Jacksonville, Florida. We offer further the even more convincing testimony,—an army that, generally speaking, goes forth to battle conscious of its own cleanliness and decency.

What I have written is only a small chapter in the by-products which have come out of the terrible and yet magnificent production of a nation equipping itself for war. Yet if we had done nothing more than to send across the seas to the aid of our Allies the cleanest army the world has ever seen, a host of fighting men who have been trained in an atmosphere true to the highest ideals of American life, we have proved ourselves fit to fight for the preservation of democracy. For if democracy has not made a man respect his own body, mind and soul, and that of his countrymen, be they man or woman, it has failed. And if it has instilled even the first seeds of this physical and spiritual self-respect, it has succeeded according to its truest tests.

WORK AMONG DELINQUENT WOMEN AND GIRLS

By Henrietta S. Additon,
Assistant Director, Section on Women and Girls, Law Enforcement Division, W. C. T. C. A.

"For the benefit of those who have forfeited their claims to the respect of the virtuous," reads the charter of a home for girls in one of our large eastern cities.

A well-known social worker describes case work as the art of making clear to the individual the nature of the predicament and what that predicament involves. It continues by showing a way or ways out of the trouble and it concludes by appealing to the motive that will help the person decide to master his predicament and carry out that decision. Until very recently case work as thus described could not possibly have been done for girls who had "lost their virtue" in a community composed largely of the virtuous. Only too well the "fallen women" were made to realize the nature of their predicament; there was no possible way out, for had they not "forfeited their claims," and no amount of motivation on the part of the social worker or good intention on the part of one who had "lost her honor" could find it for her. The inevitable followed, the "ruined girl" soon became a prostitute. Social agencies with case work standards evaded these cases where the way out was so very obscure, and the institutions to which she was referred were usually, like the one whose charter is quoted above, well-meaning; but smugly self-righteous, content to afford the girl shelter while the enormity of her offense was impressed upon her.

Of late years there has been a movement directed toward the prevention of sex offenses on the part of girls. Numerous national organizations, as well as local agencies in many places, are doing excellent work with girls who have not yet crossed the dead line, but once a girl has had sex experience she is rigidly excluded by them all.

But the girl problem has assumed a totally different aspect with the coming of the war. The concentration of a large number of young men in comparatively few places, the tendency of women to flock to the camp towns, the danger of the rapid spread of venereal disease, the unsettled social conditions in these towns, all contributed to force the government into this much shunned field of social work.

A Committee on Protective Work for Girls was appointed in September, 1917, by Mr. Raymond B. Fosdick, chairman of the War and Navy Departments Commission on Training Camp Activities. The original idea was to throw such safeguards around young girls as would prevent later delinquency. After six months of purely protective work it was found that the serious problem of the camp cities consisted in the already delinquent women and girls.

In April, 1918, the policy was changed and the Section on Women and Girls of the Law Enforcement Division was organized with Mrs. Jane Deeter Rippin in charge, and the section now concentrates on work with women and girls who are sex offenders. Eight supervisors have been appointed for the supervision and extension of this work. Under their direction are placed fixed post workers near the National Army and National Guard camps, Naval Training camps and stations, aviation camps, and in cities where a large number of troops are stationed. Trained women with previous experience in social work have been chosen for these positions.

The Section on Vice and Liquor Control (described elsewhere in this volume), of the Law Enforcement Division of the Commission on Training Camp Activities, has a local representative in every large city. The fixed post worker from the Section on Women and Girls aids him in securing the enforcement of laws against street walking and prostitution, especially assisting in preparation for the prosecution of these cases. When an arrest is made the woman in the case is turned over to her. If possible, an investigation is made before the case is heard in court so that the judge can base his decision on the needs of the particular case. Without this information his decision neither affords protection for society nor reformative treatment for the girl. Much education of judges is needed, but there are a few who are willing to go into these cases deeply and thoroughly, and many others are teachable. Recently a girl of twenty-two was arrested for prostitution in a southern camp town. She claimed to have a father and mother in Indiana and said they would be glad to take her home. The fixed post worker asked that the girl be held until her family could be heard from and some plan made for the future. But the girl was appealing in her tears, so the judge suspended the sentence and told her to go home. About ten days after leaving she wrote a friend in the local jail that she had earned fifty dollars on her way north. There were a number of soldiers on her train which was held up by a wreck. While waiting, she had gone to walk with the soldiers. There is no way of estimating how many may have been infected by her. The judge was shown this letter, as well as the attempt to reach her parents which was returned, marked "unable to locate." It was costly but effective education for him.

The Section on Women and Girls assists the Public Health Service in its campaign against venereal disease. Where there is a venereal clinic or any provision for an examination, it is insisted that every girl arrested for a sex offense be examined for venereal disease. In many places there were no facilities for making these examinations and complete reporting to Washington has only recently been organized. Partial reports show that of 5,280 cases of women and girls worked with during the period from October 1 to June 1, 1,118 had venereal disease. How many soldiers and sailors had been infected by each girl it is impossible to estimate, but there is daily evidence that one such woman is a source of danger to hundreds of soldiers. One girl of eighteen was arrested with several soldiers. It was found that her husband who owned an automobile had been taking soldiers to the woods outside of town to meet her. She kept none of the money she received but turned it all over to him. No way of escape seemed possible to her, and her joy at being arrested was pathetic. She was found to be in a badly diseased condition and is under treatment.

It would be impossible to apprehend all the diseased women in the country and lock them up, and even if this were done other prostitutes would doubtless take their places, who would soon become infected. If we are to accomplish anything, we must be able to establish new habits of thought in the minds of these and other women. The peculiar charm and glamour which surrounds the man in uniform causes an unusual type of prostitute to spring up in time of war. Girls idealize the soldier and many really feel that nothing is wrong when done for him. One such girl said that she had never sold herself to a civilian but she felt she was doing her bit when she had been with eight soldiers in a night.

The girls around the large aviation fields in Texas have frequently been heard to say, "I'll do anything these boys ask me to. Don't they face death every day for us?" These girls must be made to realize the dangers that lie in sexual excess to the aviator who must have a clear eye, a steady hand and good nerve. Anyone who has done juvenile court work knows that the worst "bad boy" responds when asked to protect or assume responsibility for others. Any of this instinct which may be lying dormant in these women must be appealed to and developed. The strongest element in social case work is motivation. We must give to these women and girls some desire to make good. The best social worker is the one who knows what motive to use in a particular situation and, as pointed out above, there is no field of social work which calls for more resourcefulness, imagination, optimism, and for more individualization than does work with the prostitute.

But all of our sex offenders are not prostitutes, as that term is generally understood. There is the so-called "charity girl"—the girl who goes with the soldier in return for dinners, automobile rides or any present he may give her. She receives no money. In some cases she is the daughter of a well-to-do family. In many others she is the wife of a man who works at night, or is often away from home. She is usually promiscuous and, therefore, usually diseased. Not until increased facilities are available for the physical examination and treatment of diseased girls, and until accurate records are kept, will the truth about the real extent of venereal disease be known.

The most effective personal work among this type of delinquents is that done with the girl who has committed her first sex offense. Young girls are flocking to our camp towns, attracted by the khaki, as well as by stories of the need for workers and the fabulous salaries paid them. They usually find the cost of living is far higher than the salaries paid unskilled workers. Away from home, they live in unattractive rooms, eat cheap insufficient food, and have little money left for recreation, yet many fight on day after day to keep their foothold upon the ladder of respectability. Is it any wonder that the desire for a few of the good things of life proves too much for some of them? When this occurs, if the girl can be reached at once she may be saved from a life of prostitution.

In towns where there is an existing social agency equipped to do intelligent case work with these girls they are referred to it at once. Where there is no such agency the fixed post worker does this personal work herself. If a girl has a proper home she is sent back to it. If not, all the resources of occupation, education, health, recreation and religion in the community are brought into play. When an older woman can be found who is willing to take a personal interest in just one such girl, more can be accomplished than in almost any other way. Too much of this work has been attempted in a wholesale fashion.

One thing that has tended to make our work with delinquent girls and women so discouraging is that in most places there have been no facilities for separating the feeble-minded from the normal. Much of our best effort has been put into trying to make mental defectives act like normal human beings, and when this miracle could not be wrought we grew discouraged with the whole project. We should have competent psychologists and institutions for the feeble-minded available in every locality. Because of the lack of these facilities the Committee on Protective Work for Girls received reports on only 88 girls examined for their mental condition during six months: 42 of these were found to be definitely feeble-minded.

Although there have been many sensational stories regarding the large number of pregnant girls who claim soldiers and sailors as fathers of their children, thorough investigations have shown that they are usually based on the experience of one or two girls in the community. Among the 177 illegitimate births reported from camp cities, there are only 84 in which soldiers or sailors in the service are known to be responsible.

Our work is organized primarily for the benefit of the soldier and sailor, to help keep "clean and wholesome the environs of their camps," but we must not forget our duty towards those women and girls who are making this task difficult. All sorts of environmental factors may have entered into their delinquency—poverty, improper parental oversight, bad companions, defective education, uncongenial vocation, bad housing and harmful neighborhood influences. In many cases the physical and mental condition of the offender has been affected by heredity. Now that these facts are recognized, crime has become as much a matter of social responsibility as illiteracy. If, as many people feel, women enter upon the career of prostitution from deliberate choice, there must have been plenty of occupational and recreational opportunity which would have proved interesting. The histories of these girls show that often the cards are hopelessly stacked against them. We read that

"Alwell W., 20 years old, is a rude, unattractive girl, who uses vile language. She has been living an immoral life for three or four years, has been arrested many times and is considered by the police a hardened character. Says she enjoys her life and wouldn't change for anything." Certainly here seems to be a girl who deserves condemnation, but when we look further we discover these two significant facts in her career. She never went to school a day in her life and she started work in a cotton mill at the age of twelve. Equipped with no education and with childhood memories of long days spent in a cotton mill, should we be shocked at her choice of a life of prostitution?

Nora R., 16, is both deaf and dumb; her mother, who ran a house in the red light district for years, got Nora drunk and forced her to have intercourse with the first man she was ever with. She has a sister who is a prostitute and another on the burlesque stage.

Alina S., 19, left school at ten and started to work in a mill. Said she was tired of working and wanted to make money easily.

Bessie F., 17, prostitute. Family ignorant and low type. Step-father lazy, shiftless, drunkard, who neglects and abuses step-children.

Then there is Marie who has been arrested about twenty-five times in the last two years. She is considered a common prostitute and a very troublesome one at that. But somehow, judgment of this enemy of society softens when we learn she is only 13 years old now, that she began work in a factory when she was nine, and that it was after two years of toil that she preferred a life of prostitution. These are typical cases.

Such of the sections records as are now available show that 6 girls began work at 8 years of age, 16 at 9, 20 at 10, 18 at 11, 44 at 12, 56 at 13, 84 at 14; that 44 never went to school; 7 left school at 8, 18 at 9, 23 at 10, 27 at 11, 42 at 12, 70 at 13 and 99 at 14; 18 girls stated they had had sex experience from their earliest recollections, 2 at the age of 7, 3 at 9, 6 at 10, 7 at 11, 18 at 12, 36 at 13 and 42 at 14.

We have not yet attempted to correlate these three sets of facts or to find out what percentages they constitute of the total number of girls that have come to our attention. The figures are significant because they represent happenings that no community should tolerate even in a single instance.

The personal or case worker is often accused of simply patching things up for an individual without in any way changing the conditions that brought about his undoing. On the other hand, it is said of the social reformer that while he is thinking of and planning for a future utopia, he neglects the people who are suffering at his door. The Section on Women and Girls is trying to combine in one person the case worker and the social reformer. In places where these matters have never been thought of before from the community standpoint, her knowledge, accumulated by contact with a series of cases, often proves a revelation, and is the beginning of a movement towards community action. Where there are competent people to handle the case work she devotes all of her time to developing and perfecting the social machinery. As a result of these efforts travelers' aid workers, policewomen and additional probation officers have been secured in many places.

Where possible, local committees are organized to direct the work. Care is taken to choose representative women whose reputations warrant confidence in any movement which they support. Girls' conferences, composed of trained workers with women and girls, meeting with these committees have had very good results. In one such conference the earnestness and sincerity, the freshness of vision shown by some of its members, previously untrained in social work, proved an inspiration to the professional social workers.

Volunteers are being trained in every town to do patrol work. Dance halls, moving picture and cheap burlesque theatres, parks and similar places of amusement are visited regularly and reports of conditions found are sent to Washington, special note being made of the violation of any law or ordinance, the presence of prostitutes, the character of entertainment offered and the general behavior of the people who frequent these places. The conditions in many dance halls were found to be unwholesome, to say the least, as many licentious forms of dancing were common. On the whole, the dance hall managers have been quite willing to help change these conditions when they found someone interested enough to point them out. Quite a few of them are now paying women, approved by the commission's local representative, to supervise their dance halls. Better lighting and policing of parks has also been secured in many places.

The need in almost every camp community for detention places where there is segregation of different classes of offenders and provision for physical examination and care, the necessity of having more women and girls committed to institutions for long periods of time, and the lack of reformatories where proper training could be provided, led to the creation of the Section on Detention Homes and Reformatories of the Law Enforcement Division, and plans are now under way to secure the necessary provisions as quickly as possible.

These activities are all being carried on under the direction of the War Commission on Training Camp Activities and is called war work, but it cannot end with the war. The women who are learning now the relation of prostitution and venereal disease to the welfare of their sons and husbands in the training camps will not forget that lesson when the war is over. They can never again accept philosophically what they formerly had shut their eyes to as a necessary evil. These women have heard for the first time the word "prostitution" spoken aloud, they have taken part in public meetings where the subject of commercialized vice has been discussed, and they have heard venereal disease compared to small-pox. Will they permit the resurrection of the restricted vice district?

In its leadership of this new attack on the old problem, the Section on Women and Girls hopes to be able to gather such complete information on each one of these cases that it will be able to isolate a few of the causes, and to find effective remedies and to promote a program for the intelligent and widespread application of treatment. In some instances community action may be necessary in suppressing commercialized vice and the exploitation of children in industry, or in the promoting of public recreation and vocational education. In some instances provision will be necessary for taking an interest in sex offenders, case by case, and studying each one to see what individual weaknesses and defects each presents, and to correct each one in the best possible way.

As a foundation for such study the records of the Section on Women and Girls will in the future tell the story of every girl who comes to them, her age, married at what age, her educational and work history, with whom living, recreations, physical and mental condition, age at first sex experience, reason for court history, men involved, final results; these and many other facts that bear on the case.

The reports from the towns contain the population, kind of industries, and wages paid, number of churches, the clubs which have some influence on the social life of the town; the legitimate opportunities for recreation offered; the character of the places of amusement such as dance halls, theatres and parks; the number of saloons; and the violation of the white slave act and marriage of very young girls. Everything that can throw any light on the problem of prostitution is noted.

The War and Navy Departments are a unit in their determination to have a clean army and navy, and to use federal authority to wake up those complacent communities which are willing to see exploited the weaknesses of men and women. For the first time in our history, men in power are sufficiently interested and sympathetic to furnish legislative authority, money and moral support for the realization of ideals so long unheld by people with social vision.

With the responsibility placed squarely on the public where it belongs, and with precedent thus clearly established, may we not look forward to the elimination of at least the grosser forms of vice, within our own generation?

THE SEGREGATION OF DELINQUENT WOMEN AND GIRLS AS A WAR PROBLEM

By Mrs. Martha P. Falconer,

Director, Section on Reformatories and Houses of Detention for Women and Girls, Commission on Training Camp Activities.

It has been suggested that the federal government establish four large institutions of industrial training, to be located respectively in the north, central, southern and western sections of the United States, in which to hold, for the period of the war, all girls and women who can be proven in federal court to be a menace to the men in training. At first thought such a drastic, summary measure seems admirable at this time when the country's need requires the greatest possible speed in securing military efficiency.

But setting aside the practical difficulties involved in executing such a plan and dismissing the question of its value socially, the problem of delinquency among women and girls, which we face today as menacing our military strength, is a problem which our awakening social conscience must face, in a lessened degree, in times of peace. So it has seemed to this section that the greatest program that can be developed is one that not only meets the immediate need, but at the same time is so established that it can be continued as a permanent program.

Eventually, and permanently, each state must make regulations and provisions for the solution of the problem of delinquency of women and girls. At present few of the southern states, where the large majority of the training camps are located, have any program for such work. The War Department has established a system of law enforcement to protect the health and morals of our men in training, but the program can never be worked out effectively unless laws can be established for holding women on long-term sentence, and suitable places be provided for their custody and training. If the women and girls who are arrested and convicted of prostitution or vagrancy are simply given a small fine and allowed to go, it means they go back to the same life which caused their arrest. And actually, little has been accomplished.

The work must be developed in two ways. Legal machinery must be established whereby girls and women can be held on long-term sentence, and standardized institutions must be provided for their care. Representatives of the Law Enforcement Division of the Commission, and local committees and individuals in cantonment cities and states have been active in arousing public sentiment, and in preparing bills to be introduced in the state legislature and ordinances in the city council. It is the work of the Section on Reformatories and Houses of Detention for Women and Girls to develop and standardize suitable places of commitment. The principles underlying both kinds of work, and the accomplishments effected, should be the foundation of continued, permanent work in the care of delinquent women and girls.

Thus to meet the need soundly and scientifically there must be available a house of detention, or "clearing" house, where all young women and girls arrested, with the exception of hardened prostitutes and "repeaters," can be held while awaiting trial instead of being held for trial in jail. Here, under careful management, receiving medical treatment when necessary, a careful study can be made of each individual case, including physical and mental tests, and a plan recommended to the judge. Frequently the services of the army psychologist, or of the psychologist in a neighboring educational institution can be secured to make a study of the cases. Not every girl arrested on the charge of being a prostitute or vagrant should be given a jail sentence, or sent to a reformatory. There is no single type of camp-follower. With a good house of detention, actively functioning as a "clearing" house, it will be found that varied treatment should be recommended. There are silly, young run-away girls who should be sent home; feeble-minded girls and women who should have permanent custodial care; and, in the majority, it is true, untrained, neurotic, irresponsible girls on the verge of drifting into a life of prostitution, who should have industrial training in an institution located in the country where there is abundant opportunity for outdoor work.

Alarming reports which have been circulated as to the great increase in illegitimate births due to men in training are untrue. But there has developed a very great problem in the number of child marriages. Young girls in their teens have been married to one, two or three soldiers. The problem is complicated by the fact that in some states a girl by the act of marrying becomes no longer a minor.

A detention house should never be a place of long-term commitment, nor should its use for the detention of juveniles be combined with its use for girls and young women. Its single purpose should be to serve as a clearing house, and that will be hampered if the work is complicated by a resident population, or by the difficulties of discipline caused by housing small children with older girls and women most of whom are sexual offenders.

With the idea of establishing an efficient program most quickly, and in view of the difficulty of obtaining labor and building materials at the present time, wherever possible we have urged the use of reconstructed old buildings rather than the attempt to build anew. A number of cities have established admirable houses of detention in old buildings—in school buildings or former houses of prostitution. A detention house need not be developed with an idea of permanence in view, as it is not an institution for commitment but a clearing house, and with the development of new conditions the kind of house adapted to the purpose may change.

For that matter we have been glad to give government approval of the newer development in the ideas of institutional buildings. There has been a healthy reaction against very expensive permanent buildings. While the work of this section has been to develop and standardize facilities for the care of delinquent women and girls, in no way has it been its policy to build impressive buildings but rather to aid local or state enterprise in securing suitable, yet simple, buildings, and to standardize by regulation of the governing boards or committees the care and training furnished by the institution.

Places of long-term commitment for women and girls should be state institutions. But at present in some states practically nothing has been done in work for women and girls, and to meet the present need sentiment has to be aroused in the cantonment cities for some local provision for the care of older women, pending state action, and audience for girls' cases has to be sought in federal court for commitment to an institution in a northern state.

This latter manner of procedure has been followed to a considerable extent in South Carolina. The federal judge has sent a number of girls found to be a menace to the men in training to a reformatory in the north. In the meantime, the State Industrial School, with federal aid, is being established. To some extent this has been done elsewhere, and there are a number of good industrial training schools in different northern states that are able and willing to receive girls sent from the cantonment districts by the federal judges.

City farms are being developed by a number of cantonment cities in states where there are no reformatories for women, as a local provision for the care of older women. A city farm, if properly developed and conducted on a considerable acreage, will serve as a detention hospital for women found infected with venereal disease, and also as a place of long-term commitment for prostitutes who are not diseased, and for other women offenders. By long-term commitment we understand at least six months or a year. This is not as long as is desirable, but in many cases it is all that can be obtained from a court.

The location of the farm must be sufficiently isolated that the danger of troublesome outside intrusion will be minimized. But entirely to secure the institution from trouble-makers, and for the effective custody of some of the difficult women, potential guards in the person of farm help should be employed. During the period of adjustment it may be well to secure military guard to insure against trouble from the outside, as well as to avoid the possibility of disturbance from within. Everywhere delinquent women and girls must be made to feel that the government is interested in them, to come down harder and harder upon them as they prove a menace to our efficiency, and the program we offer must be constructive but firm, and must reveal the distinction between a reasonable amount of freedom and an opportunity for license. When such great demands are being made upon us all, to work or fight, there is no reason why this class of women should be allowed to be in idleness. The prejudice which exists in the south against women's engaging in manual labor makes this point sometimes rather difficult to establish.

These farms must be located on sufficiently tillable areas to permit the women to engage in agricultural work, as outdoor work furnishes so great an opportunity for rehabilitation of character and because our country at the present time is in need of further agricultural development. There must always be a woman superintendent in charge of all the women committed to the farm, including their work, recreation, daily household provision and discipline. She must have the power to employ and discharge her co-workers, and must be responsible solely to a mixed board, or committee of interested representative citizens, who have the entire management of the farm and who select the superintendent. A program of work and recreation, to include agricultural work, must be established for the women, that there may be some restoration of character accomplished with physical rehabilitation.

Such farms, which include detention hospitals, are needed at once and again our policy has been to secure, if possible, land with some buildings on it which can be repaired and converted into the necessary equipment. One city has bought an old automobile club house for its city farm building for women.

Many of the southern states have passed excellent state health laws providing for the custody and medical treatment of women found suffering with venereal disease during the period of infection. But unless this regulation is accompanied by laws for long-term commitment to an institution of training, which will provide, upon dismissal, "follow-up" or parole care, the good accomplished is to only a very small degree permanent. There have been excellent detention hospitals established. They are scientifically conducted as hospitals, are clean, and the women and girls show good spirit.

In conversation they individually assure you, "Sure, I've had my lesson. When I get out I'm going to get a job and stick to it!" But unfortunately facts prove that in many cases when a girl goes out after thirty days' intensive treatment with instructions for the next six months, it is but to return within possibly the following month. The city of New Orleans has been operating an admirable detention hospital for several months. In that time one girl has been enrolled as a patient four times. This is no fault of the hospital. It has done its work well. But the state of Louisiana, or the city of New Orleans, supplies no legal means by which these girls and women can be held beyond the period of infection, nor is there as yet any suitable institution to which they can be sent, or any established social service work to follow up cases after they leave the hospital.

Modern reformatories for women and girls, which, as separate institutions, should exist in every state, should be developed as industrial schools or colonies located on a farm in the country. In some states where there are good state reformatories the entire problem of the care of delinquent girls and women in this unusual time has been handled through these established channels. Girls under eighteen should be committed for the remainder of their minority, with the idea of parole after two years' training in the school. Women should be given, if possible, an indeterminate sentence involving long-term parole. This is necessary if a complete program of rehabilitation and training is to be effected to supplement the plans for medical treatment which are being pushed by the Public Health Service.

The institutions must be in the hands of women, for it is a woman's job to work with women, and the women and girls committed have frequently seen a great deal of the wrong kind of men and very little of the right kind of women. Agricultural work must be developed as a feature of the place for its rehabilitating and economic value. Fundamental academic school work must be given in a school which it is possible for each woman or girl to attend some time during the day. There must be sewing, handwork, and a complete course of training in the domestic work involved in the conduct of a house,—including the laundry work. All of the work involved in the up-keep of the institution should be done by the women and girls under direction, as far as possible, for this develops a sense of responsibility that nothing else can. The humanizing and socializing effect of good music cannot be overemphasized. The power of group-singing has been strikingly proved by the work of the camp song leaders.

Group consciousness and a sense of the individual's relation to the morale of the community can often be developed by a carefully guided system of self-government. High types of women are willing to undertake institutional work with delinquent women and girls provided the life and spirit of the place be held at a sufficiently high level. Frequently college women will employ their excellent training in this work, and prove valuable aids in guiding a self-government system.

Everywhere there is forced upon us a growing realization of the menace of the immoral colored girls and women, and the difficulties in many of the states of arousing public sentiment to make provision for their care. Virginia is the only state which has a reformatory for colored girls alone. Of course in many states they are handled in the same institution as the white girls. But in a number of states there is nothing save a short jail sentence spent in idleness in unspeakable surroundings. It has been a part of the policy in this section to meet whenever possible with groups of interested negro citizens in the different cantonment cities and to urge them to plan and make some start in work for their women and girls that can later be taken over by the state. And we have sought to force upon white citizens realization of the fact that the problem of the immoral colored girls and women directly affects them, and is theirs to face as much as it is for the colored themselves.

Everywhere we have received splendid coöperation of state and city officials. The work of the section has of necessity progressed only as has the work of local and federal law enforcement. Its work is to develop and standardize institutions for the care of girls and women who are a menace to our men in training, but it aims to work in effecting this war program, so that the effort and money expended will contribute towards the establishment of an effective, permanent program for the care of delinquent women and girls.

WOMEN'S EDUCATION IN SOCIAL HYGIENE

BY KATHARINE BEMENT DAVIS,
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The Section on Women's Work of the Social Hygiene Division of the Commission on Training Camp Activities was created because of the recognition of the fact that no problem which involves a setting of moral standards can ever be solved without the coöperation of both halves of the community which is concerned. For generations, women have thought that however unpalatable it might be, a double standard of morals, so far as sex relationships are concerned, was inevitable. They have been taught to believe that sexual indulgence was necessary to preserve the health of men; that a young man is more or less expected to sow his wild oats, be forgiven, marry a "pure" girl and settle down to a family life.

With women it was different. They have always been expected to be chaste up to the time of their marriage. If by any chance a woman slipped and it were known, she lost, as a rule, social position, the regard of her friends and, not infrequently, was disowned by her family. It was believed that a woman should not know anything of vice or disease, much less discuss them. Her ignorance, which was confounded with innocence, was her charm.

On the other hand, the setting aside of a certain class of women known as prostitutes, whose reason for existence was the gratification of the appetites of men, was an outcome of this state of affairs. It has been said that the profession of prostitution is the oldest in the world for women, that it has always existed and cannot be done away with. In a vague way, many women knew that the so-called "social" diseases existed; more infrequently they knew of them as venereal diseases, but almost never by name. Physicians who have known the true facts concerning the complaints with which their women patients were afflicted have observed a conspiracy of silence. We have talked about "female weaknesses," "female diseases," "the complaints of women," when, as a matter of fact, women have been infected with one or the other of the venereal diseases.

Another common belief, shared alike by men and women, was that soldiers and sailors were, among the men, the class most given to lack of restraint and that among them we would expect to find the highest percentage of venereal disease. The war has brought a rude awakening. For the first time, accurate statistics have shown us something of the percentages of the young men in a cross-section of society who suffered from syphilis or gonorrhea. It has been more or less a matter of general information since the outbreak of the great war that more men in the armies of our Allies have been in the hospitals, and therefore unable to fight, as a result of these diseases than there were in the hospitals as a result of the bullets of the enemy.

Luckily for the American people, when our country entered the war those in authority at Washington had had opportunity to observe and learn conditions at the front. They very speedily made up their minds that such conditions were intolerable and that the government of the United States must by every means in its power prevent the incapacitating of so vast a number of its soldiers and sailors for their military duties.

The Selective Draft Act carried with it authority under which the President of the United States and the Secretaries of War and Navy could undertake to control vice and disease not only in the camps but in the regions adjacent to the camps and could prohibit in these extra-cantonment zones the sale of alcohol. The close relationship of alcohol to lack of self-control and to prostitution is axiomatic.

The story of the organization of communities to take care of the leisure hours of the soldiers in their midst is told elsewhere. It soon became apparent that not only must healthful recreation be provided in and out of camp for the soldiers' and sailors' hours of leisure, but also there must be constructive educational work done among them. For this reason, the Army and Navy Section of the Social Hygiene Division, in charge of Lieutenant Clarke, was created. Lieutenant Clarke's story of the activities of his section will be an important part of the history of this war when it comes to be written. But more remained to be done.

It was evident, if the soldier in our great cantonments found temptation in the civilian communities in which he spent his leave, a certain percentage would inevitably yield to temptation. It was necessary to have clean communities. Moreover, the selective draft is a continuous process. The men are coming from the civilian communities and the effect on the medical records of the camps of each influx of civilians was astonishing. The increase in the venereal rate was overwhelming proof that the dangers of disease in the civilian community were far in excess of what had heretofore been recognized. Education was obviously necessary before the men entered the army.

Yet another phase of the matter presented itself. The success of the war is quite as dependent upon production as upon our fighting men. The army gets nowhere if it is not adequately provided with guns, munitions, clothing, food. Our armies would not now be making the show which they are in France had we not been able to ship all the materials necessary for constructing the great railroad lines which are crossing France at different points. It is just as vital to success that our industrial army be fit as that our army in the field should be ready to fight. A diseased man is an inefficient man, anywhere you put him. We must bring to our industrial armies some knowledge of the menace of disease;—hence the creation of a section on educational work for civilian men.

Both the sections on army and navy work and on work for civilian men had been in existence for some months before the fact dawned that this was a problem for both men and women. There can be no sexual irregularities of any sort which do not ordinarily involve both men and women. It is thinkable that if every woman in the country, old and young, could be brought to see the menace to society which is involved in these anti-social relationships, if she should refuse absolutely to yield to temptation, the problem would be solved. Unfortunately it is not as simple as that. Women, however, are unquestionably able to create at least half of public opinion. Not only this, in many states at the present time they have an active voice in the selection of the men who make the local ordinances or state laws or in the choice of those who are to enforce them. Where they have this power they are much more likely to be listened to with respect.

It is, however, of the utmost importance that public opinion and community action should be based on accurate knowledge. If the women of the country are to render a real assistance to the government in this important direction, they must know, first, exactly what the situation is; the menace of venereal disease; how it is to be combated most effectively; of the standards of conduct the young women of the country should recognize, particularly in their dealings with the thousands of soldiers in their midst in these times of stress and temptation; that mothers, as never before, should realize their responsibility in directing their daughters; that before community action of any kind is taken, the women should acquaint themselves in their respective communities with the ordinances upon the statute books for the control of vice and the stamping out of disease; that they should find out to what extent these laws are being enforced. They should know what provisions are made for the care of those who are diseased and the protection of the public from the spread of infection. They should know the kind of provision that is made, particularly for the women who are convicted of sex offenses. They should know whether for the same offense there is provision for the men who are partners with the women in conduct not only in violation of our legal standards, but of our moral law as well.

Women must recognize their responsibility for existing conditions and that a very great part of this responsibility is the promotion of education in these matters. Knowing all this, a section on women's work was created. It is endeavoring, in the first place, to work with all the great organized groups of women in the United States in spreading accurate information to their members. The Social Morality Committee of the War Work Council of the National Board of the Young Women's Christian Association, immediately on the creation of our section, put at the disposal of the government all its resources. The Social Morality Committee has for the last half dozen years carried on very quietly and unassumingly an educational work in social hygiene, largely in normal schools and other institutions which trained women to be teachers. On our entrance into the war, realizing the importance of accurate knowledge among women, they had of their own account greatly increased their work. On account of their experience, the Lecture Bureau of the Social Morality Committee was made the official lecture bureau of the Commission on Training Camp Activities.

An Advisory Committee has been formed, consisting of women who are affiliated with large national bodies of women, in order that by their advice and practical coöperation they may assist in extending our program. It consists of:

First, the Women's Committee of the Council of National Defense, whose Washington representative, Miss Hannah J. Patterson, is actively coöperating through its state organizations.

Second, the General Federation of Women's Clubs, through the coöperation of the chairman of its Public Health Division, Mrs. Elmer Blair.

Third, the War Work Council of the National Board of the Young Women's Christian Association, through the chairman of its Social Morality Committee, Dr. Anna L. Brown.

Fourth, the Association of Collegiate Alumnae, through its secretary, Mrs. Gertrude S. Martin.

Fifth, the National Council of Jewish Women, through Mrs. Alexander Kohut.

Sixth, the National Women's Trade Union League, through Mrs. Raymond Robins.

Two representatives of the Catholic War Work Council and the National Education Association are still to be appointed.

The section on Women's Work is carrying on its activities through lectures, the distribution of literature, magazine and newspaper publicity, the publication of a weekly bulletin, exhibits and a moving picture film. The lecture work is growing by leaps and bounds. Already we have been obliged to open a branch office in Boston and one in Chicago, in addition to the offices in Washington and New York. The lectures are given before all kinds of groups of women—club women, mothers' meetings, church organizations, girls in industrial plants and manufacturing establishments; in schools from the seventh and eighth grades up through the colleges; at all kinds of meetings of state and national women's organizations; to girls' clubs—in short, wherever women are gathered together.

These lectures are given for the most part by women physicians, selected with special reference to their knowledge of these matters and their ability to present them to audiences of various kinds. For example, one physician will be specially successful in presenting the subject to a group of mothers; another is at her best with an audience of college girls; while still another is especially able to get hold of the girl who earns her own living. Some of our speakers are devoting their entire time to the work; others, perhaps engaged in private practice, can give a week at a time, or possibly only a few lectures in their immediate locality. To save time, energy and money, we are learning that it is wise, so far as possible, to concentrate on intensive campaigns in special localities. We are therefore sending an organizer into the community in which an intensive piece of work is to be done, who meets the representative women of all groups, so far as possible, and forms a temporary local committee. This committee assists in the planning of the schedule, secures permission for speakers in industrial plants and sees to the advertising and other local publicity. When the schedules are all arranged, one or more—sometimes as many as five or six—of our speakers go to the locality and spend a week or longer giving talks to the previously arranged groups.

Our great appeal is the patriotic service which is to be rendered by the women of the country. Following each lecture are conferences in which women or girls present are able to ask privately of the physicians questions which may have arisen. It is largely on account of the character of the questions which we find are asked that it is desirable to have trained physicians as speakers. The lecture work is followed up or, in some cases, preceded by the distribution of specially prepared literature.

For example, we have placards which we are asking to have posted in lavatories, rest-rooms, restaurants or wherever women congregate. The two which are in use at the time of writing are as follows:

The War Department Commission on Training Camp Activities Asks the Aid of Women in Controlling Venereal Diseases for the Sake of Our Army and of Our Country

WOMEN HAVE NOT KNOWN

the truth about venereal diseases and how they occur.

We must know now in order to do our share
in saving our country from a grave menace.
We have gained control over tuberculosis.
We must gain control over venereal diseases.

SOME FACTS ABOUT VENEREAL DISEASES

Gonorrhea

The most prevalent of all dangerous infectious diseases. It is a germ disease that causes:

Chronic ill health
Many childless marriages
Serious operations on the vital organs of women
Diseases of the joints, bladder and generative organs
Much blindness among babies.

Syphilis

More prevalent than all other dangerous infectious diseases combined. It is a germ disease that causes:

Insanity
Paresis or softening of brain
Locomotor ataxia
Paralysis in early life
Imbecile and crippled children
Diseases of heart, blood vessels, etc.

Both these diseases can be cured, but they are often *not* cured, even after all signs disappear under treatment. A real cure is a matter of months and sometimes years. One act of sexual intercourse may produce the infection.

INFECTION	PREVENTION
Infection results chiefly from promiscuous sexual intercourse.	The only *sure* prevention is to avoid promiscuous sexual relations. Sexual intercourse is *not* necessary to health.
Also it may occur accidentally: a drinking-cup which has been used by an infected person may infect the mouth of the next user.	If you know someone who is anxious over this matter, advise consulting the plant doctor. Don't go to doctors who advertise "sure cures."

A NATIONAL SERVICE

Remember These Facts—Tell Your Friends!

For Free Information, write to
Commission on Training Camp Activities
Social Hygiene Division
105 West 40th Street, New York.

WHEN THE BOYS COME HOME
WILL THEY BE DISAPPOINTED

in their towns?
in their friends?

THE ARMY TEACHES OUR SOLDIERS

(1) That immorality is dangerous;
(2) That immorality isn't necessary;
(3) That immorality doesn't pay.

THE GOVERNMENT ASKS US

(1) To raise our moral standards;
(2) To repress prostitution;
(3) To control venereal diseases.

It has been found that 90 per cent of the venereal disease cases in camps were infected before the men left civilian life. They were infected in their home *towns*.

This is the result of ignorance; of indifference; of wrong traditions.

WILL *YOU* FACE THE *FACTS?*

Will you help to make your home town safer and cleaner for the boys when they come home?

If so, let us tell you how.

Free information may be had at

The War Department
Commission on Training Camp Activities
Social Hygiene Division
105 West 40th Street, New York City.

Two special talks to women have been prepared, one entitled "The Nation's Call to Young Women," for girls from eighteen up; and another called "Your Country Needs You," for girls in the teen age. These can be placed directly in the hands of the girls where it seems desirable. Other literature is prepared for older women. "Women's Share in a National Service," "What is the Government Doing for Your Boy—A Suggested Program for Women's Clubs," "The Soldier, Uncle Sam and You," "Do Your Bit to Keep Him Fit," in a form revised to include women's share in the community program, are some of the titles which are used.

Up to the time of writing, our literature has been addressed only to the English-speaking community, but plans have been completed whereby it is to be translated into Yiddish for the great groups of girls in the garment trades in our large cities, and next into Italian and Polish, or other languages of special groups. Necessarily our subject matter must be so modified as to be presented in the form most likely to win the attention of the special group.

Our exhibition material as yet consists chiefly of wall placards and stereomotorgraph slides. In certain localities where there is some public sentiment among both men and women against presenting the bald facts of social hygiene we are holding what we call public health weeks where social hygiene is presented as one part of a general public health program, including in our exhibit material illustrating the fight against tuberculosis, for example, and showing the wonderful work being done under the Children's Bureau for what is known as Children's Year. Here different organizations representing all phases of public health activity are coöperating in furnishing exhibit material and in providing speakers. While this method is somewhat more difficult of operation, on account of the number of coöperating agencies required, it is, we think, a useful one.

Through the General Federation of Women's Clubs, women of the country who are members of the affiliated organizations are being asked to devote at least two days of their program during the coming year—whether the club has been formed to discuss art, music or the drama—to a consideration of the question of social hygiene. We feel that two days in these critical times is little enough to ask of them. We suggest that on one day they arrange for a representative of the Social Hygiene Division—either men's, women's or army section, it is immaterial which—to present the whole plan of the government's activities, including the work of the Surgeons General of the Army and Navy, the Surgeon General of the Public Health Service, of the State Public Health Service and the work of the Social Hygiene Division of the Commission on Training Camp Activities—in short, all that is being done by the government along these lines. On the second day we ask that the members of the club, after having given time to the study of the question, discuss through papers or round table the conditions in the community affected by the war: (a) the present equipment to meet them; (b) is it adequate and effective? A list of alternative topics for discussion is suggested, such as:

1. What a mother should tell her daughter.
2. Protective officers and their functions.
3. Supervision of public parks and playgrounds.
4. Movies in our town.
5. Qualities of leadership for girls' clubs.
6. When and where is the Curfew Law effective?
7. Does segregation solve the problem of prostitution?
8. School teachers' influence in establishing social standards in a community.

Bibliographies are furnished which can be the basis for private reading and study of the individual members.

Organizations such as the Daughters of Rebekah, Daughters of America, Companions of the Forest of America, Women's Relief Corps, Degree of Pocahontas, Pythian Sisters and the Women's Benefit Association of the Maccabees are being asked to coöperate by sending letters to all members who have sons in the service asking that the mothers in writing to their sons stimulate the innate chivalry in their boys by calling upon them to respect the womanhood in the countries to which they are going as they would wish their sisters to be respected were the enemy upon our own soil.

Our weekly bulletin began as a multigraphed letter to our staff of lecturers and others directly connected with us, keeping them informed of activities in the field in our own and other affiliated divisions, culling out the gist of the latest in periodical literature concerning our cause or such other material as we might wish to get before them. In less than three months the demand has become such that by the time this article appears in print we expect to have a printed bulletin going out each week and carrying authentic information to those coöperating with us. Our division has on its staff several women who are devoting themselves to the work of preparing and presenting to the magazines and press of our country authentic information or articles setting forth our work.

Before this goes to print we shall have ready a moving picture film prepared for the purpose of doing for the girls of the community what the film, "Fit to Fight," is so successfully doing for the young men in the army and navy. It is called "The End of the Road" and, as its title implies, is an effort to make girls see that every action in life is followed by its consequence; that in the spiritual as well as in the physical world, the law of cause and effect prevails. It attempts to emphasize the responsibilities of motherhood in the preparation of the daughters for life and brings home the sorrow and suffering which follow self-indulgence and thoughtlessness. It is to be used in connection with our lectures and with the film, "How Life Begins," which can be shown as a preliminary.

Our whole campaign can be summed up in the words of one of our little leaflets:

> *Women have believed*
>
> That: Sexual indulgence was a necessity for young men.
> With women it was different.
> They should know little of sex matters—and never discuss them.
> A young man's "wild oats" should be forgiven; a woman's, never.
>
> *Women know today*
>
> That: There is no such necessity for either men or women.
> There is danger to themselves and to their children in irregular sexual relations because of the possibility—even probability—of infection with a venereal disease.
> They are responsible for their acts not only to themselves, but to their community, their country and their future; and that "desire" is a fatal excuse.
> Social and industrial inefficiency result from the selfish indulgence of an appetite. We scorn the glutton; we are beginning to exercise social control over the alcoholic; we must now control venereal diseases.
> Syphilis and gonorrhea are highly infectious, but controllable by proper measures; they are being controlled in military centers and must be controlled in civilian life.

Women's duty is

To: Refuse to be ignorant; face the facts and the consequences.

Believe that men and boys with whom they associate *can* and *will* lead clean lives.

Insist that men be morally and physically clean if they are to be accepted as associates; to cease from indifference and thereby keep other women from suffering.

Help their communities to close evil resorts and to provide wholesome recreation.

Do this personally, when possible; to show their convictions in letters and stimulate other women to do likewise; to organize to help stamp out disease and delinquency and so help the government make its men, women and its communities clean.

Study the causes of disease and delinquency in order to aid intelligently in preventing them.

We *can* stamp out syphilis and gonorrhea as the plague and yellow fever and smallpox have been stamped out. We *can* destroy the old institution of prostitution. We can do this when men and women have faith to believe that it can be done and when they unite in teaching the boys and girls of this country while they are little the laws of health, the sacredness of sex relationship and the possibility of self-control.

We call for the coöperation of all the women of the country. The resources of our section are at their disposal and we are at all times glad to be called upon to work out plans of coöperation whereby the government's program can be brought before ever-increasing numbers of patriotic women.

THE PROMOTION OF SOCIAL HYGIENE IN WAR TIME

By Walter Clarke,
First Lieutenant, Sanitary Corps, U. S. N. A.

If the public interest of America in various social enterprises were to be indicated by a graph it would be found that with the declaration of war some lines of work declined rapidly to zero and others ascended sharply. Only a few, if any, remain at the present time in the same relative position occupied prior to the opening of hostilities. It will be remembered that in 1914 when the world was thrown into agitation by the beginning of the present war, one social agency after another went to the wall for lack of financial support. A few organizations saw phenomenal growth, for example, the Red Cross and the Y. M. C. A., but there was a general consolidation and elimination among most social organizations.

An even more marked process of elimination took place with the entrance of the United States into the war. Apparently, the criterion of public support is the answer to the question "How will this organization help win the war?" Unless the answer shows obvious and substantial contribution to the successful prosecution of the war, funds for its support are not forthcoming. This is sometimes most unfortunate and short-sighted, as in the case of social settlement houses, the work of which is of the greatest value to the community; yet American settlements have had the utmost difficulty in continuing their activities and have in most cases survived only by greatly curtailing personnel and services.

In 1914 there was doubt whether social hygiene organizations could continue, while on every hand other organizations were being cut off from financial support. The most important national agency for the promotion of social hygiene had just completed reorganization when the conflagration threatened to sweep it away with the rest. In the face of this danger the board of directors determined to expand rather than diminish the work of the organization, making a bid for support on the basis of national welfare. In the light of subsequent events it is plain how fortunate it is that social hygiene work was continued and expanded, for had it been discontinued in 1914 the remarkable developments in 1917 and 1918 would not have been possible.

Between October, 1914, the time of the momentous decision by the American Social Hygiene Association referred to above, and April, 1917, the social hygiene movement in the United States developed steadily, if not rapidly, the most substantial gains being reflected in the change of public opinion regarding the control of prostitution and the reduction of venereal disease. Investigations, experiments, demonstrations and public education gradually molded the attitude of leaders in public affairs from hopelessness to hopefulness and willingness to try the newer and more scientific methods. As it became more and more apparent that the United States must enter the war the liveliest interest became attached to the problem of venereal disease and military efficiency. Reports from Europe re-emphasized that which every student of social hygiene knew, that venereal disease is the greatest cause of military disability aside from the casualties of the line and that after-war sequelae are of great social consequence.

After Congress declared a state of war to exist, the attention of leaders of social hygiene in the United States was focused on Washington. The early adoption by the United States of a scientific and comprehensive policy for the dealing with prostitution and venereal disease was a necessity if the United States was to avoid the disasters incurred both by our Allies and our enemies. Within a week after war was declared a notable group of physicians, sociologists and economists met in Washington and adopted a set of resolutions which formed a platform to be recommended to the government as a basis of policy. These resolutions as finally adopted by the Council of National Defense were as follows:

> WHEREAS, venereal infections are among the most serious and disabling diseases to which the soldier and sailor are liable;
>
> WHEREAS, they constitute a grave menace to the civil population;
>
> *Therefore*, the Committee on Hygiene and Sanitation of the General Medical Board of the Council of National Defense, recommends that the General Medical Board transmit to the Council of National Defense for the guidance of the War and Navy Departments the following recommendations:—
>
> 1. That the Departments of War and Navy officially recognize that sexual continence is compatible with health and that it is the best prevention of venereal infections.
>
> 2. That the Departments of War and Navy take steps toward the prevent on of venereal infections through the exclusion of prostitutes within an effective

zone surrounding all places under their control, and by the provision of suitable recreational facilities, the control of the use of alcoholic drinks, and other effective measures.

3. That the said Departments adopt a plan for centralized control of venereal infections through special divisions of their medical services.

4. That the said Departments consider the plan of organization herewith attached.

WHEREAS, the use of alcoholic beverages is generally recognized as an important factor in the spread of venereal disease in the army and navy; and

WHEREAS, these diseases are among the most serious and disabling ones to which soldiers and sailors are liable;

Therefore, be it resolved that we endorse the action of the army and navy in prohibiting alcoholic beverages within military places in their control and we further recommend that the sale or use of alcoholic beverages be prohibited to soldiers and sailors within an effective zone about such places.

Following upon this statement of policy two important events took place. The government put the policy into operation as a practical and workable plan, and state and city governments and civic organizations all over the United States adopted supporting resolutions adding clauses which offered unlimited backing for the stand taken by the Council of National Defense. Nothing that the war has caused to transpire in America has been more phenomenal than the wholesale adoption of a modern scientific social hygiene program by federal and local governments and no program has been given more unanimous and pronounced support. The program itself would have seemed, a few years ago, too elaborate and intricate for consideration as a national undertaking, but under the stimulation of the war not only is the federal government's program in full progress, but state and city governments, civic and industrial organizations, public and private agencies are adopting coördinate measures for the promotion of national health and efficiency. As adopted by the Surgeon General of the Army this social hygiene program is as follows:

PROGRAM OF ATTACK ON VENEREAL DISEASES

An outline of activities and coöperating agencies planned to reduce the prevalence of the venereal diseases.

Methods of attack upon venereal diseases divide themselves into four classes:

A. Social measures to diminish sexual temptations.
B. Education of soldiers and civilians in regard to venereal diseases.
C. Prophylactic measures against venereal diseases.
D. Medical care.

A. Social Measures to Diminish Sexual Temptations

(1) The repression of prostitution and the liquor traffic.
(2) Provision of proper social surroundings and recreation.

These activities which have to do with social matters largely fall outside the jurisdiction of the medical service of the army, but this service can render these activities more efficient by stimulating and supporting them, and wherever practical such support should be given.

• • • • •

B. Education of Soldiers and Civilians

(1) For Soldiers: a. Lectures; b. Pamphlets; c. Exhibits:

a. Lectures to soldiers should be given by medical and line officers and by competent volunteers furnished by outside agencies under invitation and direction of the Medical Department. These, beside inculcating continence, should explain the risk and waste of venereal diseases and the program adopted to avoid them. Lecturers without authority should not be permitted.

b. A pamphlet should be given the soldier as soon as possible after enlistment. This pamphlet should be very brief and should warn the soldier of the venereal dangers to which he may be exposed and give him instructions, if he should be exposed, to report as promptly as possible to his regimental infirmary.

• • • • •

c. Exhibits, such as the Coney Island exhibit, and other exhibits and demonstration methods worked out by the American Social Hygiene Association, the exhibit of the National Cash Register Company, the exhibits of the Oregon Social Hygiene Society and the Missouri Society, should be adapted to the needs of military life and furnished to each cantonment.

(2) For Civilians:

In the attack upon the venereal problem, it is highly desirable that such educational activities as those outlined above for soldiers should be stimulated for the civilian population.

• • • • •

C. Prophylactic Measures

Instruction in Prophylaxis:

Soldiers should be informed of the fact that there are prophylactic measures that reduce the dangers of venereal infection. But this instruction should take particular care to inform them that there are limitations to such prophylactic measures and that they furnish only partial protection and in no sense give freedom from risk.

Regimental Infirmaries:

The provision of prophylaxis (early treatment) in regimental infirmaries, which should be open day and night, is imperative in any sane attack upon venereal diseases.

• • • • •

Infirmaries in Civil Centers:

In cities, where there are no adequate civil dispensaries to be used and through which soldiers in considerable numbers pass, either while on leave or in travel, there should be provided in accessible locations regimental infirmaries.

* * * * *

Leaves of Absence:

In the interest of health, long leaves of absence for soldiers should be as far as possible discouraged. Leaves of absence of more than twenty-four hours are particularly dangerous, and it would be advantageous if leaves of absence were timed from as early an hour in the day as possible.

* * * * *

D. Medical Care

Hospital Organization:

There should be a special service in each cantonment hospital to care for skin and venereal diseases.

* * * * *

Instruction in Venereal Disease for Medical Officers:

One of the important functions of these services will be to train a group of men in venereal diseases. The service will, if well conducted, rapidly develop the knowledge of these diseases among medical officers.

* * * * *

Hospital Cases:

The cantonment hospitals should have under their care all cases of venereal diseases which are in the acute, infectious stages. These include:

All cases of acute gonorrhea.

All cases of syphilis during the early infectious stage and which have chancres, mucous patches, or condylomata.

* * * * *

Standard Records:

The syphilitic register of the army should be carefully and fully kept and social facts of epidemiological importance should be secured in every case if possible.

Standardized Treatment:

An effort should be made to standardize in a general way methods of treatment, and provision should be made for some special instructions in venereal diseases for all medical officers who have charge of troops. To this end, a manual of instructions should be issued to each of the medical officers in the army. This should especially emphasize the great importance of early diagnosis and treatment in venereal diseases and outline suitable methods of treatment.

There should be furnished cards of brief instruction to patients with gonorrhea or syphilis.

Laboratory Facilities:

Laboratory facilities are necessary:

1. For demonstrating gonococci and other bacteria.
2. For demonstrating spirochetes by dark field illumination.
3. For urinalysis (which should be required once a week for every syphilitic patient under treatment).

These laboratory facilities should be in the wards of the venereal service.

4. For Wassermann tests.

These to be in the general laboratory.

Inspections:

In order to keep up a high standard of effectiveness, there should be provision for inspection of these services by special inspectors in venereal diseases from the surgeon general's office. These inspections should cover each of the four classes of attack specified.

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Obviously the government's part in such a program requires elaborate machinery, and that such machinery has been constructed and placed in effective operation within the period of one year is one of the remarkable feats of the war. The Medical Department of the army, the Bureau of Medicine and Surgery of the navy, the Public Health Service, the General Medical Board of the Council of National Defense and the War and Navy Departments Commissions on Training Camp Activities are the principal federal agencies which work on this program. They receive expert assistance in making the program most effective from the American Social Hygiene Association, and such other organizations as the American Red Cross, the Y. M. C. A., the American Playground Association and numerous other national and local organizations are lending support and aid. Among all these government and private organizations there is the most intricate inter-relation and, of necessity, the closest coöperation. In addition all are coöperating with city and state governments in carrying out the details of the work.

It would be impossible in so brief a résumé to describe all the special features and penetrations of war-time social hygiene work. Only the most outstanding general facts may be given as indicative of all that is being done for the protection of the health and morals of men in the army and navy, in factories, shipyards and offices, and of women and girls at home and employed.

Wholesome recreation has long been an important feature of the social hygiene program. The healthful occupation of the body and mind is the first line of defense against vice and disease. It is furthermore a necessity for the maintenance of high morale in the civil population and in the army and navy. The War and Navy Departments Commissions on Training Camp Activities are the agencies responsible for providing this safeguard to health and character and, in discharging this duty, provision has been made for the men in every important military and naval establishment and in the communities about such establishments. The American Playground Association, the Y. M. C. A. and other organizations are coöperating with the Commissions in providing recreation. Also special attention is given by the Commissions and such organizations as the Y. W. C. A. to the women and girls in the vicinity of army and navy training camps. Athletics, music, theatrical performances, motion pictures, dancing and numerous other forms of recreation are available for men and women who wish or can be induced to take advantage of them. The American Library Association coöperates with the Commissions in providing abundant reading matter in all camps.

The provision of wholesome outlets would not accomplish its maximum result unless degenerative influences were removed. Vice repression and the restriction of the liquor traffic are the necessary complements of recreation. Legal instruments were early provided by Congress for the repression of prostitution and the sale of alcoholic beverages to men in uniform. The secretaries of war and the navy, being responsible for the application of these legal instruments, assigned the duty of stimulating the enforcement of federal, state and city law to the War and Navy Departments Commissions on Training Camp Activities. The latter, with elaborate assistance in personnel from the Surgeons General of the Army and the Navy, have accomplished remarkable results in the performance of this task. More than eighty red light districts have been closed. Prostitution and illicit liquor trafficking have been made less available and more hazardous and difficult to carry on. There is not now a single segregated vice district in the vicinity of a military or naval establishment in the United States. In carrying on this enormous task the personnel, experience and facilities of the American Social Hygiene Association are in use by the government. Local law-enforcing officials have coöperated in making the cities of the United States cleaner than they ever had been in their previous histories.

An elaborate educational program has been placed in operation by the combined efforts of the Surgeons General of the Army and the Navy, and the Commissions on Training Camp Activities. The desideratum is that every man should have sane and practical information regarding the nature of venereal diseases, how they are contracted and how they may be avoided. The Commissions, with the assistance and at the request of the medical branches of the army and navy, have approximated this desired end. More than a million and a half pamphlets on social hygiene have been placed in the hands of soldiers and sailors, more than a million soldiers and sailors have heard an illustrated lecture on the nature and prevention of venereal disease, and every large military and naval establishment in the United States has been equipped with exhibits and stereomotorgraphs for graphic instruction. Trained non-commissioned officers are in charge of these facilities, ready to give assistance and advice to all inquirers. Prior to the initiation of this work by the Commissions on Training Camp Activities much had been done by the medical officers of the army and navy in giving soldiers and sailors instructions regarding venereal disease. Their work has been continued and supplemented by the facilities provided by the Commissions.

Recently created sections of the Commissions are making substantial progress in presenting the facts of social hygiene to men and women in industries, clubs, churches; and through the daily and periodical press. Civilians are being informed by lectures, pamphlets, exhibits and newspaper articles of their responsibility for the health and morals of the men in uniform and are having brought home to them the menace of venereal disease as a cause of inefficiency in industries. Never in the United States in any field of public health or social work has so comprehensive a program of education been undertaken as that which now has for its object the conservation of the moral and physical forces of the nation for the winning of the war. Coöperating with government agencies in the field are the Y. M. C. A., the Y. W. C. A., the American Red Cross, the American Social Hygiene Association and numerous local clubs and societies.

When, in spite of all safeguards of the government and of volunteer agencies, men in uniform expose themselves to venereal disease, medical measures are provided by the medical branches of the army and navy for the prevention of infection. In the past this medical prophylaxis was provided only inside army and navy establishments, but with the present greatly enlarged personnel it is necessary to have supplementary stations in the larger cities to which men go when on leave. Early treatment stations have been established in many of the cities near important army camps. Here soldiers may receive medical treatment and advice which may not only prevent infection but may also re-enforce moral stamina so that exposure in the future may be less likely. Under present circumstances the medical part of this military measure is not possible or expedient for civilians; but it is necessary for the fighting efficiency of our forces.

Men in the army and navy receive better treatment for venereal disease than they would in general were they still in civil life. The medical branches of the army and navy include expert personnel for the treatment of venereal infections, and medical equipment for the proper administration of such treatment. One of the outstanding facts recently brought to light by statistical studies in the office of the Surgeon General of the Army is the fact that five-sixths of all cases of venereal infections reported by the army since our mobilization were acquired by soldiers prior to their coming under military control and discipline.

Even more significant, however, is the work which is being done as a war measure for the treatment of venereal disease among civilians. During the past year eleven state boards of health have established special bureaus of venereal disease with appropriations in each case ranging at about $30,000. These bureaus have for their object the treatment of venereal disease, the education of the public with reference to the seriousness of venereal infection, and the prevention of infections by the enforcement of law and the protection of delinquent and dependent persons. The U. S. Public Health Service, in coöperation with the Surgeons General of the Army and Navy, the American Red Cross and the American Social Hygiene Association, has established in cantonment cities, twenty-five clinics for the treatment of venereal disease. Here is available not only excellent treatment and social guidance but also educational material and advice for the well and the diseased. Furthermore, thirty-two states have requested the expert assistance of the U. S. Public Health Service in initiating campaigns against venereal disease.

The net results of all the medical, educational and social measures cannot better be epitomized than by saying that the young American is safer from venereal disease in the army and navy than he would be at home. On the other hand those remaining at home are now safer than they have ever been in the previous history of the United States. Never before has anything so nearly approximating adequate care and precaution been provided to the military and civil population of this country for the prevention of venereal infection, and treatment thereof.

Major General William C. Gorgas, the Surgeon General of the Army, says:

> The greatest credit item which the army medical corps has placed upon the war ledger, in the six months that the men have been in camp, is the prevention of some 13,000 cases of venereal disease. This is the number of men who would have had sex maladies, gonorrhea or syphilis, had they stayed in civil life, and who have remained healthy and fit only because we went to war.
>
> This figure is conservative; reckons only our advance, in the conquest of this disease, over the army conditions of peace times. If civilian figures were available, the credit would be greater. Among new men entering the army, we always find a much larger percentage of infection than among seasoned soldiers. In a recent report from twenty-nine representative camps, 83 per cent of the venereal cases were incoming men. In preventing these diseases, we are also preventing their horrible after effects.
>
> Our measure of success in stamping out venereal disease has come from compulsory education in the army, from medical treatment, disciplinary measures, and from community coöperation. The army rate for peace times, although it was a gratifying reduction from civil rates, still was higher than our present figure because of the indifference of the public.
>
> Community sources of infection were not within the control of our medical corps. Now that the army is growing to millions and every family or so has a son in it, we find it easier to arouse interest. Sources of infection are being wiped out, prostitution suppressed, alcohol prohibited, education on the subject pro-

moted, and wholesome recreational facilities provided in camp and community. Imperfect as are our results, they represent, as far as we can tell, the best ever yet obtained in any part of the world. They come from only six months for organizing the proper machinery and another six months for installing it in camp and community. The next six months should make a still better showing.

Eight hundred cases of alcoholism have been cured during our camp experience. This is another condition that comes to us from civil life when the men are drafted. These men may backslide at some future time, when they are released from military supervision, but for the time being, at least, eight hundred lives have been rendered normal and temperate.

While this is an item on the credit side of the war ledger equivalent to a great military victory, it is in addition a gain which will have effect not only upon this war but upon the entire future of America. One great American pathologist advances good evidence to show that we are still suffering from the deleterious effect of the great increase in syphilis following the Civil War, effects which must be regarded as one of the expenses of the war. The country that sends the largest proportion of men home from the battles of this war clean and healthy will be the victor when the balance is struck fifty or one hundred years hence.

Today three events of enormous importance are transpiring without smoke or noise, hardly appreciated in their significance for the future. First, soldiers and sailors are learning the real facts about sex health and are preparing to be more intelligent parents. When the boys come marching home they will know more of the scientific and practical facts of sex hygiene than any similar group of men in the world and they will pass on to the next generation wholesome and sane information regarding healthful living. Second, our army is making the lowest record for venereal disease that has been made in its history and, what is more significant, the lowest of any mobilized army of the present day in the world. This means that our men are today not only more efficient fighters, but, even of greater importance, they will, upon returning to their families and communities, contribute less damage to the race than would have been possible had the United States not asserted itself for their protection against our most subtle enemy. The long trail of disease, dependency and crime will not follow our men after this war as in the wake of wars of other times. The social gains thus achieved can scarcely be conceived. We have no scale with which to measure the distress and the burdens which we trust will thus be escaped.

Third, our civilian communities are making progress in the education, legal and medical aspects of the program. There is a determination to wipe out venereal disease as a barrier to victory and to make and keep our communities safe for soldiers and sailors. Men and women are living in cleaner towns, are learning more about health, and are receiving better treatment for venereal disease than ever before, and this in spite of the fact that we are at war, or perhaps one should say, because we are at war. The load of mental and physical disease that will be avoided by these measures can only be overbalanced in importance by the additional positive gains that can be made in still further reducing vice and disease below its ante-bellum degree of prevalence.

It is, however, a time for work rather than for congratulations. We must maintain and improve our gains. War for us has just begun and the burdens are only just beginning to be felt. Our achievements are good but are not the best possible. Of this every one concerned feels certain. That army and navy which is the least syphilized will, other things being equal, win; and the nation which controls and dries up the race poisons of venereal disease has the best chance of surviving during the coming ages. The fight against venereal disease is a long campaign for a clean bill of health for the children and grandchildren of the boys now in the trenches.

WAR CAMP COMMUNITY SERVICE

By Joseph Lee,
President of War Camp Community Service.

The War Camp Community Service is an integral part of the system established by the government of the United States for the care and training of its soldiers and sailors for this war. It is carried on by the Playground and Recreation Association of America at the request of the Commissions on Training Camp Activities appointed by the Secretary of War and the Secretary of the Navy. The work in no way duplicates that of any other organization. The war activities of the Young Men's Christian Association, of the Knights of Columbus, of the Jewish Welfare Board and of the American Library Association, all of them acting under the Commissions on Training Camp Activities and at their request, are wholly within the camps, while those of the War Camp Community Service are wholly outside. It is outside the camps that the greatest dangers exist and it is there that the greatest opportunities for exercising a beneficial influence are found.

Startling figures from reliable sources have been given upon the ravages of venereal disease in the armies of our allies and in our own army during the Spanish war, and whatever mistakes or exaggerations there may have been in any of these statements the danger is a most serious one. And it is a danger that cannot be wholly met by repressive measures. Disease is spread not wholly by professional prostitutes but very largely by young girls who have succumbed to the emotional conditions produced by the war.

Moreover our soldiers are going across the sea where we can no longer control their environment. It is the duty of the women of America, as the Secretary of War has said, to make for them an invisible armor which shall protect them wherever they may go, and it is a part of the business of the War Camp Community Service to mobilize and direct our women in the fashioning of this magic garment. The first American victory of the war will be won right here through this especial service.

THE SOLDIER'S SOCIAL NEEDS

To appreciate the place filled by the War Camp Community Service it is necessary to realize the social needs of the enlisted man. In the first place he is young—the soldier mostly from 21 to 31 years old and the sailor often as young as 17. In the second place, he is away from home and from his natural surroundings, separated from his friends and neighbors, from his church, his club, his business, and from all his familiar associations. He is deprived of his customary recreation, whether in the form of society or of athletics. He is cut off from the society of girls.

In short, the soldier or sailor in our camps and training stations is almost wholly separated from those natural human relations in which a normal life so largely consists, and this at an age at which these relations are of vital and absorbing interest. He is a tree uprooted from the soil and represents an attempt to create a human orchid. At the same time he is set to work at tasks that soon become distasteful: drill—walking up and down again—digging trenches, doing housework and many other kinds of chores, and is exposed in the meantime to heat, cold, rain, mud and other uncomfortable conditions.

What, as a result of these conditions, will the young soldier do with his leisure time? His first desire will be to get away—anything for a change. Soldiers at Camp Devens will even go to Ayer Village for their recreation—and if a man will go there for that purpose he will go anywhere. As a rule he will go to town. Some will have a definite object, either good or bad, but the great majority will go without any definite purpose—simply to get away and find diversion of some sort. They are there looking for what may turn up, open to every suggestion. What they do will depend very largely upon what and whom they meet.

And remember that the soldier when he arrives in a strange city is practically invisible. He is away from his own home and from people who know him. He is in uniform, no longer an individual but an undistinguished atom of the mass. Nobody—at least nobody of his own world—will know what he does with himself, and nobody who does know will greatly care. Which of us can thus afford to dispense with the moral support which the social expectation of our own friends and neighbors and fellow-citizens affords?

And what has been the form of suggestion which society has hitherto presented to the soldier or sailor on leave? "Good" society has systematically turned away from him. Society as represented by its less desirable members, on the other hand—both male and female—has been only too cordial in its reception. The community, in short, has hitherto turned its worst side towards the enlisted man. It is the business of the War Camp Community Service to reverse this attitude. And such a change is as much in the interest of the civil community as in that of the soldier. The atmosphere which it creates for him will be the one in which it itself must live. The two will rise or fall together.

HOW THE NEED IS MET

The War Camp Community Service meets the social hunger of the enlisted man in the following ways: First, he finds at information booths in the station when he comes to town—and sees in posters and circulars before he leaves—directions as to the better sources of entertainment that the community affords. He is told where to find the movies, theatres, libraries and museums, the swimming pools, gymnasiums, athletic fields and the clubs provided for his use.

Second, municipal authorities are induced to give band concerts and to throw in all kinds of athletic opportunities for the use of the officers and men. A census of the men is obtained, through the coöperation of the commanding officer, giving the church, fraternity and college affiliation of all the men and their favorite sport and hobby. Churches are stimulated to provide organ recitals and to invite members of their own denomination to their services, and churches and other organizations to send special invitations to social occasions of all kinds. In New York City the Catholic churches alone have opened twenty soldiers' clubs. The hospitality of all the churches in the camp communities has been remarkable.

When necessary, the War Camp Community Service has itself opened clubs for soldiers and sailors, with opportunities for smoking, reading, listening to music and playing games, for getting a shower bath, buying food and soft drinks, and (a provision especially important in the case of sailors) with a place to pass the night. Games between the military on the one side and civil organizations on the other, the proceeds usually going to buy bats and balls and other athletic goods for the soldiers, are an important means of establishing good relations. These young men are often homesick, and homesickness is a real disease, causing loss of sleep and appetite and depressing the tone of the whole system. Man is a homing animal as truly as a bird or a fox. From the cave man down we have been built around this relation, and the loss of it is the cutting of a tap root.

In this unit of the man and his home the parts are to a certain extent interchangeable. He finds some satisfaction of his need in visiting someone else's home. The War Camp Community Service has greatly stimulated the inviting of soldiers and sailors home to dinner and to pass Sunday, has investigated the character of thousands of invitations, and has seen them properly distributed.

To facilitate the meeting of officers and men with their own relatives and friends, with their own wives if they are married, the services of the Traveler's Aid of the Young Women's Christian Association have been called in and have been most effective, the one in meeting women relatives at the stations and the other in providing hostess houses in the camps. Where necessary the War Camp

Community Service has supplemented the work of these agencies and it has also secured in each community a list of lodging places carefully scrutinized and in many instances regulated as to prices charged.

Another normal need of these young men is the society of girls. It has been assumed in the past that soldiers and sailors, unlike the rest of mankind, can have no relation with women except an immoral one, that there is no choice for them between the life of a libertine and that of an ascetic. We all know that this is not true of the rest of us, that the effect of the society of good women is wholly good, that one of the best influences in our lives is the desire to merit their esteem, and that the strongest influence for purity in the life of a young man is the hope of being some day worthy of the love of a good woman. It has been demonstrated by the War Camp Community Service that the putting on of a uniform does not reverse the attributes of human nature in this respect.

To meet this need of girls' society, the War Camp Community Service, besides securing invitations to people's homes, is stimulating the churches and all kinds of social organizations to ask the soldiers and sailors to parties and receptions of all sorts, to which the girls always go on invitation of a carefully selected committee and which are carefully chaperoned. Our soldiers and sailors will seek and find female society in any case. The War Camp Community Service has provided, for the first time in history, that they shall find it in a form that does them not harm but infinite good. In short, what the War Camp Community Service is providing is a balanced social ration. Such a ration is the soldier's one great social need and it is one which the camp itself, even with all the social resources that can be brought to it, can never supply.

Besides bringing soldiers and girls together under good influences, a most important activity has been the organizing of girls into clubs, the purpose of which has been the creating of an *esprit de corps* among them with a high social standard and a high ideal of the part that the women of America are called upon to play in their relation to our soldiers. Club buildings are provided in many communities and the girls take part in all kinds of Red Cross and other war work, besides giving occasional small and carefully conducted parties for the soldiers. The Young Women's Christian Association has furnished a large proportion of the expert workers for this service. What the War Camp Community Service is thus doing for the officers and men is a new thing under the sun, a thing never before tried in any country. That it is already a success is the testimony of officers and men and others familiar with the work.

The War Camp Community Service is supported by voluntary contributions. The appropriations are made by a budget committee, consisting of Horace E. Andrews, Clarence M. Clark, Henry W. de Forrest, Myron T. Herrick, Joseph Lee and Charles D. Norton. The budget for the coming year (November 1, 1918 to November 1, 1919) is fifteen million dollars, and the quota for each locality is 15 per cent of the amount assessed upon it by the Red Cross in its campaign for one hundred million.

WORKING WITH MEN OUTSIDE THE CAMPS

By William H. Zinsser,

Director, Section on Men's Work, Social Hygiene Division, Commission on Training Camp Activities.

In the Draft Act of May 18, 1917, two sections were inserted numbered 12 and 13, which authorized the Secretary of War, and subsequently the Secretary of the Navy, to do everything deemed necessary to prohibit the sale or consumption of liquor and the practising of prostitution within the confines of army camps and navy stations, and within a definite zone around them.

By combining military discipline and strict policing with the conviction that these soldiers,—men in uniform,—are like all other human beings subject to ennui and to loneliness, remarkable results have been attained. The liquor vendor and the loose woman are barred, and in their place, playgrounds, smileage theatres, libraries, hostess-houses and the recreational huts of the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Men's Hebrew Association, and the Knights of Columbus substituted. Song leaders, athletic directors, musicians and professors all vie with each other in supplying the demands of the men, both serious and frivolous, in whatever field they are made. One rather amusing result is the receipt by commanding officers of letters from indignant wives, sisters and sweethearts asking "Why doesn't Johnny come home when he can?" The reason is simple,—Johnny is having too good a time; he's working enough and playing enough and does not want to go back.

Whether the making of our camps into "hard military schools with a country club on the side," has decreased the ability of our men to actually fight, is being answered on the historic battle fields of the Marne now. A comparison of the American army's venereal disease rate with that of any other army, past or present, makes clear what the government's combined policy of education, treatment and punishment is resulting in. The American Expeditionary Force, with the lowest rate ever known in history, is the answer.

In actual service "over there" these facilities take care of practically all the soldier's time not spent at his "work." In this country, however, a different problem must also be met. No matter how good a time "Johnny" is having, and notwithstanding every effort which can possibly be made to keep him satisfied in the camps, a time comes when he must get away, see the sights, and forget the military side of life for a few hours. A new phase, and one of direct interest to civilians, is thus developed.

When a soldier is granted a furlough, when he has shown his pass to the guard at the gate, and is out,—free for a time from the enforced and arduous grind which military training is even at best, the holiday spirit is in him; he is "out for a good time." The sort of good time he has is going to depend on two things: his background, moral, mental and physical; and upon what is offered by the community he visits.

It is one of the great failures of society, past and present, that, on the subjects of rational sex hygiene, prostitution, and venereal disease, the very great majority of young men have no background whatsoever, excepting one supplied by the streets and by obscene stories. Following out the same line of reasoning pursued in the camp amusements, *i.e.*, recognizing that the men are after all *men*, it is at once evident that intelligent coöperation cannot be expected from them, unless they are given intelligent reasons for it. In other words, since the army and navy cannot and will not tolerate conditions such as have existed in civilian communities for generations, it was up to the government to supply this background not given by their civil life.

Accordingly, a particular section of the Social Hygiene Division, Commissions on Training Camp Activities, was constituted to do this work in the training camps; to educate these boys and men on the vital subjects of reproduction, sex hygiene, venereal diseases, etc., in the teaching of which their own parents and home communities have been so woefully negligent. As a result it can now be truthfully said that there is no man in the army or navy for any length of time who does not have a background of some kind; does not know what the venereal diseases are and the essential facts about their transmission.

Notwithstanding what they know, freedom and relaxation are very tempting after the grind of the camp. Men on leave want company very naturally: a street corner with nothing to do near it is at its best not very amusing. They want companionship and particularly personal attention. They are very prone to take it in whatever form it is offered. In other words, a soldier or sailor will almost always take a town *as he finds it.* The responsibility of civilian communities becomes at once clear; a responsibility vitally affecting the health, discipline and morale of our troops.

NECESSITY OF COMMUNITY COÖPERATION

In the typical case, a man is beyond ordinary military control when he passes the cantonment line on furlough. Civilian authority and usage takes its place. Therefore it is an essential desire of the government that the maximum of coöperation exist between contiguous military and civilian zones. In fact the whole government scheme for combating venereal disease demands efficient coöperation on the part of civilians, if it is not to be to a considerable extent nullified.

That civilians and communities would offer this coöperation to the fullest possible extent when they understood the real facts was not doubted. But how were the several score million civilians in this country to be reached; to be aroused and awakened into action? To be sure, the in many ways remarkable spirit of coöperation which has pervaded the whole nation since the war began, the general recognition of certain basic conditions affecting us all without exception, and the much more tolerant attitude of the general public, promised much.

But this was not sufficient. The questions "Do communities really realize their grave responsibility? Are they aware that the health and morals of their soldier and sailor visitors are in their care? Are they making themselves worthy of this trust, of the government's faith in and dependence on their ability and willingness to cope with this vital problem?"—these questions were still pertinent. In fact, many cases at first seemed to indicate a decided "*no*," as the answer. Old customs, out-of-date regulations and habits of mind prevented the thinking people of communities from grasping the true significance either of the government's far-sighted and history-making stand, or of their vital part in backing it up. For so many generations have all things pertaining to sex, reproduction, prostitution, venereal disease, etc., been considered "dirty," —not fit to be touched publicly by the best men and women in our country,—that even the shock of this war seemed unable to break through the barrier. And this has happened despite the years of hard and thankless work which such organizations as the American Social Hygiene Association have been doing, which has laid a foundation of the greatest assistance to the government, but has not markedly affected the attitude of the general public.

The degree of success the government's program was to attain, however, directly depended upon the coöperation supplied by civilian communities, particularly those within a reasonable distance from cantonments. By "reasonable distance" it must be understood is meant not ten or fifteen miles, but seventy-five to one hundred miles or more. The railroad and the "jitney" have made it possible for men to travel such distances with less time and trouble than it took the Civil War fighter to go ten miles.

In other words, to assure the maximum of success to its work, the government must reach *every* community of any size within a fifty or hundred mile radius of every camp and cantonment in this country. To all intents and purposes, this meant reaching the whole country, and at the earliest moment possible. A committee was therefore organized, first as a sub-committee of the Committee for Civilian Coöperation in Combating Venereal Diseases, of the Council of National Defense; and later, to make the work even more effective, taken into the Commissions on Training Camp Activities as the Section on Men's Work of the Social Hygiene Division, whose duty it was to get this subject before communities and thus secure their active, intelligent coöperation.

How to do this was the question. The people to be reached would not read the "copy," even if papers did print it, which was and still is extremely questionable. Only one way seemed open, namely that of writing carefully prepared letters with accompanying material to the leading citizens in communities, and through their interest thus aroused, reaching the necessary officials and the general public. The enormity of this task may be imagined when the size of the country, the number of towns and villages it contains, are considered. No other way existed, however: so early in the summer of 1917 this work was begun. Lists were laboriously collected, suitable material gradually assembled, and letters written.

Particularly at a time like the present, citizens of prominence are deluged with appeals of all sorts and kinds. Very naturally the majority of these find their way to the wastebasket. Unless the busy man or woman is "sold," to employ the familiar advertising phrase, in the first few lines, it is almost certain that he will not reply. Especially is this applicable to any discussion of such a subject as venereal disease, which to the ordinary citizen, is unrefined, and therefore for *others* to look after. It is only with the greatest of effort and skill that the ignorance and apathy of the typical American is overcome; that he is aroused to work. Almost invariably he goes on the easily arrived at, but never investigated conclusion that *his* town is no worse than any other, in fact a little better, and that his mayor and officials are "honorable men with families," who will never tolerate anything which should not be. He knows in a more or less vague way that his city has laws of some kind dealing with prostitution, so, of course, "they must be adequate and enforced."

The question, why not depend on the mayors and law enforcing officials is very natural, and just as easy to answer. Regrettable as it may be, it cannot be gainsaid that a considerable number of duly elected civic officials are entirely unfitted to fill the positions they hold. Whether this is from ignorance, corruption or what not, is of no importance. The fact remains. No way existed for "getting a line" on these men, for gauging their sincerity. A civic official is almost invariably responsive to the wishes of the majority of his constituents, *as he understands those wishes.* It follows that if through correspondence and other means the government could awaken the influential citizens of any community the mayor would fall in with them and institute the proper "clean-up."

Of course, all officials are not of this type by any means: many of them have stood for enlightened ideas in dealing with prostitution and the other phases of the venereal disease problem. Their help could be counted on in any event.

Because of all these factors, the scheme above outlined was adopted. To date, many tens of thousands of letters have been written and several thousand active and interested correspondents from all quarters of the United States obtained. When aroused to the enormity and seriousness of this problem, the citizen's first query is "What can *I* do?" The answer was contained in a notable four-page leaflet called "Suggestions for a Citizens' Program for Combating Prostitution and Venereal Diseases." This leaflet is, as its title indicates, only a "suggestion." The personnel of a satisfactory committee of citizens, so far as professions go, is outlined; also the following divisions under which its work naturally falls: law enforcement, control of venereal diseases (medical), public education, protective work for girls, recreation work.

Next, this leaflet mentions those local agencies whose help is indispensable, namely, the chief of police, the city health officer, the school board, the mayor, the leading citizens, and lastly, it gives some concise, definite information, of general educational value on venereal diseases. With such an outline to follow, citizen committees have organized successfully and begun work on the problem of cleaning up their own communities,—wherever possible with the mayor's assistance, but if necessary in spite of him.

It is not even pretended that final solutions, or 100 per cent efficient results have been attained. But that the whole disgraceful problem is known to many, many thousands of citizens who never heard of it before, and that the general moral tone of many cities has been raised, and their citizens made receptive to further work, is beyond a doubt true. Such committees of citizens act both as spurs to the local officials, and as assistants to the government law-enforcement representatives, now working with ever increasing effectiveness throughout the country. They also form live points of contact with the general public for the spreading of further information on the whole subject. Through their reports, supplementing those of the government field men, it is possible to keep in close touch with those conditions which surround the soldier on leave, so that where necessary, action can be demanded from the mayor, under threat of federal interference. In these and other ways they are doing their bit, not only to safeguard the man in uniform, but also the citizen of today,—the soldier of tomorrow, whose health is and should be safeguarded.

COMMITTEES AS MEANS OF EDUCATION

Perhaps the greatest value of these committees, however, lies in their possibilities as a medium of education. Under the stress of the present, the government is able to deal with facts and figures relative to venereal conditions in a frank and open way never before possible. It is doing this, and these thousands of correspondents, members of citizens' committees or only individuals, are being educated to a new attitude, a new point of view. They are thus realizing gradually the true significance of the government's stand, and how it both depends upon them and effects them.

This one phase, coupled with the exemplary and, in many cases, uniform state laws which have passed under federal guidance or suggestion, is certainly one of the wonders worked by the Great War and which makes the present perhaps the most noteworthy era in the whole story of these age-old plagues of man. A new page in their history has been opened; one bright with possibilities for the welfare of humanity. In a way never so clearly marked before, it has been brought home to all the nations now participating in the great struggle that *army* really means *nation;* that the "behind the lines" work is just as vital as the actual battle-line fighting. It has been made equally clear that effective man power is one of the most vital factors in the successful prosecution of the war. The side with the preponderance of effectives, other things being equal, assumes the offensive,—which is synonymous with ultimate success.

Very naturally, therefore, after the more pressing case of the health and effectiveness of men in uniform had been considered, and machinery started, the question of the efficiency of the man behind the gun arose. The draft had shown a tremendous venereal rate in our civilian young men. Of the more than 80,000 cases of venereal disease treated by the army to date, *the large majority have been brought in from civil life.* To the question, did this condition affect our industrial efficiency, there could be only one answer—it must.

In the army, the scheme of combining education with treatment and punishment has given the remarkable results above noted. Suitably modified, and with the punishment clause left out, of course, this same general idea was utilized in the preparation of an "Industrial Program," through which the great mass of workers, the industrial back-bone of the country, could be reached. The plan of the program is simple. Employers of any considerable number of men are written to, a complete summary of the program being included in the letter, the intention being not only to put the facts of the case before him, but also the remedial measures proposed by the government.

These measures are:—

1. Distribution of literature, posting of bulletins, placards, etc.
2. Confidential interviews between employes and superintendent, foreman or other individual entrusted with the execution of the plan.
3. Examination by competent doctors of all employes who have or think they have a venereal disease.
4. Investigation of health conditions in the families of infected married men, and provision for care of wives and children.
5. Disposition of cases for treatment either by individual physicians specially engaged, or at a hospital clinic, or plant clinic.
6. Provision of leave of absence with pay for employes who are in the infectious stages of a venereal disease, with the requirement that they report daily to the superintendent or foreman.
7. A certificate of each treatment signed by the treating physician should be required of every patient.

One of the great errors hitherto made in work on this subject, has been in the type of literature prepared. Unless particularly interested, the typical individual is only going to read such material as is printed in his own vernacular. Almost without exception, social hygiene subjects have been treated, up to the present, in an exceptionally "highbrow" manner, which was all right for the student, but completely above the ordinary worker. This literature was written, therefore, in the language of the everyday man. The placards and booklets are accurate and true, not at all involved, and have as a result proven immensely popular. In putting this plan into effect, the following sequence is the correct one:

On the day a pamphlet called "Your Job and Your Future" (of which in four weeks over 120,000 have already been ordered) is given out, and placards headed "Beware!" posted in all places where the men gather, a notice is put up for all employes to read, which states that "at the request of the War Department, the ——— Manufacturing Company, is helping in the campaign against venereal diseases,—gonorrhea and syphilis," and which particularly emphasizes the need for coöperation of the workers, the plant, and the government. This notice serves to center the attention of all employes on the material which is given them, and stimulates interest. The booklets are then given out to each employe, placards posted and, as is invariably the case, the numerous cases uncovered given accurate information in the shape of circulars included in the plan, and either given the proper care by the plant doctor or referred to a place where it can be obtained. Follow-up material is also provided in the shape of pay-envelope enclosures, which being distributed now and then, keep the whole problem alive.

The question of medical treatment is a very vital one, and one which changes with each locality or situation. That some sort of adequate medical attention is necessary, goes without saying. The government's material is very emphatic in its warning against "quacks" and their ilk, but so long as something better is not provided, they are bound to continue under one guise or another. The obvious answer is a clinic, properly equipped. The vital need of some such provision in the application of this scheme is time and again emphasized. Depending upon the size, it can be operated by the single plant alone, or in conjunction with other ones in the same locality. Or, if any state, municipal or private clinic is already in existence, arrangements can be made with it to care for the plant cases. The main feature is that some provision should be made, the details being left to subsequent correspondence.

In the development of this feature, the coöperation of every local and state board of health is being sought. Already, such representative ones as the State Boards of Massachusetts and Minnesota have recognized the opportunity for coördinating and making more effective their work, and have organized to assist the employers of their respective states. Thus, the beginning of a new alliance against these enemies of mankind is made; an alliance which should go a long way towards guaranteeing a permanent, effective national campaign. Perhaps the whole program is best described by a quotation from a leading industrial publication, as "a plan, unquestionably . . . . in the forefront of any similar effort for the essential upbuilding of the health of labor."

Notwithstanding all these movements and in spite of interested citizens and officials everywhere, the public generally was largely ignorant of what was going on. There has seldom been anything more romantic than the cool way this country has overturned tradition, "rolled up its sleeves," and faced the whole disgraceful problem of venereal diseases. Stories of the first magnitude could be written about it, but they are not. Why? Because unless so veiled and beclouded as to become largely meaningless they would not be printed.

In American industries it is the custom frequently to publish a "House Organ," a little trade booklet going to employes and customers, often with an enormous circulation. An appeal has recently been made to them. Would they publish a prepared story, at the request of the War Department, dealing with the Venereal Disease Campaign?

An emphatic affirmative was the almost unanimous reply and in two months about one hundred fifty of these little magazines have printed the story called "V. D., The Enemy at Home," the history of the government's program against venereal diseases, in story form. No terms were camouflaged, yet almost without exception it was printed verbatim. It has already attained a circulation, by this means, of over 1,500,000, and is still mounting.

If this has shown nothing else, the fact is clear that where editors are not afraid of offending their advertisers, they will gladly print this sort of material. The response being generally awakened (by this story) from the public also makes plain that today people want information; that the time is rapidly approaching when the veil of prudery which has hidden the seriousness of this problem from the sight of even broad-minded, sensible people, will be gone.

Nothing final has been attained in this civilian work, nor was it expected. The general bases of a program of common sense, conservation, efficiency and prevention have been laid, chiefly through the agency of the present emergency, and on them will be built the constructive work of the future. In this there is a part for every agency from the federal government to the individual. In direct proportion to the coöperation of these many factors will be the rapidity with which success is attained.

THE WAR WORK OF THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES

By John R. Mott,

General Secretary, National War Work Council, Young Men's Christian Associations of the United States.

When America entered the war, there was created the National War Work Council of Young Men's Christian Associations. It was designed to unite the national, state and local organizations of this movement in order to prevent undesirable duplication of effort and in order to make possible the most efficient service of the men in the American Army and Navy. Its work was given an official status by the following executive order:

War Department, Washington.
May 9, 1917.

General Orders, No. 57.

II.—The following Order by the President, issued April 26, 1917, is published to the Army for the information and guidance of all concerned:

The Young Men's Christian Association has, in the present emergency, as under similar circumstances in the past, tendered its services for the benefit of enlisted men in both arms of the service. This organization is prepared by experience, approved methods, and assured resources to serve especially the troops in camp and field. It seems best for the interest of the service that it shall continue as a voluntary civilian organization; however, the results obtained are so beneficial and bear such a direct relation to efficiency, inasmuch as the Association provision contributes to the happiness, content, and morale of the personnel, that in order to unify the civilian betterment activities in the Army and further the work of the organization that has demonstrated its ability to render a service desired by both officers and men, official recognition is hereby given the Young Men's Christian Association as a valuable adjunct and asset to the service. Officers are enjoined to render the fullest practicable assistance and co-operation in the maintenance and extension of the Association, both at permanent posts and stations, and in camp and field. To this end attention of officers is called to the precedent and policy already established in

(1) An Act, approved May 31, 1902, giving authority to the Secretary of War to grant permission by revocable license for the erection and maintenance of Association buildings on military reservations for the promotion of the social, physical, intellectual, and moral welfare of enlisted men.

(2) An Act of Congress making appropriation for the Army for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1911, and referred to in General Orders, No. 54, War De-

partment, 1910, wherein the furnishing of heat and light for the above-mentioned buildings was authorized.

(3) General Orders, No. 39, War Department, 1914 (paragraph 80, Compilation of Orders, 1881–1915), wherein commanding officers were enjoined (a) to provide all proper facilities practicable to aid the Association; (b) to assign suitable sites; (c) to supply transportation for Association tentage and equipment; (d) to care for and police Association tents and grounds; (e) to accord accredited secretaries the privilege of the purchase of supplies from the Quartermaster's Department; (f) to furnish, where practicable, tentage and shelter.

(2586501 A–A. G. O.)

By order of the Secretary of War,

H. L. SCOTT,
Major-General, Chief of Staff.

Official:
H. P. MCCAIN, *the Adjutant-General.*

In addition, the following general orders were issued by the Navy Department:

NAVY DEPARTMENT, WASHINGTON.
July 26, 1917.

GENERAL ORDERS, No. 313.

1. The Young Men's Christian Association, in addition to its large service to enlisted men during times of peace, has greatly increased its facilities and efforts during the present need represented by the increased forces in the Navy and Marine Corps, and the calling of the Naval Reserve and Naval Militia. This organization is prepared by experience, approved methods, and assured resources to serve our enlisted men. The results obtained by this voluntary civilian organization are so beneficial and bear such a direct relationship to efficiency, inasmuch as the Association provision contributes to the happiness, content and morale of the personnel, that in order to unify the civilian betterment activities in the Navy and further the work of the organization that has demonstrated its ability to render a service desired by both officers and men, cordial recognition is hereby given the Young Men's Christian Association as a valuable adjunct and asset to the service.

2. Officers are urged to render the fullest practicable assistance and co-operation in the maintenance and extension of the Association at the regular Navy yards and stations, and at such other stations as may be established on either a temporary or permanent basis. To this end it is desired that officers, ashore and afloat, extend all possible consideration to accredited representatives of the Association. This should include:

(1) Authorization by commandants for the erection of buildings at the various Navy yards and stations in accordance with instructions already issued, and the provision of heat and light for said buildings.

(2) Co-operation in facilitating accredited representatives in their access to Navy yards and stations and to ships and temporary camps.

(3) The granting of commissary privileges where practicable.

(4) Furnishing where practicable tentage for shelter when in temporary camps.

(5) Transportation on naval craft, when necessary, of secretaries and supplies.

The National War Work Council is composed of nearly two hundred leading citizens representing virtually every state of the Union and meets approximately every three or four months. The Executive Committee, composed of between twenty and thirty members, holds fortnightly meetings. The Council has its headquarters at 347 Madison Avenue, New York City. Its work is conducted through the following bureaus: Finance, Personnel, Materiel, Transportation, Religious Work, Educational Work, Physical Work, Entertainment, Purchasing. In addition to these bureaus, which center at the New York headquarters, there is a regional organization in each of the six military departments, with headquarters at Boston, New York, Altanta, Chicago, San Antonio, and San Francisco.

The War Work Council is conducting work at present at nearly one thousand centers in the United States and in the various American possessions. The work is carried on almost entirely in buildings erected for Association purposes and is under the leadership of a staff of over three thousand secretaries, including those at the national and various regional headquarters. The program of work includes the various physical, social, educational and religious activities. The work is on a broad basis, the facilities and privileges being open alike to officers and men of all arms of the service, regardless of religious affiliation. Satisfactory coöperative relations exist between the Young Men's Christian Association and the other agencies which are seeking to serve the enlisted men, namely, the Government Chaplains, the Knights of Columbus and the Jewish Welfare Board within the camps, and the Young Women's Christian Association, the War Camp Community Service of the Recreation and Playground Association, and the various denominational and other organizations at work outside the camps. The Association as well as these various organizations both within and outside the camps are coördinated and helped by the Commission on Training Camp Activities of the War Department.

Besides the work in the camps and cantonments and at various regular and special army and navy stations at home, the Association seeks to serve the enlisted men while travelling on the various troop trains and also on the ocean transports. The work of the Young Men's Christian Association on behalf of the American army and navy overseas will soon become the most extensive part of its activity. Already it is conducting work in over seven hundred Association buildings, hotels, cafés and canteens in France, as well as in scores of others in the British Isles and in Italy. The staff of Association workers in connection with the American Expeditionary Forces numbers nearly three thousand men and women. General Pershing has asked the Association to conduct the post exchange, and women workers are used especially in connection with this phase of the work.

Before America entered the war, the International Committee of Young Men's Christian Associations had developed a large work on behalf of the soldiers of Allied armies and of prisoners of war. This has continued to expand. The most extensive part of it is that on behalf of the French army, where the work is conducted under the name Foyer du Soldat. Over five hundred buildings have been established or equipped for this service and a staff of many hundreds of American and French workers are in charge. The plan is to enlarge this most helpful ministry until, at some two thousand points, its helpful influence will cover the entire French army. The work is carried on with the full and hearty approval of the French War Ministry, and leading French military authorities have borne testimony as to its great value in maintaining the morale and promoting the comfort of the soldiers. A similar work is being furthered by the American Associations throughout the Italian army, where these activities are conducted under the name Casa del Soldato. The American Associations are likewise coöperating in introducing such work in the Belgian and Portuguese armies in France as well as among the Chinese and other labor battalions. Its activities are widespread among the armies in Egypt, Palestine, Mesopotamia, Macedonia and East Africa. One of the largest and most valuable parts of the work is that in Russia.

A most significant and beneficent phase of the war work of the American Young Men's Christian Associations has been that which they have conducted from almost the beginning of the war among the prisoners of war in all of the belligerent countries. It is estimated that there are now between five and six million prisoners. The American Associations minister directly or indirectly to nearly all of them. Their work has been introduced into the countries one by one until now this practical service is being rendered in every country having military prisoners. The Association does not conduct relief work among the American prisoners, as that is the distinctive service of the American Red Cross, but it does continue to place at their disposal all of its facilities in the way of recreational sports, educational, social and religious work. Among the prisoners of other nationalities the Association is still called upon to do a large amount of relief work as well as to conduct its regular program of activities.

The Young Men's Christian Association is conducting its war work at present on an annual budget of approximately fifty million dollars, but in view of the many new demands and the inevitably enlarged plans for its work, it will require for the coming year considerably more than one hundred million dollars.

WAR WORK OF YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION

By A. Estelle Paddock,
Publicity Director, War Work Council, Young Women's Christian Association.

A million and a half men were in the American Army a year after this country entered the war. A million and a half women at the same time were employed on war orders in factories. A million other women were being speeded up in industries affected by the war. As the size of the army increases, the number of women in industry increases at the same rate. Each man who is withdrawn from factory work must be replaced by a woman. This vast industrial army of women forms the second line of defense.

This sudden influx brings about a shifting and changing of the women already wage-earners. They as well as the newcomers find themselves in strange environments. Ten million women in this country are now facing the wage-earners' problems.

The Young Women's Christian Association feels strongly its responsibility toward all women affected by the war. Its fifty years' experience in housing, feeding and recreation is brought to bear upon the situation. The War Work Council, now numbering a hundred and thirty members, was called into existence in June, 1917. The members are chosen from the whole United States. Its officers are: Mrs. James Stewart Cushman, chairman; Mrs. John R. Mott and Mrs. William Adams Brown, vice-chairmen; Mrs. Howard Morse, secretary, and Mrs. Henry P. Davison, treasurer. Among other members are: Mrs. Robert Lansing, Mrs. Josephus Daniels, Mrs. Leonard Wood, Mrs. John French, Mrs. Percy V. Pennybacker, Miss Mary E. Woolley, Mrs. Robert Bacon.

The Y. W. C. A. has been asked by the government through the Woman's Branch of the Industrial Service Section of the Ordnance Department to organize constructive recreation for women in the twenty-two federal industrial reservations. The same work is also being extended to about one hundred cost plus plants now taken over by the government. Miss Ernestine Friedman of the Industrial Department of the Y. W. C. A. War Work Council is in charge of the work. Social activities had been started by the first of July in Bloomfield, New Jersey; Bridgeport, Connecticut; Bush Terminal, Brooklyn; Carney's Point, New Jersey; Hopewell, Virginia; Long Island City, New York; Nashville, Tennessee; and Williamsburg, Virginia. Thousands of girls will be employed in some of these cantonments.

The women employed in the federal industrial reservations include all types and ages. They are teachers, high school girls and industrial girls: many foreigners are employed.

Life in a munition cantonment is necessarily abnormal. The girls have no responsibilities outside their working hours. In addition, many of them must face the problems of leaving home, of loneliness, of dangerous fatigue, of lack of suitable recreation and the responsibility of family support. Under such conditions it becomes especially important to fill the leisure time with constructive, continuous community recreation and service. Local industrial service clubs are organized in each center and all the clubs are included in the great industrial army. Model recreation buildings are being put up. These contain a large living-room, smaller sitting-rooms, living quarters for the secretaries, a gymnasium in one wing and a cafeteria in the other. One executive secretary is appointed to each center in addition to a recreation leader and often an assistant secretary.

Women war workers in many cases will meet industrial as well as personal problems. Changing industrial conditions may mean in some places unemployment, unaccustomed tasks, irregular hours, unhygienic conditions, speeding and rush work, overtime under guise of patriotism and even the repeal of laws governing hours of work and age of workers. Conditions like these invariably result in unsettled standards, obliterating high ideals, letting down personal restraint and permitting loose social relationships. Wherever bad industrial and social conditions prevail the labor turnover is extensive, efficiency is diminished and output falls off.

To prevent this disaster, the Y. W. C. A. coöperates with employers and with girls to uphold high standards. Leaders with the right knowledge of industrial problems are being trained in courses conducted by local associations, industrial councils and at the National Training School in New York City. During the summer the Y. W. C. A. coöperated with Bryn Mawr College in a course for industrial supervisors under the leadership of Dr. Susan Kingsbury.

The widespread education of the general public in industrial standards is necessary to the protection of women, their safety, their health and their moral welfare. The association through all its many avenues impresses upon people in general that efficiency is dependent upon the eight-hour day, one day's rest in seven, minimum wage, equal pay for equal work, collective bargaining as expressed in trade unionism and the abolition of night work for women.

Besides these activities in ammunition factories, the Y. W. C. A. carries on other enterprises for the well-being of employed women, and other women affected by the war. About six hundred association workers are employed on war work in the United States. They are social workers, both white and colored, club and recreation leaders, physical directors, dietitians, business women, household and employment experts, educationalists and physicians. Association members now number about four hundred thousand.

The Y. W. C. A. deals with the problem of industrial housing in several ways. In many cities the local associations already have buildings. Room registry bureaus have been established in Buffalo, New York; Chester, Pennsylvania; Dayton, Ohio and other cities. Any woman entering a strange city can apply at the local Y. W. C. A. for assistance in finding room and board.

Emergency dormitories have been built by the War Work

Council in Army City, Kansas, for girls employed in the Camp Funston laundry, and at Deming, New Mexico, where Camp Cody is situated. A model dormitory is being built in Charleston at the request of Secretary Daniels for women employed in making uniforms. A similar house has been built in Camp Sherman Annex, Chillicothe, Ohio. With slight modifications, these plans can be utilized anywhere to house women comfortably and economically. The Housing Committee of the Council, of which Mrs. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., is chairman, after an exhaustive investigation of the subject, presented to Secretary Baker memoranda in regard to the housing of girls engaged in war industries.

Ninety-seven girls' club centers have been established in cities and towns adjacent to camps. Eleven of these are for colored girls. One hundred and thirty-five trained club and recreation leaders are employed. Everything that is done by the Y. W. C. A. for white women is done also for colored women. All their activities are under the leadership of colored college women and social workers.

From the beginning the War Work Council planned to include not only American women affected by the war, but because of the pleas from France and Russia, the first budget contained an item for work in Europe. Administrative, industrial and recreational secretaries were sent to place their experience at the disposal of the Russian women. In France the activities have fallen into two general divisions—social work among American war relief workers and coöperation with French women in work for their own people. The object, in France as in Russia, is to coöperate with the women of these countries developing such phases of social service for women as will meet war conditions and at the same time become permanent foundations for future work.

Hotel Petrograd has been opened in Paris, for American women war relief workers, at 33 rue Caumartin. Another hostess house has been opened at Tours. A room in each recreation hut for nurses established at all the American base hospitals, is provided with a Y. W. C. A. social worker. Three hostess houses to lodge the American Signal Corps women have been organized at the request of army officials.

The Foyers des Alliees are recreation centers for French munition women workers, for women otherwise employed by the French government, and for French women, established by the American Y. W. C. A. at the request of the French Government.

The war activities of the Y. W. C. A. may be summarized as follows:

IN THE UNITED STATES

Establishing Club and Recreation Work for Girls, including a Patriotic League, now numbering 400,000, white and colored.

Providing Emergency Housing for employed girls and women. Five centers have been provided to date.

Establishing Hostess Houses in or near army and navy camps for women relatives and friends of the army and navy. Sixty-one are in use. Twenty-five others are authorized. Thirteen of these are for colored people.

Establishing Work in Colored Communities affected by the war, led by colored college women and trained social workers.

Conducting a Bureau for Foreign-born Women, providing translations in eighteen languages of needed bulletins, interpreters in army camps, training for Polish women for reconstruction work in Poland, and a home service for non-English speaking women.

Providing and Financing Social Leaders for women under the direction of the War Department Commission on Training Camp Activities.

Establishing Room Registries and *War Service Centers* in cities employing girls in war industries. The Government has asked the Y. W. C. A. for leaders in twenty-two of its industrial cantonments.

Maintaining a Bureau of Social Morality which coöperates with the War Department in furnishing a Corps of Lecturers on social standards in war time; issues literature.

Publishing a War Work Bulletin and other educational literature for women in war time.

Maintaining a Bureau of Volunteer Workers.

IN FRANCE

Provides social workers, recreation leaders, physical directors and cafeteria managers; foyers, and hostess houses.

Working with

- American women in France (nineteen centers), Nurses, Signal corps (women), other English-speaking women with the American army
- French women (at the request of the French Government) (nine centers)
- Working in munitions factories, in stores and in French war offices.

IN RUSSIA

Club, cafeteria and educational work in three centers for Russian women.

SPECIAL CATHOLIC ACTIVITIES IN WAR SERVICE

BY JOHN J. BURKE, C.S.P.

A review of the Catholic war relief work of the country which is to be limited to the space of a magazine article must necessarily be brief. When we touch the subject we immediately include a body of our countrymen numbering over nineteen millions of souls.

Immediately after our entrance into the war, the Catholic Church of the United States through its archbishops sent the following message to the President:

> Standing firmly upon our solid Catholic tradition and history, from the very foundation of this nation, we affirm in this hour of stress and trial our most sacred and sincere loyalty and patriotism toward our country, our government, and our flag.
>
> Moved to the very depths of our hearts by the stirring appeal of the President of the United States, and by the action of our national Congress, we accept wholeheartedly and unreservedly the decree of that legislative authority proclaiming this country to be in a state of war.
>
> We have prayed that we might be spared the dire necessity of entering the conflict, but now that war has been declared we bow in obedience to the summons to bear our part in it with fidelity, with courage and with the spirit of sacrifice which as loyal citizens we are bound to manifest for the defense of the most sacred rights, and the welfare of the whole nation.
>
> Acknowledging gladly the gratitude that we have always felt for the protection of our spiritual liberty and the freedom of our Catholic institutions, under the flag, we pledge our devotion and our strength in the maintenance of our country's glorious leadership, in those possessions and principles which have been America's proudest boast.
>
> Inspired neither by hate nor fear, but by the holy sentiments of truest patriotic fervor and zeal, we stand ready, we and all the flock committed to our keeping, to coöperate in every way possible with our President and our national government, to the end that the great and holy cause of liberty may triumph and that our beloved country may emerge from this hour of test stronger and nobler than ever.
>
> Our people, as ever, will rise as one man to serve the nation. Our priests and consecrated women will once again, as in every former trial of our country, win by their bravery, their heroism and their service, new admiration and approval.
>
> We are all true Americans, ready as our age, our ability and our condition permit, to do whatever is in us to do for the preservation, the progress and the triumph of our beloved country.
>
> May God direct and guide our President and our government that out of this trying crisis in our national life may at length come a closer union among all the citizens of America and that an enduring and blessed peace may crown the sacrifices which war inevitably entails.

The vast problems of war relief and civic coöperation with the government appealed to Catholics as well as to all other patriotic citizens. As members of organizations not professedly of any religious character, thousands of Catholics volunteered their services to the government and were accepted. Their names and fields of activity are not included in this article. We have judged that its treatment should be confined to what may be called the corporate activity and coöperation of the Catholic body.

When the American troops were summoned for service on the Mexican border, the Knights of Columbus, a Catholic fraternal organization, inaugurated the work of building recreation halls which might also be used for religious services at the various camps. It was found that such civic coöperation promoted in an effective way the physical morale and the religious and spiritual welfare of the men.

As soon as the world war opened for America, the Fosdick Commission took up the question of providing in all the camps recreational centers for the enlisted men. To help in this work the Knights of Columbus offered the services of their entire order, and the organization was named as one of the governmental agencies for the work. Other Catholic societies were willing and anxious to undertake similar work, but from the viewpoint of economy and efficiency this would have been inadvisable. Therefore, in this great work which the Knights so generously undertook, the help, support and coöperation of the entire Catholic body were given to them. At every cantonment in the United States, at every national guard camp and at many of the naval stations, one, two or three halls have been erected by the Knights of Columbus. These have been equipped as recreational centers, manned with secretaries. Everybody, without distinction of creed or color, is made welcome. No distinction of any kind is made. The Knights of Columbus have offered their services, first, to that national cause common to us all as Americans and they have put their entire strength and force in promoting its welfare. They have not limited their activity to the troops at home. They have followed the troops abroad. Clubhouses have been erected at the ports of debarkation, recreational centers at the cantonments of the American Expeditionary Forces, and huts behind the fighting lines. Trained secretaries have been sent abroad to conduct this work. The program includes therefore a complete coöperation with and seconding of the government in helping to promote the well-being and the morale of the troops both at home and abroad.

America has realized, as no nation ever realized, what civic coöperation, not from afar but at close range, can do for our soldiers. Previous to this time in history they were sent off to the war; now they are sent off—but we go with them. The break with home in its personal and corporate consequences is sad and demoralizing at best; to lessen it, to keep the home spirit with them is of the greatest value to them and the country they serve. We have learned that they are not only our soldiers, but they are our sons and our brothers. We have learned that the war is not theirs alone, but ours also. Consequently, we have followed them to the camp and into the camp, on board the transport, to foreign shores and into the trenches. The program of the government planned for this aid, and it asked the great civic social organizations of the country to coöperate with it by active support. The coöperation thus asked of the Catholic body of the country has been freely and generously given.

At the General Convention of the Catholics of the United States —held for the purpose of considering how we would best help the government win the war—the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

> *Resolved:* That this convention most heartily commends the excellent work which the Knights of Columbus have undertaken in coöperating with the government of the United States in meeting the moral problems which have arisen and will arise out of the war, and it is the opinion of this convention that the Knights of Columbus should be organized as the representative Catholic body for the special work they have undertaken.

This same convention, composed of delegates from almost all the dioceses of the United States, forty national Catholic organizations and the representatives of the Catholic Press Association passed unanimously also this further resolution:

> *Resolved:* That it is the unanimous opinion of this convention that the Catholics of the United States should devote their united energies to promote the spiritual and material welfare of the United States troops during the war, wherever they may be, at home or abroad, and should create a national organization to study, coördinate, unify and put in operation all Catholic activities incidental to the war.

At the beginning of the war the number of commissioned chaplains permitted by law was absolutely insufficient for the needs of the troops. Volunteer chaplains had to be called and their salaries provided by organizations of the faith to which they belonged. Many Catholic volunteer chaplains offered their services and their salaries were paid by the Knights of Columbus. The chaplains in service abroad were all too few as General Pershing's cablegram of last January shows. Such Catholic chaplains were sent abroad in goodly numbers and are being sent today, and the salaries of these men are paid by the Knights of Columbus.

It will be seen that with regard to war relief work with its manifold fields and with many agencies, eager to occupy all or any, the Catholic body faced the same problem as the government faced and as other religious denominations had to face. The government solved it by the appointment of the national Commission on Training Camp Activities of the army and navy, which has really coordinated the heads and representatives of social welfare organizations. The Protestant bodies solved it by creating the War Time Commission of the Federal Council of Churches which includes all the Protestant bodies, even the Universalists and the Unitarians. The Jewish body met it by establishing the Jewish Welfare Board. The Catholics have met it by creating the National Catholic War Council.

An organization is more accurately known by its spirit than by its constitution; therefore a word as to the genus or purpose of the National Catholic War Council. It was established not to control, but to direct; not to hinder or curtail, but to coördinate and to promote; not to rule with a master hand but to facilitate by conference and mutually accepted divisions of work. To be complete and efficient, it necessarily had to embrace the entire organization of the Catholic Church. The National Catholic War Council is composed first of the fourteen archbishops, or metropolitans, as they are called in the United States. The extent of territory covered by their sees will be evident from the following enumeration: James Cardinal Gibbons, archbishop of Baltimore; John Cardinal Farley, archbishop of New York; William Cardinal O'Connell, archbishop of Boston; Most Rev. John Ireland, archbishop of St. Paul; Most Rev. Alexander Christie, archbishop of Portland, Oregon; Most Rev. John J. Glennon, archbishop of St. Louis; Most Rev. Sebastian G. Messmer, archbishop of Milwaukee; Most Rev. Henry Moeller, archbishop of Cincinnati; Most Rev.

John B. Pitaval, archbishop of Sante Fe; Most Rev. Dennis J. Dougherty, archbishop of Philadelphia; Most Rev. James J. Keane, archbishop of Dubuque; Most Rev. Edward J. Hanna, archbishop of San Francisco; Most Rev. George W. Mundelein, archbishop of Chicago. With the direct heavy burdens of their own sees, and the great distances to be covered for a common meeting it would be impossible for this body to direct war work. They have, consequently, appointed with power to act an administrative committee of four bishops: Rt. Rev. Peter J. Muldoon of Rockford, Illinois; Rt. Rev. Joseph Schrembs of Toledo, Ohio; Rt. Rev. Patrick J. Hayes of New York and Rt. Rev. William T. Russell of Charleston, South Carolina. It is the office of this body to be a high court of general control and direction. All four of these bishops have the work of their immediate dioceses and necessarily their supervision of such a labor as war relief must be of a general character.

The immediate supervision and direction of war relief work has been left to two sub-committees: the Committee of the Knights of Columbus of which we have spoken and which has for its field all activities within the camps, camp secretaries and overseas work; and the Committee on Special War Activities which, to put it briefly and by way of exclusion, has for its field all that is not included in the work of the Knights of Columbus. The funds of the Knights of Columbus and the expenditures of them are under the control of that organization. And the same may be said of those of the Committee on Special War Activities. It will be seen then that both committees are left to do their independent work, and carry on their own administration. Both are held responsible by a higher authority, the Administrative Committee, and with this committee both meet at intervals for conferences and survey of the entire work through an advisory board, composed of the Administrative Committee, six representatives of the Knights of Columbus and six of the Committee on Special War Activities.

From this outline it will be seen that the entire Catholic Church of the country from the lowest to the highest of its members have put themselves at the service of the government and that within this organization the widest range has been allowed to every agency and every organization, and that the inspiring spirit of it all is to have every one and every society do their best, all working harmoniously under one authority for the welfare of the whole country.

With what thoroughness all fields are covered may be seen from the following survey of the constitution of the Committee on Special War Activities. The committee is composed of Rev. John J. Burke, chairman; Rt. Rev. Monsignor H. T. Drumgoole; Rt. Rev. Monsignor M. J. Splaine; Rt. Rev. Monsignor Edward A. Kelly; Rev. William J. Kerby; John G. Agar and Charles I. Denechaud.

It includes as sub-committees the Committee on Men's Organizations. It deals with all Catholic men's organizations, other than the Knights of Columbus, throughout the country. Before it was established many men's organizations had of course devoted themselves to war work. Now all overlapping, interference, duplication, inability to know just what to do are avoided. This central committee has informed itself first as to what each organization is doing; second, what it is best fitted to do;—and then directs it as to the most needed work in its community. In this way the Catholic clubs throughout the country have been thrown open for the entertainment and reception of soldiers and sailors: the men give of their personal service. They are instructed how to coöperate with the local Fosdick Commission; how to better, if they need to be bettered, the moral conditions of neighboring camps; to provide entertainment under Knights of Columbus auspices in the camps; to join with the Travelers' Aid; to recruit secretaries for camp work at home and abroad; and to coöperate in governmental activities, such as the liberty loan or Red Cross drives or war saving stamps campaigns.

The Red Cross, for example, in its letter of December, 1917, stated that "The Catholic Church has rendered invaluable service to the American Red Cross," and in a later letter, "The Christmas Red Cross membership drive received the enthusiastic support of the Catholic Church throughout the country." Under the Committee of Men's Organizations are registered 6,150 men's societies, all actively engaged in one or more forms of war work.

Another sub-committee is that on Women's Organizations. What was said of the work of the Committee on Men's Organizations may be repeated here. We may add that through this committee the work of building visitors' houses at the camps where they are needed is being carried on efficiently. It has already opened houses at Camp Merritt, New Jersey; Camp Mills, New York; Camp Upton, New York; and Camp Johnston, Florida, and the program which is being developed and carried out is extensive. This committee has registered 4,200 women's organizations, and is directing their entire forces in the work of war relief whether it be the small local community work at home or the larger national work here or abroad.

A synopsis of the work of one of these societies will serve as evidence of the magnitude of the entire work through the country. The Catholic Women's Service League of Albany was organized June 3, 1917. During the first ten months of its existence it organized twenty-four subordinate units and established headquarters at the expense of $130,000. This headquarters accommodates classes in First Aid, Home Care for Sick, and Surgical Dressings. The league sent to the Red Cross during that period over 5,000 articles. In the second liberty loan it subscribed $3,000.00; in thrift savings stamps campaign it has collected $10,000.00. Together with the Patriotic League it has cared for dependent sailors and soldiers. Its aid is extended to people of all denominations, and its activities reach into many more channels than those we have mentioned. The Committee on Women's Organizations undertakes also the work of relief and care of Belgian and French children; and such special work as coöperating with the Association of American Colleges in the education in this country of French girls.

Another sub-committee is that of Historical Records. This committee purposes to preserve a record of the names of all Catholics in the service of the United States and of all Catholic activity with regard to the war and its subsequent problems. Its field is immense. It will also publish shortly a special bulletin of general interest and war information. It keeps in close touch with governmental agencies of history and record. The Sub-committee on Publicity is a bureau of information, useful and necessary not only for the Catholic body, but for all others—individual or organized bodies, since the work of one is of interest and closely allied with the work of all.

From the very beginning of the war the Catholic Church found it imperative to supply their many chaplains with all that was necessary to conduct divine service. This meant, in the first place, an altar, altar equipment, vestments, chalice, etc. All these go to make up what is called a chaplain's "kit." Moreover, for the welfare of the troops, it was necessary to supply prayer books, religious articles, the New Testaments,—literature that would be helpful and inspiring. To cover this special field the Chaplains' Aid Association was organized, as early as April, 1917. This association with its many chapters throughout the country is under the Sub-committee on Chaplains' Aid and Literature, of the Committee on Special War Activities. We need not review its work here. Sufficient to say it has distributed 400,000 prayer books, printed and is distributing 570,000 copies of the New Testament and in general provides for these special needs of our Catholic—and frequently non-Catholic—soldiers and sailors, both at home and abroad.

Under the Special Activities Committee is the Committee on Finance. Its title defines its office. There is also the Committee on Reconstruction which has already taken up the various problems that even now face us and that will increase when the war ends.

It may be added that all these committees are acting constantly in concert with Protestant and Jewish bodies. The chairman of the Committee on Special War Activities is also the chairman of the Committee of Six, an advisory commission to the Commission on Training Camp Activities and to the War Department. The membership of this committee is as follows: Rt. Rev. James DeWolf Perry, chairman of the Executive Committee of the War Commission of the Episcopal Church; Mr. Robert E. Speer, chairman of War Time Commission of the Federal Council of Churches; Dr. William Adams Brown, secretary of the War Time Commission of the Federal Council of Churches; Mr. John R. Mott, international secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association; Colonel Harry Cutler, chairman of the Jewish Welfare Board in the United States Army and Navy, and Rev. John J. Burke, C.S.P., chairman of Committee on Special War Activities of the National Catholic War Council.

The National Catholic War Council is constantly securing and directing the coöperation of the entire Catholic body with all governmental activity. Its national headquarters are at 932 14th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. Its work, we trust, is evidence of how the Catholic Church in America works as one, individually and corporately, for the support of the government, the welfare of our troops and the victorious triumph of our arms.

AMERICAN JEWISH RELIEF IN THE WORLD WAR

By Albert Lucas,

Secretary of the Joint Distribution Committee of the American Funds for Jewish War Sufferers.

Our latest figures show the collections by American Jewry, acting as an entity, in behalf of the Jews in the various War Zones of Europe and Palestine, have totalled, since the beginning of the war in 1914 and up to the present year, approximately $20,000,000, of which the bulk has been disbursed. There has been but a single distributing agency for the disbursing of this huge sum, namely, the Joint Distribution Committee of the American Funds for Jewish War Sufferers, comprising in its membership representatives of the various committees, whose duty it has been to collect the funds. Upon this Joint Distribution Committee, of which the Chairman is Felix M. Warburg, many well known leaders of Jewry in America have served.

American Jewry United in Effort

Every section and every shade of Jewish life in America is represented. The men and women who have thus given of their time, of their energy and of their effort, to insure an equitable and wise distribution of the funds secured through the generosity of virtually all the Jews in America, rich and poor alike, are leaders in finance and in the religious and cultural life of American Jewry. Their service has insured, not alone the honest administration of the vast sums placed at their disposal, but likewise its able administration.

To better insure an exact knowledge of the requirements presented by the situation in Europe in its ever changing aspects, there was established by Dr. Boris D. Bogen and Max Senior in the latter part of last year (1917), a branch of the Joint Distribution Committee in Holland. This branch is to be a permanency until the close of the war and will, presumably, be continued long after, for the necessary purposes of rehabilitation. There are also established in various parts of Europe and in Palestine, local Committees, which report to the Joint Distribution Committee, so that it is possible to keep in close, frequent and immediate touch with the various Jewish Committees in the War Zones, including even those Committees in the "Occupied" districts.

BEGAN RELIEF IN FALL OF 1914

American Jews, more quickly than any other body of American citizens, came to the realization in the Fall of 1914, that extensive relief measures would be necessary as a corollary of the war. The American Jewish Committee, which had in its treasury a balance of approximately $600,000 out of the funds collected for the relief of the victims of the Kishineff massacre, made this sum available for war relief purposes. Other representative Jewish organizations took up the matter of appeals,—among these, and probably the first, being the Union of Orthodox Jewish Congregations of America, the call being sent out at the instance of Albert Lucas and Morris Engelman, Secretaries of the Union.

The relief work took its first organized form on October 4, 1914, when, as a result of the activity of the Union of Orthodox Congregations, the Orthodox Jews of America formed the Central Committee for the Relief of Jews Suffering Through the War, with Leon Kamaiky, publisher of the *Jewish Daily News* of New York, as the Chairman; Harry Fischel, Treasurer; Albert Lucas, Executive Secretary; and Morris Engelman, Financial Secretary.

AMERICAN JEWISH COMMITTEE ACTS

Almost immediately thereafter, the American Jewish Committee sent out a country-wide invitation to national Jewish organizations, including the recently organized Central Relief Committee, to appoint delegates to meet in a conference in New York City on October 25. Louis Marshall presided at this meeting, and a Committee of five members was appointed, consisting of Oscar S. Straus, Julian W. Mack, Louis D. Brandeis, Harry Fischel and Meyer London. The Committee of Five was to select a Committee of 100, to be representative of every organization invited to the Conference. Thus was formed the American Jewish Relief Committee, the first officers of which were Louis Marshall, President; Cyrus L. Sulzberger, Secretary; and Felix M. Warburg, Treasurer. In the meanwhile, the Central Committee had already been collecting funds and had sent $10,000 abroad to Europe and to Palestine.

At a meeting of the American Jewish Relief Committee on

November 22, 1914, it was announced that the American Jewish Committee had voted to transfer the sum of $100,000 from its emergency trust fund to the Relief Committee, and many large sums were pledged by individuals for the general purposes of relief.

ORGANIZATION OF JOINT DISTRIBUTION COMMITTEE

The most important step in the work of Jewish war relief was taken on November 24, 1914, when the Joint Distribution Committee was formed jointly by the American Jewish Relief Committee and the Central Relief Committee, and the People's Relief Committee, which was organized later, also sends its representatives to the meetings of the Joint Distribution Committee.

The year following the beginning of the war, in August, 1915, the People's Relief Committee was formed, the first Chairman of which was Meyer London. This Committee appeals to that section of the Jews of America who are representatives of the laboring classes, and whose contributions are mostly obtained in small sums.

In this way was avoided any possibility of duplication in the transmission of funds abroad, without interfering in any way with the collection of funds by the three constituent committees, which have continued to appeal to those sections of the Jewish community which could best be reached by them respectively. Thus the American Jewish Relief Committee has collected very large sums, mainly among the wealthier Jews of the nation, while the Central Committee has appealed to the Orthodox element and the People's Committee has appealed to the laboring element.

HOW FUNDS ARE ALLOTTED

The Joint Distribution Committee has impartially considered all the reports received from all over the world, with details of the distress and suffering caused by the war. They have come not only from Europe but also from Palestine, as well as from parts of Asia and from Africa. The Committee has taken the funds poured into its treasury by the three Committees and has distributed them wherever, in its judgment, it has felt the most good could be done. The Committee meets frequently in New York.

The three constituent committees,—the American, the Central and People's Committees,—have each been organized on a national scale. Each has branches throughout the United States wherever there are any Jewish communities, and even Jews living in rural districts and single families in the smallest villages are reached.

As a result of this very complete organization, there is virtually not a Jewish man, woman or child in the United States to whom direct appeals have not frequently been made.

PER CAPITA CONTRIBUTION ABOVE SIX DOLLARS

It is estimated that in the United States there are approximately 3,000,000 Jewish souls who have contributed to the total sum collected since the beginning of the war, a per capita sum amounting to more than $6.00 each. There have, of course, been some significantly large contributions, notably $1,000,000 by Julius Rosenwald of Chicago, and almost equal amounts contributed at different times by such men as Jacob H. Schiff, Nathan Straus, Felix M. Warburg and other leaders in Jewish financial or commercial life. But there have been hundreds of thousands of individual contributions from Jews in moderate circumstances and from those who have had little if anything to spare above their own needs, which have swelled the total to an amount never before contributed to any single cause in the history of American Jewry.

These large sums have been collected not without effort, not without continuous appeals, directed through both the written and the spoken word. Leading Jewish orators have gone to every part of the country to tell the story of the sufferings and privations of the Jews in the War Zones. It has been conceded generally, by others engaged in war relief activities, that the funds collected and disbursed by American Jewry have been administered at a cost far below that of any other fund approximating the Jewish fund in size.

REALIZATION OF NEED GROWS

Up to the end of 1915, the sum of $1,500,000 had been raised through various sources, by the three committees engaged in collecting. It was clearly apparent at this time, that the sum thus far raised was totally inadequate to the needs presented by the constantly increasing devastation of war. It was shown by representative Jews who had been sent abroad, personally to investigate and to report their findings, that European Jewry was threatened with obliteration, was in fact being obliterated through hunger and want. It was made manifest that only very much greater sums of money than had hitherto been conjectured as necessary, were required to prevent this calamity, and to avert the catastrophe which daily grew more imminent.

It was then determined that the goal of American Jewry in the year 1916 should be not less than $6,000,000 for relief purposes. At the first of a series of great mass meetings held throughout the country, there was raised in New York City in a single night more than $400,000 in cash and additional pledges which brought the total for the evening to nearly $1,000,000.

WILSON NAMES JEWISH RELIEF DAY

President Wilson himself recognized the plight of European Jewry and lent his every encouragement to the effort to raise funds, designating January 27, 1917, as a special day for contributions to Jewish war relief funds. President Wilson took this action following the passage in the United States Senate of a resolution introduced by Senator Martine of New Jersey.

Funds have been raised by the various committees according to the methods best adapted to their respective constituents. Thus the Central Committee has made a specialty of appeals on Jewish religious holidays; the People's Committee has collected funds in weekly installments, usually amounting to but a few cents each, while the American Committee has appealed directly to the larger givers.

The most spectacular of the campaigns was that undertaken in New York City in the close of 1917, when approximately $5,000,000 was raised in an intensive campaign led by Jacob H. Schiff and directed by Jacob Billikopf. A part of this sum was set aside for the Jewish Welfare Board—U. S. Army and Navy—of which Colonel Harry Cutler is the Chairman, and which has for its special function, to minister to the needs of the Jewish men in the military service of the United States, which already number over 60,000.

$10,000,000 GOAL IN 1917

This campaign was the climax of the campaign to raise $10,000,000, which was the goal set by American Jewry for the year 1917. The statistics show that approximately one-half of the Jewish population of the United States is centered in New York

City, so that by raising $5,000,000 in the city and $5,000,000 in the country at large during 1917, a fair division of the contributions was reached.

Since the entrance of the United States into the war, the efforts for the collection of large sums have in no sense diminished, although there has, of course, been a restriction upon their disbursement. The Joint Distribution Committee of the American Funds for Jewish War Sufferers has acted in close coöperation with the American State Department, whose entire confidence it has at all times enjoyed. The moneys now sent abroad are sent by permission of the War Trade Board, and are sent through the State Department in such amounts and to such points of distribution as are approved by these two Governmental agencies.

MAINTAIN WASHINGTON OFFICE

The Joint Distribution Committee is represented in Washington by Fulton Brylawski, who is at all times in close communication with the various departments of the Government.

The manner in which American Jewry has rallied to the support of the Jews stricken by the war has evidenced a unity of purpose and a single-minded idealism which has brought together every section of Jewry in America in the common effort to assuage misery and suffering.

The fact that American Jewry alone is in a position to extend the requisite assistance and that this fact is thoroughly appreciated by the bulk of American Jews undoubtedly has had much to do with the generosity, magnitude and extent of the response to the appeals that have been made.

In addition to its general work of relief, there has been maintained by the Joint Distribution Committee a Transmission Bureau, through which relatives of those in the war zones may directly transmit moneys to their wives, parents, brothers, sisters and other relatives. In the early days of the war, vast quantities of food, clothing, medical supplies and other aid were sent direct to the Jews in various parts of Palestine and Poland, and even after the United States entered the war, the Joint Distribution Committee was successful in bringing to America hundreds of refugees of American citizenship, from Palestine, who were cared for by agents of the Committee in the long journey from Jerusalem.

TRANSMISSION WORK OF THE JOINT DISTRIBUTION COMMITTEE

Sent to	*No. of Rem.*	*Amount*
Russia	9363	$189,828.43
Austria	870	15,564.41
Occupied Territory	12274	288,691.01
Palestine and "Various"	2151	113,724.47
Total	24658	$607,808.32

REPORTS SHOW WIDESPREAD DISTRIBUTION

Exhaustive reports showing the disbursement of funds in hundreds of villages, cities and towns in all sections of the war zones have been received by the committee, from time to time, and the variety and extent of the work of alleviating the sufferings of the men, women and children, are remarkable. Soup kitchens have been established, orphanages reared, hospitals equipped and even the rabbis and scholars have been cared for in special ways through the munificence of the help afforded by America.

In the main, however, the money raised by American Jewry has gone chiefly for bread, for hunger has been the chief thing to be overcome. Starvation has everywhere been rampant and it has been the first act of the Joint Distribution Committee to remedy this condition.

Former United States Consul to Jerusalem, Otis A. Glazebrook, indicates in a report dated as early as July 21, 1916, how dire was the need and how great has been the relief afforded by American Jewry. In this report Dr. Glazebrook states:

> Jerusalem has always been, even in normal times, rich in its poor population, living upon the charity of our brethren abroad. How much is this the case now, when all sources of income, which used to flow from all ends of the world to the Holy City, to each of her communities, of her institutions, and her "kolels," are stopped and replaced by the only possible remittances, which are the remittances from the Joint Distribution Committee. No wonder then that the disinherited ones have been looking to the American Relief as their only bright star.

The totals of the relief funds sent to the various countries since the outbreak of the war in 1914 are:—

Russia	$2,812,300.00
Poland	5,376,662.98
Austria Hungary	1,583,700.00
Palestine	1,571,485.86
Turkey	616,004.30
Alexandria, Palestinian Refugees	56,394.84
Greece	91,021.88
Servia	22,500.00
Servian Jews in Switzerland	2,000.00
Roumania	135,900.00
Bulgaria	18,500.00
Tunis, Algiers and Morocco	9,000.00
Students and writers in Denmark and Switzerland	11,200.00
Destitute Families of Russian Jews in France	5,000.00
Spain-Turkish Refugees	8,000.00
Japan-Russian Refugees in Yokohama	80,000.00
Persia	26,700.00
Kosher Food for Jewish Prisoners of War in Internment Camps	15,500.00
Advanced a/c Refugees from Palestine	12,298.12

THE WAR RELIEF WORK OF THE COUNCIL OF NATIONAL DEFENSE

INTRODUCTORY

BY THE EDITOR

The Council of National Defense was created by Act of Congress on August 29, 1916, to create "relations which render possible in time of need, the immediate concentration and the utilization of the resources of the nation."

Since the declaration of war on April 6, 1917, the Council of National Defense has concentrated its efforts on the mobilization of industries, resources and people of the United States for the effective conduct of the war. It has, accordingly, concerned itself with war relief only incidentally to this primary task, and the following articles on war relief work are, therefore, descriptive of but one or two of the many important branches of the work of the Council of National Defense. In order to understand this relief work of the Council of National Defense, it is necessary first to consider briefly the far-reaching organization established by the Council of National Defense in the several states and smaller localities.

The Council of National Defense consists of the Secretaries of War, Navy, Agriculture, Interior, Commerce, and Labor, assisted by an Advisory Commission of seven experts. The executive work of the council is performed through its committees and those of its Advisory Commission together with certain supplemental sections and divisions.

Immediately after the declaration of war by the United States, the Council of National Defense extended its organization into the states in two ways: first, by appealing to the governors of each state to create state councils of defense similar in function to the Council of National Defense; and, second, by appointing a Woman's Committee to direct and organize the war work of women. In response to the first appeal, state councils of defense or bodies have been created by the proclamation of the governor or by Act of Legislature in every state in the Union. Where committees on public safety already existed, these were designated by the governor to act as state councils of defense. At the same time, the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense extended its organization into the states, by the creation of state divisions. As the development of the state councils of defense and state divisions of the Woman's Committee has been slightly different, these two organizations will be considered separately.

The state councils of defense are the official war emergency organizations of the states, entrusted in general with the execution of all the work of the state relating to the war, outside of the regular functions of the state executive departments. The state councils of defense are also the official state organizations for centralizing and correlating all war activities within the state, and for coördinating the work and supervising solicitation of funds of voluntary societies engaged in war relief work. These forty-eight state councils of defense, in addition to their state functions, are also the official representatives of the Council of National Defense in each state carrying on in its behalf, and in the behalf of the federal departments and war administrations, certain important war activities entrusted to them by the Council of National Defense or by some federal department or administration. They have also become central state bureaus of war work, whose extensive and effective organization is largely used by the state agencies of those federal administrations which have deemed it necessary to create direct state agencies, responsible for the exercise of their power and the conduct of their work in the several states. In spite of this national position, however, these state councils of defense are essentially state bodies, tracing their principal authority to state law.

Experience rapidly proved that the great tasks before the state councils of defense, whether of state or national origin, were tasks the ultimate accomplishment of which could not be brought about by the action of their organization itself, but only through enlisting and directing the efforts of the people at large. To meet this need, the state councils of defense have uniformly created county or similar local councils of defense to represent the state and national councils of defense in the localities. At the request of the Council of National Defense, the state councils are now engaging, and in many states have completed, the creation of community councils of defense in the school district or a similar local unit of such small size that all the citizens in that locality can be reached through personal contact. These community councils of defense are not mere committees, but organizations including within their membership and activities all the individuals of the community, and all the war agencies conducting work in the community. They are, in effect, the community itself organized for war work.

To head up this far-reaching organization of state, county and community councils of defense, the Council of National Defense created a special section, called the "State Councils Section." This section transmits to the state councils of defense, to be rebulletinized to their local councils, the requests for assistance of the Council of National Defense and of the various federal departments and war administrations. It also assists in the development and extension of the organization and work of the several state councils of defense, and acts as a representative of these state councils in Washington.

The growth of the state divisions created by the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense, has been largely similar. The state division is the official war emergency organization of women operating in the state, which is recognized by the federal government. The organization has been extended to counties, cities and towns, and in many states to wards, precincts and even city blocks,—and this machinery has been used to bring the war measures of the Government to the attention of the women of the country, and to secure their coöperation as far as possible.

In order to enlist the most intelligent and effective service on the part of women, the Woman's Committee has created certain well-defined departments of work, and secured in the states the coöperation of government agents and other experts in these particular lines. At the same time it has established in Washington a connection with the executive departments and federal agencies concerned with war activities as they relate to women, so that by these means the Woman's Committee conveys to the women of the country authoritative information and instructions, and at the same time directs them toward the most efficient means of putting both information and instruction into effect.

In the terminal organization, in the small communities, the state divisions of the Woman's Committee and the state councils of defense are united in creating the community council of defense above described as the common local organization of both. The position and functions of the local organizations of the Woman's Committee are similar, in their application to women, to those of the state councils of defense. In most states, the state divisions of the Woman's Committee and the state councils of defense are effectively drawn together, through the fact that the state and county units of the Woman's Committee operate as the Woman's Committee of the respective state and county councils of defense. Thus the Council of National Defense, through its state and local councils of defense and state and local units of its Woman's Committee, has established an organization reaching with the message of the war the individual citizens of this nation and enlisting and directing their efforts in effective and necessary war work.

The following articles, concerning the work of these bodies and their local agencies in its relation to war relief, are written by persons closely in touch with the work of the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense and of the State Councils Section. These articles, descriptive of a part of the work accomplished by these agencies in the states, are not, however, in any way, official statements of the Council of National Defense.

DEPARTMENT OF HOME AND FOREIGN RELIEF OF THE WOMAN'S COMMITTEE

BY ELISABETH CAREY,
Information Department, Woman's Committee.

The Woman's Committee was organized at a time when the attention of the country was turning with renewed intensity to the alleviation of the sufferings caused by the war. Women everywhere were flocking in steadily increasing numbers to the surgical dressings room. Every day saw new efforts to supply the wants of war refugees. Knitting was fast becoming the occupation of every spare moment. It was obvious, then, that any organization which had for its avowed purpose the encouragement and coördination of women's endeavor, must include in its program some provision for relief work. Accordingly, the Department of Home and Foreign Relief was created.

In realizing the powerful appeal of such work and the opportunities which it offers for the tangible expression of a will to serve, the Woman's Committee by no means overlooked the fact that the American Red Cross, because of its authoritative position, its recognized efficiency and its transportation facilities, had become a center for all relief activities, and that most women had already affiliated themselves with that organization. It was decided, therefore, that the function of the Department of Home and Foreign Relief should be coöperative rather than initiative; and steps were immediately taken to put the Woman's Committee on terms of mutual helpfulness with the Red Cross.

The service rendered has consisted for the most part in putting the state and local machinery of the Woman's Committee at the command of the Red Cross and other relief societies. Since the machinery involves an organization which extends in some cases not only to counties and townships but to school districts, city wards and even blocks, embracing altogether an aggregate of approximately 14,000 units with a leader in each, it has been of no mean assistance in recruiting members, raising money, and giving publicity to such projects as the adoption of French orphans and the rehabilitation of French villages. In intensive drives for funds or members these workers of the Woman's Committee have been especially useful. The Red Cross found in Topeka, Kansas, a chairman in each ward and a captain with from five to twenty lieutenants in each precinct ready to canvass the entire town in a single day. In Tampa, Florida, during the Christmas campaign for members, the Woman's Committee added 7,000 names to the Red Cross roster. These instances have been paralleled in many localities. Nor has the Red Cross been the only agency to seize this opportunity of securing an organized band of aides eager for service. During the drive conducted by the Young Women's Christian Association to finance their War Work Council the representatives of the Woman's Committee in the state of Washington collected the assigned quota of $100,000.

The members of local committees have often been able to bring into touch with relief societies women who otherwise might never have been reached. In one state where roads are rough and railways are few, the coming of the Woman's Committee has in several counties meant the beginning of Red Cross work. In Michigan, local units of the Woman's Committee undertook to secure a supplementary force of knitters among those whose services, by some untoward circumstance, the Red Cross had not yet been able to enlist. The result was an overwhelming response from school children, firemen, aged grandmothers, women in institutions,—all eager to do something for their country but up to this time lacking the opportunity. In another state the translation of knitting instructions into Danish brought to the Red Cross a number of very efficient workers. To the Home Service Section of the American Red Cross, the Department of Home and Foreign Relief has, through its local workers, been able to render some assistance by spreading information as to allotments and War Risk Insurance or by calling attention to soldiers' families in need of advice or aid.

Although the general policy of the Department of Home and Foreign Relief has been to further the activities of existing agencies for relief rather than to carry on independent work through the units of the Woman's Committee, in some emergencies it has been possible for this Department to supplement the work done by other organizations. For instance, last fall when an early snow storm came upon a cantonment in the Ohio valley, the women of the vicinity immediately collected a fund and through a mail order house supplied the soldiers with much needed woolen clothing. In the same way, other units of the Woman's Committee have been able to raise funds and supply unmistakable local needs without fear of encroaching upon the work of other organizations or of lessening in any way their ability in the larger service of coöperation.

LEGAL ADVICE FOR SELECTIVES

By Luther H. Gulick, 3d,
Washington, D. C.

The work which state councils of defense have undertaken, to prepare selectives for service ranks, is one of the important constructive relief efforts of the war. The constructive element is especially prominent because this preparatory work makes relief, as usually understood, unnecessary at a later date for a large number of men and their dependents.

STATE COUNCILS AND LEGAL COMMITTEES

In order to prevent men from entering military service either through enlistment or through the draft before they have prepared their business affairs for absence, the Council of National Defense issued on February 4, 1918, a bulletin[1] to state councils of defense, calling on them to appoint:

1. A State Legal Committee to perform the following duties:
   - (a) to draft and propose war emergency legislation for State Legislatures.
   - (b) to draw up a booklet of laws and legal rules of importance to soldiers and sailors entering the service, to be used by Local Legal Committees, as a handbook for their work, and as an instrument for making known to soldiers and sailors the need of legal preparation for their absence.
   - (c) to supervise the formation and work of the Local Legal Committees mentioned below.
2. A Local Legal Committee in each county to furnish free legal advice and assistance to soldiers and sailors with the following specific duties:
   - (a) to give legal advice as to the benefits of war risk insurance, allotments of soldiers' and sailors' pay by the Federal Government, family allowance, compensation, the Soldiers' and Sailors' Civil Relief Act, and other war emergency laws relating to men entering the service.
   - (b) to draft wills and attend to caring for the property of business men entering the service.
   - (c) to represent soldiers and sailors in court where necessary and obtain for them the benefits of the Civil Relief Act.
   - (d) to attend to such business matters as require and are capable of attention in the absence of men in the service.
   - (e) to report to the Red Cross Home Service Section cases requiring relief which come to the attention of the Committee.

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[1] Bulletin No. 84.

It was recommended that these local legal committees should be composed primarily of lawyers, but should include in their membership a business man and a representative of the Red Cross Home Service Section. The further recommendation was made that any existing organized effort in the community for furnishing free legal advice to men entering the service, should be utilized in forming the local legal committee. It was specifically suggested that the personnel of the permanent Legal Advisory Board, created by the Provost Marshal General to assist registrants in filling out their questionnaires, should be the nucleus of the local legal committee of the councils of defense. This suggestion was made in order to correlate the work of these two organizations, and because the legal advisory boards are "composed of men already tried who have proved their zeal and fitness for such work."

At the time of the issuance of this bulletin, and since that time, the Council of National Defense has emphasized repeatedly that the most important function of the local legal committee is to make strenuous efforts to see each man entering the service personally, and to urge upon him the necessity of preparing his business and financial affairs for his absence. In a majority of states such legal committees have now been organized. These committees are working hand in hand with the home service sections of the American Red Cross and with the permanent legal advisory boards. Wherever consistent with local arrangements, the state council legal Committees are assisting the home service sections in handling legal matters. Similarly cases requiring the attention of the American Red Cross are referred by local legal committees to the nearest home service section.

STATE COUNCIL LEGAL HANDBOOK

The Council of National Defense recommended that each state council through its legal committee prepare and issue a legal booklet to assist local legal committees in furnishing legal advice and aid to men entering service. There are two valuable features of such a booklet. In the first place, it presents in brief compass the various matters a lawyer should cover in preparing a man's affairs for his departure. Most lawyers need such a document to assure them that they are raising with the men every question that should be settled, and that they are ferreting out and anticipating problems which may arise in the future. In the second place, the legal booklet becomes the means of urging upon lawyers who have volunteered for this service, the importance of their taking the initiative in approaching men to advise them with regard to their legal affairs. These young men of small business experience, especially at this time of excitement, are not aware of the need and possibilities of legal preparation, and cannot be relied upon to come to the lawyers and present their own problems.

A suggested table of contents for such a legal booklet was later issued by the council. This presented not only an outline of the federal laws which should be included in the booklet, but also an outline of the fields of state law which should be covered.

As a result of this appeal of the National Council, a majority of the state councils have already issued, or are in the process of issuing, legal handbooks. In order to make available to states which have not yet issued their handbooks the benefits of the experience of other states, the Council of National Defense has sent copies of successful booklets to the various states.

It became evident early in April that lawyers in various sections of the country were taking advantage of men entering the service and of their dependents. In order to counteract this exploitation the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of the Navy, the American Bar Association and the Council of National Defense each issued warnings calling the attention of the public to the existing channels for securing free legal advice and assistance.

POPULARIZING NATIONAL RELIEF

In order to bring more effectively before the selectives the need of preparation before entering service, the Council of National Defense issued, on April 8, a bulletin[2] recommending the holding of meetings for drafted men under the auspices of the state and county councils. These meetings were intended as a means of giving the pre-draft men instruction in personal hygiene, information concerning camp life and their opportunities in the service, information concerning the service with which the American Red Cross stands ready to furnish them and their dependents, and especially to emphasize the need of legal assistance in preparing their affairs for departure.

[2] Bulletin No. 89.

On July 4, Provost Marshal General E. H. Crowder issued a recommendation to local draft boards, calling on them to create boards of Instruction.[3] It is the duty of these boards of instruction to take personal, active, and direct measures to meet each Class I registrant, and to see that he understands why we are at war, what we are fighting for, and how he can best prepare himself for service. Because of the position of state and county councils of defense, and because of the work which many of them had already done with selectives, General Crowder recommended that the local draft boards work wherever possible with state and county councils of defense, in securing the personnel for the boards of instruction. Because of this recommendation, the Council of National Defense issued a bulletin[4] explaining to state and county councils of defense the functions and duties of boards of instruction, and calling on them to assist the local draft boards in securing the best possible personnel for boards of instruction.

The main function of the local board of instruction is to build up the morale of selectives. This involves the education of selectives concerning the government provisions of the War Risk Insurance Act and the Soldiers' and Sailors' Civil Relief Act to free them from worries or misunderstandings. This phase of the work, though not the most important for which boards of instruction are responsible, calls on them to take a part in the national propaganda to popularize the great national relief laws.

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[3] Letter of July 4, 1918.

[4] Bulletin No. 102.

HEALTH ACTIVITIES OF STATE COUNCILS OF DEFENSE

BY ARTHUR W. MACMAHON,
Washington, D. C.

The maintenance of civilian health in war time, when people are subjected to unusual strains and when the ranks of practitioners and nurses and the staffs of hospitals and departments of health are depleted by the needs of the military establishment, is a problem of national defense which increases daily in importance. The connection of this problem with war relief work is real but in general indirect. For that reason anything more than an indication of the nature of the activities of state councils in the field of health would be out of place in this volume.

In the first place, a practical distinction must be drawn between the work of mobilizing medical resources for direct war service and health work, involving contact with the general public. Not only is the former work further removed from war relief in the strict sense, but it has on the whole been accomplished through machinery other than the state councils of defense. Despite its importance, it is, therefore, treated only incidentally in this article. The primary agents concerned in medical mobilization have been the Medical Section of the Council of National Defense, created on December 12, 1916, as its first subordinate body, and the General Medical Board, constituted on February 1, 1917, around the medical member of the Advisory Commission. The first of these bodies acts as the executive arm of the latter, which is deliberative; together they may be regarded as the Medical Committee of the Council of National Defense.

Even before our entrance into the war, the Medical Section was authorized to create a system of state and county committees, which it did by appointment from among strictly professional circles, for the most part taking over the personnel of the subsidiaries of the pre-existing Committee of American Physicians for Medical Preparedness. These state and county committees have been subject to the instructions of the Medical Section, and have been in constant direct correspondence with it; they have thus constituted an avenue by which the National Government has communicated its policies and requirements with regard to war-time medical problems of essentially national character, to the members of the medical profession. Many of the phases of medical mobilization, such as the standardization of surgical supplies to offset the cessation of German importations, have been capable of direct adjustment from Washington without the intermediation of these local committees. Other matters, such as the recruitment of doctors for the Medical Reserve Corps (which has probably been the most important phase of medical mobilization) or the constitution of medical advisory boards in connection with the Selective Service Law, have involved action by the state and county committees.

The connection of the state councils of defense with the work of mobilizing medical resources for direct war service, has thus depended primarily upon the relation existing in each state between the committee of the Medical Section and the state council of defense. About three-fourths of the state councils have constituted committees having specifically to do with health matters. The personnel of a number of these committees is identical with that of the committees of the Medical Section in these states. In nearly all of the other states, the two committees have certain officers or at least members in common. In the cases where especially favorable relations have been worked out, the state council has given financial and other support to the state committee of the Medical Section, without breaking its direct communication and responsibility in medical matters essentially national in character, and has thus aided in the work of medical mobilization for war service. As the months pass, the meaning of medical mobilization becomes broader. At first, while the tremendous initial needs of our new army and navy were being filled and lines laid to meet the continuing requirements, the imperative objectives of medical mobilization were of course military; it was work by doctors with doctors to meet military necessities, and the result has been as splendid an out-pouring of personal sacrifice as the world has yet seen made by any professional group. From now on, increasing attention can be given to a problem which has, of course, been recognized from the first—the adjustment of the remaining medical resources to the needs of the civilian population. This is not the place to state how the problem will be worked out. Undoubtedly the Volunteer Medical Service Corps (the official organization of doctors not in military service, who pledge themselves for war service at home) will be an important instrument in securing this adjustment. The delicate task of building up the personnel of the Volunteer Medical Service Corps, is being conducted primarily through the machinery of the Medical Section. The work of the corps will undoubtedly bring it in contact with war relief organizations. The state and local councils of defense, as coördinating bodies, with facilities for reaching the general public, will be necessarily drawn into this work.

In turning to the health activities of state councils, as distinguished from the more strictly medical lines of work, the relation of the councils to existing health agencies within the states should first be indicated. In this, as in other matters, the state councils work with and largely through existing organizations. Naturally, relations with state boards of health are particularly close, and in one-half of the cases in which the council has a committee specifically charged with health matters, the state health officer is on the committee, usually as chairman. The Council of National Defense, at the instance of the U. S. Public Health Service, has used the councils of defense to further centralize reporting of morbidity data,—in one case, reporting at regular intervals from cities of a population of over 10,000 to the Public Health Service, in the other emergency notification of camp medical authorities by local officers. In this work, as in all its suggestions on health matters, the National Council has sought to avoid cutting across and breaking the hierarchy of health officials which has been growing up so wholesomely in the United States.

The State Councils also work with important semi-private health organizations, where these are already in the field. Thus the Oregon State Council, having $10,000 of its 1917 funds given it expressly to be spent in improving moral conditions around camps, added a representative of the Oregon Social Hygiene Association to its membership, and helped to maintain other representatives of the association in the field. The Illinois Council, in taking up the tuberculosis problem recently, with reference especially to men rejected in the draft or discharged from service because of tuberculosis, has worked with a pre-existing body known as the "Coöperating Committee on Tuberculosis War Problem," and has had the local representatives of that body made chairman of county council committees on the subject. Or, to cite another example, the Texas State Council has, in its material on general health, always included the slogan, "Join the Texas Public Health Association," or when dealing with venereal diseases, "Join the Texas Social Hygiene Association."

In what ways can councils of defense help the normal health agencies? Generalizing, we may say: since they exist to meet war emergencies, the councils can put the war appeal back of health work; since they parallel governmental organization within the state, and at the same time have a non-routine, non-political point of view, they are in a strategic position to influence local governments to take such steps as war conditions require; since they usually have emergency funds not minutely tied up by legislation, they can finance measures which regular departments cannot meet; since one of their primary functions is to be a mediating, coördinating influence, they can bring health agencies together; finally, they have unusual channels for reaching the general public.

Regarding the health activities themselves, although interesting work has already been done, such activities lie rather in the future than in the past. During the first phase of our participation in the war, when, for all that European experience was before us, we did not fully realize how far-reaching are the reactions of war on civilian life, state councils, in so far as they initiated health activities at all, naturally tended to confine these to special groups or special diseases having an obvious and immediate military connection. During 1917, for example, the Connecticut State Council arranged for the free medical treatment of men barred from enlistment, because of slight physical defects or rejected in the draft for similar reasons. It also coöperated with an organization of dentists in giving free dental treatment to recruits. The South Carolina State Council worked out with the Anti-tuberculosis Association, the State Board of Health, and other interested agencies, a plan by which all men rejected by draft boards because of tuberculosis, were followed up and treated. Other state councils have carried out or at least considered plans for the treatment of those wishing to enlist, and for the reclamation of physical rejects. Such work would have gone much further if there had been national encouragement. In view of the heavy demands which were being made concurrently upon the medical profession and upon hospitals, however, it has been impracticable up to the present time to suggest that such reclamation be attempted on a widespread scale.

Aside from the prosecution of particular problems, such as venereal disease control, there has been a growing interest on the part of state councils of defense in the maintenance of civilian health generally. The recent development of this interest has been the result, partly of a clearer realization that, in the words of the President, "This war is one of nations—not of armies," partly of the depletion of the normal facilities by which health is maintained, and partly of the establishment of the community councils of defense, which have made available unique machinery for carrying a message to the masses and which, from the beginning, have had health as one of the objectives set before them.

It is only fair that the first example of this interest on the part of state councils should be one of many months standing. The Committee on Sanitation and Medicine of the Texas State Council of Defense, has been working on a plan which has included the following elements. Since November, 1917, the committee has drawn up a weekly "health-hint," which it has sent to 350 daily and weekly newspapers in the state, to be printed during the week of release in uniform boxed style under the heading, "Help Win the War by Preventing Unnecessary Sickness." Some of these "health-hints" have given specific information regarding the avoidance and cure of specific diseases; others have urged citizens to take stock of their present local health machinery and, where necessary, to agitate for more ample machinery. The committee made a survey of health conditions in Orange, where ship-building has suddenly doubled the population, and published recommendations which got local citizens agencies working and has resulted, among other improvements, in provision for a full-time health officer. The Texas committee stands ready to advise other communities directly regarding specific problems. In general, however, its task is to encourage every community to constitute a "Citizens' Committee on Public Health," consisting of representatives of all local organizations (eleven kinds being suggested by the state council), to hold weekly meetings at which health officials shall be introduced to the public they are trying to serve, to make rapid practical surveys of local health organization and to work for better machinery, if necessary, and to spread simple information regarding personal hygiene. Other examples have been the circulation of Pamphlet No. 3 of the Department of Civic Relief of the Pennsylvania State Council of Defense, entitled "Community Organization in War Time—Health" (which is discussed in another article), and the instigation by the Woman's Division and State Council of a survey of the health administration of the State of Delaware, through the New York Bureau of Municipal Research.

Recently, there has been evidence that state councils of defense, although at the time of writing (July) no formal recommendation from the national government has yet been sent them on the subject, are anxious to carry public health activities even further. The most thorough plan for a state-wide health campaign which yet has been worked out is that of the South Carolina State Council of Defense. The state council has declared the spread of information about the avoidance of disease to be strictly a war emergency measure, and set aside $5,000 for the conduct of an intensive state-wide campaign during August, 1918. The objectives, which were worked out at a conference of health leaders called by the state council, are: child welfare, venereal diseases, insect-borne diseases — typhoid, dysentery and malaria, and tuberculosis. Chief attention will be given to the rural districts. Although the primary purpose is to tell the individuals how to keep well and to give the war as motive to act, it is expected that on the social side the campaign will arouse interest in full-time county health officers and other improvements. A two-days institute has been called to meet just before the opening of the intensive campaign, for the instruction of a corps of speakers who will then scatter in groups through the states. In addition to a speakers' handbook, leaflets giving health rules in simple language are being prepared, and every available means of publicity will be utilized by the council, which, by reason of its central position in the war work of the state, can enlist the services of all agencies in the health drive.

Doubtless, even if they were left entirely to their own initiative, many state councils would undertake somewhat similar health campaigns. It is probable that the Council of National Defense, however, which has been waiting until the time was ripe and particularly until the community council system was under way, will shortly recommend that a public health campaign be launched in each state, to be pressed with especial vigor at first and to be carried on as a permanent activity by community councils of defense for the duration of the war. The recommendations of the Council of National Defense to the state councils, would have to be worked out in further detail in each state to fit its peculiar conditions, which would probably involve a conference or "war congress" of the leaders in sanitation and medicine in each state, including especially the state department of health and the state committee of the Medical Section. Further, it is probable that in these recommendations the National Council will call for a campaign which will involve: first, direct and indirect pressure to secure better health facilities in localities where these are notably deficient; second, the federation in each community, through a "local health congress" under the community council, of all agencies, public and private, which touch the health and welfare of the people, in order to arrange for the maximum utilization of their facilities and to popularize these facilities; and, finally, the education of individual citizens in the reason why it is patriotic to keep well and how to do so. In so far as the resulting activities of state and local councils of defense prevent disease, they would have a vital, if indirect, bearing on all relief work. In so far as community councils of defense, in carrying out the public health program, bring together all agencies working with the people in each neighborhood, where at present they waste effort like a badly meshed grinder, they would point the way for one of the most important developments in relief work.

HEALTH AND RECREATION

BY MRS. PHILIP NORTH MOORE,

Chairman, Department of Health and Recreation, Woman's Committee, Council of National Defense.

Another department of the Woman's Committee pertaining to war conditions of the camps and surrounding communities, is that of Safe-guarding Moral and Spiritual Forces, the health and recreation of the soldiers. The Woman's Committee recognized the need of protective work in and around the camps before the War Commission on Training Camp Activities was appointed, writing to President Wilson, urging him to use his authority in regard to the sale of liquor and moral protection from the resorts of the towns,—

writing also to the Secretaries of War and Navy, who in each case assured us everything possible would be done.

Section 13 of the Army Bill authorized the Secretary of War, and directed him, to do everything by him deemed necessary to suppress and prevent houses of ill fame within such distance as seemed to him needful of any military camp, station, fort, post, cantonment, training or mobilization place. The further authorization was so drastic that it covered every possible item from sale or supply of intoxicating liquors to rules and regulations for fines and imprisonment. The Secretary recognized his responsibility and determined that the training camps as well as the surrounding zones should not be places of temptation and peril. He realized, however, that he could not obtain the conditions necessary to the health and vitality of the soldiers without the full coöperation of the cities and towns near which the camps were located, or through which the soldiers would pass.

His first appointment to carry out this authority was the Commission on Training Camp Activities, to advise in regard to questions relating to the moral hazards in training centers, as well as to the promotion of rational recreation facilities within and without the camps. This same authority was given to the Secretary of the Navy, who appointed practically the same commission for the naval training camps. Upon the appointment of Raymond B. Fosdick as head of the Commission on Training Camp Activities of War and Navy, representatives were appointed for the training camps only, about thirty-two in number, in sixteen states. At this time, the Woman's Committee decided that this department should coöperate in every way with the authorities having access to the camps, and that the chairmen in the states should ascertain, and become familiar with, all agencies in the community interested in the camps. The state councils of defense were asked to appoint committees in states where there were no training camps, and the chairmen of this department of the Woman's Committee exercised large authority in such communities.

The authorized organizations working *within* the camps were the Young Men's Christian Association, the Knights of Columbus, theatre and division directors, libraries, athletic aids and song leaders. In all of these activities the chairmen of this department were the trained and experienced workers, called upon to furnish entertainments, to furnish supplies for the hospitals, to care for the libraries and hostess houses of the Young Women's Christian Association and to give lessons in French. There is a message of reassurance in the fact that the boys being drafted are going to find not only decent, clean conditions in the camps, but conditions that educate and inspire.

It is, however, with the organizations working *outside* the camps that the women of the community are equally effective. Women have been a conserving power in civilization through all the ages, and now that war is working its tremendous destruction, it becomes the peculiar function of women to prevent the destruction of the moral and spiritual forces of our nation. New temptations are upon us. The men who are defending us in the army and navy must of necessity change their habits of life fundamentally. Many elements in the new life are conducive to the most healthful and vigorous growth. Other conditions are of necessity abnormal. Men are suddenly removed from the usual companionship of the women of their own families and circle of friends. They are removed from the institution which has ministered to their spiritual needs, and the readjustment to these conditions is attended with special danger, because those who gain from the intemperance and vice of others are ready to make trade of the empty time of our men under arms. The hand of the law is strong to prevent the evil, but at best the law can surround our men with a neutral atmosphere. It rests with good people, and in no small measure with good women, to create an atmosphere conducive to moral and spiritual growth.

A large field of usefulness for the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense is in the non-camp cities. There is a tendency on the part of girls to wish to go to the camp cities to spend their summer vacation or to go to the camp cities to work in order to be near the soldiers. The Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense aids in the non-camp cities in keeping the girls from going to the camp cities unless there is necessity. Whatever is done to help the girls in the non-camp cities to have the right attitude toward the soldiers and to think in terms of what they can do to be really helpful to the men and to their country, will help all of the work which the War Camp Community Service is trying to do in the camp cities.

The work of this department is threefold, recreational, preventive and remedial. The first general form of work was to provide entertainments in the camps, consisting of musicals, movies, dramatic readings, vaudeville, lectures, etc., at regular intervals during the week or month. Homes were canvassed for lists of hostesses for the entertainment of soldiers on Sundays and holidays. The community organization work is that of interpreting the adjacent community to the boys in camp, and of interpreting the life of the soldier to the citizens. Every person in the community is vitally concerned, for the presence of these soldiers at their gates is bound to react on the community in some way. If the responsibility is met by constructive community effort to absorb the men, as individuals, it will not only function patriotically in helping to build a valiant army, but will also protect the community and its people.

In every state where camps of soldiers are in training the Woman's Committee has grappled with the problems created. First, there is the problem of hospitality. What will be practical and acceptable for them to undertake? One of our correspondents classifies this hospitality into retail and wholesale. The former consists of inviting the boys into the homes, taking them on motor drives, and furnishing them healthful amusements and wholesome company. Wholesale hospitality is defined as that undertaken by the big organizations where soldiers and sailors are invited en masse to lectures, entertainments or dinners.

As soon as the North Carolina Division of the Woman's Committee learned that there was to be a cantonment of some sixty thousand men near Charlotte, they at once began to lay their plans to coöperate with the city authorities in making the camp what they would desire it to be. The State Chairman wrote that the Committee on Safeguarding Moral and Spiritual Forces had been most active in arranging with all the women's organizations of the community to provide entertainment for the soldiers. They arranged that every organization in the town should adopt or stand sponsor for one company of men, furnishing them with amusements, magazines and books, inviting them to church and to dinner, opening their club or society rooms to them and in every way possible surrounding them with wholesome and friendly influences. The Committee Chairman wrote that the women were planning to be just as attentive to the soldiers who came to them as strangers from New England as they were to their own boys, and she added, "we expect that strangers will do the same for our boys."

Certainly Massachusetts reciprocated this thoughtfulness. A special committee from the women's colleges provided club houses and homes outside the camp. Their purpose was to have as many of these homes as possible where soldiers would find recreation, friendly interest and refined surroundings; the kind of homes from which the majority of them had come. Each home was provided for by a separate college group, either alumnae, undergraduates, or both, and each had a college "mother." The college mother was permanent or as nearly so as possible, but the helpers varied from week to week. A few gave their services in the home itself and others provided the things needed to make the home attractive—furnishings, games, books, pianos, victrolas. Such an undertaking was particularly practicable in the case of the reserve officer training camps made up largely of college men. With modifications to suit local needs the plan has been worked out to advantage in connection with many camps.

A helpful camp service in which many of our state divisions coöperated was that undertaken by the American Library Association. It organized committees to collect and distribute reading matter in the training camps and even prepared to put up libraries in some of the camps. The Missouri Division took hold of this work with particular zest, giving the matter wide publicity, and arranging for the collection of books at local libraries throughout the states. It even planned to furnish boxes of the proper dimensions in which to pack the books collected. Several of the groups of women involved have reëchoed the word laid down by the Library Association, that only worthwhile books are wanted. "Give the boys the best. They want good fiction. They are keen for scientific books and periodicals. They want everything you can give them about war, about sports, they want the news of the world."

Where soldiers are temporarily camped in a town, or where they are travelling, one much appreciated attention is the supervision of the food which they receive. This was managed very well by the Woman's Committee in Grand Rapids, Michigan. They responded immediately not only to the call of furnishing good wholesome amusements for the boys mobilized at their gates, but during the two weeks when the camp of eight hundred boys was at Grand Rapids they furnished the meals. The different days of the week were assigned to various organizations, so that while hundreds of women were engaged in the feeding of the soldiers, no one group was in constant service. In the two weeks the women furnished 1300 meals, including breakfasts, dinners and suppers. They did it so economically that from the allotment of twenty-five cents per head a meal, they had a surplus to go into the mess fund of the Grand Rapids Battalion. The boys were satisfied, for when the camp broke up praise came to the women from all sides for the catering they had done.

Of all the problems presented in war camp communities, none is more fundamental in working out a community program than that of giving to the girls a feeling of their personal responsibility in helping to win the war and in making our men fit for service. The committee on protective work for girls has endeavored to secure not only adequate protection, but helpful and stimulating activity in entertainments.

Many people ask why War Camp Community Service is emphasizing at this time work for girls rather than for boys. Our reply is that the girls and women of America have a part to play in winning the war, the importance of which cannot be estimated. The moral standard of a nation, whether at war or in time of peace, can be no higher than that of its women. Upon the attitude of the girl towards the soldier will depend his attitude towards her. The girl must feel her individual responsibility.

Working through all available machinery the girls and young women of America have been offered channels of expression for their patriotic impulses, means for increasing their efficiency, opportunities for making the community a better place in which to live, through fostering the spirit which community singing, pageants and a broader community social life create. America's girls must not only *feel* that they count; they *must* count in the world struggle.

The War Camp Community Service under Mr. Fosdick has made this patriotic work of great value, and in asking for assistance from this committee he said: "Wherever there is a trained and experienced worker in the community will you see that she is in touch with the War Camp Service? It will be helpful if it is understood that the Girls' Committee is free to turn to the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense for assistance and moral support whenever it is needed."

A survey was accordingly conducted by the chairmen of this department in twenty-one states of places of entertainment in camp vicinities. These included public amusement places, such as dance halls, moving picture shows, restaurants, theatres, etc., the licensing of the same, the inspection by police officers, sanitary arrangements, sale of liquor, etc. They have been ready with this information in most helpful coöperation. Every sort of natural relation should be established. Churches should make the soldiers of their respective denominations feel, not only that they are welcome, but that they are members of whom active participation is desired. Social occasions where the soldiers will meet girls and women under natural and wholesome conditions are especially important. Officers and men are asked to receptions, dances, outings and parties of all sorts. If a regiment has a good band or glee club it is asked to give a concert.

The public resources of the community are placed at the disposal of officers and men. Playgrounds, gymnasiums and swimming pools are open to them. Libraries, museums and other public buildings extend their Saturday afternoon hours and are open Sunday—the soldiers' one day off. Recreation centers are utilized for their entertainment and for entertainments given by them. To all public places the uniform should be a ticket of admission. The city often takes part by furnishing official receptions for the soldiers thereby showing that the community has faith in them, and by organizing community singing on an inspiring scale (a matter to which the commission is devoting especial attention).

The responsibility placed upon the committees and upon all the citizens is very great, but it is one which we believe will be met as it has never been met before in the history of military camps. And the opportunity is commensurate to the responsibility. The first victories of our war can be won right here at home by the citizens, and largely by the women of those communities to which has been entrusted the high responsibility of testifying the country's hospitality to its defenders. In many large camp cities the Woman's Committee has organized soldiers' and sailors' clubs, of great variety in entertainment, reading matter, quarters for furlough needs, etc. Members of the same communities have opened clubs, athletic associations, swimming pools and gymnasiums to the men.

Women police and protective officers are established in twenty states, and the experience has been uniformly satisfactory. They are appointed in some cases by the police boards, which appointment brings them directly under political influence: this has not been, however, so much of a menace as was feared. The better appointments, under present camp conditions, have come from the mayors and boards of public welfare in cities near the camps. The women have been found to be courageous and cool in time of danger, and endowed with tact and discretion. They are and should be women of the highest type in character and position, and ready to serve without thought of reward.

When the Connecticut troops were mobilized in temporary camps in New Haven, Niantic and about New London, a survey was made which revealed conditions of temptation in the communities about the camps and also the undesirable mingling of objectionable women with the soldiers in the camp grounds. Following the receipt of the survey of Connecticut conditions, Mr. Fosdick, of the Committee on Training Camp Activities, sent a representative to New London. The result of careful and intensive work in New London has been evidenced by an effort on the part of the police force to improve conditions.

Later a statement regarding camp conditions with reference to morals was made to the Chairman of the State Council of Defense and a resolution was adopted calling upon the State Council of Defense to appropriate the salaries of five police-women for duty in and about the military camps and naval stations. The police-women were given authority by the Department of State Police, and the first commission given to Dr. Valeria Parker, Chairman of this department for Connecticut. Through the police-women a number of undesirable girls and women were taken into custody from the camps, and numerous home investigations made. An effort was made to handle each case individually.

A survey of institutions willing to take mothers and their babies following confinement was made with a view to being prepared for a possible increase in illegitimacy.

Following a request from the New England Travelers' Aid Society, a local Travelers' Aid group was organized in each town for the purpose of acting as a bureau of information and advice for girls and women intending to visit Camp Devens, at Ayer, Massachusetts. The Department recommended remedial work in connection with authorities around the camps, such as judges and women probation officers of the juvenile court, women physicians, men and women of the community and other agencies; that local and state agencies be utilized such as municipal and state farms; that each case be considered as far as possible individually; that agencies for the care of young mothers should be utilized, such as maternity and Florence Crittenton homes.

The Social Hygiene Division of the Commission on Training Camp Activities is sending out lecturers and weekly bulletins, and the coöperation on the part of the chairmen of this department has been very satisfactory.

For the first time in history America's boys are being sent to fight in Europe; for the first time in history means are being taken to safeguard them morally and socially. We are proud that the scandals of former wars relating to disease in camps are now nearly eradicated. We are more proud that in this war our boys are being saved from the scandals of both physical and moral disease; that we shall see them return as fit to fight the battles of life as they are to fight the battles of liberty and democracy.

MAINTENANCE OF EXISTING SOCIAL SERVICE AGENCIES

BY MRS. PHILIP NORTH MOORE,
Chairman, Department of Maintenance of Existing Social Service Agencies, Woman's Committee, Council of National Defense.

The Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense has planned and carried out certain lines of war work which might well be called "Relief Work under War Conditions." The department, Maintenance of Existing Social Service Agencies, was established for the purpose of maintaining the same standards of service activities during war time that have existed during peace; the conserving of the agencies that operate to maintain public morals, public health and the producing forces of the community.

We emphasized the President's statement urging the importance of keeping the full force and efficiency of all the agencies for social work, and of securing for all of them adequate support, in view of the new and pressing demands created by the war,—especially those agencies which make for the preservation and improvement of public health and family life, the protection of motherhood and the preservation of children from the destructive and demoralizing influences of war. We all know our charities are unfortunately the first to suffer in any crisis, and it was anticipated that war conditions would make heavy inroads upon the financial support given to them in time of peace. Nothing seemed more certain, however, than that the need for these agencies would be more and more pressing as the conditions of normal life broke down under the strain of war.

Appeals which have arisen under the unusual conditions caused by the war quickly arouse the sympathies of the people. It was feared that contributors to specific charities might withdraw their support on account of their intense interest in new causes. It was not the intention to organize new associations, but to secure support and coöperation necessary to maintain agencies for guarding public welfare, such as district nursing, day nurseries, civilian hospitals, philanthropies, charities and recognized forms of social service.

Forty states and the District of Columbia and Hawaii complied with the request to form a department, with the following suggestions: to ascertain the needs of the philanthropic agencies; to send out a questionnaire as to the extent resources had been curtailed by the war, financially or in working force; what volunteer service might be utilized; whether paid workers needed in other pursuits could be replaced by volunteers; whether the burden of work had increased since war was declared; to name the service which their beneficiaries could render; what supervision and training these agencies would give to volunteers, and the qualifications and efficiency of volunteer workers sent to them.

Charts of the "opportunities for the service of women" in connection with the needs of various charities were recommended and were placed in local headquarters. In order to render such service more efficient, volunteers were urged to undertake some training: consequently a list of training classes in philanthropy and social service were posted side by side with the opportunities for service. These suggestions are given prominence, because they have been acted upon and pronounced helpful. Organizations, and institutions such as libraries, churches and colleges, have sent for the survey and questionnaire and have reported many calls for the same.

The states have reported very remarkable response to the requests. Illinois, for instance, reported advisory committees of professional social workers,—a propaganda committee to gather information and arrange it for the purpose of bringing before the public the necessity of maintaining social service agencies,—volunteers to devise means of coöperation between the social service department and the agencies in the matter of volunteer service,—group service to use the services of groups where energy was not utilized along the lines of occupational service,—state coöperation to keep informed of the status of the work throughout the state,—speakers, publicity and a budget or war chest system of great success. Illinois also organized special classes at the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, in which volunteers were taught to do social work.

Missouri reported that the war has changed our national life almost entirely, but it has not lessened the poor, the care of orphans, etc. War pressure upon 100,000,000 people for rigid economy in use of food and clothing, with an increase of 25 per cent in the cost of staple articles of diet, means that the need of charity work will perhaps reach its maximum during the present winter. High prices and the coal shortage will be felt with ever-increasing acuteness as the weeks go by. Organizations for children, for the aged and delinquents or for furnishing food and clothing to the needy, are facing heavily increased maintenance costs.

Americans must profit by the mistakes of other countries. Our charities must have not only former support but greater gifts to cover higher costs of food, fuel, and clothing. Home charities are a part of war's own problem. England, France and Germany realized this, after a season of neglect during which juvenile delinquency and debasement of public morals increased to such menacing proportions that the people quickly returned to the full support of their municipal charities.

Indications throughout the country seemed to demand coordination in raising such funds, a budget or war chest for one sum, to be apportioned as needed or as requested by the contributors. This war chest in some cases included contributions for the Red Cross, Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A., according to the "drive," and the apportionment for the locality. For the philanthropic and social service agencies, the apportionment was generally the amount used in 1917–18, plus a percentage of increase under war conditions for 1918–19. Reports indicate a very gratifying return to all these requests for contributions. Some interesting slogans were used, such as: "Give one day's income out of the month for every month in the year." The general report is that there has been very little falling off in regular contributions, but a much greater need in many directions, due to the war.

The Committee on Nursing of the General Medical Board of the Council of National Defense invited the assistance and coöperation of the Woman's Committee in the work of increasing the supply of nurses for home and foreign service. The plan of such a committee included a survey of the present nursing resources of the country, stimulation of the interest of educated young women in nursing as a war service, the increase of hospital training school facilities and the securing of suitable publicity in the local press. In order that the State Divisions might give the greatest measure of coöperation, the requests were referred through this Department to the state chairmen of the department for transmission of the information.

Assistance in conducting the survey has been given the State Nurses' Association by our chairmen in fifteen states. Nurses have been supplied for military service, and given military standing; a list of institutions in the United States, with the requirement for entrance, was prepared by Nebraska; recruits for training in hospitals were secured to make up the shortage caused by the call for nurses in overseas service. The call of the Surgeon General for from 25,000 to 30,000 nurses by 1919, means that the reserve is being depleted. The fact that trained nurses are needed in city and private hospitals and in public health nursing in city and state, has induced a new drive for an enrollment of a *Student Nurse Reserve*. This is being conducted by the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense under the direction of the Resident Director.

THE CHILDREN'S YEAR AND THE WOMAN'S COMMITTEE

BY JESSICA B. PEIXOTTO,
Executive Chairman, Child Welfare Department, Woman's Committee, Council of National Defense.

When appointed a part of the Council of National Defense, April 21, 1917, the Woman's Committee organized at once into ten departments. One of these was the Department of Child Welfare.

The primary business of the Woman's Committee was to effect an organization of the woman power of the country and so put a force of no mean value for war work at the disposal of the government. This business of centralizing and coördinating the ninety-two national organizations, including about eleven million women now affiliated with the committee, was no light task. It occupied the Woman's Committee for the first months of its existence. When the state divisions had finally been organized, when counties, towns, districts, wards and even precincts had been provided with committees paralleling the organization of the Woman's Committee at Washington, the result of eight months of energetic effort was some ten thousand units of organization ready to take up the numerous services the war has laid upon the citizenship of the country.

A program of Child Welfare had been prepared. In April, 1917, Mrs. Josiah Evans Cowles, a member of the committee and also President of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, became the national chairman of the Department of Child Welfare. With admirable keenness of vision, Mrs. Cowles and the Woman's Committee turned at once to Miss Julia Lathrop, Chief of the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, inviting her to take the executive chairmanship of the Department of Child Welfare and direct the war-time program for children.

It was a fortunate arrangement, this close coöperation between the Woman's Committee and the Children's Bureau. Both parties to the plan were strengthened by it: the community was assured a sound program of democratic work for children. Allying itself with the Woman's Committee, the Children's Bureau gained the use of an organization with a wider grasp and reach than any ever before effected in the nation's history. The Woman's Committee, on the other hand, was enabled to act with the least possible amateurishness; its Child Welfare Department became in the best sense an extension of a government bureau and thus, from the start, avoided those wastes that arise from paralleling government work. Thus there are two groups always mutually dependent,—trained government investigators sobered by the discipline of regular research work, and enthusiastic volunteers as rich in eager earnestness as they are apt to be poor in experience, now collaborating to work out the program and push the events of the "Children's Year."

The period from May to December, 1917, was a time of preliminaries. What correspondence went out to the state divisions of the Woman's Committee went from the Children's Bureau. The Chief of the Children's Bureau in her fifth annual report of June, 1917, page 49, writes:

> The pressing essentials of a reasonable child-welfare program for the United States in war time may be condensed under four heads:
>
> I. Public protection of maternity and infancy.
>
> II. Mothers' care for older children.
>
> III. Enforcement of all child-labor laws and full schooling for all children of school age. Standards should be maintained in spite of war pressure.
>
> IV. Recreation for children and youth, abundant, decent, protected from any form of exploitation.

This program the Woman's Committee adopted at their December meeting as the program of their Child Welfare Department. It was plain that to set the details of such a program before forty-eight states and three territories would require much special attention. Miss Lathrop knew her staff at the bureau was more than occupied with their regular service of research. She therefore suggested that a separate service be provided through the Council of National Defense to make the connection between the bureau's program and the women's defense organizations of the country. At the December meeting of the Woman's Committee, Dr. Jessica B. Peixotto, professor of social economics at the University of California, was invited to take charge of this service.

The separate service for the work of organizing, corresponding and transmitting has, in the period since January, grown to a large clerical force busily and breathlessly engaged in sending out hundreds of letters, thousands of leaflets, pamphlets, posters and other printed matter for propaganda and publicity, and millions of weighing and measuring cards.

During the months that lie between January 15 and the time of writing this report, the Children's Year has been announced; the state divisions of the Woman's Committee have accepted the responsibility the program lays upon them, for the most part with alacrity and fine imagination. Thorough-going child welfare departments have been organized in all but one state. One conference of the state chairmen of child welfare has been held at Washington. Hearty participation in the work at such points as mutual objects permit has been given by the National Committee on Child Welfare of the General Medical Board under Dr. S. McC. Hamill; the Department of Civilian Relief of the American Red Cross through its director general, Mr. W. Frank Persons; the nursing section of the American Red Cross under Miss Jane Delano; the nursing section of the Council of National Defense through Miss Ella Phillips Crandall; the United States Bureau of Education, United States Public Health Service and the United States Department of Agriculture, and by more than a score of national societies interested in the recreation of children.

The plan all this machinery furthers, the plan to take thought in time to save the children, sensitive source of our future population, was named "The Children's Year." When this "Children's Year" program of prevention and protection was set before President Wilson by the Secretary of Labor, the nation's leader promptly expressed his belief in the wisdom and foresight of it. The following letter addressed to Secretary Wilson appeared in the press April 3:

> Next to the duty of doing everything possible for the soldiers at the front, there could be, it seems to me, no more patriotic duty than that of protecting the children who constitute one-third of our population. The success of the efforts made in England in behalf of the children is evidenced by the fact that the infant death-rate in England for the second year of the war was the *lowest* in her history.
>
> Attention is now being given to education and labor conditions for children by legislatures in both France and England, showing that the conviction among the Allies is that the protection of childhood is essential to winning the war.
>
> I am very glad that the same processes are being set afoot in this country and I heartily approve the plan of the Children's Bureau and the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense for making the second year of the war one of united activity on behalf of the children and in that sense a *Children's Year*.
>
> I trust that the year will not only see the goal reached of saving 100,000 lives of infants and young children, but that the work may so successfully develop as to set up certain irreducible minimum standards for health, education, and work for the American Child.
>
> Cordially and sincerely yours,
>
> WOODROW WILSON.

The general challenge of the Children's Year calls for a square deal for all children young and old. The one most definite task set down in the program for the states is the summons to save 100,000 babies. The facts at home and abroad warranted the summons even in war time, perhaps most of all in war time.

Careful investigations continuously prove at least one-third of the deaths of infants unnecessary. The first draft showed that about one-fourth of the defects which sent young men home humiliated by a discharge might have been remedied in childhood. Life-saving, always a duty, becomes imperative in war time; physical deterioration is at such a time more than ever to be avoided. To do away with preventable death and defect is the most definite business of "Children's Year."

What had happened in other warring countries proved such a step not merely advisable but imperative. Shortly after England entered into the war it was found that human life was being used up at two points. Her men were dying on the battlefields of France, but, in great part because of war conditions, her mothers and babies were dying at home faster than usual. Alarmed at the situation, the government took prompt steps to prevent such unnecessary loss of life. England's slogan, adopted to advertise the situation, was somewhat beyond the facts, but artistic exaggeration is often more effective than scientific exactness. The posters that warned England of the danger menacing the future population bore the legend, "It is safer to be a soldier in France than a baby at home."

The Children's Year program should save us in the United States the thrill of horror that ran through the English as they read this legend. England took prompt action. The results show what intelligent group action can do for social improvement. The death rate, which had risen to 110 in a thousand, was brought down to 91 in a thousand, the lowest mortality rate on record for England. France, too, in spite of the war that strains her heart and nerve, has since 1914 taken steps to see that "no woman is ignored and no child forgotten." In Belgium the corrective and preventive work being done is first of all work for children; in Italy, thorough-going precautions are under way; Germany's solicitude about the protection of her next generation has been unremitting. These precedents of foresight added to our own investigations already mentioned were warrant for the challenge to save 100,000 babies for the nation when life must be used up on the field of honor.

As first precautionary step, a stock-taking, as it were, of the children of pre-school age was suggested,—a weighing and measuring test. The height and weight of a child is a rough index of its physical development. The weighing and measuring test was therefore proposed to get this height and weight for every child of pre-school age in the country. The period from April 6—the beginning of the Children's Year—to June 6, was the time appointed for carrying on this ambitious enterprise never before undertaken in this country. All but one state have undertaken the test. In most it is still going on. The Children's Bureau has issued and the Woman's Committee has distributed over six million cards. When these are filled out and returned, the results will be tabulated and published. In the meantime, however, in each community where the work of conservation with "scales and a tape measure" has wisely begun, special notes have been taken and a stock of facts will call for special action. Malnutrition that stunts growth should have been identified: the appropriate treatment, especially sufficient milk and other food, should follow.

In general, after the weighing and measuring test, those specially interested in child hygiene will be urged to push other adequate measures that save babies for the nation. The best means for educating the individual and the community are public health nurses. More of these trained women are needed, more fully equipped and paid properly in money and repute. One hundred per cent birth registration we must have instead of our present slatternly social accounting. Better prenatal care, better obstetrical care, more infant welfare stations and health centers are also to be urged. In a word, a widespread and unremitting propaganda for the best preventive health measures is to spread all over the land, not only in the urban districts, but in the rural as well.

To plan and to urge is the part of the central government. The Children's Bureau and the Woman's Committee have done this work. Thanks to a fine display of energy and initiative on the part of forty-seven state chairmen, thanks to the hearty response from some 11,000 unit chairmen, a thing which needed to be done is being carried on in a manner that warrants high faith in the outcome.

On the whole it is possible to report progress in all but one state. The work everywhere regularly improves in quantity, intensity and quality. The social chasms are narrowing. Ingenuity has raised money by special quest, from private benevolence, or, in a dozen states, from state funds. The press has generously given publicity, repeating facts again and again and with increasing detail; answering doubts and teaching that children, a part of the nation's defense and strength, must be protected, not used up. A dozen states have posters that blazon this forth. In several states, buttons of various devices decorate the person, or testimonial cards hang in the homes of those whose little ones have been weighed. Before the Children's Year is over, every "publicity" expedient will be tried. Each week sees a widening circle of the men of the defense organizations and the general public quickening to the call of its program.

The Children's Bureau provides the call; the Woman's Committee and the state divisions answer; the men and women of the country are rallying so that it is fairly certain that the stigma of ignorance and failure to provide for the nation's future citizens will not fall upon us. New tasks and opportunities will come as the drives for healthy play, more months of school, and assured home care are added to the present well-announced drive for health. When children bear burdens, the nation suffers; when children lack schooling that prepares them for life, the nation suffers; when they lack mothers' care and home life, they and the nation suffer most of all. The Children's Year means constructive conservation. If its program can be realized the nation's children will walk more freely to be the strength of the next generation.

WAR WORK IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

By C. A. Prosser,

Director of the Federal Board for Vocational Education.

As the law provides they shall be, the activities of the Federal Board for Vocational Education are largely coöperative. This board administers federal grants in aid of vocational education in the states, and it is at present largely engaged in providing emergency war training for conscripted men, and in organizing for undertaking national reëducation and return to civil employment of men disabled in the war.

Federal grants become available each year, in amounts increasing from approximately $1,650,000 in 1917–18, to $7,160,000 in 1925–26 and annually thereafter, and if accepted by the states the federal grants must be matched by equal amounts of state money. In the past ten months, since the board organized, all of the states without exception have accepted grants, matching federal with state money to be expended for promoting vocational education in the public schools throughout the country.

It is a rare event when our sovereign states elect unanimously to take any single course even when their own best interests point the way clearly, and the event of the forty-eight states taking unanimous action involving expenditure of state money within a brief period of ten months under a permissive federal statute is unique in our history. It is in itself conclusive proof that the federal law in this instance has been wisely conceived by Congress to insure widespread social benefits.

The law which has been thus unanimously accepted by the states is a law for democratizing our public school education, by adapting it to the needs of those who must prepare to take up the commoner wage-earning pursuits in agriculture, industry, or commerce. Under the law, also, vocational education is provided in continuation part-time or evening courses for those who have already entered upon some wage-earning pursuit.

VOCATIONAL COURSES SET UP IN THE STATES

In the past ten months the Federal Board has organized its staff of experts in various lines, and of regional agents for inspection of schools federally aided; has formulated its policies of federal coöperation covering the entire field of vocational education in the states for agriculture, trades and industries, and home management; has approved state plans setting up vocational courses in each of the 48 states, and allotted federal money available under these plans for the fiscal year 1917–18; and has maintained inspection of courses as they have been established in numerous local communities. Federally aided vocational courses have been set up in agriculture in 41 states, in trade and industrial subjects in 32 states, and in home economics in 29 states; 22 states have organized courses in each of these three fields; in 46 states teacher training courses have been organized.

The record of the states in this work is impressive, especially when it is borne in mind that the record covers an initial period of only ten months. In Massachusetts, for example, vocational agriculture is being taught in 19 secondary schools with federal aid; trade and industrial subjects in 36 schools; and home economics in 29 schools. In New York the number of federally aided secondary schools is for agriculture 69, and for trades and industries 40; in Pennsylvania, for agriculture 38, for trades and industries 131, and for home economics 69; in California, for agriculture 12, for trades and industries 14, and for home economics 14; in Indiana, for agriculture 37, and for trades and industries 21; in Mississippi, for agriculture 34, for trades and industries 1, and for home economics 3. These states are taken at random merely as illustrations of the widespread development of secondary vocational education. The record for other states is equally impressive.

EMERGENCY WAR TRAINING

As it happens, the coöperation of the Federal Board during the past ten months has extended far beyond the scope of activities contemplated in the organic law under which the board operates. The administrative machinery built up for undertaking the joint federal and state enterprise of promoting vocational education in the country as a whole has been commandeered for war service,—

or rather, being immediately available for such service, it has been freely tendered to the war offices and has been by them freely utilized.

Immediately upon its organization, the staff of the Federal Board, in compliance with the general policy approved by the board to render such assistance to the government as it might legitimately do in the emergency of war, began to take on war work. The training of conscripted men for army occupations was conceived to be the sort of vocational education which might most properly be promoted immediately. Under supervision of the Federal Board, war emergency training classes for conscripted men have been organized in the public schools throughout the country. A series of war emergency training courses for army occupations has been prepared, and these courses have been adopted extensively not only for classes organized under the direct supervision of the board, but as well for classes organized by the War Department among men enlisted in the army and for classes conducted on a commercial basis under private civilian control.

The emergency war training bulletins of the Federal Board include emergency training courses in shipbuilding for shipyard workers; mechanical and technical training for conscripted men (Air Division, U. S. Signal Corps); training for motor truck drivers and chauffeurs; for machine shop occupations, blacksmithing, sheet-metal working, and pipe fitting; for electricians, telephone repair men, linesmen, and cable splicers; for gas engine, motor car, and motorcycle repair men; for oxy-acetylene welders; and for airplane mechanics, engine repair men, wood-workers, riggers, and sheet-metal workers. The preparation of these courses and the organization of training classes has been undertaken at the request of, and in coöperation with the Signal Corps and the Quartermaster Corps in the War Department, and the United States Shipping Board.

Growing out of conferences between officials of the Federal Board for Vocational Education and officers of the General Staff, an arrangement was perfected late in October, with the approval of the Secretary of War, for the utilization of the educational facilities of the United States by the Federal Board in coöperation with the War Department for the purpose of training drafted men in various occupations prior to their reporting at the cantonments. An order signed by the Adjutant General of the War Department under date of November 3, 1917, issued to the commanding generals of all departments and to the chiefs of bureaus, reads in part as follows:

> 1. The Secretary of War directs that you be informed as follows:
>
> a. The Federal Board for Vocational Education, authorized by act of Congress, February 23, 1917, of which Dr. C. A. Prosser is director, is now organized and is in close coöperation with the vocational schools of the country. This board is prepared to institute a comprehensive system of preliminary training of men of the second and subsequent drafts prior to their reporting at cantonments. . . .
>
> It is the desire of the Secretary of War that the chiefs of bureaus maintain close coöperation with this board, furnishing such information as to number of men desired to be trained, necessary courses, etc. For this purpose the chiefs of bureaus will deal directly with Dr. Prosser.

This work has continued and the War Training Division of the Federal Board reports that on June 13, 1917, 12,000 men had been trained through the Federal Board and state authorities for vocational education, and turned over to services—6,000 in mechanical lines, 5,000 in radio work for the army, navy and mercantile marine, and 1,000 in clerical occupations for Quartermaster Corps work. It estimates that an additional 3,000 men have been trained by private agencies through impetus given to the work by the Federal Board, using Federal Board courses of instruction. Incomplete reports from state vocational authorities for May, return over 6,000 men in training—3,370 in radio classes, and 2,508 in mechanical classes,—and it is estimated, on the basis of April returns, that the complete reports for May will show the number in training to be at least 7,500. On June 13, the May reports showed 165 radio classes, operated in 38 states, and 172 mechanical classes in 49 communities in 14 states. Almost daily reports of additional classes being formed were coming in from California, Wisconsin, Missouri, New York and Pennsylvania. Since the May letters were sent out urging the establishment of new classes and the continuance of those in operation, renewed activity has been reported in at least 20 states.

The Federal Board war emergency training bulletins have become standard courses in corps schools, such as the Quartermaster Corps at Camp Joseph E. Johnston, Jacksonville, Florida. Of these bulletins or course outlines some 25,000 copies have been furnished directly or indirectly to the War Department Committee on Education and Special Training for use in its classes, in which the number reported in training was 7,086 in April, 10,685 in May, and 26,666 in June. Contracts in force provided for the training of 100,000 men during the current year. This training under military control has been found necessary to provide for the needs of the army, in addition to the training in voluntary classes under the Federal Board.

The esteem in which the Adjutant General's office holds the results of Federal Board training is well indicated by the following order issued to the department commanders under date of May 7th.

> Draft men sent division from the May draft and all subsequent drafts who have certificates showing that they have been instructed in certain subjects in schools under the direction of the Federal Board for Vocational Education should be given assignments where they can utilize the training obtained in these schools. You are directed to instruct your personal officers to record on classification card the training each man has received and make assignments accordingly.
>
> McCAIN.

Classes in shipbuilding occupations have been established in coöperation with the Federal Board in the following states:

North Carolina—Wilmington, evening.

Pennsylvania—Chester, Girard College students.

Ohio—Cleveland, evening classes; Lorain, evening classes.

New York—Port Richmond, Staten Island, evening; Newburgh, evening; Buffalo, evening.

Minnesota—Duluth, evening; part time.

Delaware—Wilmington, evening.

Connecticut—Bridgeport, evening, part time, all day; Housatonic, evening and part time.

California—San Diego, evening classes; Long Beach, evening classes; San Pedro, evening classes; Oakland, evening classes; San Francisco, evening classes; Alameda, evening classes.

Maine—Bath, evening courses.

Oregon—Portland, evening, not confirmed; Astoria, evening, not confirmed.

Washington—Seattle, evening classes.

Bulletin No. 3, *Emergency Training in Shipbuilding*, is being used in these classes. The following states have appointed agents who will work whole or part time on these classes: Ohio, New Jersey, Texas, Connecticut, Alabama, New York and California.

VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION OF MEN DISABLED IN THE WAR

Even more absorbing in its appeal to the Federal Board, because of the wide range given to vocational education as a means of insuring human welfare, has been the investigation of methods and processes developed in the belligerent countries for vocational rehabilitation of men disabled in the war. Coincidently with its organization the board initiated its inquiries in this field, and it has passed those inquiries continuously during the past ten months. No other agency of the government was prepared to enter this field, and the government naturally turned to the Federal Board for expert service.

The enactment recently by Congress, without a dissenting vote in either house, of the Smith-Sears Act, entrusting to the Federal Board the vitally important work of reëducation and returning to civil employment men disabled in the war, is a recognition of the services of the board during the past ten months in accumulating data relating to rehabilitation work and in devising a scheme of organization for undertaking this work as our men return disabled from service. Here, also, it is provided that there shall be full and complete coöperation. The several government offices concerned with the future welfare of men discharged from the army and navy, including the medical and surgical services of the War Department and the Navy Department, the Bureau of War Risk Insurance in the Treasury, and the labor exchanges in the Department of Labor, together with the Federal Board, will each render service in retaining and returning to civil employment men disabled in the war. The Federal Board will act in an advisory capacity in providing vocational training for men during their convalescence in the military hospitals before their discharge from the army or navy, and will continue such training to finality after discharge, as the civilian agency of rehabilitation and placement in industry.

The time of the members of the board and of the director and his staff has been largely occupied in conferences with representatives of other federal offices, state organizations, casualty insurance companies, chambers of commerce, the Red Cross, and other associations interested in the retraining of men disabled in the war. Out of these conferences the original draft of the Smith-Sears law was formulated. A joint committee of the Senate and House of Representatives conducted public hearings upon the bill, which as finally improved passed both Houses of Congress unanimously. This bill imposes upon the Federal Board new responsibilities which in the immediate future, at least, will be of equal importance with those imposed by the organic act creating the board. The publications of the board in this field embrace several bulletins, one of over 300 pages. In preparation for the assumption of the new responsibilities, the director, a member of the board, and representatives of the staff have visited Canadian institutions for retraining disabled men. The secretary of the Canadian Invalided Soldiers' Commission, Mr. T. B. Kidner, who has developed this work in Canada, appeared before the joint committee in support of the proposed legislation, and he has temporarily undertaken to assist the board in the organization of the work in this country under the Smith-Sears Act.

OPENING A LARGER FIELD OF USEFULNESS

A still larger field of usefulness is opened up to the Federal Board and for vocational education in general, since it is in mind that the experience gained in the work of reëducating men disabled in the war, and the administrative machinery and expert service developed for this work shall all be utilized after the war for rehabilitating the victims of industry, as well as the thousands of natural cripples who in the past have been abandoned to hopeless indigence.

The Federal Board has thus undertaken to promote vocational education in the states, and so to promote the development of such education in the present emergency as to provide for the special needs of the war and of men disabled in the war. In each of these fields it has appeared as an administrative agency of coördination and coöperation, and it has conceived a vision of usefulness in the future which it believes to be in a fair way of realization.

These are the large aspects of the Federal Board's operation and policies during the brief period that comprehends its own organization, its entrance into entirely new fields of vocational education, its extension of service into each of the 48 states, and its preparation for the assumption of new responsibilities in rehabilitating the disabled and crippled.

A survey of the past ten months warrants the conclusion that the program of vocational education is in a fair way of being realized even beyond the most sanguine hopes of those who have in the past participated in formulating that program. Education in the public schools is rapidly being democratized and adapted to the needs of our citizenship. In realizing this program the states have responded splendidly. State education authorities also responded splendidly to the appeal of the federal government, through the Federal Board, to demonstrate the practical utility of vocational education in the exacting emergency of war. The institutions providing vocational training for conscripted men have stood the acid test of devising schemes of training to meet the special requirements of waging war. This demonstration of social service in a great emergency will stand to the credit of vocational education after the war is won as fulfilling the highest ideals of its advocates, and it may confidently be anticipated that the achievements in the future, when the community returns to its peaceful pursuits, will even exceed those rendered in war time.

HOUSING FOR WAR WORKERS ENGAGED ON ARMY AND NAVY CONTRACTS

By JAMES FORD,

Manager, Home Registration and Information Division,
Bureau Industrial Housing and Transportation.

The problem of housing munition workers was serious in America prior to our entrance in the war. In Bridgeport and various other cities filling war orders for our Allies, there was considerable pressure of population and a shortage of accommodation. This shortage became much more serious and this whole problem more widespread, after our entrance in the war. Building materials, labor and capital, were difficult to secure, prices of both materials and labor high, and private construction became considerably reduced even when the need of construction was rapidly increasing. Construction by the federal government was therefore imperative.

It was quickly recognized that house building was an important part of the war program; it was seen that it would be impossible to get an adequate labor supply or to hold it, unless the workmen were properly housed in convenient, sanitary dwellings accessible to their work shops, and offered at a rental which they could afford to pay. An allotment of $50,000,000 was made by Congress in March, 1918, to provide for building houses for workers in the shipyards. Subsequently $25,000,000 was added to the fund; this $75,000,000 is expended under the direction of A. Merritt Taylor of the Emergency Fleet Corporation.

In February, 1918, the Bureau of Industrial Housing and Transportation was created, of which Otto M. Eidlitz is director, for the purpose of providing for the construction of houses for industrial operatives engaged on army or navy contracts. After considerable debate Congress voted $50,000,000 to this Bureau for use throughout the country and $10,000,000 more for the housing of government clerks in Washington. Subsequently, $40,000,000 has been added to this fund, making $100,000,000 altogether available to meet this national emergency.

Investigations have been made in scores of American cities upon recommendation coming from the local agencies, or from the army or navy. Where acute housing shortage has been found to be a cause of rapid labor turnover, or the output of war materials was retarded by lack of available homes for workmen, measures have been taken to secure the necessary dwellings. The procedure is, first to make a thorough canvass of the local problem to find out if the shortage is actual, and to discover its nature, for one city may need houses for single labor, another for unskilled married operatives, and another for skilled operatives. Many need houses for all these groups. After the actual and prospective needs of the community are ascertained attempts have been made to solve the local problem through improved transportation and through canvass and registration of vacancies of the city and its suburbs. In a number of places it has been possible by these devices to solve the local problem without new construction and in practically every instance the shortage has been somewhat relieved by these methods.

For example,—special train service has been provided from the highly congested district of Perth Amboy, South Amboy and Morgan to Asbury Park. An elaborate vacancy canvass revealed approximately 700 vacant houses and flats, and many thousand vacant rooms available for the use of industrial operatives. Express trains from Asbury Park to the factories of this district were run each morning and night and with tickets available for workers in government plants at 30 cents for the round trip. A similar solution of the housing problem, through transportation, is projected from the Indiana Steel Towns, Gary, Hammond, Indiana Harbor, East Chicago, to South Chicago, where careful canvass has revealed over five thousand vacant houses and flats.

In more than a score of cities and towns, through coöperation of the national, state and city Councils of Defense, a local Homes Registration Service has been established, keeping full records of each vacancy and providing centralized, accessible information for all industrial workers in search of homes. Cities in which this service has been established are the following:

Bridgeport, Conn., Erie, Pa., Bath, Maine, New London, Conn., Norfolk, Va., Lowell, Mass., Chicago, Ill., Perth Amboy, N. J., Asbury Park, N. J., Long Branch, N. J., Butler, Pa., Easton, Pa., East Chicago, Ind., Gary, Ind., Hammond, Ind., Alliance, Ohio, Newport, R. I., Dayton, Ohio, Sharon, Pa., Newark, N. J., Rock Island, Ill., Moline, Ill., Davenport, Iowa, Cleveland, Ohio, New Brunswick, N. J., Niagara Falls, N. Y., Niles, Ohio, Portsmouth, Va., Suffolk, Va., Philadelphia, Pa., Utica, N. Y., Warren, Ohio, Buffalo, N. Y., Youngstown, Ohio, Derby, Conn., Naugatuck, Conn., Canton, Ohio, Pittsburgh, Pa., Trenton, N. J., Watertown, N. Y.

Where there has been complaint of rent profiteering, a local committee has been established also, generally through the local Council of Defense, to deal with such cases. Each separate committee has sub-committees on rent adjustment, consisting generally of one representative of labor, chosen from a list prepared by the central labor union, one representative of the real estate or manufacturing interests, and a third person mutually acceptable representing the general public. In New London, where the first committee of the kind was established, more than a score of cases have been handled satisfactorily. The landlord and tenant are both summoned to appear. The facts of the case are closely analyzed. The landlord is sometimes vindicated but where he is found guilty of rent profiteering he is told that "war profits are a dishonor," that high rents reduce the production of war material and he is appealed to on moral and patriotic grounds. He is shown what would be a proper rent for his property and if he refuses to reduce his rent the facts are published, without comment, in the local paper.

In nearly forty cities additional housing has been required, the investigation having proved the community to be saturated, and industrial output to be reduced through housing shortage. To meet the needs of these communities the United States Housing Corporation was established. The officers of the corporation are:

President, Otto M. Eidlitz; Vice-President, J. D. Leland 3d; Treasurer, G. G. Box; Secretary, Burt L. Fenner. The other members are Albert B. Kerr, John W. Alvord, and W. E. Shannon. It was originally expected that the government would provide loans of 80 per cent of the money used for local construction and that 20 per cent would be provided from local sources. This plan was abandoned and replaced by construction and operation solely by the government for a number of reasons. *First*, because it proved very difficult to get the different communities to agree to their share of the cost of new construction. *Second*, because under this arrangement houses could be sold as soon as constructed and there was danger that certain purchasers would not keep up their premises and thus injure the entire estate. *Third*, because delays developed from the continuous need of negotiating with the communities as to their participation in the housing development, the most prominent difficulty being their desire to put certain properties on the market, not leaving the bureau a free hand. *Fourth*, the local share of the capital was raised, in a large part, by local manufacturers; this was objectionable to the working class especially in cities in which there was but a single war industry, for workmen complained believing that their domestic life would be dominated by their employers. The houses are therefore to be built and managed by the government during the war.

The funds have actually been available to the bureau only since June, 1918. The United States Housing Corporation was established on July 11, 1918. Two weeks after the Corporation was formed land had already been purchased in over a dozen cities; old hotels had been purchased for remodelling near Portsmouth; contracts had been let at Bethlehem and Charleston and Portsmouth, Virginia, and bids were being received on the construction for Washington, Bridgeport and various other places. Plans are already drawn for more than a score of operations and contracts are let a few days after the plans are approved.

This corporation, after close analysis of the needs of the industrial cities for each type of labor employed, and after careful selection of sites, plans and builds houses ranging in number from a few score to a thousand or more. Every attempt has been made to consider the tastes and interests of the persons to be housed. A careful canvass of their desires always precedes the making of plans. Arrangements are made to provide for the civic and social life of the future occupants in case the group of houses is located outside of the heart of an established city.

To protect the bureau against excessive payments for land, the Real Estate Division always secures estimates of the value of all acceptable sites from the mayor of the city, the local chamber of commerce and the rotary club and from a special local committee of carefully selected real estate men appointed by the National Real Estate Association. A strong appeal is made as to the importance of unbiased, discriminating and patriotic service by these committees and the land owner is induced to cut his prices down to a pre-war figure. Many of the houses, however, are built on army and navy land so that the question of purchase is not raised.

The types of houses to be constructed vary according to the needs of the locality and the type of labor to be housed. Temporary construction is of course necessary in places where industry will not continue after the war is over. In permanent communities it is more economical to construct permanent houses, so located that they will be readily salable after the war is over. Dormitories for women workers, known as residence halls, are being constructed in Washington, with a cafeteria, a central auditorium, and small recreation halls in each unit, and other features which would tend to make these wholesome and pleasing places of residence. Temporary dormitories are constructed at several of the local plants. A few apartment houses are being constructed in Washington and row or group dwellings, semi-detached houses and cottages, both for skilled and unskilled labor are to be built in industrial communities throughout the country. In all cases the desires of the workmen and their wives are carefully canvassed and an attempt is made to build houses which conform to their desires, which are practical, convenient, homelike, but which do not depart widely from the prevailing types of houses with which working men are familiar. Standard house plans, specifications and rules have been drawn up for architects, town planners and engineers.

THE NATIONAL LEAGUE FOR WOMAN'S SERVICE

BY MRS. COFFIN VAN RENSSELAER,
Vice-Chairman of the National League for Woman's Service.

To anyone who has watched the development of the war service of women volunteers in this country the credit for its volume and effectiveness must be given to the willingness and necessary energy rather than to the immediate efficiency. Probably never before in the history of American womanhood has there been a time when women have been so humble in their attitude to serve and so eager for work. We knew that in this country, no less than in England and France, the women were completely unprepared to meet the demand of a national call for trained woman power in the war emergency. Several months before the United States declared war on Germany, and when it already was apparent that our attitude of neutrality must end, women had begun to ask the question, What can we do? We knew, generally in a vague sort of way, that the English and French women were making their sacrifices and bearing their share of responsibility equally with the men, and through these sacrifices earning the respect and praise of all the nations of the civilized world.

First we asked the question among ourselves; then we asked the government, and when we learned that the government could not at that time give us any specific work, we created war jobs for ourselves by building up organizations among women for future service and by training in war activities to meet the demand for woman service which was bound to come. In other words, the women of America began to prepare. And so when war was declared thousands were ready for service,—a very small percentage at that,—thousands more were creating their jobs, thousands were searching for the work they were to do, and still other thousands were asking the question, the old question, What can we do?

No better example of the willingness of the women volunteers is furnished than in the organization and growth of the National League for Woman's Service. When war was declared, the League had been organized two months. It was the first national war organization with a complete program and it attempted to solve the problem of the volunteer from every angle by classifying the necessary work in as many divisions so that any useful service offered by a woman might be advantageously employed under a standardized plan.

Three days before President Wilson was re-elected, Miss Grace Parker, the national commandant of the League, sailed for England to make an intensive study of the war work of Englishwomen, and with Miss Parker's sailing the League properly had its beginning. She went to England because she saw the war cloud hovering nearer and nearer this country, and felt the need of some plan of preparation for war among the great mass of untrained women whose power, properly directed, is one of the great national assets in modern warfare.

When Miss Parker returned, the plan and program—the same program on which the League today is being conducted—was presented at a session of the Congress for Constructive Patriotism, held in Washington on January 26, 1917, under the auspices of the National Security League. At a later session of over five hundred women delegates representing practically every section of the country, this program was approved, and the first meeting of the appointed organization committee was held the next day when temporary officers were elected. The officers elected were (and they still remain the same): Miss Maude Wetmore, chairman; Mrs. Coffin Van Rensselaer, vice-chairman; Miss Anne Morgan, treasurer; and Miss Grace Parker, national commandant, with a board of fifteen directors. Temporary state chairmen were appointed by the board, state chairmen to be elected by the members of given states at a meeting to be called after complete organization had taken place.

On February 4, the day following the dismissal of the German ambassador, the officers of the League met in New York City to put into immediate operation that part of the program which would be of the greatest usefulness at that time. Accordingly, an emergency program was prepared and the divisions of activity were classified as follows: Social and welfare (including the canteen, which has since become a separate division), home economics, agriculture, industry, motor driving, general service, home and overseas relief.

An information blank to be filled in by organizations of women indicating their willingness to coöperate in the work outlined in this emergency program, and also a membership enrollment blank for individuals desiring to enroll for specific service, were next prepared. And so on the day the United States declared war, the League had an enrollment of about 50,000 members, and an organization in thirty-one states. This had been accomplished in two months, not only by the sincere efforts of the officers of the League, but primarily because the women of the country were facing the crisis and demanding to be organized and prepared. The members are enrolled for a definite service and although they are not always classified as untrained workers, they render service in the particular branch of work they have designated. The League has now been organized in forty-one states in over seven hundred cities and has an enrollment of approximately 300,000 members.

During the eighteen months the United States has been at war the volunteers who make up the organization have accomplished many things. One of the first official acts was to have women included in the military census of New York State which at that time was impending. Through the efforts of the League, women, too, were included in the military census of Rhode Island, the only other state which has had a registration of its man power and woman power.

Following the organization of the League in Washington, several recommendations were made by the women to the federal government. One of these was that a Woman's Bureau be established under the government to deal with woman's work and woman's welfare. In making this recommendation, the League had in mind particularly the protection of the women who already were wage-earners and the thousands of others who in the months to come would take up the work of the men gone to war, in the offices, factories and stores. A great army of these women in England since the outbreak of the war has been the main sustenance of the men at the front.

The plan of the Woman's Bureau was approved by Secretary Wilson, and the Bureau of Registration and Information was established in Washington in March, 1917, under the supervision of the secretary, but financed and operated by the League pending the time when the Department of Labor could take this work into the department. The following October the bureau, together with its staff of workers and the organization which had been built up, was taken over by Secretary Wilson. But during the months that the bureau was under the guidance of the League, it had accomplished certain work, with the assistance of Secretary Wilson, which never ceased to be of value to the Department of Labor. A particularly valuable service was the survey of the labor situation, as it concerned women especially in the states which were engaged conspicuously in the filling of government war contracts. The states surveyed included Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Maryland, Virginia, South Carolina, Delaware, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, New York and parts of Pennsylvania and Massachusetts. The survey listed generally the exact status of the woman labor supply in the factories engaged on war orders, the nature of the work the women did, the supply of trained woman labor in nearby towns and villages, the housing facilities in the community and other matters all important to effective work.

The urgency of this survey is shown in one instance. In Pennsylvania, a manufacturer to whom a war contract had just been given advertised for several hundred women workers. In answer to his advertisement, he received no more than half a dozen replies. The Pennsylvania chairman of the League heard of his experience and called upon him immediately to offer him the assistance of the Bureau of Registration and Information. And in a few days, with the aid of the survey already made by the bureau of Pennsylvania, the workers were furnished. Only a small part of the work of the Bureau of Registration and Information was done by volunteers, although it was a part of the emergency program. The bureau itself was a digression on the part of the League from its work of training volunteers; but it was such an important part of the program of woman's war service that it was included in the organization plans.

Two months after war was declared, the first social service club for soldiers and sailors was opened by the League in New York. The club was established under the auspices of the Social and Welfare Division and today there are a thousand or more similar clubs under various organizations in the United States. The club in New York City at first occupied the first floor of the national headquarters of the League. It now takes a whole building, an old Madison Avenue residence. There are game rooms, writing rooms, a library and various other comforts in this club. Fourteen rooms, which in no way meet the need, are reserved for sleeping accommodations for the men. The League club in San Francisco, from the latest reports, has the largest attendance. On one day this club was host to 3,000 men. Another club in Columbia, S. C., has a daily average attendance of over 1,000 men. In all its social and welfare work throughout the country the National League for Woman's Service has been working in close coöperation with the directors of the federal Commission on War Training Camp Activities.

One feature of the Sailors and Soldiers Clubs is the recreational canteen which is opened in them. In the canteens, substantial meals are served the men at prices very close to cost. The League is able to do this because all the workers from the cooks down to the dishwashers are volunteers. To women, the canteen has proved the most attractive of the volunteer work offered by the League. In New York City there are about 2,000 active workers in this branch of service. In addition to the League club the canteeners serve in all the war camp community clubs. Recently the Canteen Division in New York has been compelled to close its registration books to further applicants for service, when a checking up of workers showed a waiting list of 400 volunteers.

Every woman before she becomes eligible for service must take a course in cooking. The courses have been prepared by the League and cover practically all the small things she must know to give good service. The canteen undoubtedly sees more of the new spirit of willingness in women volunteers than any other division. In it there are women who, before the war, had never washed a dish or cooked a meal, and today they enjoy cooking hearty meals for hungry sailors and soldiers and then washing the dishes when the meal is finished.

One notable service of the canteen occurred last summer in Detroit. The ration allowance per man is seventy-five cents a day. It was not possible for the men to find a satisfactory restaurant or lunch-room where three meals could be had for such a sum. The officers of this special detachment, after some investigation, contracted with the National League for Woman's Service canteen to furnish meals for the men for three weeks for the regular allowance. When the contract expired, the canteen had paid all their expenses, fed the men satisfactorily and had cleared nearly $1,000. As a result of this service, Detroit as a city has contracted with the canteen to supply every enlisted man leaving the town with a lunch box at the cost of twenty-five cents. With the inauguration of the canteen, the League also organized the Emergency Canteen to meet the troop trains at the railroad stations after a long journey, and to feed the men on delayed trains where no provisions for feeding them had been made. The women who volunteered for this service pledged themselves to answer calls for service at any time of day or night. The Emergency Canteen built itself up to a membership of over 500 workers and recently has been taken over by the Red Cross, whose function it is to handle the railroad service.

In over 200 cities, the Home Economics Division of the League distributed thousands of the first and second Hoover pledge cards. This division, in practically every community where it is organized, made a house-to-house canvass to enlist the coöperation of the housewives with the Food Administration, to show them the methods of food conservation, and to see that households were put on a war-time food basis. All such work, we must remember, was and is being done by volunteers and the service they are giving to the government is the means of saving millions of dollars. Many classes in home economics have been formed by the League to train women to conserve food. An unusually successful, public-spirited part of the work of this division has been the establishing of community kitchens to help save food and fuel and to improve the general health of the centers in which they have been opened. At the community kitchens the cooking for the neighborhood in general is done. For a very small amount, a hot lunch or dinner can be bought at the kitchens and taken home. The Home Economics Division has opened kitchens in the neighborhoods where many women are compelled to leave their homes and work in factories or at other employment. Frequently these women are married and have not the time to give to the proper preparation of food for their families. The war, of course, necessarily has increased the number in this particular class of working women. In the majority of these kitchens the only paid worker is the cook; the dishwashers, waitresses and other helpers being volunteers.

Detachments under the Agricultural Division in every state in which the League is organized have promoted community gardens. Thousands of acres of land have been cultivated through the volunteers and they have made many unsightly vacant lots and useless backyards into war gardens. The women of the Agricultural Division have been responsible, too, for special courses in war gardening being introduced in the colleges. Since the formation of the Woman's Land Army the League has directed practically all of its agricultural work through this organization.

Recently the surgeon-general of the United States Army officially recognized the Motor Corps of the National League for Woman's Service, which since the organization of the League has been driving for the War Department, the army and navy, and various departments of the federal and state government engaged in war work. In common with the women leaders in English war work, the organizers of the League have always believed that motor driving was an essential job in which the women could release the much-needed men. The Motor Corps, when the first annual report of the League was compiled, had branches in more than seventy cities in the country. The members must have passed an examination in motor mechanics, as well as first aid and signalling. They are required to take military and sanitary drill and are in uniform. In the corps, the drivers not only give their time but their own cars and upkeep. The foreign service flag of the corps has nine service stars on it.

Every kind of volunteer from a Yiddish interpreter to an accountant has been furnished on call by the General Service Division. In this division are registered stenographers who work eight hours a day at a paying job and then give a few hours of their evenings for war service; bookkeepers who do the same; others who have volunteered for Red Cross, war savings stamps and liberty loan drives; linguists; office girls; and a thousand and one other miscellaneous workers. Some of the workers in the General Service Division are trained; others are not; but there is urgent and important work in many of the federal and state departments which does require trained workers. One of our branches lately has been asked to supply a young worker who speaks several languages to translate foreign news for the Committee on Public Information. The worker has been supplied. Volunteers in this division have, at times, been assigned the most menial work; but with only a minority of exceptions they have stuck to these jobs until they are successfully completed.

The Home and Overseas Relief Division has sent thousands of garments, comfort kits, surgical dressings, sweaters and other knitted articles abroad. The business women of the country have been organized on a large scale for relief work after business hours by this division. The slogan of each worker is "A Garment a Week for France." At Christmas time, these women sent many huge boxes packed with garments and presents to France. For these Christmas boxes many of the women broke away from the making of the regulation garments, especially on the children's clothes. They embroidered and crocheted lace for some of the small dresses and then tucked five cents away in some of the little apron pockets. Lately this division, with the aid of 38,000 florists everywhere in the United States, has begun the distribution of flowers to the hospitals where there are sick and wounded men. The women, too, are meeting the returning hospital ships with flowers. This is a sentimental piece of war work, some will say, but few who have not taken these flowers personally to the hospitals can realize the joy it brings to the men, this "Say it with flowers."

It is not possible in so short a space to give even a rough outline of the many ramifications of the war work of the National League for Woman's Service. It was formed for service, whatever and wherever that might be, and coöperates actively with the Woman's Committee, Council of National Defense, the Commission on Training Camp Activities, Red Cross, Y. M. C. A., and Y. W. C. A., as well as the various branches of the government with which it works directly.

The League is founded on the fundamental principle that training to do our job well is an essential for efficient service, that this is no time for the square peg in the round hole, that the greatest patriotic service a woman can render her country is to do that thing which she can do best, in the environment which is most natural to her. Every twenty-four hours of the day must be spent in war service. The spirit which is put into the daily task transforms the common round into patriotic service; in the home, the training ground for the future citizens, and in the schools; in the industries, the second line of defense, and above all in the daily intercourse with our neighbors where we must each so live our ideals of democracy, not merely state them, that the women of the country shall form that solid foundation of a national morale without which we cannot have the sure victory.

THE SUPERVISION OF SOLICITATION OF FUNDS FOR WAR RELIEF

By Dorothy Pope,
Washington, D. C.

War relief meant to America, from 1914 to 1917, an outpouring of sympathy and generosity, expressed in financial support for the relief of the suffering civilians of the warring countries of Europe and Asia Minor. Now, in the midst of our participation in the war, the term has broadened to include provision for relief of our own civilian population affected by the war, and provision for the comfort and well-being of our soldiers here and abroad. Relief for Europe is now, as before, provided through our official war relief organization—the American Red Cross—and also through the numerous voluntary war relief organizations which have sprung into being to meet the war needs of Europe. The American Red Cross has also assumed the relief of the families of soldiers and sailors as an additional burden. To provide for our soldiers, the Commissions on Training Camp Activities of the War and Navy Departments, officially recognize six national voluntary organizations. The money needed for the support of the excellent work of these organizations, which are doing so much to maintain the morale of our army, is an entirely new responsibility willingly accepted since our entrance into the war.

The American people have risen to meet these new demands with generosity, but our continued participation in the war makes it apparent that the burden of relief and provision for our soldiers cannot be borne by any fraction of our populace. It must be borne by every individual citizen according to his means. In addition, we can support the financial strain of the war only if we practise economy far beyond our custom. As liberty loan follows liberty loan, economy in the expenditure of money becomes more and more necessary; as thousands after thousands of our young men train for the army and leave for France, economy in the use of men and human effort becomes imperative; and economy of time accompanies the economy of money and effort.

This economy is as necessary in the collection and disbursement of funds as in all other fields of war activity.

The two essentials, therefore, in providing for war relief are economy of time, effort and money, and sharing of the burden by every citizen of the United States. It is evident that to meet these demands of our crisis, we must discard the hit or miss method we have hitherto used to collect our funds and adopt centralized control on a nation-wide basis.

STATE COUNCILS OF DEFENSE

The state councils of defense are the only official war organizations operating in the states, which are charged with no single field of endeavor but with the mobilization of the time, efforts and money of the citizens of the states in active support of the war and the centralization and coördination of the war work in the states. Their membership represents the activities, resources and industries of the state, and they are both state and national in character. Though of such size that they can effectively determine the merit of the objects of the various war relief organizations and of the work which they are doing, they operate in a jurisdiction so small that they can effectively observe and supervise the methods of solicitation which these various agencies employ within their jurisdiction. Their extensive machinery, which extends through the county and school district, affords an admirable means of making supervision by them effective. They are thus the logical organization for the supervision of solicitation of funds for war relief purposes.

On December 7, 1917, the Council of National Defense, in a formal resolution, officially requested the state councils to assume the responsibility for exercising this supervision in their respective states, by adopting some system of supervision of such appeals, which "would encourage the patriotic and philanthropic spirit of the country to a generous response, by the assurance of the proper responsibility of those soliciting subscriptions, thus minimizing opportunities to exploit the benevolent impulses of the country," and as a means of so doing to investigate and approve of organizations which seem after investigation worthy of support. Model forms of the investigation of war relief organizations, compiled by the Council of National Defense from forms in use by private organizations, which investigate organizations collecting funds for war relief, were transmitted to the state councils of defense with the suggestion that they make a state list of approved organizations.

The Council of National Defense further requested that all campaigns for private aid be conducted in entire coöperation with the state councils of defense. In pursuance of this request, voluntary relief organizations have been consistently requested to communicate with the state councils of defense before undertaking the collection of funds within the states.

STATE COUNCIL LISTS OF APPROVED AGENCIES

By June, 1918, forty-two state councils of defense had reported to the Council of National Defense that they had assumed responsibility for the supervision of the solicitation of funds. The action taken varies in the different states. In accordance with the suggestion of the Council of National Defense, nineteen state councils[1] had at that time prepared a list of approved agencies. This list is available only in the state council offices in some states, while in others it has been given wide publicity with a warning to people to give only to the organizations listed. Eight state councils[2] had issued permits to agents of approved organizations for presentation when soliciting funds. Four[3] of these had been empowered by act of legislature to control the solicitation of funds by compelling the licensing of all organizations authorized to collect funds within the state. In other states similar legislation has been discussed but not passed as yet. Several state councils, in addition, have been expressly empowered by statute creating them to promulgate mandatory orders relating to their general purpose of providing for the security and welfare of the state during the war, and this power would seem capable of use to make compulsory the licensing of societies soliciting funds. The North Dakota Council of Defense is using such power for this purpose.

The final decision as to the societies to be endorsed rests entirely with the state councils of defense. The American Red Cross only has been endorsed by the Council of National Defense. Six organizations working directly under the Commission on Training Camp Activities—the Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., the Knights of Columbus, the Jewish Welfare Board, the American Library Association, and the War Camp Community Service—have been endorsed by that commission. In making up their list of approved organizations, some state councils of defense have considered not only the reliability of an organization, but also whether or not it duplicates existing work.

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[1] Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Connecticut, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, Virginia and Washington.

[2] Illinois, Indiana, Montana, North Dakota, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota and Vermont.

[3] Illinois, Montana, South Carolina and South Dakota.

STATE AND LOCAL PLANS

In several of the forty-two states, where state councils have assumed responsibility for this work, they have considered methods of distribution as well as collection. Some have adopted on a state wide scale—others have allowed local communities to adopt—schemes providing for centralized collection and disbursement of funds.

The Illinois State Council, specially charged by state statute with the responsibility of licensing war relief organizations and supervising the collection of funds by such organizations through the state, early instructed each county council of defense in the state to organize a county finance committee which should undertake the financial campaigns for that county as they came along. The state council did not prescribe the exact form which the county finance committee should take, but issued a license to each county which adopted a plan satisfactory to the state council.

Among the most interesting and satisfactory plans which have thus developed in the state of Illinois are the plans of Vermillion and Mercer Counties, both of which provide permanent machinery to collect funds for the American Red Cross and the other agencies which conduct national campaigns. This machinery consists of a permanent committee in each township with subcommittees in each small district. These committees can be instantly mobilized for each drive as it is announced, to collect from each individual his share of the quota assigned. The county finance committee allots to each township its per cent of the county quota. A permanent card record of each contributor and the amount he or she subscribes for each call is kept on file.

In Mercer County each person is given by the town committee a permanent rating as a gage of what he ought to give and will be asked to give in each drive. The county quota is subdivided on a basis of 120 per cent, the extra 20 per cent allowing for deflection by an individual from his assigned quota, and the surplus going toward county council of defense expenses or toward the quota for the next drive. In both counties only the exact quota for each drive is paid to the organization for whose benefit the drive is conducted. Neither of these plans provides for the centralized control of the smaller relief organizations.

A plan has developed among the local councils of many states which provides for far more sweeping control of both the collection and disbursement of funds than do the plans of the Illinois counties. This is the war chest. Under the war chest, a community committee undertakes the collection and disbursement of funds for all war relief, including the recognized national organizations and it disburses funds according to the assigned national quotas, or, in the absence of a national quota, in as just a manner as possible. Although the form of war chest varies considerably in different communities, its essentials are the same in all.

A war chest committee of leading citizens of a county or town is appointed, usually under the local council of defense, to take charge of the systematic collection and distribution of funds for war relief, to all organizations to which the committee decides to give. The force of popular opinion is employed to prevent direct solicitation of funds for war relief in the county or town, but the individual is allowed to prescribe the causes which his money is to support. One object of the chest is to collect money from as nearly as possible every individual of the community. The money is either collected in one drive at a specific time or is collected in weekly or monthly pledges made by members of the community. Where a pledge system is used, the amount of the pledge is sometimes stated as a percentage basis of the wages of the person pledging.

As in the adoption of any new plan, there have been ardent supporters and bitter opponents of the war chest idea. A recent list of the towns collecting funds on the war chest plan, shows that the plan has gotten a foothold in one or more municipalities or localities in thirty-six states. Five[4] state councils of defense have definitely endorsed the war chest plan and have recommended its adoption in the counties in their states. Four[5] state councils are at present considering its advisability. On the other hand, four[6] state councils have disapproved this plan for collecting funds. The Commercial Relations Committee of the Connecticut State Council, which has recently made a thorough study of the war chest, in a preliminary report states that among the cities visited, or corresponded with, they found that none of those which had adopted the war chest plan desired to give it up. The degree of success, however, of the war chest seems largely dependent upon the care and preparation that has been given to the working out of the plan.

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[4] Michigan, New Mexico, New York, Washington and Wisconsin.

The Council of National Defense has not taken any action upon the development of the war chest plan in the several states. It confines its request to the establishment of some system of adequate centralized supervision under each state council of defense; it suggests as a means to this end the careful preparation and wide publication of a list of approved societies, and leaves the further details to be worked out by the state councils themselves.

State councils of defense, following out the request of the Council of National Defense, are endeavoring to bring about in their several states a supervision of funds for war relief which will aid the nation by providing for the economy and conservation of its resources at this time when economy is so vital, and will insure adequate support to organizations doing efficient and essential work. Their supervision aims also to protect their citizens from fraud and from constant, petty and irritating solicitation and to insure thereby their continued generosity, upon which adequate support of war relief depends. With the progress of the war, the need for effective supervision of solicitation for war relief, just as the need of relief itself, becomes increasingly vital. This supervision depends for its success upon the coöperation of the individual citizen and of the war relief agencies concerned with the state councils of defense.

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[5] Connecticut, Oregon, Pennsylvania and Utah.

[6] Illinois, Massachusetts, Tennessee and Virginia.

THE WAR CHEST PLAN

BY HORATIO G. LLOYD,

Chairman, Executive Committee of War Welfare Council of Philadelphia and Vicinity.

The war chest is simply one phase of a movement which is becoming more and more general; namely, the application of the principle of conservation of both energy and money, to all work that has to do with the prosecution of the war. It has as its central idea the bringing of all the money raised by the common effort of all the people in a community into a common fund, from which war relief needs shall be met. It is designed to work out such a thoroughly systematic canvass that the raising of funds will become both simpler and more accurately proportional to the demands that are made upon the community.

What is more natural, when everyone from the President down is talking coöperation and conservation, than the application of this principle to the various war relief organizations, whose needs must be met by the voluntary gifts of the American people? When the separate drives or campaigns that characterized the first months of the war were instituted, we had no conception of what was before us. We knew in a general way that funds would be required for war needs which would not and should not be furnished by the national government, but few of us had the vision to realize the magnitude of that side of war. We were without experience. We did not know what a vast undertaking it would be to keep the organizations supplied with funds to perform the work that they would be called upon to do. Indeed, it is doubtful, if many people had any idea that the organizations which would be taken over, or called into being, would be so numerous and varied. The first information many of us had of the existence of certain organizations was when it was announced that a drive would be made for this or that cause. Sometimes the first knowledge we had was when the solicitor appeared.

Now, however, all this is changed. We know what the organizations are, or can find out what they are. Also we can form some idea as to what the money requirements of each will be, for a given period of time. This cannot be determined exactly, of course, as no one can foresee how much work any organization, especially those that are national in scope and character, will be called upon to do. We do know that their work is constantly increasing and that their money requirements will increase proportionately,—in fact, we know that all the money that can be raised can be used to advantage, and that our soldiers and sailors will be the beneficiaries.

Every community in the country is confronted with the same problem. How can this great obligation be dealt with most effectively? How can this voluntary tax, for that is what it is, be best met? To those who have tried it, the solution lies in the Community War Chest. In the first place, it saves a great deal of time and avoids great duplication of effort. It avoids the general disruption of business, produces more money and does not involve as much waste of energy. Also, it assures a very much broader and more comprehensive basis of giving than was possible under the system of separate drives. Being a community movement, it unquestionably stimulates community pride, and from that point of view alone is very valuable. What is perhaps still more important is its unifying effect upon citizenship and the increased community solidarity.

The foregoing deals with the question from the standpoint of those who are called upon to manage the campaigns, those who participate as contributors, and generally from the standpoint of the community. Now take the side of the organizations that are to become participants in the fund, that is beneficiaries. There can be no question as to the desirability of the war chest, so far as the relatively small movements are concerned. The smaller organizations have not the same advertising or selling value that their more spectacular big brothers have. However worthy they may be of adequate financial support, there is always a danger under the separate drive system that they will get too little, or it is even possible that they may get too much, rather than a proportional amount. The war chest plan makes it possible for small movements to get adequate, but proportional financial support. From the standpoint of the large organizations, nothing is to be feared under the war chest movement so long as it is properly organized and wisely administered. In some cities the policy has been somewhat narrow: in some, money has been unwisely expended or disbursed, but these mistakes and this narrowness have nothing to do with the war chest principle.

It is, perhaps, worth while to emphasize that the war chest plan makes possible the democratization of giving. It has never been asserted by the most eager opponent of the war chest that fewer people give under this plan, and statistics show conclusively that a tremendously larger percentage do contribute under this plan. That has a distinct value in itself, because it makes the largest possible number of people definitely linked up to the war in a benevolent and philanthropic sense. The industrial workman is given his opportunity to participate as never before.

It has been asserted, that separate drives by the different organizations have a great educational value. It is possible that this was true in the first months of the war, when most of us were apathetic and lacking in appreciation of the seriousness of the whole situation, and had not come to know and appreciate the worth and importance of the American Red Cross, Young Men's Christian Association, Knights of Columbus, Jewish Welfare Board and all the other agencies of war relief. On the other hand, many intelligent observers contend that the value of the separate drive in this respect was overestimated, even in the early days of the war, taking the position that it is extremely doubtful whether from a pedagogical point of view a financial drive is the best means of education, or whether a well devised system of propaganda is not better suited to achieve results. However that may be, it is fair to assume that the real gauge as to the extent and success of the education, in a broad sense, brought about by drives is to be found in the number of givers, and on that basis it is undoubtedly a fact that the war chest is a better educational agency.

President Wilson has said: "The supreme test of the Nation has come. We must all speak, act and serve together." It is not likely the President had the community war chest in mind when he uttered these words shortly after we entered the war, but it is obvious that he did have in mind the principle on which the war chest is founded.

Unity and organization constitute the working strength of a great cause, and the more important the cause the greater the necessity for getting together. The war must be prosecuted, not only by the fighting forces, but by the united, steady and adequate support of all the people behind them.

No war chest campaign can be said to be successful if it does not bring to its support all elements in the community. It has almost invariably been found that all of the separate elements which previously existed have been welded together and made one, all working for the common cause. All former lines of cleavage and barriers have been broken down. All work for all. Protestant and Catholic, Jew and Gentile, black and white, all work together for the common good, without regard to whether the funds they give or solicit from others are to go to the particular cause in which they are interested.

It is well known that under the old method, a very large part of all money raised was given by practically the same people. The reason for it is not far to seek. The campaign committees in each case, anxious to raise the necessary fund with the least expenditure of time and money, naturally followed the line of least resistance, and sought those who were known to be generous, and had been liberal givers to charities in peace times. It is not that others were not quite as willing to give. The direct appeal was never made to them. All they knew was what they saw in the newspapers or on billboards. The committees in charge, hastily brought together as they were, on short notice, were not able to create an organization which could present properly to all the people the cause for which they were enlisted.

One outstanding case is that of a community of nearly 2,500,000 people. In the Red Cross and Young Men's Christian Association campaigns in 1917, there were not more than 30,000 subscribers, while in a recent war chest campaign there were approximately 500,000 subscribers. It is not that this large number were unwilling to subscribe,—they were more than willing to do so, as was evidenced by the war chest campaign—no coercion or even persuasion in most cases was necessary. It was necessary only to tell them about it. They gave voluntarily and cheerfully. For the most part they asked no questions about who should be the beneficiaries. They merely wanted to be assured that their money would go to help our fighting men, or to relieve suffering caused by the war, and the character of the men who had been selected to administer and disburse the fund was such that they were satisfied that it would go where it was most needed and would do the most good.

Anyone who has had to do with the creation of organizations to conduct campaigns since the beginning of the war, will agree that it was much simpler in the first months of the war than it was in the spring of 1918. In the early days, practically all men and women whose hearts were in the right place and whose minds were as they should be, were available for any war service. Now, however, all this has changed. Look over the list of those in any given community who worked in the Red Cross campaign in June, 1917, and see how many of them are now in France, or in the service of the government at Washington, or regularly and permanently engaged in war relief work at home, or in building ships, or some other necessary work for the government and from which they cannot be released for even the short period of time necessary to work in a campaign. The burden of nearly all campaigns, not only for the various relief organizations, but for liberty loans as well, falls on practically the same men, and it is becoming increasingly difficult to get a sufficient number of competent men for the work, as more and more men, and always the most competent, are being drawn into some branch of government work.

Is not this, in itself, sufficient reason for reducing the number of campaigns to a minimum? Is it right to take all these men and women from useful occupation several times a year, at a time when, more than ever before, man power should be conserved, not wasted? Most men have their hands full these days, more than full. A system which uses their time and energy needlessly is a bad system. Every business man taken from his desk, every foreman taken from the factory, every workman taken from his own particular task, whatever it may be, either to act as solicitor or to be solicited, represents just so much lost motion which, in the aggregate, is enormous. To repeat that interruption several times a year is to multiply waste, to squander business energy. A war chest, after it is put in operation, calls for no needless reduplication, no wasted energy. It represents a saving of business, time, and energy that is incalculable.

Consider also the economy of money. If the plan should become general, it would eliminate the enormous amount of printing, the buttons, booths and other paraphernalia. Think, too, of the express, telephone and telegraph bills involved in repeated "drives." With the most economical management, with the most careful methods, the tremendous task of covering the country with a temporary organization, and fitting it out with material of all sorts and keeping in touch with all parts of it must necessarily mean an expense which, in the aggregate, amounts to a huge sum. If, after one culminating effort all that unnecessary expense could be eliminated, the saving would be great indeed; the ratio of net return to gross receipts would rise very perceptibly. A conservative estimate of the gifts to war relief in 1917 would not be less than $300,000,000. A saving of one per cent would be $3,000,000.

Another marked advantage of the war chest plan is that it ensures a proper proportion of the community gift to each fund. Hitherto, the deserts of an activity have been only one of many factors which determined the amount it would receive. The enthusiasm, energy and capacity of the campaign manager, the weather, the more convenient season, these and a host of other irrelevant factors helped to determine the amount. These are not adequate criteria of the value of a cause, or of the support it should receive. The new plan determines the size of the gift, not on the basis of chance, but after proper investigation by a representative body who can take the proper factors into account. To leave any longer so vital a matter as this so largely to chance is indefensible.

Further, it makes possible adequate contributions by persons of small means. Under the present lack of system, great numbers of persons who can give something and are ready to give something are not effectively reached. Solicitors who have covered working class areas in previous drives, know that large lump sums are impossible from these folk: the day before pay-day, very little money is forthcoming; and with so many drives, deferred payments on small amounts are too expensive in collection to be worth while. The proposed scheme, on the contrary, by making possible regular and continuous giving, will make it possible for the wage-earner to give substantial sums. He may authorize his employer to withhold his contribution from his pay envelope. The money thus obtained can be paid in a lump sum to the fund. Thus the worker can give adequately, yet without hardship; he is linked up with the community of givers. He can feel that he is participating in a wide range of enterprises, whereas at present he can respond to only one or two of the more urgent appeals.

The adoption of the war chest plan would allow the individual to look ahead and through foresight make provision for his obligation. It would encourage people to adopt some reasonable, though sacrificial, measure of giving. Surely there is nothing unpatriotic in making giving more intelligent. The number of Americans who do not need to plan ahead is small. It is true that, in the beginning, separate drives raised more money. A man had a glimpse of the wonderful work of the Red Cross. He enthused; he had no idea of what was coming; he plunged. By and by the Young Men's Christian Association came around; he enthused; he plunged; but more cautiously. Gradually the idea dawned on him that it was to be a sort of continuous performance. There developed—anyone who has done soliciting will admit it if he is candid—a tendency to hold back for the next drive, a tendency which must in the nature of the case become more and more accentuated as time goes on. Another cause for holding back has also appeared. Many people are hesitant about subscribing to new funds, until deferred payments on previous subscriptions have been met. This constitutes a very real conflict between the several drives, which does not lie on the surface and does not, in consequence, appear to the casual observer. The old plan will no longer produce more money than the new: the situation is reversed. The war chest plan produces more revenue.

Another advantage lies in the fact that the proposed scheme opens the way to some extent to answer the question which every sincere person has asked, "How much should I give?" No answer is possible under the old plan. Under the war chest plan, however, experience has shown that it can be made with considerable accuracy. In fact, it is essential to the success of the plan that an answer must be made to that question. Unless a scale of giving is prepared, based on the incomes of the prospective givers, the amount that could be raised in a campaign would be left entirely to chance. In the most successful campaigns, a very important part of the preliminary work has been the preparation of statistics to determine the percentage of the population that can be counted upon to become subscribers and the average subscription from each. Of course it is only an estimate, but experience has shown that if the work is done intelligently a very close estimate can be made.

It has become quite common for committees to prepare a scale of giving, and prospects generally take it as it is intended to be taken, viz., merely as a suggestion to help them make up their minds what is their part of the total amount to be raised. In the preparation of an estimate of the amount that can be secured in any community, allowance must unfortunately be made for those rich men with shrunken souls, with which almost every community is cursed.

Too much stress cannot be laid on the importance of organization: unless this is thoroughly done, it would be useless to attempt to carry out a war chest campaign with any hope of success. Furthermore, such an organization when created would be available for any contingency that might arise, and for this reason it would be a real asset in any community. It would be especially valuable in connection with the liberty loan campaigns, which, from all appearance, will be a feature of our lives for some time to come.

Such, in very briefest outline, are some of the considerations which indicate the desirability of organizing war chests in each community. It is no longer in the experimental stage. It has been tried out. The foundations are laid, the technique is developed, and the experience of those pioneers is now at the service of others. The practice and theory alike are satisfactory. The war chest is broad in its appeal, productive of revenue, at little expense, stimulating both to local pride and to national feeling, and it substitutes coöperation for competition among causes that should never be thrown into conflict with each other.

BOOK DEPARTMENT

Biggar, E. B. *The Canadian Railway Problem.* Pp. vii, 258. Price, $1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1917.

Pointing out in a clear and concise manner the shortcomings and misdeeds of the private corporations which have controlled railway transportation in Canada and showing how through mismanagement and corruption the corporations have taken millions of dollars from the public and have given inadequate and inefficient service, Mr. Biggar argues for the complete nationalization of all railroads. While one may be inclined to differ with his belief in the advisability and the "inevitableness" of government ownership, one should welcome the clear exposition of the evils of the present system—evils which must certainly be eradicated if government ownership is to be avoided.

T. W. V. M.

University of Columbia.

Dunn, Samuel O. *Regulation of Railways.* Pp. x, 354. Price, $1.75. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1918.

Shortly before the United States government took over the control of the operation of the railroads, Mr. Dunn had brought together for publication in book form several papers which he had previously published dealing with the general subject of federal regulation of railroads. These papers had been largely revised and had been supplemented to an appreciable extent. Fortunately, the volume did not go to press until after the government had taken control of railroad operations, and Mr. Dunn was able to revise and enlarge his book by discussing the problems of regulation to which federal control had given rise.

Students of railroad transportation are familiar with Mr. Dunn's views. He has written extensively and frequently for many years, always thoughtfully and with a firm grasp of the facts discussed. As editor of the "Railway Age," Mr. Dunn would naturally tend to be critical of federal regulation, but his criticisms concern means and methods rather than the general principle of regulation. Mr. Dunn believes, and it is probable that a great majority of the people of the United States believe, that the country should return after the war to the federal regulation of privately owned railroads instead of adopting the policy of government ownership and operation.

Mr. Dunn looks forward to a very thorough and comprehensive government regulation of railroads, and in the concluding chapter of his book he outlines a plan of regulation. He favors the incorporation of a railroad-holding company in each of the large sections of the country. The stocks of these holding companies should be supervised by the Interstate Commerce Commission, and a dividend of 5 per cent should be guaranteed by the government. These companies should have a board of twelve directors, one-third of these to be appointed by the President of the United States. There should also be an equipment company for the acquisition and distribution of box cars. Regulation by the Interstate Commerce Commission should be continued. The several state commissions should be retired from the regulation of railroads, and there should either be regional commissions established or provision should be made for an advisory council similar to those now found in Germany, Austria-Hungary and France.

Mr. Dunn believes that this plan "would remove the main obstacles to fair and helpful regulation of rates" . . . "would eliminate the wastes now caused by undesirable competition" . . . "would remove the financial control of the railroads from Wall Street," and would decentralize railroad control, solve the problem of railroad credit and render it possible for the railway companies to secure and "raise the capital required for adequate development of railway facilities."

E. R. J.

University of Pennsylvania.

Lapp, John A. *Federal Rules and Regulations.* Pp. xi, 628. Price, $7.50. Indianapolis: B. F. Bowen and Company, 1918.

The journalist, the teacher of government, the attorney and the business man will find this compilation of great practical value. It is an admirable companion piece to Dr. Lapp's "Important Federal Laws" and is handled with the same good judgment in selection, summarizing and presentation as was its predecessor.

In the present volume, Dr. Lapp gives us that administrative interpretation or enforcement which is the real meat of federal law. We may read an act such as that regulating the food and drug trade, or the immigration act, but we can have no grasp of its real significance until we examine the administrative rules which enforce it. Dr. Lapp's compilation thus presents a picture which may be styled "the *reality* of national legislation." Here we find regulations issued by such authorities and covering such financial subjects as the Federal Reserve Board, postal savings, bankruptcy, farm loan banks; such agricultural subjects as grain standards, the import and interstate movement of livestock, plant quarantines, including grains, timber, sugar cane, vegetables, fruits, food and drugs, meat inspection, federal aid for roads; such legal and commercial topics as the rules of practice before federal trade commission, federal courts, federal land offices, the U. S. Board of General Appraisers, registration of trade marks, copyrights, prints and labels, rules of immigration and naturalization, together with many other subjects which closely affect our business and social relations. The arrangement is made in convenient groups and with each group is given a reference to the laws under which the regulations were issued.

James T. Young.

University of Pennsylvania.

Rugg, Harold O. *Statistical Methods Applied to Education.* Pp. xviii, 410. Price, $2.00. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1917.

The number of text-books on statistical methods which have appeared in recent years, indicates a healthy development in the social sciences—a fruitful recognition of the firm basis on which the progress of these sciences rests. The difficulty in teaching modern methods of statistical analysis has been the mathematical character of the work of the founders of this science; Pearson, Yule, Elderton and others. Professor Rugg's book is just what it professes to be, a presentation in non-mathematical language of these new tools for measuring type, variation and relationship in mass phenomena, and he has done a very creditable piece of work. The thorough student of statistics will still have need for the writings of Yule and Pearson, but this book will make the new science intelligible and usable by many students who would find these original writings hopelessly technical. The book is written for students in education and its illustrations are drawn from that field, but this fact makes it no less valuable to the student of economics. It is hoped that it may foster a more general study of statistics than exists now in schools of economics.

BRUCE D. MUDGETT.

University of Washington.

TRACHTENBERG, ALEXANDER (Ed. by). *The American Labor Year Book*, 1917–18. Pp. 384. Price, 60 cents. New York: Rand School of Social Science, 1918.

The data compiled for this annual volume, although presented from the socialist viewpoint, will be found useful by other students as a presentation of labor questions from that angle.

J. T. Y.

University of Pennsylvania.

WOLFE, O. HOWARD. *Practical Banking.* Pp. xi, 290. Price, $2.00. Chicago: La Salle Extension University, 1917.

The volume under consideration gives a clear and concise account of the organization and administration of commercial banks, and contains, besides, chapters on clearing houses, foreign exchange, trust companies and savings banks. It is well suited to satisfy the wants of correspondence students of the subject who are actually or prospectively engaged in any department of the work of a commercial bank. The book differs from the typical work on the subject, chiefly in a satisfying avoidance of the superfluous and remotely relevant and in the omission of all but scant reference to the legal aspects of banking and banking instruments. The author, moreover, does not fail to stress recent developments and practices, whether in connection with the detailed work of a department or with such matters as audits and examinations, advertising and new business. The volume is illumined by almost a hundred forms reproduced in their proper connections. Questions given at the end of each chapter afford the student or reader means of adequately testing his knowledge of the chapter contents.

The book is all but free from inaccuracies and mechanical shortcomings. Perhaps the only error of consequence is a readily recognized mis-statement of reserve requirements applying to country and reserve city banks prior to the establishment of the Federal Reserve System (page 82).

The author has utilized his rich and varied banking and educational experience in producing a volume that is at once clear, compact and well adapted to the needs of those for whom it is specially designed.

CHESTER A. PHILLIPS.

Dartmouth College.

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REHABILITATION OF THE WOUNDED

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THE MEANING OF REHABILITATION

By Major John L. Todd,
Board of Pension Commissioners for Canada.

The term "rehabilitation" is used in more than one sense. In a narrow sense it refers only to soldiers: sometimes it is used as though only disabled sailors and soldiers required rehabilitation. When it is used in that way the flood of sound, strong men who will return from fighting to their homes at the end of the war is forgotten.

Rehabilitation of soldiers necessarily includes the replacement in civilian life of the uninjured men who will return after the war from service, on shore and afloat, as fast as the ships of the world can carry them. But the term rehabilitation should be used in a broader sense; rehabilitation includes not only sailors and soldiers but the whole community. It is so, for our sailors and soldiers are citizens. Since they are citizens, their rehabilitation is a matter of such wide extent that it can leave no phase of social organization untouched.

In Great Britain, a Department of Reconstruction with wide connections and wide powers exists to study questions such as these. In Canada, the same thing is done by a committee of the Cabinet.

Rehabilitation in the narrowest sense, as it refers to the replacement of broken fighting men in their homes, is well understood. It is well understood on this continent because of the many very excellent articles upon "rehabilitation" which have appeared not only in scientific and semi-scientific publications but in the popular press. Rehabilitation in the broader sense has been less considered. Because it is so I will mention in a general way, first, some of the problems and tendencies of rehabilitation in the larger sense and then allude more particularly to some of the points connected with the rehabilitation of sailors and soldiers where experience in Canada has shown difficulties to be most likely to arise.

If, in speaking of rehabilitation, our minds are not fully conscious of that which is being done at every minute on the world-wide battle field we lack appreciation of our situation. Those who are fighting are deciding for us the form which the rehabilitation of our country shall take. In fighting, and in planning rehabilitation, we are deciding not only for ourselves but for our children and for our children's children. Upon the decision arrived at, the future development of our race depends. The plan which rehabilitation will follow depends entirely upon the result of the war. The first step in rehabilitation is to win the war. Its form, if we are beaten or if the war ends indecisively, will be quite different from that which it will take if we win. If our victory is not complete, our future organization will be military, and our dominant aim, defence against the aggression of future wars. But since we shall win decisively we will treat of the form of rehabilitation which complete victory makes desirable.

During reorganization after the war it will be unbelievably easy to achieve social ideals which before the war seemed impracticable and impossible of attainment. It will be especially easy on this continent not only because ours are young peoples, still in a stage of development where social structure is not stable, but also because the war has aroused a great spirit of mutual helpfulness, a desire to sacrifice self, a self-devotion. These factors cannot but leave an enduring mark upon national life. May our plans be so modelled that a measure of good may come from this evil of war.

In order that rehabilitation may be successful, it is essential that there should be a clear understanding in the mind of every citizen, not only of that which the community ought to do for itself and for the returning soldier, but also of that which every returning man ought to do for himself. Such a general knowledge, secured by wide publicity, constitutes the most powerful means of securing right action. The urge to do that which we are taught to do, that which is expected of us, is the most powerful of all human impulses. It is the herd instinct: the desire to do that which is right is stronger than self-preservation,—men die at their posts because it is their duty to do so: it is stronger than the wish for parenthood,—monks and nuns remain childless because it is their duty to do so.

Let us learn this from the enemy; "Will conquers." That is the device always before the German wounded. Just as unquestioningly as they once believed in German might, every German now believes that a disabled man, if he wills it, can be self-supporting and that it is the duty of every returning man by his will and through the aid of his fellows to become a self-supporting unit, a man who pulls his weight in the boat and is not a passenger.

WORLD POLITICS

It is only by wide instruction, by constant repetition of the truth, that such an atmosphere can be assured to us in this country. Much has been done towards doing so. More must be done; everyone must know what rehabilitation, in the widest sense, ought to accomplish. One of the stated aims of the Allies is the establishment of some form of leagued nations by which future wars may be prevented. Since the Allied Nations are democratic communities, ruled by the suffrages of their individual citizens, it is necessary that we citizens should have a wider knowledge of the world and of world questions than has heretofore been ours. We must come to realize that it is no longer possible for a wise nation to remain isolated and uninfluenced by the current of the world's events. In the modern world all peoples are interdependent—and there is a real community of interest among them. Rehabilitation will bring nearer the liberty of thought, the equality of nations, the brotherhood among men, which France long ago placed before mankind as an ideal. We must be prepared to welcome a federation of the world.

Our internal national life will scarcely go back to its old form. The war has brought a habit of effort and a habit of thrift to many. We shall win the war through effort. We shall win the war after the war in the same way. Faithful living in France, faithful living here, has become a national creed. It will not be forgotten lightly. A determination which consecrated every resource to public uses will persist, in a measure, during peace; it will insist upon a proper conduct of public affairs.

In Great Britain, it is certain that many businesses, formerly conducted by private initiative, will be carried on after the war under public direction. How far it will be nationally advantageous for such a movement to develop is uncertain. If a generalization must be attempted, it would seem reasonable to say that processes or businesses which have become standardized and stereotyped in their operation may well be brought under public control, while processes which are still developing ought to remain in private hands where initiative and individual effort will meet with the greatest reward and incentive.

Before the war, circumstance left many women to a world of children, church and cooking. During the war, women have been successful in wider fields than these. Their service has convinced many, who once refused conviction, that women are fit comrades for men and have, with them, a right to self-government. No longer are there suffragettes in England, for women have the vote! Everywhere there has been a tendency, not only to recognize woman's right to a voice in government, but her right to support from the state in the national service which woman only can render. Laws granting maternity allowances and mothers' pensions have been passed in many countries.

SAME PRIVILEGES FOR CIVILIANS AS FOR SOLDIERS

Public sympathy is quick to relieve hardships which affect sailors and soldiers or their dependents. Consequently, many evils touching sailors and soldiers have been remedied while the same evils pass unnoticed as matters of ordinary circumstance when civilians are affected. When it is seen that these things can be dealt with for sailors or soldiers it will be insisted that they should also be dealt with when ordinary citizens are concerned. There are many things now done for a citizen while he is serving in navy or army which a model community should do for its members at all times.

Members of an ideal community should possess instructions permitting full advantage to be taken of their capacity for usefulness. Soldiers are taught while they are serving; if they are disabled, they are taught a vocation during their convalescence and after their discharge. It is well that it is so for the best minds of the coming generation are at the front: our universities are empty. For the future good of our communities it is necessary that the interrupted education of these young men should be continued and opportunity for development be given to them.

Canada maintains in Great Britain and in France a Khaki College. Its function is to bring instruction to men who are still serving.

The Canadian Invalided Soldiers' Commission provides general education and instruction in vocations for disabled men during their convalescence. Because it is in the public interest to do so, it is increasingly the tendency to give technical education, or, for the illiterate, general education, to men who require no training on account of disability but who are anxious to learn.

After the war, men who want to study will obtain instructions through Workers' Educative Associations, or through the opportunities offered by modern universities for the education of adults. The value of increased education to sound social development is shown, strikingly, by the important place in British public affairs taken by workmen who acquired their knowledge of public problems, of public organization and of individual responsibility in these matters through courses studied while they followed their trades.

Among the most popular of the courses given in the Canadian Khaki College are those which deal with citizenship, its duties and its privileges. Men who study these things while they fight will not lend themselves to the irresponsible ravings of a Bolshevik. Their influence and knowledge will substitute reasonable methods of removing social injustice for the anarchy and disorder of an ignorant people.

PUBLIC HEALTH

Medical treatment will be given whenever discharged men require it because of disabilities incurred during their service; pension schemes, such as War Risk Insurance, will give the men and their dependents insurance services, which will protect them against risks of many sorts. The fact that former sailors, soldiers and their families, are protected against risks of death, accident and ill-health, will inevitably lead towards the extension of social, health and life insurance to all citizens. In England, National Health Insurance already exists: a Ministry of Public Health will be founded after the war, if not before.

Because sailors and soldiers cannot conceal the existence of venereal disease, as is done by civilians, knowledge of the prevalence of venereal disease amongst our people has become general. Knowledge of the success with which these social diseases can be combated in the army and navy by preventive or curative measures has spread. At last, the prudery and license which long prevented control of venereal diseases is being removed by knowledge. The passing of adequate health laws in England, in Canada and elsewhere, is reducing the loss caused by venereal diseases. At last, those responsible for public health are getting powers commensurate with the importance of these plagues, powers almost as great as they have in dealing with smallpox, a disease that slays its units where syphilis slays its thousands.

REHABILITATION OF DISABLED MEN

And now let us turn to disabled men and their rehabilitation. Wide publicity by voice, by print and by moving-pictures, among other means, has made Americans know that disabled soldiers can be made independent civilians by proper treatment, by proper training, and by careful replacement in employment.

The treatment received by disabled men includes all the devices that art and science can suggest: no means of reducing a disability is left untried. One new thing is the method by which Italian surgeons make use of the muscles in the stump of an artificial limb. They separate a muscle, make at its end a loop or a knot in the tendon, to which a cord can be tied. When the muscle contracts the cord is pulled and, if it is attached to an artificial leg, the soldier actually moves his limb by muscles which once moved a real leg!

There have been many improvements in artificial limbs and prothetic appliances of all sorts. The number of men who will use appliances will be large. There is but one efficient way of supplying artificial appliances to disabled men. In order to obviate a thousand difficulties, a government should establish definite types of limbs and of other appliances, make these unquestionably the best, and supply only them to men who are entitled to appliances at government expense. The manufacture of artificial limbs will be an industry of some importance for a generation to come. It will be an industry, from its nature, peculiarly fitted for disabled men. The French expect to place disabled soldiers in charge of centers all over France where new appliances may be obtained as they are required, and where old ones may be sent for repairs. It is a plan which might well be adopted elsewhere.

The training of returned soldiers is of the greatest importance. "Manners maketh man." A man's habits are himself. A man is that which he has done and is accustomed to do. If our men are to be good citizens in civilian life, as they have been in military life, they must be trained in good habits. They must be accustomed to doing the thing right in civilian life before they are discharged. It is impossible for habituation to the necessities of civilian life to commence too soon after it becomes evident that a man is no longer fit to be a sailor or a soldier. It takes months, sometimes years, to train a good sailor or soldier; it will take months of teaching and many more months of living to undo that training and create habits harmonizing with civilian life. By work, by conversation, by every power of suggestion, men's thoughts should be turned to civilian life as soon as it becomes certain that they are to be discharged from service. Training of that sort is as much a part of remedial treatment as is nursing or operation. If it is wanting men become habituated to life in hospitals: they become hospitalized, lose all wish for initiative, for work, and become especially prone to mental and nervous disorders.

From the beginning, disabled men must be accustomed to the idea of work, of self-support, and not only to the idea of work in general, but to work in some special occupation. It may be that men, by the nature of their injuries, are unable to return to their pre-war employment. Such men must be urged to accept training in occupations which their aptitude and disability make proper for them. Sometimes men are unwilling to accept training. Consequently, there has been discussion whether vocational training, as it is called, should be made compulsory. The discussion is beside the point because experience shows that if men are well taught and well advised, opportunities for training are not usually refused. If men constantly refuse training, the training is at fault.

In dealing with the men, every method of persuasion, every means of pressure, should be used. Pressure from a man's family, from those dependent upon him, is often successful in making a man accept training at first refused. Even the cupidity of returned men may be worked upon; it has been found useful to point out to thrifty French peasants that the government is offering them, for nothing, training for which many civilians are very glad to pay.

Disabled men who are unwilling to take training are urged to consider the future when work will not be as easily obtainable as it is now, when the sympathy of employers will not be as keen as it is at present, and when a crippled soldier out of work will be little more than a disabled and inefficient man who is asking for a job which he cannot fill.

SPECIAL EMPLOYMENT FOR THE DISABLED

Disabled men can often be made capable of competing on equal terms with those who are sound. For that reason those who are crippled should be taught occupations where special knowledge or where the special nature of the work will permit a well-trained man, though disabled, to compete unhandicapped with those who have the full use of their bodies. While training will permit many disabled men to compete in any field with those who are sound, it will be necessary to reserve for them certain occupations which can be easily performed by disabled men. Normal persons should not be engaged in such occupations. An excellent example of an occupation which should be reserved for disabled men is that of masseur. A blind man can massage as well as can one who sees. There are many things which a sighted man can do; there are few occupations open to a blind man. Posts as watchmen, as caretakers, as janitors, should be reserved, especially by the staple industries, for disabled men who cannot be fitted for better employment. Men who could fill such positions well, and for whom it is especially difficult to find employment, are the men, past middle age, who are illiterate and who have been disabled. Such men have never been more than laborers and their disability has taken from them the strength which was their only marketable usefulness.

There is a danger inherent in the reservation of specific employment for disabled men. It makes a special class of cripples; employments reserved for them cannot fail to become characterized as subnormal occupations. The tendency will inevitably be for remuneration offered in those occupations to be reduced. The tendency will be all the greater because men crippled in war service will be pensioners and therefore economically able to exist upon subnormal salaries.

No less important than the training of disabled men, and intimately related with it, is the placement of returning men. In finding employment for discharged sailors and soldiers great care must be taken to put them in places which they can successfully fill in competition with sound men when the war is over and the struggle for employment becomes keen. For this reason alone it is necessary for practical men who will not "put square pegs in round holes" to be in charge of returned soldiers' employment bureaus. France especially urges returned men to enter productive occupations; they are advised not to become scratchers of paper. Several nations maintain employment bureaus for returned men; there, side by side, on the same list are the names of officers and of men, of illiterates and of university graduates.

Treatment, training and placement are always mentioned in describing the rehabilitation of disabled men: there is a fourth factor and an important one. Returned men will doubtless form a new Grand Army of the Republic here, as they are doing elsewhere, for the purpose of watching over their own interests. It is not sufficient. The responsibility for making good to sailors, soldiers and their dependents the detriments which war has placed upon them, lies with the whole nation. Therefore it must be the responsibility of a governmental department to "follow up" and make certain that all continues well with the wards of the people. Returned men should be followed up to make certain that they have proper employment; orphans and widows should be followed up to see that they have faithful guardians and that their business interests are well managed. To do these things properly an organization which includes tactful and willing-handed people, trained in social service, as well as practical business men will be necessary. In order that the pensions awarded for varying injuries may accurately compensate for the disabilities resulting from them, it is necessary to carefully record that which actually happens to men suffering from the disabilities in question when they are thrown into civilian life. That is but one of the reasons which make it essential to carefully "follow up" the after-life of discharged men.

Rehabilitation touches national activities at many points. Because of its magnitude Great Britain, wisely, centers in a Ministry the administration of all things planned for discharged soldiers and for those belonging to them; similarly, in Canada, there is a Minister of Soldiers' Civil Reëstablishment. In reviewing that which the United States has planned and is doing for the rehabilitation of her sailors and soldiers, deep admiration must be felt, both for the wisdom and comprehensive scope of her plans, and for the energy with which those plans are being acted upon.

The Influence of the United States

Quite beyond a friendly pleasure that all is well, Canada has a very real personal interest in that which is done in the United States. It is this: the form taken by the organization of the United States for dealing with rehabilitation will greatly influence the form which Canada's organization for that purpose will assume. The United States has one hundred million people; Canada has but eight. There is much passage of ideas and of many other things between these two countries. It is inevitable that the convictions of the population of the United States should become part of the belief of Canada.

The United States is the largest by far of the English-speaking nations. That is worth repeating; there are more people who speak English in the United States than there are in the whole British Empire. Moreover, the people are well-educated; the proportion of illiterates is small. What is done in the United States has great influence in the world. For these reasons, reverent thankfulness is felt that the entrance of the United States into the war, and its conduct of the war proves that its ideals are at one with those of Canada.

Since 1776 a separate nation, the United States is now the most coherent of the peoples who live in the Grecian tradition of self-government. Adherence to that tradition was sealed by 1776. A century later, steadfastness in it proclaimed that "government by the people, and for the people shall not perish from this earth." But a few days ago, the same determination spoke again in Pershing's terse, "Lafayette, we're here."

MILITARY SURGERY IN 1861 AND IN 1918

By Major W. W. Keen, M.D.
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The fundamental difference between the surgical conditions during the Civil War (1861–65) and the present World War (1914–18) is our ignorance in 1861 and the enormous increase in our knowledge since that date. Between these two dates is a veritable chasm of ignorance which we can only appreciate when we peer over its edge and discover how broad and deep it is. Doubtless in another half century our knowledge will have again outstripped our present knowledge as far as our present knowledge exceeds that of fifty years ago.

What has filled up and finally obliterated this chasm? Clinical observation has done much but research, and chiefly experimental research, has done far more. In chemistry and in physics the chief advances in fifty years have been made by experimental research. In biology and its subdivision—medicine—the same is equally true.

We had obtained the precious gift of anesthesia in 1846, so that surgery was robbed of all pain during operations. Largely as a result of this abolition of pain, instead of three capital operations in a month, as at the Massachusetts General Hospital during the five years preceding 1846, today an active hospital in civil life will report fifteen or twenty in a single day—four, five, or six thousand operations in a year instead of only thirty-six! The operations in our military hospitals in France are almost numberless.

The Advent of Bacteriology

But while anesthesia banished pain it had no influence on the terrible mortality following operations—often even the simplest ones. It was reserved especially for Pasteur and Lister to triumph over death. Their researches pointed out the way and the method. Pasteur's researches only won gradual assent in the late 60's and early 70's. Lister's first paper on antiseptic surgery was not published until 1867, two years after the close of the Civil War, and his views were not generally accepted till the late 70's.

In the Civil War we knew absolutely nothing of "germs." *Bacteriology*—the youngest and greatest science to aid in this conquest of death—*did not exist!* It is undoubtedly the most important discovery ever made in pathology if not in all medicine. Yet even today when bacteriology is as demonstrably true as astronomy or chemistry, the opponents of research deny its discoveries and decry its methods. They even declare that germs do not produce any disease. They even deny the existence of typhoid fever as a disease!

As early as 1850 Davaine in France, in examining the blood of animals dead of anthrax, discovered certain little rods—"bacilli" in Latin, "bacteria" in Greek. Their presence was noted merely as a curious fact; but their significance, their causative relation to anthrax, was not even suspected. Repeated observations, however, showed that they were always found in the blood of animals dying of anthrax. When blood containing these little rods was injected into healthy animals, anthrax, and no other disease, always followed. The relation between these little rods and anthrax was finally and fully established.

As research proceeded, other germs were always found in other diseases and their causal relations were established in the same way. Year by year additional germs were discovered and by 1884 they had been classified and differentiated. In that year the word "bacteriology" was first used to indicate the science dealing with all classes of such germs. Not all are little rods. Some are small globular bodies ("cocci," *i.e.*, "berries"), others of spiral shape like a corkscrew ("spirochetes"); but the Greek word "bacterium" (plural "bacteria") has been extended in its meaning to include all these different physical forms while the Latin word "bacillus" (plural "bacilli") has been reserved for those which are strictly speaking little rods, some straight, others more or less curved.

Many bacteria are "good" bacteria which disintegrate rocks and originate and add to the fertility of the soil; other harmless forms simply cause putrefaction; still others, however, are the cause of diseases, each the cause of its own disease and no other. These are known as "pathogenic" or "disease producing" bacteria. Some of them are among the deadliest enemies of the human race, *e.g.*, the bacilli of tuberculosis, of the plague, of tetanus or lockjaw, of gas gangrene. Other bacteria produce pneumonia, cerebro-spinal meningitis, leprosy, cholera, infantile paralysis, etc.

Remember that bacteria lurk everywhere—in the air, on every physical object such as clothing, furniture, surgical instruments and dressings, on the skin of the patient, the doctor and the nurse, especially under the finger nails, unless all are "sterilized"—that is unless the bacteria on them are all destroyed. The means by which they are killed are either chemical (carbolic acid, corrosive sublimate, etc.) or by heat, *i.e.*, boiling or steaming for a certain length of time and at a certain high temperature.

THE CAUSE AND CURE OF TETANUS

Another and perhaps the most dangerous place in which these bacteria flourish—what might be called their favorite home—is in the intestines of man and animals. Many, *e.g.*, the bacillus of tetanus, exist normally in the *intestines* of horses and yet the horses are in perfect health. But if a horse be wounded and the bacilli of tetanus get into the *wound* and multiply, then he will die just as would a man into whose wound these bacilli gain access.

Hence it can be seen that on cultivated land over which horses, cattle and other lower animals and man himself have roamed, the soil is deeply infected with these fecal bacteria. France and Flanders have been cultivated and manured for 2,000 years and it is no wonder therefore that it is perhaps the most dangerous soil in the world. The almost virgin fields of battle during the Civil War held few bacteria and hence tetanus was not common though it was deadly, killing nine out of every ten victims. In the early days of the present World War it was a terrible scourge and took a fearful toll of lives. Exact figures can only be given after the war is over.

Fortunately, before the great war began, experimental research had discovered the tetanus antitoxin. As soon as there was enough of it for the huge numbers of the wounded, its ravages were checked. Few now die from lockjaw because every wounded man receives an injection of the antitoxin at the earliest possible moment. But those poor fellows who lie for hours or even days in "No-Man's Land" often receive the protective serum too late and, therefore, often perish. As soon as the poison has combined with the nerve cells no amount of the antitoxin will do the least good. Every hour of delay means a life lost.

It can easily be understood how and why we surgeons in 1861–65, utterly unaware of bacteria and their dangers, in our ignorant innocence committed grievous mistakes which nearly always imperilled life and often actually caused death. May *le bon Dieu* forgive us our sins of ignorance. We operated in old blood-stained and often pus-stained coats, the veterans of a hundred fights. We operated with clean hands in the social sense, but they were undisinfected hands. To the surgeon, the spotless hands of a bride are dirty. We used undisinfected instruments from undisinfected plush-lined cases, and still worse, used marine sponges which had been used in prior pus cases and had been only washed in tap water. If a sponge or an instrument fell on the floor it was washed and squeezed in a basin of tap water and used as if it were clean.

Our silk to tie blood vessels was undisinfected. One end was left long hanging out of the wound and after three or four days was daily pulled upon to see if the loop on the blood vessel had rotted loose. When it came away, if a blood clot had formed and closed the blood vessel, well and good; if no such clot had formed then a dangerous "secondary" hemorrhage followed and not seldom was fatal. The silk with which we sewed up all wounds was undisinfected. If there was any difficulty in threading the needle we moistened it with (as we now know) bacteria-laden saliva, and rolled it between bacteria-infected fingers. We dressed the wounds with clean but undisinfected sheets, shirts, tablecloths, or other old soft linen rescued from the family ragbag. We had no sterilized gauze dressing, no gauze sponges.

At the Jefferson Medical College, Gross and Pancoast operated on the same table on which the cadaver was demonstrated by the professor of anatomy. Often the surgical assistants spent the morning in the dissecting room and at noon were assisting at operations or attending obstetrical cases.

In the adjoining building we had two small hospital wards of five or six beds each for men and women, for the most serious cases. Is it any wonder that when my teacher of surgery, Professor Gross, wanted pus to illustrate his lecture he would turn to the orderly and say, "Tomorrow, Hughey, I am going to lecture on suppuration. Go over to the hospital in the morning and get me a half tumblerful of pus!" And he always got it. Pus was always on tap. What was far more deplorable, erysipelas, tetanus, blood-poisoning, hospital gangrene were also "on tap." Death was ever peering over the shoulder of the surgeon, watching for his victim.

In the Civil War, lockjaw was not frequent but it killed ninety out of one hundred patients; compound fractures killed two out of every three; amputations averaged over 50 per cent mortality. Until the total statistics of the great war are collected—a work of years—we can only quote individual statistics. Of 1,000 cases of tetanus in the base hospitals in England, the mortality was only 40 per cent. Among these 1,000, forty had *not* received the antitoxin and of them 80 per cent died. Of the 960 cases which *had* received the antitoxin only 38.8 per cent died,—*i.e.*, less than one-half of the former.

Only 25 per cent of the cases of compound fractures are now fatal instead of 66 per cent as in the '60's. Four out of five amputations are due to infection. Our victory over infection is the reason for the greatly diminished number of amputations in the present war. Moreover, the mortality of amputations in our armies is low; in some series every one has recovered. Of the wounded, 80 per cent are soon able to return to the fighting lines.

In open wounds in our armies in 1861, as we knew nothing about antiseptics (and therefore used none) maggots, as large as chestnut worms, abounded in the summer. While utterly disgusting they did little or no harm. Now these are never seen.

Today how utterly different are our present methods. So rapid has been the progress, even in the last two years, that Harvey Cushing, writing me recently from France, said, "Even 1916 was another world."

IMPORTANCE OF DISINFECTION IN WOUNDS

As in civil surgery, the skin in the area of operation is carefully disinfected; beyond this area everything is covered with disinfected sheets or towels. The surgeon, every assistant and every nurse wears disinfected gowns and disinfected rubber gloves. Every instrument, dressing, needle and the silk and catgut used for ligatures to tie blood vessels and to sew up wounds are all sterilized. For years in my clinic, just before I began the first operation an assistant from the bacteriological laboratory took a scraping from the back and palm of the hands and from under the finger nails of myself and every assistant and nurse, to discover if any of us had failed to have completely sterile hands and finger nails. I am glad to add that it was rare to find anyone at fault. Had anyone been repeatedly delinquent, warning or even dismissal would have followed.

During an operation, to touch anything not disinfected was *anathema maranatha.* Soon a surgical habit or instinct is acquired and avoidance of such contact becomes automatic. Fortunately the "septic glances" alleged to have been darted at the wound from a distance by one surgical cynic did no harm.

All ligatures on blood vessels are now cut off short and in non-infected cases the wound is immediately closed. The ligatures are absorbed and never heard from. Secondary hemorrhage is almost unknown. In one night after Gettysburg, I had five cases of secondary hemorrhage. From 1876, when I adopted the antiseptic method, till today I have not seen five other cases. In civil surgery, for years prior to 1914, practically all sterile wounds healed within a few days.

But in this World War, conditions in 1918 are far different not only from those of the Civil War and from those immediately before the war, but even from those from 1914 to 1916.

The present war is waged on and in densely infected soil; the wounds are caused by high explosives which hurl many irregular fragments with unimagined velocity; wounds are often multiple, even up to one hundred simultaneous wounds; the tissues are horribly lacerated and devitalized; fragments of the missile and of the dirty, muddy and highly infected clothing are often driven deep into the tissues; all these elements have conspired to develop an unprecedented riot of infection. Every wound is infected and with an intensity utterly unknown prior to 1914 either in civil or military surgery. The efforts to control infection by the means in ordinary use almost entirely failed during the first two years of the war. Tetanus, gas gangrene, blood poisoning and other infections seemed unconquerable for a time.

But research has won the victory. Lister's surgical principles have been at last even more firmly established than ever. The chemist and the bacteriologist are now constantly associated with the surgeon and together they have often snatched the crown from the brow of death. Carrel and others have shown that for, say the first six, sometimes even for the first twelve hours after a wound has been inflicted, the bacteria—even the most dangerous—are localized on the tissues lining the wound and especially near any retained clothing or fragment of shell. The wound is "contaminated" but not yet deeply "infected."

If the wounded can be brought to the surgeon within these few golden hours, even after very severe wounds, two out of three can be saved. But to effect this, first of all the most perfect aseptic care must be given; all missiles and especially all dirty and infected clothing must be removed, in finding which the X-rays are of the utmost service; by the knife the wound is opened to all its ultimate pockets and recesses, and the tissues lining the entire wound are cut away. With this removal of the tissues covered with bacteria, all the adjacent tissues which have been practically killed and devitalized by the fierce impact of the missile must also be removed. Then the wound can be closed at once and will heal immediately. The knife in such cases is by far the best antiseptic. The few bacteria left are destroyed by the cells and fluids of the body.

THE CARREL-DAKIN METHOD

But in those unfortunates who do not reach surgical aid promptly, even though the foreign bodies and the devitalized tissues be removed too often, the wounds by that time are so deeply infected that primary healing cannot be secured and other means of treatment must be used. Dakin, an English physiological chemist, now residing in America has found by research the means of depriving the cheap ordinary bleaching powder (sodium-hypochlorite) of its noxious properties; and Carrel, by prior years of work in the Rockefeller Institute and in France for four years, has devised a means for distributing this best disinfectant to even the deepest parts of the wound in a constant stream. The bacteria are rapidly destroyed. Every second day the bacteriologist examines the discharges from the wound and counts the number of bacteria found by his microscope. When they have practically disappeared the surgeon can then close the wound. Out of four hundred such wounds closed in Carrel's hospital at Compiègne—now destroyed by the barbarous Huns—there were only six failures.

There are several other methods of treatment which are used by many surgeons and with excellent results, but the lack of space compels me to pass them by. Of course very many of the wounded are so mutilated that death is inevitable and the surgeon can only soothe the pain or possibly postpone the final result.

THE SANITATION OF TODAY

Sanitation fifty years ago was crude and unsatisfactory as compared with that of today. The chief reason for this was that bacteriology was utterly unknown and that research had not discovered any of the antitoxins nor the rôle of the insect world in spreading disease.

The opponents of research insist that "sanitation" is practically the only means by which the death rate has been lowered. It is amusing to realize that in insisting on sanitation they are commending and insisting on bacteriology, their *bête noire.* Engineering and chemistry have done very much to develop modern sanitation, but bacteriology has been the most important factor in this development. That pure water and pure milk have lessened typhoid is perfectly true. But how do we know pure water when we see it? Only by testing the water supply bacteriologically every week. Only a bacteriologist can decide whether milk is dangerous or safe.

In 1861 we were wholly ignorant of the fact that the mosquito, and only the mosquito, spreads yellow fever and malaria; and of the rôle of the fly in spreading typhoid fever by walking on the excreta of those sick of typhoid and then over our food and infecting it with the typhoid germs which we swallow with our food. We knew how disgusting and annoying were the louse and the flea, but we did not even suspect that the flea and the rat conspired to spread the bubonic plague, and that the louse was responsible for the deadly typhus and that serious and wholly new disease—trench fever.

Moreover, research has now provided us with antitoxins against typhoid, diphtheria, tetanus, cerebrospinal meningitis, and other diseases, and will provide us with still more.

THE REDUCTION AND CONTROL OF TYPHOID

Typhoid has been banished from our army. When we recall the figures for the Civil War and the Spanish-American War in contrast with the present war, the American people should be infinitely grateful to the patient, persistent and much abused research workers in our laboratories for their humane and beneficent work.

The bacillus of typhoid was only discovered in 1880, fifteen years after the Civil War. During the Civil War there were 79,462 cases and 29,336 deaths from typhoid. In the Spanish-American War, out of 107,000 soldiers in our whole army, there were 20,738 cases and 1,580 deaths from typhoid. Every fifth man was attacked. Of the entire number of deaths during this short war, including both those from disease and from wounds 86 per cent were due to typhoid alone!

In the present war as in the case of tetanus, the use of the preventive antitoxin has enormously reduced the number of typhoid cases. The Germans had prepared many great hospitals for the confidently expected typhoid patients. Typhoid was conquered. These hospitals were never used for typhoid patients, but were devoted to other purposes.

The recruiting of our army was in the autumn of 1917, the very season for typhoid, with men in numbers fifteen times as many as in the Spanish-American War, and in a period exceeding in length the whole duration of that war. The following figures have been furnished me by Surgeon General Gorgas:

> In the entire army, numbering over 1,500,000 men at the end of December, 1917, there had been during the year 242 admissions to hospitals on account of typhoid fever, with 18 deaths. During the corresponding period in 1861, when the Northern Army was being mobilized, there were about 9,500 cases of typhoid fever with less than one-quarter of the strength of the present army with about 1,800 deaths.

Had the rate of the Civil War prevailed in 1917 there would have been 38,000 cases and 7,200 deaths, instead of 242 cases and 18 deaths. Had the rate of the Spanish-American War prevailed. there would have been over 311,000 cases and 23,700 deaths instead of 242 cases and 18 deaths! In the annual reports of the surgeon generals of the army and navy this enormous and happy prevention of typhoid is attributed "almost in toto" to the antityphoid vaccination. In the British Army 99 per cent of the soldiers are vaccinated voluntarily.

During the past year, of the 1,500,000 vaccinated men, about 9,000 were obliged to spend one or two days in hospitals on account of a moderate resulting fever following the vaccination. During that same year there was just ONE death ascribed to antityphoid vaccination—one death out of over 1,500,000 men—one fifteen thousandth part of one per cent! Yet the opponents of research have intimated that "thousands" of deaths have followed the antityphoid vaccination. Are not these figures an overwhelming testimony to its value and do they not prove the wisdom of making it compulsory in order to save the lives of our dear boys, and help win the war?

These same people have also asserted that the death rate in the army far exceeded that of our large cities. General Gorgas states that on the contrary statistics for men from 20 to 30 in our large cities show that the army death rate in July 1918 was only one-third of the urban death rate, *i.e.*, 1.9 per thousand instead of 6.7 per thousand. It is time that these malicious mis-statements should cease.

Never in the history of the world have such splendid efforts been made to reconstruct and re-educate the inevitable wreckage of war, as are now effectively restoring the wounded and mutilated to happy social life and to self-support instead of abandoning them to idleness, poverty and despair. The dentists and surgeons reconstruct faces and jaws formerly considered absolutely hopeless. "The surgeons doing this facial work avail themselves of the services of artists, plaster modellers and sculptors. An accurate plaster cast of the present condition is used as a base on which a restoration is made in modelling clay by the sculptor. If good photographs of the man taken before his wound are available, they are of service to the sculptor." The orthopedic surgeons restore motion to apparently useless arms and legs, so that the man can be employed in gainful occupations and become partially and often wholly self-supporting. Such work was unheard of in the Civil War. It is one of the real benefits to the credit side of the great war.

NEW INSTRUMENTS OF PRECISION AND METHODS OF DIAGNOSIS

I must compress into a few words what I have to say as to new instruments of precision and new methods of diagnosis which have been discovered since the Civil War.

It will surprise most of us to learn that there were practically no clinical thermometers in our armies in 1861–65. The first book ever written on the use of the thermometer in medicine was not published until 1869—four years after the end of the Civil War. Imagine the plight of a surgeon, physician, obstetrician, or even of the mother of a family today without a clinical thermometer. Hemostatic forceps, retractors and dilators, now in constant use, were utterly unknown. The hypodermic syringe was so new that the number of army surgeons who had one in Civil War times probably did not exceed the number of one's fingers and quite surely not of fingers and toes together. The ophthalmoscope had been devised in 1851 but few and far between were those who could use it in our army ten years later. This was even more true of the laryngoscope, first devised in 1858.

Instruments for examining all the accessible hollow organs, the ear, the nose, the bronchial tubes in the interior of the lung, the stomach, bladder, ureter and kidney, were not so much as dreamed of fifty years ago. The chemistry and physics of the blood and the various devices to study the blood pressure were unknown. Now we can analyze the action of the heart, of its four cavities and its valves separately to the exact action of each during the 1/50th part of a second by the electrocardiograph.

The wonderful X-rays were discovered in 1895 and the apparatus for using them has been so much improved that now we can see the convolutions and the cavities in the brain. By mixing bismuth with the food and then tracing it from esophagus to rectum by the X-rays, we have learned much as to living anatomy and physiology, and can often diagnose cancer of the stomach or of the bowels, can see any foreign body either in the stomach or intestines and in the windpipe or the bronchial tubes. Chevalier Jackson, one of my colleagues at the Jefferson, has taught the world how to remove such foreign bodies from the air passages through the mouth instead of by a very dangerous cutting operation.

The surgery of the chest long lagged far behind that of the head and the abdomen because when the chest was opened the lung collapsed and breathing became embarrassed, or impossible, if both sides were opened. Now Meltzer and Auer of the Rockefeller Institute have devised a method of anesthesia by pumping ether-laden air into the lungs through a rubber tube introduced into the windpipe. This keeps up the respiration and we can now operate on all the organs in the chest as easily as we do on the contents of the abdomen.

"The road to the heart is only a little over an inch in a direct line," says Professor Frederic S. Lee, "but it has taken surgery nearly 2,400 years to travel it." The heart was first laid bare and sewed up for a stab wound twenty-one years ago (1897). Now this operation has been done hundreds of times and has saved the lives of about half of those operated upon. In this war, missiles have been removed from the interior of the heart and even from the large blood vessels.

Most of the improvements and the discoveries I have described and many others have been made in research laboratories and largely by men whose name and fame are unknown except to their professional colleagues. Their work has been marvelously successful and beneficent not only to man but to millions of the lower animals whose sufferings have been enormously diminished and whose lives have been saved—a combined humanitarian and economic gain which can hardly be estimated.

One striking instance of the value of experimental research as compared with observational and clinical research is the following:

Syphilis has been known and carefully studied for over four hundred years. It is one of the three great physical enemies of the human race, tuberculosis and alcohol being its sister scourges. In 1903 Metchnikoff of the Pasteur Institute in Paris first succeeded in inoculating the higher apes with the disease. Since then we have learned how to inoculate other animals. Only two years passed before bacteriologists discovered the germ which produced the disease. This enabled us to test any and every remedy, even the most dangerous, far too dangerous to be tested upon man. After five more years Ehrlich discovered a cure. This discovery rewarded a persistence and zeal the like of which has never been equaled. After six hundred and five successive failures, the six hundred and sixth was a success. Think of the labor required by each one of these six hundred and five failures and of the robust optimism which still continued the research!

In these seven years we learned more and accomplished more for the human race at large than in the preceding four centuries of intense clinical study. This discovery is one of the most beneficent ever made. Its use is far from being restricted to the sinners against law and morality. The number of its innocent victims is almost incalculable. Now we are masters of the situation; we have the whip-hand of this monster of suffering and shame.

Even in this very incomplete sketch what wonderful progress is revealed! Research has not yet ceased to give us better and better methods of coping with disease and death, and—thank God!—it never will cease so long as disease and death continue to afflict the human race.

TUBERCULOSIS AND THE WAR

BY CAPTAIN JOSEPH WALSH,
Medical Corps, U. S. A.

How much will tuberculosis make for inefficiency in the Army? Will the war actually increase the amount of tuberculosis? What does the government intend to do with its tuberculous soldiers? All are questions of present interest.

There is no disease which could make for greater inefficiency among soldiers for the reason that it is distinctly a disease of young adult life, and, developing insidiously, makes the individual incapable of performing his duties without his recognition of the cause. It is evident, therefore, that it is worth while endeavoring to spot it early so that the tuberculous soldier may be dealt with according to his condition; relieved from duty if unfit and put into a selected position if capable of carrying it off without danger to himself or others. To accomplish this has required a very large corps of extremely expert examiners capable not only of diagnosticating the case, but also of judging what might be expected of it. For an army of 3,000,000 men, 400 to 500 such examiners have been found necessary.

We were fortunate at the beginning in having a number of physicians sufficiently expert in tuberculosis that, though they had never examined men with the requirements of the army before them, they were capable of doing it with a certain degree of efficiency. More fortunately, however, than even our possession of these civilian experts, we had at the head of the tuberculosis work in the army a man who had never spared himself in its study, and when the war broke out, he was a master in the technique of diagnosis and his capability in demonstrating it to others was very marked.

Colonel Bushnell, of whom I speak, was the Medical Chief of Fort Bayrad Sanatorium for about twenty years. Here his opportunity for the study of the disease was unrivaled and he took advantage of it. Instead of sitting down in what could have been made an easy berth, he astonished his acquaintances by his extraordinary initiative and industry. Friends of his state that while others were enjoying evening recreation he was still in the wards with stethoscope in ears listening for "adventitious sounds." Rarely is good work done in vain, and Colonel Bushnell's has proved no exception. A time came with the outbreak of the war when the care and study put on his cases for years were made to count in the production of what we hope and expect will be the most efficient army ever put in the field. No man at the head of a department of the United States Government was more fitted for his particular task. He was a trained soldier, accustomed to giving orders and capable of seeing them carried out; he was a trained technician in the art in which it was necessary to rapidly train others; and he understood just what constituted army fitness.

While the first of the recruits were being trained, civilian examiners throughout the country were allowed and encouraged to do the best they could, the Surgeon General's Office endeavoring with the small corps of special experts at its disposal to review their work. In addition, with the knowledge of what was required and the realization that those requirements were not sufficiently well understood, the Surgeon General's Office issued Circular No. 20 prepared by Colonel Bushnell for the purpose of standardizing the diagnosis of tuberculosis.

To support and explain this important standardization, Colonel Bushnell, though sixty-five years old, had divided himself between his office in Washington and the even more arduous work of visiting the camps and attending medical meetings in addition to writing for numerous journals. Though everyone recognized the importance of standardizing the diagnosis, some thought this standardization too absolute and it required time and patience to educate them up to certain new ideas which he had been instrumental in either discovering or promulgating. Yet after thoroughly understanding Bushnell's methods and the enthusiasm for them in general, Surgeon Lawrason Brown and Major Joseph Pratt, who were among the early examiners (*The Military Surgeon*, August, 1918) say, "The great value of Colonel Bushnell's instructions was manifest daily in out work and we would have been hopelessly engaged in argument had we not possessed them." And again, "We cannot praise too highly Bushnell's rapid auscultatory method in tuberculosis examinations."

To complete this work begun by Circular No. 20 and furthered by Colonel Bushnell's addresses and writings, special tuberculosis schools have been opened in which physicians with more or less knowledge of tuberculosis are further instructed. The original teachers in these schools, themselves experts, were instructed under his personal supervision in the Walter Reed Hospital in Washington and it is this instruction which they are now passing along. There is no disease in medicine requiring more capability in diagnosis, yet through methods for which Colonel Bushnell is considerably responsible, this capability is being imparted to a number of physicians with comparatively little experience in so thorough a fashion that it is evident if more active tuberculosis exists after the war there will be a much larger number of physicians to cope with it.

Previous to the war, the United States stood among the first in its anti-tuberculosis work and its tuberculosis mortality was among the lowest of the nations. Regretfully though we may say it, the mortality in France was among the highest, as can be seen from the following statistics of Fishberg; the death rate in Rio de Janeiro is 402 per 100,000; in Philadelphia, 206; in Chicago, 162; in Paris, 374. In addition, therefore, to having little or no time at the beginning to make examinations, France had actually more tuberculosis. It is to be expected, therefore, that a much larger number of her soldiers were sent back from the front than will be of ours, yet according to Colonel Derele (*The Military Surgeon*, June, 1918) during the first three years of the war, only 89,430 were discharged from the French army for this disease. Of course it is to be remembered that her army had been under arms for years and was to a considerable extent picked and chosen before the war. Still, considering that we have so much less tuberculosis in our population, and the greater time we had for examinations together with the fact that in the first three years France probably had six million men in the field, it is evident that our tuberculosis inefficiency will be minimal.

Will the war actually increase the amount of tuberculosis? The strenuosity of the life in training, and especially in the trenches, is such that tuberculosis ready to become active is almost sure to break down, yet Colonel Bushnell's work has been so thorough that I personally believe the number of reactivations is going to be small. Moreover, it is evident from even our small experience so far that the routine open air life of training will cure, and has already cured, a certain number who would probably have gone on to a breakdown in their civilian occupation.

The "bug bear" of the popular mind is the possibility of contagion, but from a scientific aspect is so remote as to scarcely deserve consideration. We now know that the great majority of tuberculous infections, even when first manifest in adult life, were contracted during childhood and that the adult is only slightly susceptible to contagion. In addition, the examinations are so carefully made that though we can imagine a small number of active cases slipping through, this number will be so small and the number with tubercle bacilli in the sputum which would be necessary for contagion, so much smaller still, that this question is negligible.

It is probable, however, that the increased work necessarily put on the civilians remaining behind will reactivate a number of cases which would have remained inactive if the war had not occurred. Between the activities of the camp, therefore, and the increased activities of civil life, in other words, through the instrumentality of the war, the number of cases of tuberculosis will be undoubtedly increased. Regretfully, therefore, it has to be confessed that tuberculosis will be a greater problem atter the war than before it.

Without fear that tuberculosis will be a real menance to our fighting efficiency, we have still the question before us—What does the government intend to do for the thousands of men whose disease does become reactivated while serving their country? Though every effort is being made, as we have just shown, to have this number as small as possible by care in examination, the elimination of the unfit, and the proper selection of positions for the suspicious, the smallest number we can conceive will still be more than 20,000 or 30,000. The question is easily answered and with satisfaction, for no nation has ever attempted a more elaborate scheme for the rehabilitation of the sick and wounded.

In spite of the fact that the most important work at the present time is the winning of the war, and everything else must give way to it, an independent department of reconstruction has been inaugurated by the Surgeon General with Col. Frank Billings at its head. In addition, in the different divisions of the Medical Department, men of the highest rank are devoting special attention to it and are not only making theoretical plans, but are submitting these to the public in medical articles, both for the purpose of showing what is to be expected and of learning through criticism other points of view.

While at Fort Bayard Sanatorium developing his new diagnostic signs, Colonel Bushnell had associated with him for a number of years Lieut.-Col. E. H. Bruns, to whom are due some of the methods, notably the lagging of the expanding lung. At the outbreak of the war, Bruns became naturally associated with Colonel Bushnell in Washington and both have found time to devote special attention to the reconstruction of "soldiers wounded with tuberculosis." (*Journal of the American Medical Association*, August 3, 1918.)

The following from the Surgeon General's Office gives us our cue as to what is to be done. "Hereafter, no member of the military service disabled in line of duty will be discharged from the service until he has attained completo recovery or as complete recovery as is to be expected that he will attain when the nature of his disability is considered." (Colonel Bushnell: How the United States is Meeting the Tuberculosis War Problem. *The Military Surgeon*, August, 1918.) This indicates that the government intends to make the tuberculous patient as fit for work as possible before discharging him. To accomplish this the following tuberculosis hospitals have been taken over or have been built by the government.

The William Wirt Winchester Memorial Tuberculosis Hospital at New Haven, an absolutely new building just completed with a capacity of 250 beds and expanded by the erection of temporary buildings for ambulatory cases to a capacity of 550. This is a beautiful modern structure on the hills near New Haven and is at present used not only as a hospital but as a school for the instruction of student medical officers. This hospital and school are under the direction of Lieut.-Col. A. M. Forster, formerly medical director of Cragmoor Sanatorium, Colorado and Eudowood, Maryland, and the instructors in diagnosis in the school are Lieut.-Col. Estes Nichols, Major James Price and Captain Francis Trudeau.

The Otisville Sanatorium, New York, with a capacity of 750 beds, a recently erected temporary structure not far from the New York City Sanatorium.

The Azalea Sanatorium, North Carolina, with a capacity of 1,000 beds, also a temporary structure.

The Denver, Colorado, Sanatorium with a capacity of 1,000 beds, a new permanent structure of hollow tile, built in the most modern fashion.

Markleton Sanatorium, Markleton, Pennsylvania, with a capacity of 325 beds.

Waynesville Sanatorium, South Carolina, a hotel transformed, with a capacity of 260 beds.

Whipple Barracks Sanatorium, Arizona, with a capacity of 500 beds.

Fort Bayard Sanatorium, New Mexico, with a capacity of 1,000 beds. All of them have completely equipped laboratory, X-ray, surgical, throat, nose, ear, eye, and dental departments. In addition all are capable of further expansion.

In these sanatoria, the tuberculous soldier is to be taken care of by experts until he is well enough to pursue his ordinary occupation without fear of a breakdown, or if his condition has become such that his previous occupation is no longer possible, he will be instructed in an occupation suitable to his present capability. In these sanatoria, a special department of reconstruction has been instituted in which the capabilities of the men, from both a physical and mental aspect, are carefully considered and work assigned to them accordingly.

This work, begun when the patient's condition warrants it, is expected to have influence in four ways: (1) It will occupy the patient's mind, make him more contented and hence hasten his recovery; (2) instead of sending him out from a life of absolute ease, it will harden and make him less likely to breakdown, on account of unaccustomedness and strain; (3) the disease almost always produces more or less inefficiency, that is, after a certain amount of lung space is destroyed the individual is not as capable as before; the reconstruction department is endeavoring to compensate for this by educating him,—here for instance is a presser who knows nothing about tailoring, he is taught tailoring, thereby making him more useful to his employer; (4) foreigners and natives unable to read and write are taught. This improves their efficiency and gives opportunity for wider diversity of work and pleasure consistent with their condition.

Regulated work for convalescent tuberculosis patients is not new. It has been carried out in other sanatoria like White Haven, Pennsylvania, and Frimley, England, but never on a basis similar to this and never in connection with military discipline. We cannot help but expect, therefore, the best results possible in the government's treatment of its tuberculous soldiers.

RECLAMATION OF THE DISABLED FROM THE INDUSTRIAL ARMY

LIEUT.-COL. HARRY E. MOCK,
Medical Corps, U. S. A.

The United States, following the example of other warring nations, has adopted a plan to physically reconstruct, functionally re educate, and completely rehabilitate all of her disabled soldiers. Congress, in June, 1917, pledged this service by passing the War Risk Insurance Act. The necessity of conserving our man power, as well as the debt which the nation owes these disabled soldiers, makes such a program obligatory.

By physical reconstruction is meant the continued and complete medical and surgical treatment until the greatest possible restoration of the disabled parts has been secured. Functional re education consists of various methods to restore function in a disabled part, or to train other members to new work, or to teach the amputated cases the use of artificial members. In other words, it is combining with our surgical procedure, which aims at his physical repair, certain other therapeutic measures which will help the patient to functionally overcome his handicap.

Rehabilitation, or the refitting of the disabled man to an independent economic position in society, consists of measures which are neither medical nor surgical but which can often begin during the course of his medical treatment. Thus, the work of rehabilitation laps over into the hospital treatment and, in many cases, continues for an indefinite period after the work of the medical officers has been completed. In the majority of cases the functional re-education, especially the occupational therapy, can be made so practicable that it will dovetail in with the rehabilitation work.

Therefore, while a portion of this work must be conducted while the man is under military control, and a portion must be carried on after the man becomes a civilian, yet, as far as the man himself is concerned, it will be a gradual, unbroken reclamation to a useful life whatever his handicap may be.

No matter how honorable the wounds or how honorable the disease that overtakes one, no man likes to be classed as "disabled."

It sounds too much like being "put on the shelf." In warfare, however, a certain percentage of the soldiers are bound to become disabled; very few need remain so. The number of disabilities sufficiently serious to place a man in the discard are very rare. Practically every man, no matter how handicapped he may be, can come back. In fact a handicap puts more fight into a man, makes him strive harder than ever before, and results quite often in his making good to a greater extent than if he had never been disabled.

A soldier who lost both legs recently said: "Watch me! I am going to make good with both feet." And he has. This is the spirit! Determination and grit—stick-to-it-iveness—are the qualities which every disabled man must have or must acquire in order to crawl out or jump out of that hated class—The Disabled. As long as the brain power of a man remains, enabling him to will, to choose and to persevere in effort, he is a long way from being a permanent cripple or a permanent invalid.

As Mike Dowling, who lost both hands and both legs when a young man and climbed up to be a bank president in spite of his physical handicap, delights in saying: "I feel sorry for a cripple and thank God that I am not a cripple. A man may be worth a hundred thousand dollars a year from his neck up, and worth only one dollar and a half per week from his neck down." In other words, being "disabled" is only a temporary state. A man is disabled in the early days while the doctor is helping cure him. Being "crippled" is a permanent state. A man is crippled only to that extent to which he allows his physical handicap to put him down and out. If he ceases to be an economic factor in society—an earning, serving unit—he is a cripple. But if in spite of his handicap he overcomes his disability, trains himself for work and becomes a productive citizen once more, he is no longer classed as a cripple.

A man living in Kansas, who had been confined to his bed for years, the result of a form of paralysis, had become the owner and superintendent of a large publishing business. He was a printer formerly. When asked to describe how an invalid in his condition could accomplish so much, he said: "I am not an invalid: I am a Business Man." His advice was that no matter how permanently disease ties up the body, keep the mind alert and active. Make it work for you. Become independent. The man who gives up to his disabilities is an "invalid"; the man who overcomes them is a force.

As a nation we have failed to teach such ideas as these to our boys and girls. We have failed to help our citizens who have become permanently handicapped back to the road where they can go on by their own initiative. Too often the disabled man has passively accepted his fate, and his friends have allowed him to loaf, or to accept a position where no incentive or future existed, such as the proverbial watchman. These cripples and invalids, seeing the money made by professional beggars, have even drifted into that class. Every nation in this war has awakened to the fact that some men with the worst kinds of handicaps have become successful, useful citizens. Therefore, why cannot all men and especially the soldiers disabled because of war duty become successful? And so with one accord these nations have provided the means of reclaiming their disabled soldiers and of giving them proper training for the future so that they can make good by their own efforts. The medical department of the army at the very beginning of this war began to make plans for reclaiming these soldiers. After other wars our country provided soldiers' homes for many of the disabled, or provided pensions to help the crippled man eke out a living at some mediocre job. The spirit of young America today would not be satisfied with such an arrangement. They have made the great sacrifice for their country in her efforts to give liberty to the world. Their country therefore must provide a future of liberty and independence for them. Thus backed by every branch of the government and coöperating with other agencies who have a part in the work, the medical department of the army has evolved the plans for the physical reconstruction and rehabilitation of disabled soldiers.

There is another soldier, the industrial soldier, the soldier of the second line of defense, the man who belongs to that great industrial army which is just as essential to the winning of this war as is the military army, and the man who becomes disabled and wounded without the glorification that comes from such wounds when received on the battlefield. During the last decade a new specialty has developed in the medical profession which deals with the human maintenance in industry. This must not be confused with the work of the old-time company doctor which consisted chiefly in rendering emergency treatment to the injured employes. Rather this new specialty of industrial medicine and surgery includes everything necessary for the complete supervision of the health of the employes. Human maintenance in industry consists in applying the general principles of medicine and surgery to a large group of people as a unit. While individuals receive special medical or surgical care whenever needed, yet the chief purpose of this specialty is prevention: prevention of disease or accidents among the entire group of employes; prevention of undue loss of time when injury or disease assails an employe; prevention of deformities and permanent disabilities; prevention of inefficiency on the job when traceable to some physical condition; in fact, the prevention of everything which would tend to undermine the physical or mental welfare of the working force. In order to accomplish this, many of our largest industries have developed a staff of capable physicians and surgeons who spend part, or all, of their time at the plant. Here, by being on the job—in the front line trench of industry—they are not only in the strategic position to study and apply every phase of prevention, but also to render immediate and proper medical and surgical care to every sick or injured employe, which after all is only another form of prevention.

This comprehensive system of industrial medicine and surgery has been adopted by many of the larger employers. Today approximately one-tenth of the workers of the country are receiving the benefits, to a more or less degree, of this work. There still remain however many more large concerns, the small employer, the householder with his domestic help, the farmer with his hired men, and many others who have never considered it a duty to safeguard the health and welfare of those working for them. When we consider that 40,000,000 people in the United States are engaged in gainful occupations, we can then comprehend what the adoption of a nationwide program of disease and accident prevention would mean to the economic existence of our country.

But in spite of all our prevention methods, we have, and will continue to have, the disabled employe in our midst. The man who is no longer able to continue at heavy work because of a damaged heart or circulatory apparatus; the man who develops tuberculosis, and, even though cured, is afraid to or advised against returning to his former occupation, or is rejected from one job after another because of his damaged lung; the epileptic who, to safeguard the concern against possible compensation, is fired as soon as his condition is known; the men with hernias, with flat feet and many other anatomical conditions that make them inefficient, as well as the armless and legless and others seriously handicapped, the result of injuries; —all make up our army of disabled men. Every year adds to the total of incompetents who, on account of disease or accidents, are prematurely thrown into the scrap heap because their handicap prevented them from continuing at their old occupations.

A few industries have salvaged these disabled and made them efficient and independent. Some industries have given these employes easy jobs where they could make a living. But the very softness of the job robbed them of all incentive, and the bitterness engendered from dying ambition added to their incompetency, so that many of these drifted on into the scrap heap. Other industries settled with their injured workman when they were legally responsible and then dismissed him. Their disabled, for whom they were morally responsible, were scrapped without a settlement. These men, trained for certain occupations, who meet with permanent handicaps, are the waste products of our industrial life. Too often when employed, they are ineffective because they are thrown into the job without considering their physical fitness for it. Again they are given the positions of watchman, flagman, messenger service, porters and similar work when, with proper training, their full mental energy and remaining physical capacities could make them highly efficient in much more gainful vocations.

The most unfortunate group of disabled men are those who cease to be employed by the concern responsible for their disability. Other employers are not interested in them, do not feel responsible for them. They drift from one job to another, constantly dropping into a lower scale, until finally they relinquish all effort to work. These make up the loafers, the beggar on the corner, the shoestring merchant on the street, the poor physically handicapped, the mentally debased flotsam and jetsam of our civilization. The great lesson, therefore, which industry can learn from the plans of the army to reclaim the disabled soldier is the complete rehabilitation of the disabled from the industrial army.

We have done excellent work in prevention. We have done our utmost to physically reconstruct the disabled employe. But have we not been neglectful of the end result from the ecomomic and social standpoint? These handicapped soldiers from industry must not only be physically cured, but they must be retrained for new work when their disability prevents return to the old job; they must be given suitable employment in a position that affords them equal income and the opportunity for initiative and advancement; adequate compensation must be paid them for disabilities directly the result of occupation, without derogatory reaction upon their future opportunities; and proper supervision must be maintained over them to see that their rehabilitation is completed and so remains.

Today, as a result of our plans for the reclaiming of the war disabled, the country is awakening to its responsibility toward the civilian disabled. There is every reason to believe that before long Congress will be enacting a law for the vocational rehabilitation of the industrial handicapped just as it is now meeting the same question for the disabled soldier. Man power will win this war, man power at the front over there, and man power in the great industrial army—the second line of defense—over here. As a nation we are united in one great purpose—our determination for an unconditional victory. Our every motive must be toward this end. Therefore every effort expended for the conservation of human life and the reclamation of all human energy in both the military and industrial armies will be of the greatest aid in achieving this victory.

RECONSTRUCTION OF DEFECTS OF HEARING AND SPEECH

By Lieut.-Col. Charles W. Richardson,
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The reconstruction of defects of hearing and speech is organized along the general plan and scope of reconstruction in general, as it has been taken up in connection with the activities of the Division of Physical Reconstruction, Surgeon General's Office.

The object and scope of the administration of these patients is to give them a maximum of physical reconstruction, so that each can be restored physically and mentally to the highest degree functionally that is possible in his handicapped condition. While this physical reconstruction is going on, such treatment is to be employed as to place him economically on as near a perfect basis, when he is discharged, as he was before he came into the service. This is the axiom of the policy and ideals of the Division of Physical Reconstruction.

The administration of this section is under the direction of Lieut.-Col. Charles W. Richardson of the Division of Physical Reconstruction. The assistant is a major, a liaison officer between the Division of Physical Reconstruction and the Section of Otolaryngology, Division of Surgery of the Head.

In order to make efficient the treatment of these patients, it became necessary to enlist therapeutic aides, who had an extensive training in the methods to be employed in the treatment of the adult deaf and in corrective speech work. We have been very fortunate in this section in being able to enlist a large number of most efficient aides in this particular line: in fact, we have listed as candidates the most efficient, capable and intelligent of those engaged in this particular line of therapeutic endeavor.

We have been most fortunate in the selection of our staff. It was a selection in which an error might easily have been made, one which could have been costly to the organization. The superintendent, principal and teachers in connection with this therapeutic endeavor have not only been of the highest type, mentally and morally, as well as thoroughly skilled, but they have been so thoroughly enthusiastic in the line of treatment, so thoroughly unselfish in their devotion to the work, and so thoroughly imbued with their responsibility in recalling and reclaiming these men, that they have instilled in their patients the same zeal and enthusiasm. The work has progressed far beyond the most sanguine expectations of those interested in its development.

We find that our cases are subject to two types of treatment. One is purely surgical and medical, due to various lesions of the auditory apparatus and speech organs as well as those having, conjointly with these, other types of disabilities which also demand special lines of medical and surgical treatment. All cases of this type are placed more or less under the medical and surgical attention of the General Staff or the Otolaryngological Staff of the hospital to which the Section of Defects of Hearing and Speech is attached. Besides this we have another type of treatment which is both therapeutic and pedagogic in character. Under this form of treatment come all of the cases which have been mentioned above, as well as a few others which do not require active medical and surgical care.

Therapeutic aides are employed for the purpose, first, of stimulating the impaired hearing function through the auricular method of treatment. This line of treatment is employed for the purpose of stimulating the cerebral auditory center and the temporarily inactive nerve; of restoring synapse between the cerebral centers and the peripheral distribution of the nerve; and of stimulating those cases in which there is simply want of activity in the receptive mechanism. Second, they are employed in that therapeutic endeavor which has for its purpose the employment of one sense to replace the activity of another sense which has been lost through disease or injury. Through the use of speech reading, patients are taught to replace the lost sense of hearing by that of sight.

Besides the auditory cases, we have also a smaller number of patients in which there is more or less impairment of ability to express their thoughts, on account of impairment in the mechanism of speech. Classified under the defects of speech requiring treatment are those affected with:

Mutism, most frequently of shock origin.

Stuttering, stammering, - old cases reëstablished, new ones produced during the nervous strain of actual combat.

Pure aphonia, of nervous origin.

Aphonias, which are due to over-exercise and overstimulation of the vocal cords, giving rise to a pure physical disturbance within the vocal region. These arise from the over-use of the voice, as when an individual under nervous excitement frequently calls out in a loud tone of voice.

There is also a class of cases due to gunshot, shrapnel, grenade, bayonet and other wounds of the upper air tract. It is to be hoped that we will not have many of this type of case, now that trench warfare seems to have been reduced to a minimum. These lesions, with alterations in the voice, were very frequent during the early stages of the war, when trench warfare was the common combatative procedure.

Classified into defects of hearing are those who are nearly deaf, or completely deaf. Of course, this brings into our service a large number of individuals who obtain this near deafness in manifold manners. We have those due to the ordinary diseases of the ear common in civil life—abscess of the ear, both acute and chronic, and acute and chronic catarrh of the middle ear. These are simple infections or secondary to the acute infectious diseases. Many individuals suffering from this type have been admitted into the army with the initial stage of this condition already manifest, or in full activity at the time of admittance into the service.

Those due to warfare are the following: 1. *Shock concussion.* This type of case is most frequently due to the action of a single high explosive shell in the immediate vicinity of the one affected. Many of these patients eventually recover their hearing completely. 2. *Concussion deafness.* These cases are usually due to the continuous action of high explosive and shrapnel shell, hand grenades and the more or less continuous play of rapid-fire and machine guns. On account of the continuous concussion transmitted to the labyrinthine structure, there are evident organic changes produced in the internal ear, with the result of permanent impairment of hearing. 3. The slowly progressive type of concussion deafness as commonly observed in gunners and artillery men. 4. Traumatic, due to casualties about the face, head and auditory apparatus. 5. Those due to infections contracted in warfare,—epidemic meningitis, mumps, etc.

After a period of nearly four months, in which the organization theoretically was placed in perfect preparation, this section was given a temporary abode in General Hospital No. 11, at Cape May, New Jersey, for the purpose of carrying on its activities. On July 23, the activities were inaugurated at General Hospital No. 11, Cape May, N. J. This was presided over by the commanding officer of the hospital, Col. Paul F. Straub, who made the introductory address, which was followed by a few remarks as to the organization of the section by the director of the Section of Defects of Hearing and Speech. The address of the evening was made by Major W. W. Keen of Philadelphia, who made his topic, "The Comparison of the Surgical Methods of the Civil and the Present War."

The following morning, the actual treatment was started, with seventeen patients. Of these seventeen patients we found four recalcitrants, who could not see any reason why this type of treatment should be carried on. They felt that all had been accomplished that was possible, and they thought that they should be discharged without any further effort being made to place them medically and economically in a better position. Before the end of the first week of treatment, three out of the four patients, after seeing the enthusiastic swing with which the treatment was going on, after noting the progress that their fellows were making, after observing the whole change in the demeanor of their fellows, rapidly fell into line and accepted the benefits that the Surgeon General had placed at their disposal. These patients at the present day rate as the most successful and enthusiastic of those under treatment.

The disturbance of the auditory apparatus, terminating in immediate or remote complete and permanent impairment of hearing, is one of the most impressive and distressing among the disabilities that occur during warfare, to an otherwise physically normal man. In our study of the permanently acquired deafness in the adult in civil life, we have been impressed with two important features (not physical) apparently correlated with the loss of hearing, that is, suspicion and social ostracism. These conditions are in no way physically related to deafness, but are more the outcome of the psychology of the deaf mind and the psychology of the non-deaf mind. The deaf person, not hearing what is said about him, becomes necessarily more or less suspicious that general conversation is directed at him personally or relates to his infirmity. We are all well aware that most normal hearing persons have an aversion towards conversing with the hard of hearing or deaf. Add to the state of mind thus created the torment of the various physical subjective symptoms, and you necessarily create in the deaf an unhappy state of mind. Contrast a person so afflicted with one afflicted with blindness. The blind has a serene mind born of the knowledge that all mankind extends to him a helping hand, a confidence begotten through the knowledge that universally mankind sympathizes with him and is only too happy to give him succor and aid. These features which have been so common in connection with the deaf or near deaf have been almost entirely absent, or have been eradicated, in connection with our treatment.

Another condition is the modification of the voice, which is attendant on the terrible face injuries produced in modern warfare. It is a singular trait of mankind that he avoids the deaf, and derides the individual who presents difficulty of speech production. These poor individuals are not only subjected to the humiliation on account of their imperfect vocalization, but are subject to the curious observation and scrutiny on account of their facial defects.

It will be the province of the Section of Defects of Hearing and Speech to remove these mental attitudes, first through re-education and corrective work with patients, and second, through correction of the misapprehension of the layman. At the present time, we have a staff of skilled medical officers in connection with the Otolaryngological Section, Division of Surgery of the Head of General Hospital No. 11, coördinating with us in this work. We have also the medico-pedagogic staff in connection with and under the control of the medical officers. We have at the present time twenty-eight patients, an increase of eleven since our work first started. There is no doubt but that we will soon have a large number of patients in this work. We expect the turnover to occur about every three months. Some of these patients will go into limited service, but most of them will be discharged into the hands of the Federal Board for Vocational Education or into their former life.

It would be interesting to tell of some of the marked improvements that these young active intellects have made in connection with their therapeutic work, but we cannot without being invidious show the activities of one as excelling the activities of another. Sufficient it is to say that they have all been enthusiastic, they have vied with each other in their efforts and are all extremely anxious to get well, and make every effort along all lines to accomplish this as rapidly as possible.

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FOR THE WOUNDED

By Francis D. Patterson, M.D.

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To the unfortunates of war, our industries owe a responsibility which cannot be met merely by the payment of compensation in the form of a government pension. We are face to face with a problem and responsibility which cannot be shirked, because we cannot abate it by relying upon immigration to make up the deficiency in man power, for immigration has ceased, and probably will not be permitted by alien and allied governments within our lifetime; neither can the solution be found by the unlimited employment of women, for while it is undoubtedly true that women can and are replacing men in some positions, by reasons of their sex there are limitations upon the work that they can do. It needs no words of mine to emphasize the importance of the conservation of the health of those who are to be the mothers of our future race.

The Problem

The number that we shall have to reconstruct and rehabilitate will depend entirely upon the length of the war and the size of the armed forces in the service of our government. From the experience of the last four years we can at least get an indication as to what awaits us. It has been estimated by the Federal Board for Vocational Education that there are at the present approximately 13,000,000 wounded and crippled soldiers in the belligerent countries of Europe, and of this, 3,000,000 are caused by amputation. In Germany alone it is reported that 500,000 men are under treatment in hospitals, and during 1916 there were 16,000 amputations of the leg. Exclusive of those who died, experience in the past would seem to indicate that 10 per cent of the fighting force will be incapacitated either by wounds or disease, or 100,000 men out of every million men engaged. Of this 100,000 men, 80 per cent can be returned as members of the fighting unit, and the balance, or 20,000 men, will of necessity require vocational re-education to overcome the handicap of either wounds or disease.

From the English experience we can at least get an indication as to what awaits us. We are told that of every 1,000 men returned as unfit for further service, 453 are rendered so by injuries, and 547 by diseases. Thirty-two in the thousand have wholly or partially lost their sight, 49 have lost an arm or leg, 264 have had serious injuries to these limbs, or to the hand, about 50 have been injured in the head, and about 60 have suffered miscellaneous hurts. Of the diseased, the largest total, 124, is accounted for by ailments of the chest, about half being tubercular; the second largest, 110, by diseases of the heart; the third, 67, by what may be called nervous troubles, of which eleven are cases of epilepsy and nine of insanity.

THE NEED FOR VOCATIONAL TRAINING

(a) *Ensuring of Self-Support.* No self-supporting man who had the misfortune to become either wounded or diseased in the service of his country can subsist upon the government bounty in the form of a pension. Therefore it is essential that he be given such vocational training as will enable him to take his place as a self-supporting and self-respecting member of the community. It is unfortunate that adequate vocational training is not required of all the people in our land before they are permitted of their own volition to select an occupation. It needs no words of mine to emphasize the number of square pegs that are now rattling in the round holes of our present modern industrial structure.

(b) *To Ensure Early Return to an Occupation.* Experience has clearly demonstrated that occupation should be procured for those injured or diseased at the earliest possible moment so as to counteract the tendency to lose interest in a desire for work that so often comes to those who spend a long period of time in a hospital. It is therefore essential that this vocational training should be commenced during the period of convalescence, and that no stone be left unturned to stimulate the interest of the man in his training in his future vocation.

(c) *The Increasing of our Supply of Labor.* It needs no words to emphasize the need upon the part of industry for those cripples who will come to it with the benefit of adequate vocational training: a place in our industrial structure awaits them.

THE ANSWER TO THE PROBLEM

(a) *The National Program.* The Smith-Sears Vocational Rehabilitation Act, Senate Bill 4557, Second Session, 65th Congress, was approved by the President, June 27, 1918. This bill provides for the vocational rehabilitation and return to civilian employment of disabled persons from the military service, and centralizes the vocational rehabilitation under the Federal Board for Vocational Education, which is, of course, the only rational solution of the problem. This problem is of nation-wide significance, and therefore should be handled by the federal government coöperating with all other agencies.

(b) *The Selection of the Occupation.* The man should be encouraged to select the occupation himself, rather than that some one else should try to guide him into an occupation over the choice of which he has no volition. In choosing this new occupation, it should as far as possible be closely related to work previously performed so that full advantage may be taken of experience and previous training. Care should be taken to encourage the man to choose a standard trade in which there are many and full-time openings, rather than to choose an occupation in which there are only a few workers, or one which is seasonable.

(c) *Place of Training.* The training should, wherever possible, be given close to the home residence of the man, so that he may have the advantage, after his military service, of again being associated with his family and his friends. Too much emphasis cannot be laid upon the importance of the thoroughness of the training so that the man who is only partially trained will not labor at a disadvantage with his fellow workers.

(d) *Securing of Employment.* It is essential that all agencies should coöperate and secure the prompt return to employment of the cripple.

A STORY OF REHABILITATION BY A CRIPPLE WHO IS NOT A CRIPPLE

By Michael J. Dowling,
President Olivia State Bank, Olivia, Minnesota.

I think the chronology of this exhibit started February 17, 1866. He was frozen in a blizzard in Minnesota, December 4, 1880, which was known in Minnesota and throughout the west as the great snow winter. The next important event occurred on the second of October, 1895, when he married a very beautiful girl. He had no difficulty in courting her—and was not the only one. The next event of any great importance is yet to come. It is the writing of the epitaph.

I was fourteen years old, almost fifteen, when I was lost in the blizzard in Minnesota, and up to that time there had not been much in life—since that time there has been a great deal. As a boy and before being overtaken by the blizzard in southwestern Minnesota, I had been making my own way from the time I was ten years old, that is since my mother died. Among other things which I did in preparation for this experiment of reconstruction was to fill the positions of cookee in a lumber camp in Wisconsin, cookee on several Mississippi steamboats plying between St. Paul and St. Louis, water carrier on the Dalrymple Wheat Farm, Cottage Grove, Minnesota, and for a time a kid cowboy on a large ranch, known as Lord White House Ranch in Wyoming, where I learned to shoot, and ride any horse that had four legs. I am willing to put up a wager that there is not a horse on the ranch that I cannot ride today.

The blizzard can best be understood by you—if you have not been in one—by looking up a recent number of the *Saturday Evening Post*, in which the author of "Keeping up with Lizzie" describes "The Making of Mike," having reference to me. It is the best description of a blizzard that I have ever read.

The blizzard I faced on December 4, 1880, caused the thermometer to register 50° below, and I was out from about seven in the evening until sunrise the next morning. The sun did come up the next morning, and so did I—out of a bed in a straw-pile—and on getting up and trying to get to a farmhouse, I found that I could not bend my knees and I could not open my hands. The hands were frozen clinched and were like two chunks of clay, but after awhile I limbered up a little, in order to get on my feet and make for the house. I aroused the people. It was rather early even for farmers to get up. The good lady of the house filled a tub with cold water and some other vessels with cold water, and I put both arms up to the elbows and both legs up to the knees into this cold water, and then with this thawing-out process came a splendid opportunity to display courage. It is not a very pleasant occupation, watching the frost freeze the water around your hands and legs and form an ice coating all around as the frost comes out. However, the surgical operation was not performed until several days afterwards—some sixteen days—and the line of demarcation appeared very plainly just above the ankle joints and just about at the wrists of the hands. The operation was performed by the doctors present, on a kitchen table covered with oilcloth in a little family home in the village of Canby. If ever any germs had an opportunity on anyone they had it on me,— but I just grew fat on them. Nothing occurred except healing. Doctor Keen describes (page 16) the testing out of the ligatures to see whether they were ready to be pulled or not —that was the very method the physicians used to find out whether the ligatures were ready to be pulled in my stumps at that time. There were three doctors performing the operation, but in spite of having more than one operating on me I still succeeded in living.

Since that freezing, as I have said before, life has been worth living, and to me it has been a splendid joy—not only in courting the girls and marrying one of them and having a son and three daughters; we have lost the son, but the three daughters are still alive to grace the household. One of them is a sophomore in college, one is a junior in high school and the other is in the seventh grade. I am happy to say that when a man has his legs frozen off—and I believe it is also true when they are shot off—he does not pass on to the next generation the same condition; in fact, I am the only one in our family who has been compelled to buy artificial legs. The girls all take after their mother—they are good looking. We are a happy household. I do not believe that there is ever a thought that enters the mind of the mother or of the girls as to dad being subject to any misfortune or affliction. They think he is just about the happiest old dad they know of. And he is about the busiest one that I know of—he has to be with as many women folk around the house as he has.

About enjoying life—I think I have enjoyed every moment since the time the doctors got through with me, although there were a few days when I felt really stunned. I was a very active young man, pugnacious, full of fight, and I found myself suddenly with most of the fight cut off—at least, that part which I used to fight with successfully was not in very good shape—so I transferred my thoughts from those things that were gone to what was left.

It occurred to me without any reconstruction campaign on the part of our state university or other place of learning, that there was just one thing for me to do if I did not have any legs or arms, and that was to polish up the machinery above the neck. So I became an omnivorous reader, and—while I may be hurting the feelings of some people somewhere—I must confess I was also a carnivorous eater. I ate heartily, read ravenously, and got as much learning as I possibly could without the aid of teachers. I went to school just as much as I possibly could under the circumstances. You must know that when I was frozen in Minnesota I had neither mother, brother nor sister to look after me or help me. I was the only child in the family. Mother died when I was ten, and father had all he could do to take care of himself, as he was just an ordinary carpenter.

I possessed, at the end of the season of 1880, five head of young cattle and a very intelligent pony with handwriting on his hips. The pony was the last to go. The five head of cattle were sold at once, since I intended to pay my way just as far as I could. The money received from the sale of the five head of cattle, with the little money I had saved up from the season's work, went into buying the necessary medicines. The good people of the town furnished the bandages from worn pillow-slips and sheets and wearing apparel that the ladies tore into strips and wound into rolls. The old lady who was the leader in that work still lives in Canby, and her name is Mrs. Dodge, but she did not "dodge" any work when it came to helping me out. She was there all the time and had a corps of assistants. Therefore, you will understand that I was not very wealthy and not in a position to buy any luxuries, and with that in view I tried to go just as far as I could with the money I received from the sale of these few head of young stock; but the springtime found me compelled to sell the dearest thing I had on earth—the pony. I cried all night at the time I sold that pony, and I still think of him with tears in my eyes. He was so intelligent and I thought so much of him, but he had to go, and when he had gone the demand still came for more money. I had none—and there is just one thing that happens to a boy or anybody else when that day comes, and that is, the local community assumes the burden. In this case it was the county. The county of Yellow Medicine, Minnesota, had to step in and furnish the money necessary to have me reconstructed and rehabilitated.

The Board of County Commissioners at that time consisted of three men—we now have five. There were two old Norwegians on that board. One of them was an old sailor and the other was an old farmer. Neither one of them had very much book-learning, but both of them had hearts so big their tunics could hardly hold them. The other member and chairman of the board was a Yankee bred in the purple in Maine; he was, in Maine, before going West, at the head of a seminary, and was a man of splendid educational attainments. When the question came up, "What will we do with Mike," this gentleman of excellent intellectual attainments said that he had partially made arrangements with a farmer who had a good home and would take care of him for the rest of his life for two dollars per week. Mike was standing nearby on his knees, with pads made so that he could walk on the floor without hurting his knees—and it was all he could do to contain himself from jumping into the air and landing on top of that professor—but one of the old Norwegian members of the board, Mr. Ole J. Daley, who is still alive and hearty and with whom I had the pleasure of visiting this year, said, "Well, don't let us be in a hurry about this. Mike, what do you think about it?" Well, I smiled—used all the magnetism I possessed—looked into Ole's face and said, "Mr. Daley, if you will give me one year at Carleton College it will never cost this county another cent as long as I live to keep me going." "Well, but," he said, "you can't back that up; that is just your say so." "Well," I said, "I mean it."

The chairman of the board—I do not care to mention his name because he has some sons and daughters who are very good friends of mine and very fine people, and I think it was simply a slip of judgment at that particular time that caused him to take the position that he did—at any rate, the chairman thought it might be well to think it over until the next day. I got busy—and that is the reason why I got into politics later on—and went to the county auditor, and said, "Henry, you get busy on those two Norwegian members of the board. You are a Norwegian yourself—now you stay by me." "All right," he said, "I'll take them home with me tonight and keep them, and I'll talk to them all night if you want me to." Well, he did good service, at any rate, no matter how he worked it. The next morning the vote stood two to send me to college for one year, and one to send me out on the farm at a cost of two dollars per week for the rest of my life. Well, I went to Carleton and spent the year there. I did not loaf any, I can assure you. I did not have any money to spend on midnight suppers or oyster stews, or anything of that nature, like many of the boys had.

E. J. Weiser, now president of the First National Bank of Fargo, North Dakota, was one of the boys who roomed in the same house I did. He had so much money that I explained to him that I happened to know of a place he could get rid of some of it. He took the hint, and I joined him occasionally at some oyster suppers and other things which I could not afford to buy. I got some second-hand clothes from somewhere—I do not know where they came from—while I was at Carleton, and I had an opportunity offered me to come east and attend a certain school here and become a theological student, but I could not do that, simply because I was asked to make a statement that I would become a minister of the gospel if I would get this particular advantage in the east, and I said that I would be glad to get the education, but I could not accept anybody's money on false pretenses.

I taught school after getting out of Carleton, painted fences, ran a roller-skating rink, sold books by subscription, sold maps—and, in fact, I did everything and anything that would bring in an honest dollar—and I was not ashamed to be seen doing the painting by the roadside and have the rest of the boys go by and say, "You are putting more paint on your clothes than you are on the fence." This painting job was naturally hard work, but it was lots of fun teaching. I enjoyed teaching very much. I taught for seven years—three years in the country, when I was promoted to a graded school, and the last three years I was superintendent of a high school, the first high school in Renville County, and that is the county in which I now live. I also started a paper, ran a weekly paper a number of years while teaching school, and did a number of other things. Besides running a paper and teaching school, among other things I did was to get into politics. I stirred up one of the large financial institutions of our state to such an extent that it became one of the greatest failures in the history of the northwest. I made charges against it through the columns of my small country paper, verified same by examining their books at their own request, and then published the verification. That got me into politics. I was made assistant to the chief clerk of the House of Representatives the first session, and the next time I was chief clerk of the House of Representatives, and liking the work so well and thinking that I ought to have the vote next time, I became a candidate for member of the House, and was elected by a comfortable majority. I was also elected Speaker of the House, it being the first time that a new member had occupied that position, and also against the wishes of the combinations that usually controlled. There happened to be in that House enough new members in the state to make a comfortable majority, and all I did was to go to these men or write to them and say to them, "We have a majority and what is the use of letting the old fellows run the House?"

To marry is to take on trouble sometimes, but in my case I want to "fess up" that with the exception of some suffragette work that Mrs. Dowling does, we have gotten along very nicely. We have lived very happily, and she never thinks of the artificial legs any more than I do. In fact, I think—if I may be pardoned from getting away from this personal talk just a moment—the trouble with most crippled men is that they think about those things that are gone and cannot be brought back. They keep their minds on what is gone, instead of diverting their minds to what they have left and making an effort to develop what there is left.

I say I get a great deal of pleasure out of life—in one way, by driving an automobile. My family for years have toured the country in our own car and I have been the driver. I have driven to Yellowstone Park, over the famous Yellowstone Trail, and back along the great Northern Railroad. We were gone seven weeks on that trip, and when we got back I weighed more than I did when we started—but had considerable less money. Two years ago this last summer we drove to Duluth in our car. I believe in taking the girls and my wife every place I go if I can do it conveniently, especially when going for pleasure. We drove to Duluth and shipped the car to Buffalo via the Lakes, and then drove from Buffalo through New York State to western Massachusetts, to my old home. I was born in the Berkshire Hills of poor but Irish parents. I drove this car through the Berkshire Hills down to Boston, then to Plymouth, and from Plymouth we went back to Boston, followed the ride of Paul Revere and visited the beaches along the coast to Portland, thence from Portland to Poland Springs and from Poland Springs—after filling up with that splendid water—we went over to Bartlett, New Hampshire, on the ideal tour route, and through the Green Mountains and White Mountains back by a different road to Buffalo. After visiting Niagara Falls, we re-shipped from Buffalo to Duluth and took in the Iron Mines and the new Steel City, reaching home after weeks of enjoyment, with the girls learning more than they had learned in the year that they had spent in school and coming back filled with energy. The youngest is ten and the oldest is nineteen years old, and I will put them up against any boy of their size for a scrap. They are perfect specimens of womanhood and able to hold their own in any position.

I believe if I say nothing else in this article than that education is made too easy in most cases for boys and girls, I will have said a great deal. The teacher takes on all the work and makes a nervous wreck of herself, rather than put obstacles in the way of boys and girls in order to develop that boy and girl. Most boys and girls go to school much earlier than they should. My girls did not go to school until they were eight years of age, and the oldest one became the valedictorian of her class in high school and finished a year ahead of those who had started much earlier than she had.

Now, for a suggestion in this work—if you do not watch out you are going to do so many things for the crippled soldier that when he gets back home he will not feel the need of exercising his own muscles or his own faculties. You must put him in a position where he has to do the work. I know it is good for a man in that condition, because I have gone through the mill. There was no one to help me in any way, shape or form; and while I have said that a man is worth $100,000 a year—if he can make it honestly—above his neck, and, perhaps, may not be worth over $1.50 per week below, I have not been able to earn that much money in a year, I must confess, but I am looking forward to reaching that point before I pass on; and in the meantime when anybody tells you that because a man loses a leg or two of them or an arm or both of them he is a cripple, just refer him to me and I will take care of him. The finest looking men in the world may have more cause to regret things that they have done and they may not enjoy life as much as the man who is despised as a cripple, because he has lost a leg or an arm. There is no such thing as a cripple, if the mind is right.

THE SUPREMACY OF THE SPIRIT

By Howard R. Heydon,

Chief, Department of Public Education, Red Cross Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men.

The problem of the physically handicapped is one of the spirit. There is probably no matter developing out of the war that will have a greater bearing on the future than the new conception of social justice due the person who is not able-bodied. Heretofore he has been looked upon with more or less toleration as a nuisance to be gotten out of the way as hurriedly as possible. He was condoned at home and shunned abroad.

In the country the boy who lost a foot in the mowing machine could not stay around the house indefinitely because of economic necessity. He had to go to town and be fitted with an artificial leg. If he were then unable to continue to do his work on the farm he had to learn some trade at which he could earn a living.

There has been more spirit developed under such circumstances among those in the country than in the city. Where there is a small population there is a more general knowledge of actual personal conditions and a corresponding tendency to improve them. This is not true in a city where people can live next door to each other for years as total strangers.

Up to 1911 in this country when the first financial liability was placed by law upon the employer, there had never been any general recognition of a social obligation to the injured. If the person had sufficient perseverance or intelligence or both to overcome the physical handicap, he succeeded, while on the other hand if he lacked those qualities, he failed. There is no half way average. Those who are not able-bodied must more than compete with the normal in spite of the unequal conditions, or sink to the level of dependency.

But now this is being changed. The man will still have to make the fight himself to surmount his difficulties, but through the experience of foreign countries and our own awakening to the facts, our common sense cries out that every disabled person must be given the training necessary for placement in a position that will be of a grade higher, if possible, than the one he formerly held.

The veteran is going to return with the honor chevron conspicuous on his right sleeve. He is going to be proud of his injury as a symbol of his service to his country. He is going to point to his artificial leg or other disfigurement as a reason why he should receive a new classification in the eyes of the public. Yet within a year or so when the glamor of narrative has worn off his recollections of the war, there will be no distinguishing mark to differentiate him from any other man with similar disabilities. It is for that time that we must prepare.

The problem of the physically handicapped falls quite naturally under two headings: the one relating to the individuals affected during the entire period of their treatment, training, placement and follow up; and the other to the attitude of the general public towards them.

The medical-surgical aspects have been given careful study in the past in spite of a scientific recognition grudgingly acknowledged. Orthopedic surgery has been wonderfully developed and has contributed to the restoration to active life of many persons who would otherwise have been sentenced to hopeless idleness. As a criterion of its importance during the present war it has been estimated that in Great Britain, at the end of the first year of fighting, from 30 per cent to 40 per cent of the casualties required orthopedic treatment "either in the way of preventing deformities or in doing actual corrective surgery or in the reconstruction and educational work."

The restoration of function through orthopedic surgery and various therapeutic measures is tangible and of a nature concrete. It is a reality. A patient can realize its curative and permanent value and assist in making it successful through his own efforts. During the period when most of this attention is being given, the patient is encouraged to occupy his time and mind with the beneficial exercises and work. In this it would seem that there should be little if any obstacle in securing the most willing coöperation, particularly in military hospitals where the sense of obedience is still dominant. Yet it is right here where the abstract influences have had to be taken most into consideration.

Frequently there exists a lack of interest on the part of the patient that seriously menaces his complete recovery. A man who has gone through terrible experiences and who has lived abnormally for a considerable period of time may have lost some of the enthusiasm of independent life. Indeed it is marvelous that, knowing their military usefulness has been spent, they still can summon sufficient courage to fight their way back to health. Many of them undoubtedly would not be able to do so, were it not for the incentive given by the intelligent administering of those tireless hospital workers who contribute their own strength in awakening in the patient the desire to get back again into the work of the world.

According to the modern practice in disability cases, the mental attitude of patients is determined as soon as possible with the idea of alleviating any causes of worry or misunderstanding that would have a tendency to retard their medical progress. To a great extent this contact early established with the patients is in the nature of "cheer up work" which, however, soon develops into a more purposeful character. In England, Sir Robert Jones tells us:

> The frequent revisions of pensions led to a stubborn resistance to treatment. Under gentle methods of persuasion, however, by both hospital staff and cured comrades, the men began to evidence a new attitude. They often did not want to get better lest it meant their worldly impoverishment, but the inspiration of mental repose and the tonic action provided in the curative workshops, proved to be vigorous stimulants for physical betterment.

At first many of the wounded in the American forces will also harbor the thought that they will never again be of any use and will recall the pencil venders and mendicants on the street corners at home. But under the careful guidance of their attendants, these fears will be gradually turned into a vision of self-support at occupations for which they will be specially trained. This change cannot be brought about in a day. It may often take months to overcome all the morbid apprehensions, but once the patients begin to take an active interest in their daily improvement it is only a matter of time before their fighting spirit will again show itself.

Nature either kills or cures. In the animal world the injured one is left to die or recover by his own efforts and while civilization has developed love, sympathy and healing qualities in the human, the animal instinct of self-preservation is still strong when finally aroused. When the disabled person leaves the hospital, however, no one can foretell what his mental outlook will be. He has been spurred on by the constructive inspiration in the hospital, yet now he looks out on a future of great uncertainty and doubt. He knows that as a nation we have heretofore been content to accept the physically handicapped in the nature of a liability and have patronized them and given them alms, but have never sensed any fraternity towards them. He pictures, perhaps, among his acquaintances some man with injuries similar to his own who is earning a mere pittance for his work and he is not apt to be very enthusiastic over his opportunities. Then he learns that the government will restore him to a condition of self-support.

Upon the entry of the United States into the war, Congress was confronted with the necessity of enacting a pension law and wisely adopted the expedient of basing remuneration on two sets of schedules, the one designating the amount payable in case of a specific injury along lines similar to workmen's compensation measures and the other providing the variable amount according to the number of dependents.

While this was a distinct advance over any pension system which had hitherto been established, Congress was urged in vain, in the light of experience of foreign countries, to include provision for re-education. The American Red Cross, therefore, opened an experimental institution in New York City to demonstrate its practicability. The work was begun under two main divisions which might be designated as concrete and abstract. The concrete work consists of six training courses, an employment bureau and a department of industrial surveys. The training courses were selected to meet the requirements of those civilians who had arm or leg injuries. The employment bureau was started to find positions not only for the pupils taking the courses but also for other civilians physically handicapped who applied to the Red Cross for assistance in securing occupation.

It was found that manufacturers did not realize that there were any positions in their plants that were suitable for disabled persons to fill. In fact many were quite insistent that no one but an able-bodied person could do the work that was required. Industrial surveys were therefore undertaken in and about New York City to determine the operations in each industry that were available for disabled persons and found over 1,400 jobs. Under the stress of actual labor shortage many employers were quick to see the practical and economic advantages and extended every facility at their command.

In fact one corporation was so impressed with the possibilities of utilizing the men injured in its plants that it opened a department of re-education of its own. Another authorized its employment manager to train an armless man to become the "eyes" of the superintendent, while the board of directors of a third adopted the following resolution:

> It shall be the business policy of this corporation, to regard all applicants for employment according to their actual capabilities, to be determined after a fair chance, and no person shall be discriminated against because of any manner of physical handicap or disability, providing that person can perform the allotted work in a satisfactory manner, in competition with others doing similar work for this corporation.

No matter how capable a person might be his utility is measured by his opportunity to demonstrate his usefulness. This truism is readily appreciated in respect to the ablebodied and is all the more significant in the case of those who have physical limitations. The greater work undertaken by the American Red Cross therefore is in the abstract field of research and public education.

Foreign experience indicated the difficulty in bringing about a general realization of the seriousness of the problem and accordingly a general educational movement has been undertaken to create an enlightened public opinion towards the physically handicapped, so that they will be regarded from the standpoint of their capabilities rather than their disabilities. This is undoubtedly the most important phase of the whole question. The disabled person has been encouraged to make light of his misfortune. He has acquired the proper spirit to work out his salvation and needs only the reassurance of home influences to spur him on to accomplish it.

What will be the attitude of those influences? Will there be the inclination to keep the injured person at home and support him in idleness? There will naturally be the temptation to do that. Also there will be a tendency for every one to wait upon him in every way possible. In the past the common practice has been to lavish such sympathy and charity on him that his very character has been demoralized by the intended but misdirected kindness. People have assumed him to be helpless and have only too often persuaded him to become so.

Every one has been guilty of giving alms to the person who sells shoestrings and in so doing has been actually hiring him to remain on the corner. That is rather a brusque way of speaking of it but it is a fact. By contributing to his support the passerby has added to this degradation. Occasionally there has been a reform movement of some kind and an effort made to drive the beggar from the street, but it has always failed because there was no constructive end in view. Where could the disabled person go? What could he do? Besides, the police were unsympathetic. They have their superstitions or sentiment or whatever it may be called, about the number of dependents stationed on their beat. It is good luck to have a familiar landmark that the officer can look for as he turns the corner. Naturally the police felt that the beggar, who never had harmed any one, was just being persecuted. The new method of approach is to educate the policeman to the satisfaction of being self-respecting and self-supporting and let him be the social agent to show the beggar how little the disability really matters to the person who has the will to surmount it.

The problem of the physically handicapped is one of the spirit. Perhaps an incident that occurred the other day will best illustrate this fact and incidentally show how difficult it is to visualize a bodily ailment that is not obvious. In a certain office I met a man forty years old who stood six feet two and was straight as an arrow. A moment later his father aged sixty-five came swinging in on his hands. His legs had been amputated at the hips. After being introduced to the lowly man who shook hands with me cordially, he said: "My son has been telling me of the work that you are interested in and since you know so much about it which of us is disabled—myself with no legs or this six-foot son of mine?" I told him that I could not answer that question until I knew their respective capabilities. Then he explained that he was in excellent condition except for the loss of his legs, which he did not need in the practice of law, while the younger man in spite of his marvelous physique had a hidden spinal injury which prevented him from bending at the waist more than an angle of 15 degrees. For this reason the son had to be very gradual in his movements through the danger of physical collapse. Yet despite this handicap he too was a successful attorney.

The public must not judge the physically handicapped by the eye alone. There are often circumstances to be taken into consideration which are not manifest. Among the victims of industry there are many whose injuries do not show on the surface, while only a small percentage of those returning from the front have visible wounds. Statistics recently compiled in England by the Ministry of Pensions, show that less than 10 per cent of the total casualities of the British troops are obvious disabilities. The new sense of public responsibility towards the handicapped must not be sight, but understanding.

How few think of all the thinking few
And many never think who think they do.

This fittingly describes our previous condition of public apathy towards the physically handicapped. It is not willful nor malicious but thoughtless and prejudiced.

The average person does not know that one who is disabled can be taught to do anything worth while. In fact until the results of reclaiming those maimed in the war were recently brought to his attention, he never had given the matter a thought. But his interest has now been aroused in the men wounded abroad and he reads with genuine happiness that the government has engaged to rehabilitate them. He wants to help and actually offers his services only to learn that in dealing with the disabled soldiers the proper place for all individual assistance is solely through the regular channels provided by the federal authorities. Then gradually our average person comes to appreciate the larger problem involved. He enumerates the handicapped people that he knows personally and feels a shock of satisfaction to find that they are all of superior intellect successfully competing with the able-bodied. This revelation inspires him. He is thrilled with a new incentive. The old proverb rings in his ears, "Where there's a will there's a way," and he realizes that his duty is to contribute the moral support and encouragement to all persons who have sacrificed their bodily wellbeing in the instrumentalities of civilization.

Can the physically handicapped count upon you also to recognise the supremacy of the spirit?

PHILADELPHIA SCHOOL FOR OCCUPATIONAL THERAPY

By Margaret A. Neall,
Corresponding Secretary.

The Philadelphia School for Occupational Therapy was organized in the spring of 1918, under the auspices of the Central Branch of the National League for Woman's Service. During the preceding winter many applications had been received at the Arts and Crafts Guild of Philadelphia for classes in handicrafts such as were needed by aides in reconstruction work. These continued applications made the need for a Philadelphia School of Occupational Therapy apparent, and at a meeting of the Executive Committee of the Guild, it was resolved to write to Teachers College, New York, for a program of the work done there, and to make a list of required crafts with volunteer teachers from the guild offering their services and the use of their studios to the students of reconstruction work. This offer was formally made to the Central Branch of the National League for Woman's Service, and enthusiastically welcomed by its chairman, Mrs. H. Gordon McCouch, and by her presented to Mrs. Edgar H. Baird, state chairman of the league, and Mrs. A. H. Reeve, state chairman of reconstruction work. Under its supervision, preliminary investigations were made as to what if anything was being done along these lines in Philadelphia, the policy of the league being to avoid duplication of effort and secure coöperation whenever possible.

Occupational training must not be confused with vocational training through which the disabled men are restored to a wage-earning plane. Though both occupational training and vocational training deal with re-education, and though they will inevitably overlap somewhat in their application, occupational training is essentially a form of medical treatment administered under direction of physician or surgeon, while the other is a form of technical training selected by the man himself, under the advice of workshop instructors, with a view to financial returns.

A canvas of the arts schools and institutions discovered a condition of readiness to work, but mystification as to what direction their efforts should take. The School of Industrial Art, the Philadelphia School of Design for Women, the Graphic Sketch Club, the Plastic Club, all whole-heartedly and enthusiastically endorsed the suggestion of the Arts and Crafts Guild and of Mrs. F. W. Rockwell, as amplified and developed by the Central Branch of the National League, and by their generous and valuable coöperation made the scheme of a Philadelphia School of Occupational Therapy possible. The Philadelphia physicians no less than the arts institutions were most helpful, encouraging from the beginning and unselfishly giving their time and energies towards putting the proposition on a practical basis.

The school opened on October 2. As the applicants are coming in daily, no accurate figures can be given of the number entered for the first term. Within a short period after the announcement of the school had been made in the newspapers, nearly two hundred requests had been received for circulars and application blanks and it is felt that the original limit of a class of forty-two may have to be extended. All applicants must be at least twenty-three years of age, either native or allied born, and possessed of suitable personality. The directors reserve the right to refuse admission to any applicant, and to grant admission only upon probation. . The course, as nearly as it can be outlined in advance, owing to reasons given later on, is as follows:

THE COURSE

THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF OCCUPATIONAL THERAPY

Lectures on psychology and the method of teaching disabled and invalid pupils; hospital conduct and personal hygiene.

Hospital Practice: Extensive practice in several Philadelphia hospitals, under conditions similar to those of the military hospitals, to give experience and self-confidence to the prospective aides.

Hours: Hours will be from 9 to 12 a. m. and 1 to 4 p. m. for five days, and until 12 m. on Saturdays.

Certificates: Certificates of Graduation will be issued to all students successfully completing the course. Graduates will also receive confidential letters of recommendation.

DESIGN AND CRAFTSMANSHIP

Applied Design to include the principles of design and the theory of color as applied to the subjects taught in this course.

Weaving to include hand looms, bead looms and simple rug and mat making, etc.

Basketry to include reed work, etc.
Block Printing applied to both paper and textiles.
Woodwork: whittling and carving.
Pottery: modeling.
Knitting, crocheting, needlework, rack knitting and beadwork.
Metal Work in its simplest forms.
Bookbinding: Simple book construction, such as portfolios, boxes, etc.

This Course includes Occupational Therapy as applied to the Deaf, Blind and Tuberculous.

As arrangements now stand, the classes in craft work will be divided between the School of Industrial Art, Broad and Pine streets, and the Philadelphia School of Design for Women, Broad and Master Streets. Both institutions have offered not only the use of their plants, equipment and floor space, but also the services of their teaching staff.

The interest and enterprise of the physicians have opened the wards of well-known hospitals to the aides for practice, and lectures on educational psychology, hospital routine, hygiene and sanitation, as applied to reconstruction work, will be given as the course proceeds. Owing to the need which the government has discovered for a wider field of knowledge for the aides, the course has been extended to eight months, with a provision that those already partially prepared, such as teachers and college graduates, along kindred lines, may complete it within a shorter period, the idea being to make it as intensive as possible.

In response to the government's notice of August 8—requiring expert knowledge along one or more of the following lines: Social worker; library service; teacher of adolescents or adults in industrial and fine arts, general science, English, commercial branches, free-hand drawing and design, mechanical drawing, telegraphy and signalling, French, manual training, agriculture (gardening and floriculture), music plays and games, mathematics (commercial and industrial)—the educational committee has offered all necessary facilities to the aides for these branches, and Mr. Gummere of the Penn Charter School has given his valued coöperation. In addition, facilities are given to the aides for practice in teaching the blind at the Overbrook Institution; lip reading experts will supervise the special training needed for the teaching of the deaf; and special training will be given for the tuberculous.

Mr. Fleisher of the Graphic Sketch Club has offered those premises for the use of the aides, and the School of Industrial Arts has given them a club room where it is hoped, in spite of scattered classes, to foster the school spirit which is such an important factor in maintaining high standards for work.

Mrs. H. Gordon McCouch, chairman of the Central Branch of the National League for Woman's Service, is chairman of the board of directors of the school, the members of which serve on the various special committees which are purposely kept as small as possible in order to accomplish the maximum amount of work with the minimum waste of time. The directors of the school are anxious to make the aides as valuable as possible to the government, and to do this the curriculum is kept more or less elastic in order that new courses may be added or unnecessary ones eliminated as the Surgeon General's experience may dictate. At the suggestion of the government the program tentatively made out last spring has already been twice enlarged, and the committee on curriculum is looking forward to further modifications or extensions as the course advances and new requirements are discovered.

While this school cannot guarantee positions to its students, the fact that the government is already sending out an urgent appeal for aides in military hospitals in this country and the fact that General Pershing has called for one thousand aides for service abroad, seem to give fair assurance that a valuable aide will find an immediate call for her services. The tuition fee for the course is the nominal one of fifty dollars, and it is hoped that several scholarships will make it possible for any one having the requisite qualifications, to attend the school.

RETURNING THE DISABLED SOLDIER TO ECONOMIC INDEPENDENCE

By Douglas C. McMurtrie,
Director, Red Cross Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men

It is surprising how very recent has been the development of the work of rehabilitating the disabled man. Up to ten years ago absolutely nothing had been done in that direction, and while the cripple received monetary compensation of one kind or another in the past, nothing was done to put him back on his own feet or to deal with him in a constructive manner. The only obligation acknowledged to the disabled soldier in the past has been the payment of a pension—which has not always been a help to the man in the long run. It has been a necessary provision, of course, but it did not go far enough. It was never enough to support a man, on the assumption that he was totally disabled, and has acted more or less as a subsidy which has not proven an encouragement for him to go out and earn his own living. We have dealt practically in the same way with disabled industrial workers. We have, even under the most enlightened legislation, compensated him for his disability in the form of a money pension and left him idle and without any means of getting back to usefulness. This is also, I am glad to say, in the process of change.

The first school for the disabled adult was established in 1908 in Belgium, at Charleroi, and was practically the only school in existence up to the opening of the present war. During the first couple of weeks of hostilities that school was swept out of existence by the German invasion. The next move was made in Lyons, France, in December, 1914. That institution was the fore-runner of all the other schools, of which there are now over one hundred in France alone. The work has been taken up by practically every other nation, it being realized that the only real compensation to the disabled man is to put him back again where he can be useful, where he can be productive, and in a position where he can be happy and contented.

Now when we talk about rehabilitating the disabled soldier, when we talk about taking a man who has lost an arm or a leg, or who has lost two legs, and sending him out to earn his own living again so that he will be able to earn as much as he did before, it does not sound plausible. The usual reaction will be: "That's all very well to talk about but can it be done?" I think I can demonstrate the logic of it by a couple of simple examples. Let us suppose that a man comes back from the front with both legs off. That is a serious handicap and he would ordinarily be classified under any pension scale as totally disabled, laid aside forever. Presume, however, that we take that man and teach him linotype operating, a job at which he will be seated all day long and which requires the use of only the head and the hands. Can that man turn out as good a day's work as the able-bodied worker next to him? There is absolutely no reason why he cannot. Let us presume that we have a man with only one arm, and that again is a serious handicap, because the arm cases are infinitely more difficult, generally speaking, than the leg cases, particularly in the case of manual workers. Let us suppose that we put that man in a furniture factory at a job as striper, that is, a man who takes the chairs after they have been painted and puts the stripes down the legs, or wherever the design calls for them. If you take a man with two hands and put him at that job he would probably keep one hand in his pocket because he will not have to use it. Is a man with one arm at all handicapped when placed at work of that character?

I was struck the other day when reading a document describing the work for the blind at one of the centers in Europe to learn that they had found successful employment for the blind in a clock factory at the job of testing out the gongs—spiral pieces of tempered wire, upon which the hours are sounded. One of the jobs is testing these gongs, listening to the tone, and then adjusting the gauge at the end to make the tone right. The blind are used almost exclusively for this work and perform it as well or better than sighted workers could do.

In finding jobs for the handicapped, we look at the disabled man's capabilities rather than at his disabilities, and if we look long enough and carefully enough we will find many jobs for which the individual disability does not disqualify. If men are trained and put in those jobs they will, of course, succeed. This is, however, not as easy as it sounds. It requires long and painstaking work.

The most successful mechanism for discovering possible jobs is what is known as the industrial survey, with special reference to the placement of the handicapped. Such surveys were undertaken first in a very informal way in Great Britain, where committees studied certain trades and published statements of what opportunities there were in those trades for disabled men. Canada then took up the work and has done a most thorough and intensive job. The Invalided Soldiers' Commission has surveyed industry after industry, listing every process in the fields covered with relation to men with all types of handicap—leg cases, arm cases, blindness, deafness and the like. Work of this character brings easily within range of the placement officer or vocational adviser a large number of jobs, which can be sifted down in relation to any individual case. Some will be found exceptionally favorable, others medium, and so forth, and there will be discovered many processes that could not be known of unless some such large scale operation were carried out.

What is the course of the disabled man from the battlefield on which he is wounded, back to self-support? He passes through the mechanism of the medical corps at the front, through the clearing stations and base hospitals, and when it becomes evident that he is no longer needed for military service and can no longer be useful for duty at the front, or that he will be laid up for a considerable period of time, he is invalided home. He passes here through the reconstruction hospital, which differs from the ordinary hospital, in layman's parlance, only in the more intensive treatment given. He is retained just as long as he profits by treatment, and the endeavor is to restore the man to the best physical shape possible.

While he is in the hospital, in addition to medical and surgical care, he is constantly under treatment of another character. In the first place he is there getting occupational therapy—something that will keep the mind active, something to drive away the tedium of idleness and keep him from thinking about himself, something that gets him again interested in life. Occupational work of a very simple nature is sometimes carried on at the bedsides or in the wards and serves the double purpose of interesting him and being of permanent value. For example, if a man who is in business in a small way can be interested while in the hospital in learning some of the principles of accounting, it will enable him when he goes out, to run his business better, and yet at the same time serve the therapeutic purpose in view. It will leave him at the end of the treatment with some definite asset as a result of his stay in the hospital.

One of the first necessities is to overcome the natural discouragement which comes when an able-bodied man—and the men of our forces are more than able-bodied; they are the pick of the country—when you take a man like that and strike him down from such full physical power and make him, as he thinks, a cripple for life, it is a very desperate experience. Our injustice to the disabled man in the past has made it even more of a despair than it should be, for he often happens to know of the man who used to work next to him in the factory and who lost an arm. Where is that man now? Well, the superintendent thought he would be good, and made a messenger's job for him. He is getting $12.00 a week now whereas he used to earn $30.00. The soldier also knows another man who was injured in the factory. What is he doing? Selling pencils on the main street. And so he could go on, practically without exception, thinking of case after case where disability meant practical hopelessness. That is what he visualizes as the future for himself, and in first dealing with him you have to grant that the deduction is theoretically correct and then simply endeavor to tell him that things have changed, that the matter is seen in a wiser way, and that much better provision is being made by the government to deal with his situation. At the earliest moment, men of high caliber should be brought in close, friendly, and confidential touch with the disabled man, to show him what there is ahead, and lead him to begin to think about his own plans.

Now, when he has once gotten a little spirit back, when his ambition is aroused again and he begins to think he can do something, the next necessity is to find what he shall do, and that necessitates what is known in some of the countries as a vocational survey. We have found, let us presume, through industrial surveys and other means what jobs are possible to the disabled. We are asked again and again, and I suppose everybody who is interested in this work has been asked the same question: What are the jobs for the one-armed man, what are the jobs for the one-legged man? For answer we must say that there are none. Experience has shown that for five hundred one-armed men there are probably four hundred different jobs that they might most profitably fill, and the chief criterion that has been found effective in determining the choice is the past experience of the man. You are dealing with a man—not with a boy who is making his first vocational choice. You are dealing with an adult who has had actual experience in jobs. That experience should not be wasted, but every effort made to conserve it. The principle may be illustrated by two superficial examples. Let us presume that we have a railroad hand, a brakeman, who has come home from the front with a leg off or a foot off. That is not a serious handicap in some senses but it would at least prevent him from hopping on and off freight cars. What are you going to train that man for? If you have found printing a good job for a man with a leg off, would you train that man to be a printer? The answer would be most decidedly negative, because such a course would waste all his past railroad experience. On the other hand, he might be trained to be a competent telegrapher and sent back to the railroad he worked for in the past. We can then say, "Here is John Jackson. He has worked for you for a number of years and you know him to be reputable, sober and steady. Although he cannot go back to his old job, he has been trained to be a competent telegrapher, and perhaps you can put him in the train despatcher's office or in a switch-tower on the road." The minute he gets that job all his past experience as to rolling-stock, time schedules, and railroad practice in general immediately comes into play, and is saved rather than thrown away.

The organization of re-education has varied in the different belligerent countries. In France the first school was started by a municipality, and other schools, in sequence, by an employer's association, a department, or state, a charitable organization, a trade union, and various other organizations. In fact, there exist today schools under almost every type of administration. The result is that the work varies widely. If you go to one city you will find the courses of a certain length, and if you go to another city you will find that they are only half as long—or twice as long. The result is that the advantages of the French soldier largely depend on how lucky he was in picking out a place of residence before the war. This is in some ways unfortunate and gives men in some localities a better chance than the men in others. The type of work varies tremendously, the standards being different in practically every school. The French saw the difficulty of this and have founded a National Office for War Cripples. That office endeavors to standardize the work but it has no real authority except in the control it exerts in the award of subsidies to some school. The office requests the schools to standardize, and sends out questionnaires, but does not get much further than that.

England's experience holds for us a lesson by which we have profited. In this work of re-educating the disabled, England found herself in no worse situation than any other country, although without any provision at all. The work did not start early. A great many of the disabled soldiers in the first year of the war were discharged, at a time when there were only two charitable institutions to which they could turn. These two did their best to meet the situation, but it was a bigger job than any charitable organization ever undertook before, and they were not able to handle the situation. The government stepped in and formed a statutory committee and gave that committee some funds, expecting further funds to be supplied by the charitably disposed public. But the British public did not consent to this and said to Parliament, "This is a national job. The soldier disabled in the service of Britain should certainly be taken care of at the expense of the nation." That was where the job belonged. So in the third year of the war the whole work—pensions, medical treatment after discharge, re-education, placement—was turned over to the Ministry of Pensions and is now under one single administration.

The only country that saw the job from the first as a national responsibility was Canada, and I think it is a very great and lasting credit to our northern neighbors that they did so. Practically from the beginning of the war, no Canadian soldier has had to be in any way dependent on charity or philanthropy.

In conclusion I want to point out the importance of two other factors upon which I did not touch before. You may have re-education, you may have schools, you may have hospitals, and they may be the best in the world, and yet the work is not going to succeed unless there are operative two human factors: first, the spirit and ambition and enthusiasm on the part of the man himself; and second, the understanding of the subject and the support of the program by the public at large.

We are amazed as this work goes on at finding all over the country cripples who, in spite of every disadvantage against them, in spite of the public attitude, in spite of no means of help at hand, have made good and have overcome their obstacles. The help of those cripples is a great service in dealing with other disabled men because they can do more than any one else to demonstrate what can be accomplished and to cheer the men along. There are also ways of bringing this kind of enthusiasm and this kind of encouragement to disabled soldiers. One thing that the Surgeon General of the Army has done is to prepare a series of films showing successful American cripples. This series of films is to be shown in military hospitals abroad and will provide a very graphic demonstration to a man who has been disabled that he is not down and out. Another feature is the publication of a "cheer up" book, which contains the autobiographies of successful cripples. In Germany they have used, with good success, a book under the title of "The Will Prevails." The Surgeon General's office is getting out a magazine called "Carry On," the object of which is inspirational—to give medical men, nurses, and all others concerned some idea of the purpose and character of the reconstruction work.

Dealing with the cripple himself is, perhaps, the easiest end of the problem, because if we do the work well and put real people into the game, he will take care of himself. The American is not easily downed and if you give him half a show he will "come across" with his end of the job. But to enlist the support of the public is a much more difficult thing. The public has not done much but injure the cripple in the past. If we train men and send them out into the community, with the public reacting to disabled men as it has in the past, the whole effort will be near a failure. This cannot be emphasized too clearly.

The family of the disabled man gives him no constructive help. The employer has always been willing to give the cripple charity but not willing to give him a job. The public at large has thought its duty to disabled men in general was discharged by offering them alms, or its duty to the disabled soldier largely fulfilled by entertainment.

One thing which will come home to us is the damage that is going to be done some disabled soldiers, through using them in a liberty loan campaign and other drives of a similar nature, to serve as object lessons, make speeches, and the like. The public may be in need of that kind of appeal, but it is certainly going to do the disabled men themselves no end of injury and it is going to be years before those men will recover from the effects of being made popular heroes in that way.

It is doing just the kind of thing that the people who are working with cripples are trying sedulously to avoid. We had a young Canadian come in to see us a little while ago. He was a disabled man who had been brought to this country by the Red Cross, and who had been going around making speeches. He came in to get employment and when he was asked what kind of work he wanted he said, "A job in some kind of propaganda." He did not want a trade employment or regular work but he wanted to go around, be in the public eye, and make speeches. I need not emphasize how injurious it is to have many of the ladies think that their duty to the disabled soldier is to entertain him at pink teas and in an unwise and inappropriate way. That again sets the man back. To entertain a man is easy but to give real thought to what you should do for him is hard. It is a public duty which we cannot impress too strongly, that every reaction, every influence on the returned disabled soldier shall be constructive, and help to build up character rather than aid in any way in breaking it down. That is the last link of the chain and that is something that the government or any other agency cannot provide. The public will decide whether the work of rehabilitating disabled American soldiers is going to be a complete success.

We know from the demonstrated results what can be accomplished. In the words of one European writer, "there are no more cripples," and the literal truth of this statement is in process of demonstration. There may be physical cripples, but certainly with the best provision and the best help of everybody concerned there need be no social and economic cripples consequent on the engagement of American forces in the defence of civilization.

EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES FOR PENNSYLVANIANS DISABLED IN WAR SERVICE

By Lew R. Palmer,
Acting Commissioner, Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry.

Pennsylvania was the first state in the Union to take definite action in preparing for the rehabilitation and proper placement in industry of its disabled soldiers and sailors returned from war service. Seven months before the Smith-Sears Vocational Rehabilitation Act was passed by Congress and approved by the President, the first step in a state-wide plan for proper placement in industry of war veterans handicapped by various types of disability, was outlined before a large group of employers, employes, industrial surgeons, representatives of civic and other associations attending the Fifth Annual Welfare and Efficiency Conference of the Department of Labor and Industry at the State Capitol at Harrisburg in November, 1917. It was realized, even at that early date, when comparatively few American troops were in Europe, that Pennsylvania, with its large population and great industrial plants, would be required to provide a large proportion of all the fighting men and munitions of war to go from this country and, consequently, that its rehabilitation problems would be correspondingly great.

Questionnaire Developed

One result of that conference, in addition to impressing the importance of the rehabilitation problem upon the industrial representatives present from all sections of the state, was the development of a questionnaire which, in January, 1918, five months before the Federal Rehabilitation Act was passed, was sent to 30,000 industrial plants in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. This questionnaire, in printed folder form, presented on its outside page a letter to employers, pointing out the importance of the rehabilitation problem and the necessity of proper reabsorption of disabled men at suitable tasks in industry.

The main questionnaire, on the inside of the folder, designated thirty-eight different types of disability and requested employers as a patriotic duty to specify, according to their knowledge, how many men handicapped by each type of disability they could employ and to specify at what tasks they proposed to employ them. The second questionnaire, on the back page of the folder, requested employers to give detailed information regarding the disabled men in their employ at the time the questionnaire was received. The purpose of this second questionnaire was to ascertain the positions held at that time by disabled men in the State of Pennsylvania as a basis for study of the rehabilitation work.

Several thousand industrial plants returned these questionnaires offering to employ at specific tasks approximately 50,000 men afflicted by various disabilities. It may be observed that the distribution of this questionnaire awakened employers throughout the entire state as to the importance of this work and not only provided a vast bulk of material of value for study in the final solution of the problem of placement of disabled men but also gave several thousand points of contact in Pennsylvania where intensive studies of occupations, specific tasks and general labor conditions may be made for the final proper placement of war-disabled Pennsylvanians in suitable and remunerative employment at or near their home communities.

STATE COMMITTEE APPOINTED

A Pennsylvania State Committee, comprising Adjutant General Frank D. Beary as Chairman, Dr. B. Franklin Royer, Acting Commissioner of Health, Lew R. Palmer, Acting Commissioner of Labor and Industry and Dr. J. George Becht, Executive Secretary of the State Board of Education, was appointed by Governor Brumbaugh, March 19, 1918, to study, in all its phases, the entire problem of rehabilitating crippled soldiers and sailors in Pennsylvania. That committee made a preliminary study of the problem and kept in close touch with the evolution of the national plans for rehabilitating the war disabled.

One of the benefits of this early activity of Pennsylvania was that it rendered the Commonwealth prepared, in a measure, to solve its own problem of rehabilitating its crippled soldiers and sailors in the event that the work had by any reason become decentralized and had devolved upon the several states. In other words Pennsylvania was prepared. This preparedness of Pennsylvania took definite form principally through the four administrative departments represented on the State Committee.

1. Through the State Department of the Adjutant General, the head of the military of the Commonwealth, and where records of Pennsylvanians in the service of the nation are collected and compiled.

2. Through the State Department of Health with its hospitals, tuberculosis sanatoria, dispensaries, staff and associate physicians and surgeons for physical reconstruction.

3. Through the State Board of Education, with its educational institutions equipped with dormitories, infirmaries, gymnasiums, laboratories and vocational training equipment and its well-developed state divisions of vocational training along industrial and agricultural lines for educational reconstruction.

4. Through the State Department of Labor and Industry with its:

Bureau of Employment, containing data regarding industrial opportunities and organization for placement of disabled war veterans in industry;

Division of Industrial Hygiene and Engineering, including industrial physicians and engineers, for analyses of tasks and determination of physical capabilities of disabled men proposed to perform such tasks;

Workmen's Compensation Board through which could be adjusted any tendency toward discrimination against disabled men as employes through fear of additional compensation costs.

It is altogether probable that the facilities of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania will be utilized by the federal authorities in the rehabilitation of disabled soldiers and sailors and in their replacement in industry.

RESULTS FROM QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire on the possibilities of employment for disabled men in industry sent to employers in all sections of Pennsylvania brought almost instant response from employers. Although these questionnaires, when completely answered, required considerable time and thought on the part of employers,—who at that time were absorbed in possibly the most active industrial era that Pennsylvania has ever known,—several thousand replies were received during the period from January 1, to July 1, 1918.

Many employers made surveys of their plants to determine to the best of their ability at what tasks disabled men could be satisfactorily placed in employment. The tasks thus specified by employers for men handicapped by varied disabilities, in many instances opened new lines of thought for the employment of such men. Many other replies were indefinite, merely stating that employment would be given disabled soldiers and sailors if it were pointed out in what tasks disabled men could be suitably employed in the various plants.

From the total number of replies to *Questionnaire 1*, designating the number of handicapped men that could be employed at specified tasks, the returns from 900 plants in 60 counties of the state were selected. These 900 plants proposed to employ 49,417 disabled workers. Those returns indicate that, on a general average, each employer agreed to place approximately fifty-five men,—an average which would further seem to indicate that the contemporary shortage of labor tended to increase some of the estimates on the questionnaires. However, an examination of all the data collected showed that in most cases the number of disabled employes compared with the number of plants offering places for such employes in the various counties were not greatly out of proper proportion. In this connection, it must also be considered that among the 30,000 industrial plants in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania there are between 650 and 700 establishments each employing more than 500 workers, and some of those plants employ thousands of workers.

The complete list of employment openings in Pennsylvania, tabulated from the questionnaires in the Bureau of Employment as to number of openings for handicaps under each of the various classes of disability is as follows:

Disability		*Number of Openings*
Loss of fingers	One hand	4,324
	Both hands	577
Loss of hand at wrist	One hand	545
	Both hands	4

Loss of arm below elbow	One arm	403
	Both arms	1
Loss of arm at shoulder	One arm	373
	Both arms	1
Stiff finger joints	One hand	2,421
	Both hands	1,889
Stiff wrist joint	One arm	1,381
	Both arms	489
Stiff elbow joint	One arm	853
	Both arms	51
Stiff shoulder joint	One arm	615
	Both arms	58
Partial loss of foot	One foot	2,135
	Both feet	473
Loss of foot at ankle	One foot	1,474
	Both feet	293
Loss of leg below knee	One leg	1,292
	Both legs	236
Loss of leg at knee	One leg	986
	Both legs	125
Loss of leg at middle of thigh	One leg	572
	Both legs	89
Loss of leg at hip joint	One leg	747
	Both legs	70
Stiffness of lower extremities	One leg	793
	Both legs	149
Blindness	One eye	5,618
	Both eyes	2
Deafness	One ear	5,936
	Both ears	612
Loss of speech		2,864
Repulsive facial disfigurements		6,797
Hernia		1,773
General health impairment, preventing heavy manual labor		957
Miscellaneous		1,439
Total		49,417

The places of employment offered such disabled workers ranged from steel mills to dairies, from silk mills to railroads, from cigar factories to paper mills and from lumber camps to department stores. Each reply received from an employer, indicating employment opportunities for crippled workers, has been classified in the Bureau of Employment, by industry, by locality, by task and by disability of workers for whom the employment was offered. It is obvious that each reply indicates an industrial plant for possible placement for disabled soldiers and sailors; and in these plants, surveys may be made for analyses of tasks as well as to determine the physical capabilities necessary to perform such tasks. The national officials, by authority of Act of Congress, will equip each disabled soldier and sailor with every suitable appliance to bring his physical efficiency to a maximum and will give him suitable treatment and training to fit him for tasks in industry he can most advantageously perform. From the classified employment lists, compiled in the Department of Labor and Industry, each Pennsylvania soldier and sailor disabled in war service will probably be able to obtain in his home state, a task for which he is best suited physically, a task that will give him greatest financial return according to his capabilities and that will probably be in the city or town where he most desires to reside.

The total of 49,417 employment opportunities included 47,321 in industrial work, 908 in clerical and commercial work, 16 in agricultural and 1,172 under miscellaneous classification. It will no doubt be most difficult to place in suitable employment soldiers and sailors having lost their right arm or both arms and the men who have been blinded. The few places offered for workers who had lost both hands or both arms were merely for tasks in which the disabled men would have managerial supervision over a group of workers.

The two places offered under blindness are telegraph operator and cigar maker. In each instance the replies stated that the peculiar conditions surrounding the employment in each case would permit the employment of a blind man. The telegraph operating position was qualified as a task in which the receiving of messages would be required and interpreted for transmission by telephone to a number of places. The task specified as cigar maker was merely for a unit process that a blind man could perform.

Employers throughout Pennsylvania, however, have been giving considerable thought to the proper utilization of the capabilities of blinded persons. For example, a large manufacturing plant in Philadelphia has, within the last few days, notified the Department of Labor and Industry that it is about to inaugurate a plan of employing blind persons on a dozen light drill presses. This work will be watched with much interest. Another employer, operating a large paper mill, has stated to the department that it is his belief that blind persons could be advantageously used in counting sheets of paper in some departments of the plant.

INDUSTRY'S CASUALTIES

The war has focused attention on the long lists of able-bodied men who have become maimed in warfare; and patriotic impulses combined with sound economic judgment have set in motion great forces to reclaim those disabled men as actual self-supporting producers. But at the same time the casualty lists of industry are larger, as a general average, than the casualty lists of war. And the casualty lists of industry continue in times of peace. Canada, with a population about equivalent to that of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, has an army of between 400,000 and 500,000 men and after four years of war, has had returned as unfit for further military service about 50,000 men, including between 1,000 and 1,500 amputation cases.

The list of Pennsylvanians wounded on the field of battle is creating much apprehension in the homes of soldiers and sailors and much attention from the general public. But a casualty list bearing, on an average, names of 650 workers injured in the industries of Pennsylvania, is received every day at the present time at the Department of Labor and Industry. Daily casualty lists of industrial injuries have, on some days during the last two and a half years, reached the total of one thousand and one hundred. An injury suffered by a Pennsylvania worker in a Pennsylvania industry is reported to the Department of Labor and Industry only when a worker is killed or disabled for a period exceeding two days.

During the last two and one-half years, ending July 1, 1918, reports of 577,053 injuries to workers have been received in the Department of Labor and Industry. That number includes 7,575 fatalities. If the army from Pennsylvania ultimately reaches the number of 500,000, and if the total number of wounded,—not the percentage of the total engaged,—equals in two and a half years the number injured in the industries of Pennsylvania during the same period, every man in that army of 500,000 will be injured once and more than 75,000 men in that army will be twice wounded during those two and one-half years. The army of industrial workers injured in two and one-half years in Pennsylvania is greater in number than the army that either Canada or Pennsylvania is sending against Germany.

These facts also serve to emphasize the vital importance of safety in industry, which the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry has been devoting its every energy to establish since its creation. Safety in industry is especially vital today when it is considered that industrial accidents remove from industry workers who are most precious in this time of war.

RESTORING PENNSYLVANIA'S DISABLED TO INDUSTRY

Pennsylvania is also taking the lead among the states in an effort to restore to industry, at suitable tasks, workers who have been permanently disabled through industrial accidents. Harry A. Mackey, Chairman of the Workmen's Compensation Board of the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry, has announced that the Compensation Board is not allowing to permanently disabled industrial workers commutation or lump sum payments of compensation unless such commuted payments are to secure a home, pay off a mortgage, to purchase artificial limbs or to defray the expenses of re-education in an established institution, equipped for such re-education work. The Compensation Board will not encourage the investment of small sums in non-essential undertakings, but will insist that the injured workman give society the benefit of such productiveness as is left to him and will enforce upon the employer the obligation of furnishing that opportunity.

As a first step in replacing permanently disabled industrial workers of Pennsylvania at suitable tasks in industry, the Compensation Board has instructed its adjusters to make a complete census of all compensation cases in which lump sum payments have been allowed during the two and a half years that the board has been in existence. The Compensation Board has also instructed its adjusters to investigate each case of permanent injury, including amputations where compensation has been paid or is being paid. In this manner, the board will endeavor to keep in personal touch with all permanent victims of injury and to give every aid toward their rehabilitation for economic independence. These activities of the Pennsylvania Workmen's Compensation Board are probably the first of the kind undertaken by any similar board or industrial commission in any state in this country.

Industrial accidents in Pennsylvania during the two years and a half, ending July 1, 1918, resulted in 3,798 amputations of arms, legs, hands, feet, fingers and toes, and the loss of 1,157 eyes. The amputations in the Canadian army during four years of war are said not to have greatly exceeded 1,200. It has been stated in the spring of 1918 that there had been thirty-four Canadian soldiers blinded during almost four years of war. In the shorter period of only two and a half years, ending July 1, 1918, there had been twenty-nine workers totally blinded in the industries of Pennsylvania. Of those twenty-nine men blinded by accidents in Pennsylvania, one worker also lost a left hand, one a right arm and one both hands in the accidents that blinded them. During those same two and a half years five workers lost both hands, one of whom lost also one eye; six workers lost both legs; three workers lost both feet; four workers lost both an arm and a foot; five workers lost both an eye and a hand; two workers lost a leg and a foot; two workers lost an arm and a leg and two workers lost both arms.

There can be little doubt that the same economic judgment which inspires the project of reclaiming men wounded in warfare will perpetuate after the war the great project of reclaiming men maimed through industrial accidents.

PLACING THE DISABLED IN INDUSTRY

By Gertrude R. Stein,
Employment Secretary, Red Cross Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men

Formerly, if you met a beggar cripple on the street you dropped him a penny. Sometimes the thought crossed your mind "Maybe this man can work." You then inquired among your friends as to a possible job for the man. Finally your brother-in-law told you he could employ him. It never struck you to try to discover whether the beggar suited the job he had open, and your brother-in-law's chief thought in taking the new employe was to please you. The man remained a day at work. For a few weeks after that, you avoided your brother-in-law, as you were not anxious for the details of the disorganization the beggar had wrought in his day's visit at the factory. This is an example of the old kind of employment work and it is the type of placement that has been made for many years for normal as well as handicapped men.

Employment work is a very different thing from the hit-or-miss sending out of men to jobs for which they may or may not be suited. To place a man efficiently means to adjust him to the industrial world in a manner most helpful to himself, his employer and his whole social surroundings. This is a big aim. It will be many years before our employment work will reach this perfect condition, but until it approximates it, it is almost as useless as though it were not done. Most placement work is carried on no more effectively or intelligently than a man can do himself by answering the help advertisements in the newspapers.

The inception of the United States Employment Service has made us all ponder on what an ideal public bureau should be. Public employment bureau work in the United States is having its chance now. It must stand or fall on its merits. I have enough faith in human effort to believe that the United States Employment Service will be successful. It can only succeed, however, if the country comes to realize its tremendous importance in our economic adjustments during the present crisis, and after the war. Its problems are many and varied. Employment work needs the help of all the brains in the country at the present moment.

In initiating an employment bureau for the handicapped we have the advantage of having a small bureau. We can work for perfection of technique rather than for large figures in placement. In a large bureau, one is hampered by the insistence of the multitudes passing through the doors each day, and by the constant demand for large figures in statistics, and one is apt to go back to the old hit-or-miss methods. In a small bureau for the handicapped there is no excuse for neglecting any tiny detail which would prevent each placement from being as nearly perfect as human effort can make it.

I have had a vision of what such a bureau for the handicapped should be. It is not a thing which can be described dogmatically because I believe no organization of this kind is truly valuable unless it is flexible. As new improvements occur in economic thought and technique there must be adaptations. Forget your conception of the old bureau with men standing in stolid, dissatisfied lines; with unintelligent clerks filling out endless cards with material that has little bearing on the proper vocational guidance of the applicant; with the sending of workers to jobs for which they are not suited; and with the constant complaints of angry employers. My picture is a black one, but it is only because I know that with the handicapped man we must and will do something better than I am describing it.

The new bureau I will picture is one which is aimed to assist the social and economic adjustments of every applicant who comes in for work. Employment work does not mean the mere securing of positions. Any amateur can register a call for help and send an applicant to a position. Employment work means the securing of the chance for the man to make a livelihood at congenial work where he has an opportunity to make use of his best powers and potentialities. The new bureau will be based on scientific fact. It will gather statistics so that it can base the changes it makes in its organization on facts, not conjectures. The new bureau will be businesslike and efficient. It must offer a real contribution to every applicant who comes to its doors.

POINTS INVOLVED IN THE REGISTRATION OF APPLICANTS

The registration of the applicant and the first interview are the opportunities for giving vocational guidance and for accustoming the crippled man to planning out some sort of work career for himself. It is not for the placement worker to insist on what the applicant is to do but rather for him to lead the cripple into thinking of his work career as a problem he is to solve himself with the aid of an expert. The great mistake in dealing with the handicapped in the past has been that they have been led around by apron strings, and have spent most of their time in commiserating themselves upon their fate, rather than in making an effort to improve their situation. The crippled man is surprised to meet some one who treats him like a normal man, and instead of offering merely sympathy speaks of employment as an event of the near future.

There is a decided advantage in having the placement worker give this vocational advice, because he has so many instances of other men successfully placed to cite, in encouraging the applicant to think that he too has the same chance for success. The placement worker also has the decided advantage of being in constant touch with the supply and demand of labor. This advice is based not on theoretic knowledge but on the facts he gathers day by day on the opportunities in industry for cripples.

The registration of the applicant is much more complicated than in the old bureau, but it is explained to the applicant that a more effective placement can be made if the questionnaire is completely filled out. As full a medical history is secured as is possible and the cripple is told what work is unsuitable for a man in his physical condition. The home history is recorded so that the family background can be understood to some degree.

The applicant is questioned as to his education and as to any special training. Where the man desires clerical work, he should be given a clerical test. A study of the educational history gives one the opportunity to speak of the possibility of further training. An employment worker, who does not make use of this chance of inducing cripples to take further technical training is only doing half of his job. One must always remember that this new kind of placement worker is not only endeavoring to collect large statistics of positions secured, but is working rather for the best adjustment for each applicant. This point cannot be emphasized enough.

The placement worker who is not thoroughly acquainted with the educational resources of his city is not effective. What more fortunate place is there in which to speak of the advantages of further education to the adult than the employment bureau? An unskilled cripple is worth about twelve dollars a week. If he has training, you can show him that you can later offer him positions paying twice as much.

The work history of the applicant is recorded in great detail. It is important that this record be complete. Frequently some latent inclination or talent is discovered in the position held for a brief time, rather than in the one held for a longer period. If we truly want to discover what employment will be congenial to the man, we can only do so effectively by having him talk in detail about his past work history, its successes and its failures. It must be explained to the applicant that an employer is to take him because his industrial history warrants us in thinking that he is suitable for the work and that with the training he will get in the factory he can advance there.

The vocational guidance is the difficult part of the task of readjustment of the crippled man. The mere placement is comparatively simple to one who is acquainted with the technical side of the subject.

SYSTEM OF PLACEMENT

The securing of positions has become a much simpler matter now that coöperation between various employment bureaus is an established fact. In New York we have an effective clearing house which is invaluable in widening the opportunities open to crippled men. Every method of publicity and advertisement must be used to bring the fact before the employer that here is a bureau organized more carefully than the average bureau, and which is prepared to give him effective service. For it is true that a placement bureau for the handicapped must be more efficient than the average bureau, or it will not live. One cannot expect employers to use such a bureau in preference to one where they get normal men, unless their demands for help are filled as effectually. The bureau must have a file of satisfied employers who can be called upon when a particular applicant seems suited for their particular job. An employment bureau for the handicapped which does not make use of all of these opportunities for enlarging the chances open to its applicants is not fulfilling its whole task. An employment bureau for the handicapped should be capable of securing a position for a teacher as well as for an elevator man, for a draftsman as well as for a lathe hand.

An industrial survey of the opportunities for cripples in the city must go on at the same time as the employment work and in conjunction with it. This is an effective method of discovering new opportunities. It is the most scientific method of finding the processes of industry for which the handicapped are suitable.

This whole system of placement is valueless unless it is properly followed up. Frequently a man secures a position for which he is utterly unsuited. He becomes discouraged and enters the army of the unemployed. A little reminder from the employment office just at the time when he is losing heart is very helpful in giving him a new impetus to work. The applicants should be urged to visit the bureau frequently and an evening office hour should be arranged for that purpose. They should be induced to correspond with the office about difficulties that arise in their work. Follow-up work in the factories should be discouraged because it makes the cripple feel that he is to receive special attention in his workplace. It is much better to advise the man and have him settle his industrial difficulties himself.

By keeping systematic and full records and by a follow-up system, one can gather a mass of valuable industrial facts by one of the most economical and effective methods of which I know. A man is apt to tell you the true facts about his industrial history more readily when he realizes that by giving you these facts he is helping himself, than he is if he thinks one is just making a theoretic investigation valueless to himself. The employment bureau I describe can gather a limitless number of scientific facts. In new ventures of this kind in the future, we can base our organization on facts, not conjectures, if our knowledge is honestly secured.

No bureau can be truly valuable unless it is flexible. With the experience gained from scientific facts let us hope that we can be ever changing our methods, so that some day we can see effected the finer type of employment bureau. Let us offer to every disabled man a system of rehabilitation as perfect as we can plan it. Let us feel that we have left no stone unturned to give him "a square deal."

THE EMPLOYMENT OF DISABLED SERVICE MEN

By Frederic W. Keough,

National Association of Manufacturers of the United States of America.

Illustrated feature stories on the re-education of the wounded soldiers and sailors usually describe mechanical and human miracles. Such presentations of the subject cause us to think that there is an enormous task ahead of us in making, by mechanical means, whole men out of little more than remnants. To accept this as indicative of the problem of re-education is to warp the judgment and misdirect the general endeavor. At the outset, let it be understood that the causes of military disability are, to the extent of at least 50 per cent, of a medical nature. A disabled soldier or sailor is not necessarily a man without legs or arms.

Ninety per cent of all returned wounded men go back to their old jobs. With them the employment problem is simple. Only ten per cent have to be re-educated. Undoubtedly many more men are injured annually in American industries than we may expect in a year's war. Seventy per cent of all men injured in war or peace never had a trade. Consequently the teaching of any trade or any kind of machine operations to this seventy per cent gives them better incomes and easier work than their former occupations. To the extent of over ninety per cent re-education is nothing more than common, ordinary industrial education—in established industrial schools, in day, continuation, and night classes, and in factories when the crippled man is so nearly competent to do the proposed work that the employer can properly put him to work, supervised by some one in the establishment.

In putting disabled men back into industry, there is no room for the spectacular. Our soldiers will go the limit in their military life and we will go the limit in appreciation and care of the injured. Until now, however, and apparently in prospect also, re-education means, and can mean, only the kind of industrial training that is always given in educationally intelligent countries to all workers who need it, with only a little more intensive personal consideration of the capacities and limitations of the pupil. Existing facilities for industrial training may need to be greatly increased because of returning soldiers, but they need to be increased anyway, because America has only begun to provide facilities for the industrial training of her working people. The development of existing facilities along the usual lines will enable these extensions to serve perfectly in later peace times.

The life of a wounded soldier or sailor returned to industry will be pretty much what he himself makes it. If he takes it up with the energy and decision that carried him through battle, he will come through in a way entirely satisfying and gratifying to himself. The results will be commensurate with his own efforts. The man who finds and loves his work will be bountifully repaid.

For the needs of industrial production, to pay for the immense indebtedness of the nation, to carry out the developments of peace, the country will require not only the men who went to war but new hands to take the place of those gone forever. To expand beyond the pre-war stage will supply occupation for every hand that can be induced to work. When the war is over, business men will be forced to utilize the capabilities of the cripple, trained and untrained, and of the blind. The labor supply will not increase as rapidly as the needs of business.

Bringing the physically unfit and disabled man to an irreducible minimum is a national obligation. In caring for disabled soldiers and sailors, no source of possible benefit to their condition should be left unexhausted. If disabilities make it inadvisable for a man to follow his former employment, he should be fitted for a new occupation by appropriate training.

But of what avail is all this if the injured man is not afforded opportunity adapted to his capabilities? The number and character of industrial opportunities are the determining factor in the success of any effort to rehabilitate disabled men. Unless manufacturers are willing to employ restored and re-educated men; unless it is known how many and what kind can be taken into industrial establishments, the workers will stand idle in the market place.

The problem of the handicapped man is not a new one, for he has been with us for a long time and our records of industrial accidents, even for a year, ought to supply us with enough material for the problem of what to do with them. The matter of rehabilitation of the men disabled in the present war will be a matter of national concern for at least fifty years. It should be approached soberly, therefore, and with none of the hysteria that attaches to the homecoming of the military hero. It is one thing to welcome back a soldier in uniform and if he is suffering from the effects of wounds to overload him with attentions. When he lays aside the military garb and pursues the path of the civilian, the honors and attentions that have been showered on him are likely to cease.

The United States has resolved that every returned soldier shall have a full opportunity to succeed. When necessary, war cripples must be thoroughly trained in schools and industry, and industrial opportunities must be disclosed for those who need occupation. Jobs must be adapted to them, in order that they may become competitors in every sense with the workers who are whole. Occupations that do not exist must be brought into being. Certain work must be reserved for cripples, and devices must be discovered and adapted that will fit the victims of war back into all the ordinary activities of life.

How work can best be provided and adapted to crippled men is in the long run an individual problem, which must be met and solved by each employer. The attitude of the typical employer is most likely to be this:

"I am first an American, a patriot, and willing to do my share in every national duty. I will privately aid these men in every way possible; but I am also a manufacturer with economic responsibilities to my stockholders, employes and others and as such I cannot consider these men for employment unless I am convinced it is a sound business proposition."

The bulk of the evidence at hand proves that the restoration of the crippled soldier to industry can be carefully worked out, so that it will represent a sound business proposition for the employer, a fair opportunity for the wounded worker, and an economic advantage to the community.

The two most important phases of the question, so far as manufacturers are concerned are: First, how much and what form of coöperation can be expected of the employer? Second, what must be the contribution of the disabled worker?

As to what lines of industry hold possibilities, letters from executives give assurance of openings in a surprisingly large number of industries. As a general rule, it may be stated that industries requiring great strength and endurance, rather than skill, hold fewer opportunities than those where the processes are duplicated and skill in operating machines is essential. In industries having numerous power processes, it has been found than almost any machine at which the operator can sit, can be run by a workman who has lost one or both legs.

Particular study is needed in each particular plant to find out where men can best be fitted in. In this respect, every manufacturer can be of great assistance, simply by telling other manufacturers of any means he may devise for employing a man who has lost any of his members. A manufacturer may discover a way of employing crippled soldiers not known to other manufacturers, and nothing can be more patriotic than passing on the information. Many have already shown a keen interest and deep appreciation of the problem by giving to the National Association of Manufacturers detailed information about places within their processes in which disabled men could be utilized. A digest of letters received reveals a wide range of opportunities and these comprise but a partial list.

FIELDS OPEN TO THE DISABLED

In the clerical field are undoubtedly the greatest number of openings. Unlimited places are offered in the shipping, receiving and bookkeeping departments of almost every factory. Stenography and typewriting likewise hold possibilities, particularly for the blind. In France, numerous blind soldiers have been trained to take dictation on a special machine, and they transcribe their notes rapidly and accurately. Clerical work, of course, requires that the injured man possess a certain grade of intelligence and general education, and when either is lacking, the task of placing him in industry becomes more difficult. Obviously we cannot turn all our injured soldiers into the clerical field. The great majority will by natural inclination and training return to factory work.

Machinery building firms state that they have numerous opportunities, and almost all the prominent automobile manufacturers make similar expressions. One great automobile plant has stated that at present it has in its employ 1,500 more or less disabled men, and out of these, almost 300 are suffering from the loss of either hands or legs; these crippled men, when placed in work that is properly adapted to them are found just as efficient as the other workers, showing that the crippled worker can hold his own with his fellowmen, if placed in the right surroundings. This may almost be taken as a general rule for all industries in which the crippled worker is to be utilized.

Representative boiler-making firms state that in their engine rooms and machine shops, men with but one leg can be utilized, while from tool makers, shoe manufacturers, who state that they can utilize one legged workers as edge trimmers, etc.; hook and eye manufacturers, clothiers and hatters, metal novelty firms and even from iron foundries and machine shops, comes the same opinion. Manufacturers of various accessories such as spark plugs, electrical goods, telephone equipment, porcelain specialties, etc., also offer openings in their plants.

In the plate glass industry, a workman suffering the loss of a leg can be used to much greater advantage than one with the loss of an arm, although the latter can also be utilized. A phonograph company states that unquestionably it will have places where men who might be disabled by the loss of a leg can be used, and this opinion has also been voiced by a multigraph firm, by the wire and cable industry, the machine building industry and by numerous metal firms. In the underwear industry many firms have offered to take disabled men, and one even offered to employ them up to one-sixth of their operating force.

A cooperage plant in Ohio offers to take at least five men, and several tanneries have made similar offers. A watch case firm in Philadelphia states that in this industry a considerable number of people can be employed on operations that are performed entirely with the worker sitting. Piano manufacturers and paper companies make the same statement.

It is the general opinion that on account of the heavy nature of the iron and steel industry, few openings are possible for the crippled worker; but a large steel corporation in Chester, Pa., announces that it will be willing to take from eighteen to twenty disabled men, and a New Jersey iron worker makes the same offer. A Detroit steel casting company announces that in the core room a considerable number of these workers could be employed; as all the materials are brought to and taken away from the men. A large stove manufacturer in Milwaukee is confident that he can utilize at least 100 such workers in his business.

The printing industry undoubtedly holds many opportunities, for many of the smaller machines, particularly in the composing room, can be operated while the worker is sitting. A man familiar with linotype composition work, who might be blinded, may easily manage the keyboard by the touch system.

In the list of industries holding opportunities for the men crippled in their lower limbs, the positions named are almost entirely in the regular processes of the work; but it must be remembered that in almost every factory, no matter in what line, there are numerous odd jobs requiring both intelligence and skill which are particularly suitable for disabled men. These include such positions as gatemen, carpenters, watchmen, inspectors, shipping and receiving clerks, elevator men, etc., and one factory announces that it is particularly ready to coöperate in this work because its employment manager and safety engineer are both cripples. Any factory preparing to give employment on a large scale to crippled men who would have to be taught in the plant, could do no better than to have a crippled man as teacher of the various processes, because his knowledge of the worker's limitations, as well as of the work to be taught, will give him a peculiar sympathy and tact in dealing with a difficult subject.

In the foregoing, the opportunities have been noted principally for men who have the use of both arms, yet many men suffering from the loss of arms will have to be replaced in industry. At first sight the task seems hopeless, but correspondence with various firms who either employ or are willing to employ such cripples, shows that the places are much more numerous than would at first be expected.

A manufacturer of band saw machinery in Michigan announces that one of his employes who lost an arm some years ago earns as good wages as if he had two. A silicate book slate company which employs only eighteen men is willing to take three or four who lose either an arm or a leg, while a furniture company offers to take twenty-five similarly crippled. The lumber industry seems to offer numerous possibilities in this line, and many firms, notable among them a Chicago company, offered to take a number of workers who have one good arm.

For men so disabled, the chemical industry is particularly inviting, for the large number of processes which require little manual labor but careful watching, make it possible to employ a man lacking both arms, and one chemical firm in Maryland has offered to take fifteen such men and train them to watch processes. An Ohio chemical firm makes a similar offer, and I believe that these replies may be taken as an index of the general condition of the industry. Another offer for men with one arm gone comes from a wheel manufacturer, and is followed by one from a maker of wire nails, who says that he could use the crippled men to pack the nails in small boxes.

Another industry from which are received several offers of positions for one-armed men, is cement manufacturing, and one firm undertakes to take five such men in each of its three factories, to supervise the operation of machinery. Another cement firm offers to use a man with but one good arm in sorting and inspecting returned sacks which have been used to carry the product. A Pennsylvania manufacturer in packing materials says he can use eight men with but one good arm, and he further states that he saw a man with two artificial arms and hands perfectly able to feed himself.

One offer comes from a manufacturer of automatic knitting machines, in which he states that from ten to fifteen cripples suffering from the loss of one or both legs could be used. In the knit goods industry several firms have offered opportunities, and as many of the machines can be tended by the operator sitting down, many such places can be filled by returned soldiers. Of course, fine weaving, beaming and winding cannot be performed by anyone suffering from the loss of his fingers or a hand; but there are numerous other processes in which undoubtedly such injured men can be fitted in. A clothing firm which manufactures shirts, overalls, underwear and kindred lines, states that it is possible for it to use a number of men who have lost either an arm or a leg, while a most interesting letter from a silk manufacturer in Philadelphia states that one of his most efficient workers is lacking an arm, and is now employed to advantage in the distribution of filling yarn to the weavers. This is an excellent illustration of adapting work to the man's injury, and one that can well be followed in other lines.

In addition to the examples cited which have been brought to my personal attention through contact with American manufacturers, I have learned from English authorities of numerous industrial opportunities which they have discovered through their own experience. One possibility of employing returned soldiers is as attendants at electricity sub-stations, especially the smaller ones, of which there are a considerable number in the United States. It has been found in England that the work can be done by men with one leg as long as they can stand for at least two hours at a stretch. Men who have lost one eye can also be employed, provided the sight of the other eye is normal. At a few stations men who have lost either arm can be used, provided there is no heavy-running machinery.

Another line of employment which English authorities have developed for their returned soldiers is in motion picture theatres, where the men can be employed as operators, door keepers and attendants. The operators and operators' assistants require the use of both arms and all fingers, but men who have lost one or both legs can be employed. The door keepers and attendants can be men with but one arm or those not strong enough for any heavy work.

English authorities give additional information about the leather goods trade, which they have found holds numerous opportunities for the disabled in the manufacture of hand sewn boots, shoe making and shoe repairing.

Tailoring is also another industry in which they have found numerous openings. There are also the various departments of the furniture trade. These last include machine work such as sawing, planing, molding, boring, jointing, dove-tailing and sand papering, which machines can be operated by men with one or both legs gone provided they are suitably equipped with artificial limbs. Polishing furniture and upholstery have offered opportunities to men with but one arm.

There is another class of workers to be cared for—the partially or totally blind. So much is being done for this one class that the manufacturer need concern himself very little about their problems. But it is interesting to note, as already stated, that in France they have been employed with great success as stenographers and typists, and an electrical manufacturer in the United States has discovered that they can be employed with great success in winding armatures. These are but two possible lines which have been developed, and undoubtedly with the many agencies now handling the work, further opportunities will be discovered.

These illustrations have been taken more or less at random, to prove that no industry is entirely closed to these workers if the manufacturer will but look around his plant in a careful manner and with due consideration to the injury of the worker. He will find that numberless places present themselves, and I believe that our crippled workers will appreciate the opportunities offered and prove themselves worthy of them.

It has been the experience of firms already employing disabled men that they are so keenly appreciative of the opportunity offered, that their spirit of willingness more than makes up for the disability. Several of our correspondents who have cripples in their employ have stated this. But it has been most aptly summed up by a New England firm which says that the crippled workers in its employ are so satisfactory, that the writer has often wished that he had more such men.

FACTORS ESSENTIAL TO THE SUCCESS OF THE DISABLED

It is essential that it be impressed upon our disabled men that their spirit and attitude toward their work are the biggest factors in their success. Manufacturers on the whole are ready to give them every opportunity, but the will to make good must be strong in the workers. One firm has summed it up by saying that there is always something a cripple can do, even in the way of pure manual labor; but his value to himself and to his employer depends very largely on his own attitude towards the work. A crippled man in the employ of this firm writes the following, reproduced literally:

> I have never had trouble in obtaining work, although the man who has hired me will generally say "You are lame, aren't you?" Most of my work has been clerical, but the last three years I have worked on a milk team, cooked aboard a private yacht and canvassed for mail order houses, besides watchman at the Aeroplane Company. I can lift a good weight, but cannot carry, and can take a hand at most anything. I think after the war is over our maimed soldiers should take account of what they had done and then think out something they think they now can do along in that line and then go after it. Confidence with a fair education are, I think, the things that will aid our men.

The need of employing every available worker will be with us not only this year and next but for far in the future. Employers are glad to take disabled soldiers and sailors into their establishments, and give them training that will enable them to put out a first class product, but they have to keep in mind at all times the necessity of production. Therefore, they do not wish to give disabled men work that, in the language of the day, will "hold them for a while." Many of the physically handicapped who cannot work at the bench and earn the old rates of pay, can, however, apply their proficiency in receiving instructions and imparting them in the supervision of other workers.

In the consideration of the crippled soldier problem, it must be kept in mind that there is little, if any, sentiment in business any more than there is any patriotism in politics. Employers are not in business for their health or for philanthropic motives; they are merely middle men who sell their products for their real worth, and neither the employer nor the employe can get more out of anything than he puts into it. The reward of the workman, therefore, is in accordance with the proficiency and skill which he expends.

The fact that a man is a disabled soldier or sailor is not enough to place him in any systematic manufacturing plant. He must be productive. If he displays any aptitude for training he will be taken in, instructed and paid while learning, and he will be shown that merely average production is expected of him.

Many of the wounded men who return will require no special training, and these naturally will be the first to find their way back into industry. They will be welcomed, for war is teaching us the necessity of conserving and utilizing every ounce of our labor strength. The returned soldier can always find work, for mature men are teachable, and the returned soldier will be so thoroughly in earnest that the instructor will not only be surprised with the rapidity with which he picks up the work, but the accuracy which he can command.

The disabled service man looks forward with joy and anticipation to the day when he will get back to work. There need be no thought of coercion in restoring such men to industry. The suggestion of the surgeon of the early possibility of a wounded soldier taking up his old-time vocation is always gladly accepted.

Manufacturers and employers are interested and satisfied with the well-defined policy that has been laid down by the federal government, through the Smith-Sears act, which places in the hands of the Federal Board for Vocational Education the duty to discharge one great debt of the state to the victims of war. Those requiring training and retraining will participate in the most advanced reconstruction program attempted by any nation.

Every American soldier on the firing line ought to be buoyed up by the consciousness that if he suffers injury, his wounds will be healed, his return home will be expedited, his special occupational ability will be analyzed, his ambition stimulated and every effort will be made to enable him to gain a position of economic independence. He can feel in his heart that the hardships he undergoes are appreciated, and know that a sincere effort is being made for him.

The men interested in the work of rehabilitating injured soldiers are not restricting their imagination to the present. They are looking forward to a period after the war, when hospital reconstruction and trade re-education will continue, reducing the wastage of civil life and adding to the new spirit of coöperation between capital and labor.

With the field of labor ploughed as it never was before, there may be not merely one job, but ten for every soldier uninjured or disabled. It will take a brave prophet to indicate the condition of the labor market after the war. The provident manufacturer will, however, as far as possible forecast the situation. He will discount the conditions that obtained at the conclusion of the Civil War, when the boundless west extended its arms in its opportunities to the returning soldier; he will realize first of all that the industrial nations, England, France, Russia, and even Germany, whatever the status of this pariah may be—will strain every competitive trade effort; he will bid high for labor; he will rejoice when the old men come back; and to the disabled he will extend not merely sympathy, but opportunity.

The message of the employers of America is this:

To Our Men Who Have Fought the Good Fight:

> Every American manufacturer is proud of you, and the splendid spirit you have shown. They want you to feel that they stand ready to coöperate with you in every way that can show appreciation of your sacrifice—both now and after the war.
>
> There are limitless openings in industry for you. Come back to work with the same spirit you have shown in fighting—and you'll make good.
>
> In the long run, success depends on your spirit, and we know that won't fail. You have had a chance to show your mettle "Over There"—and you have lived up to the opportunity. Come back with the same determination to be an independent, self-supporting member of the community, and the American manufacturer will see that you have every opportunity to realize your ambition.

A PRACTICAL HELP FOR CRIPPLES, AN OPEN SUGGESTION TO ALL EMPLOYERS OF LABOR

By Francis W. Mack,
A. & M. Haydon Company, Philadelphia.

In this article I am going to give a little of my experience in hiring handicapped men. I have hired altogether about nineteen or twenty. I have had about seven infantile paralysis cases, I have had about six with one leg off, one without any legs at all and one demented. I also have one partly blind and I have had one paralyzed from the hips down. I could always find work for them and I have found that they are very good workmen. I still have some of them, while some of them have graduated, you might say, and gotten better positions. Some of these that I have employed were twenty-three or twenty-four years old and had never worked before in their lives, were never employed, never had anything and had always been depending on somebody to keep them. Some of them have taken a night course at Peirce's College. One of them I believe today, who has had infantile paralysis, and has one leg eight inches shorter than the other and the left hand a little short, is making five dollars a day in Ford's as a stenographer. He took up that course. Another one has taken a course in bookkeeping. He has a leg off, and I believe he is today with the United States Express Company at 12th and Market Streets.

I have found in my experience that some of them were wicked, and that while you could handle some with gloves others you would have to handle by force. Taking their work for the year round, I would imagine that they do more than a boy or young man with all his faculties, because they come in in the morning fresh; they were not running around the streets and were not out late at night, and so were better able to go to work in the morning. As it is now I have about five or six—I have one colored man there with a leg off and hip out of place. I have another with a leg off—a boy about fifteen years of age. As I said before, I have one partly blind and paralyzed, and another one partly demented. He is a man who could not count, could not tell time, and, in fact, he cannot do anything unless he is told to do it. Nobody would hire him until I hired him. I have another one paralyzed from the waist down. I understand that happened through his parent's neglect when he was very young. He was kept by the Children's Aid Society up to the time that he came to me and asked me if I could not do something for him. He is making good. Somebody has to supply him with material as he cannot go after it, neither can he lift any heavy pieces; these have to be lifted for him.

I think there are other manufacturers in this country and in this city who could employ more of these cripples if they would give a little bit more time—have somebody to wait on them. I had one occasion where the representative of a big factory in this town came out to see me to ask about my experience with these cripples, how I found them, and what kind of work I gave them to do, week work or piece work. I told him piece work, because then the men got paid for what they did, and I took them up—one of the State Employment Bureau agents being with him—and let them see them at work. The only objection the manufacturer raised was that he was afraid of their coming down-stairs, as there are three or four flights of stairs in his plant, and if these people had to come down all those stairs there might be some accident. I told them, however, that I always allowed them to go ten or fifteen minutes earlier, and by doing this they could get a car to go home without being in the crowds. With reference to accidents, I want to say that I have not had as much as a scratch to one of them. These men are very careful about every step they take, and you do not find them running around or standing talking to the others. I think our traction companies when the soldiers come home could use many of the one-armed and one-legged men as conductors, and I think that every man in the army that comes home with a leg off or an arm off could find employment, between the railroads of the United States and the street cars. In my experience in traveling in business I find that in making out a railroad receipt it is a form that is copied from one to the other, and a man or boy does not have to have brains to do it. All he has to have is good sight and be able to copy the receipt. If you refer back to our last Civil War, you will find that things were different then from what they are now. Our men did not have the education that our boys have over there. I think that every one of them can make good in some kind of office, and work as well, whether he has a leg or arm off.

THE ORGANIZATION AND OPERATION OF THE ST. LOUIS PLACEMENT BUREAU FOR HANDICAPPED MEN[1]

By G. Canby Robinson, M.D.,
St. Louis, Mo.

One phase of the rehabilitation problem which seems to be but meagerly discussed is that concerning the rehabilitation of men handicapped internally, so to speak—of men suffering from medical conditions such as disease of the circulation, respiration or of the nervous system. Here the problem is more difficult and more subtle than when an arm or a leg has been lost. In fact some writers seem to think in terms of lost limbs and consider only the conditions that present the easier and more obvious problems. Perhaps the number of the so-called medical injuries returned from the war may be relatively small, but they play a large rôle in the question of the handicapped industrial worker, and much is to be gained by considering at this time physical disability among industrial workers while the question is fresh and stimulated by the consequences of war.

It is difficult to readjust industrially the man suffering from heart disease or from a functional or organic disease of the nervous system, because symptoms so often arise which disturb his feeling of well-being, and which discourage or alarm him. But the chief difficulty comes from our inability to determine with any degree of accuracy the amount of work that such individuals may do without harmful effects. A somewhat limited but rather intensive study of the medically handicapped from the industrial point of view has shown us the distinct advantage gained by observation of the patient in the work shop for the handicapped, conducted in connection with the hospital and dispensary with which I am connected. Here patients are put to work under the supervision of a trained teacher doing toy making, cement work or weaving. Here the patients are encouraged and restrained by the teacher with tact and judgment and here they are visited by their physicians. The work is often only one hour a day at first, but the time and effort are increased as the patient's physical ability warrants, and usually after several weeks a fairly clear idea of what place each one can take in the open labor market can be determined. During the period in the shop, symptoms without significance can be explained away, while those of moment can be noted and avoided. Patients find their own capacity for work during the work shop period. While there they are educated in the proper method of living so as to stay within and not exceed their physical capacity, a point of prime importance in the successful placement and maintenance of the medically handicapped in a position of economic independence. This procedure as a preliminary to rehabilitation of the medically and often of the surgically disabled deserves emphasis, as it cannot be superseded by the so-called functional tests or formulas no matter how elaborately and carefully they are carried out. The only test of physical efficiency is the work test, carried out after a careful consideration of each individual.

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[1] Since this paper was written, the contribution of Miss Gertrude Stein on Placement Technique in the Employment Work of the Red Cross Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men (*Amer. Jour. Care of Cripples*, 1918, VI, 148) has come to the writer's notice. It should be read by all interested in this problem.

The second phase of the problem of rehabilitation which has so far received but little detailed consideration is that of placement. It will not be practical or expedient to train each handicapped person in a new trade and find a place for him in that trade. Much can be done by industrial adjustment without extensive training, and this is especially true of the industrial cripple, as past experience has shown.

In order to bring the question down to actual experience, I wish to describe the organization and operation of the Placement Bureau for Handicapped Men which has been established in St. Louis. This bureau was organized with the idea of experimenting with disabled civilians in order to gain experience to guide in the industrial placement of crippled soldiers later. The movement was started by the wife of a medical officer who is having an extensive experience in France with cases of "shell-shock." A committee was formed composed of three socially minded women, two sympathetic employers of labor, the director of the Missouri School of Social Economy, the director of the Rankin Trade School, a lawyer and two doctors, one an orthopedic surgeon and one an internist. One of the committee volunteered to work as a full-time secretary, and the St. Louis Chamber of Commerce contributed desk space in its office. The obvious problem that confronted the bureau was the successful bringing together of an opportunity for work and a handicapped man, and it is easily understood that before they are brought together both the job and the man must be carefully considered and prepared for each other.

The first task of the placement bureau was to investigate the opportunities of the city for the employment of the handicapped and to interest the employers in the project. A general survey of the possibilities of employing the handicapped in the city had just been made by the St. Louis Chamber of Commerce, which placed its data at the disposal of the bureau. Besides this, a detailed survey was made of various types of factories and plants, the positions that were suitable for handicapped men being noted. A few of these surveys were made by several members of the committee together and during these excursions numerous problems came up for discussion and many ideas presented themselves. Superintendents and managers were talked to and usually considerable interest was aroused, especially when the possibility of employing crippled soldiers was brought out. This phase of the work is one that must be continually pursued, and the interest once aroused in employers and superintendents must not be allowed to die. Certain positions were selected as concrete examples and employers were asked to save such places for those physically disqualified for other work.

It cannot be emphasized too strongly that a first-hand knowledge of working conditions is necessary for intelligent placement of the handicapped and this can only be gained by many visits to plants of various types. The workers must be observed and interviewed, and the mental and nervous exertion must be taken into account as equally important to the physical exertion required by the work. Minor changes in the method of factory work were often discussed with superintendents, and information was obtained as to whether the changes proposed for the benefit of the handicapped were practical and expedient. Hours of work, whether the wage was determined by piece work or time, the average wage earned in various types of work, the attitude of the employer to the laws of liability for industrial accidents, the relation of the plant to union labor, the light, ventilation, rest periods and the general hygienic condition of the plants were some of the questions which were gone into during the visits to the various factories.

These details are enumerated in order to bring out the point that in order to carry on the placement of the handicapped intelligently and successfully a bureau or agency must be established in each industrial center where the problems can be dealt with as individual problems. The work cannot be carried on by following general principles alone. Successful placement means demonstrating to the employer that the handicapped man can make good without personal favors, that he is worthy of his hire, and that the placement bureau is not a bother but a help. Successful placement cannot be accomplished without a definite idea by the person making the placement what the job asked for requires of its occupant, what difficulties surround it and how it is suited for the particular individual sent to fill it. An extensive knowledge is also necessary, as there are so many types and degrees of disability that the one best job for each individual may be hard to find and a large choice is necessary. It seems obvious that each industrial center must have a local board or bureau in order to make a detailed study of local conditions, and the knowledge thus gained is essential for the successful placement of the physically handicapped.

The second task that the Placement Bureau undertook was to find the handicapped men and to awaken their interest in the plans of the bureau. This was done by notifying various relief organizations, hospitals and dispensaries as to what the bureau proposed to do. These organizations were asked to refer to the bureau men whose physical disability hindered them from undertaking the type of work to which they were accustomed. An announcement regarding the purposes of the bureau was also made before the St. Louis Medical Society.

When a physically handicapped man appears, certain data are obtained and entered on a card. Besides the usual data such as age, address and former employment and employers, facts are obtained regarding his injury and his education. The question of employment is presented to him in such a way as to make him feel that he can do more than he has been doing, and he is told what his part must be. Care is taken to have him understand that an effort is necessary on his part, and that such an effort is distinctly worth while. In fact the psychological adjustment which is usually essential is begun as soon as the Placement Bureau has an opportunity to exert this influence, just as it should be begun during convalescence if, as in the case of wounded soldiers, there is someone at hand to begin this adjustment.

The handicapped man is then examined by a medical man who looks at him from the point of view of the amount and type of work his physical condition will allow. A general medical examination is made to determine the general fitness, and then the particular part of the body causing the handicap is studied in order to determine if an operation or an apparatus could diminish the disability. An entry is made on the patient's card of the diagnosis and type of work advised. It is expected that injuries received by American soldiers will be studied carefully from the point of view of industrial efficiency, but the civilian cripples will not receive this attention until the medical profession is more alive than it is now to the physical requirements of the industrial worker and until it gives more thought to restoring industrial efficiency than it has done in the past. The importance of coöperation of medical men interested in the problem of the placement of the handicapped should be emphasized. The problems that present themselves as to the amount of work a given individual can do, what his limitations are and what chances he has for improvement or recovery, are often very difficult for the medical man to answer, and impossible for those not trained in medicine. Insufficient understanding of the disability of the handicapped often leads to unsuccessful placement, so a close coöperation, preferably by conference, is necessary between the person making the placement and the medical advisor. Each bureau or agency should have two or more medical men attached to it who will not only make careful examinations and give thought to the medical problems involved, but who will also take an interest in and study the industrial conditions in the district in which the placements are made.

After the type of work a handicapped man can do has been determined, the various possibilities for work are shown to him, and he is urged to make a choice or to apply for a position chosen for him. An understanding by the handicapped man of the situation he is to meet is of great assistance, and a certain amount of preparation of the man for the job is often advisable. The man's interest must be aroused not only in the job, but in the cause. The cripple must make good for the sake of other cripples, and he must go to his new job with the feeling that he will do his best for the sake of the placement bureau as well as for his own sake and for the sake of his wage. This attitude of mind can only be accomplished by individual effort, expended with friendliness, sympathy and common sense.

The placements that are made must be followed up in order to discover and profit by failures. Replacements must naturally be frequent, but they will diminish in proportion to the care taken in the first instance. Many placements must be in the nature of experiments and these experiments must be watched, the handicapped man being visited at his work and his case discussed with his overseer and employer. When the bureau has had to deal with men mentally as well as physically handicapped, insurmountable problems have arisen. A bad placement is especially harmful to the cause from the point of view of the employer's confidence, and those making industrial placements of the handicapped must take great pride in their work and exercise much care not to make mistakes. If a job cannot be found that seems to fit the individual, then an attempt must be made to fit the individual for the job. In adjusting the individual to a job, an attempt should always be made to raise the standard of work above that which was previously done, and this has frequently been accomplished. Here the splendid opportunities to be offered by the Federal Board for Vocational Training will prove most useful. No doubt many of the wounded soldiers will also be elevated in the industrial and economic scale by the training they will receive during their convalescence in the so-called reconstruction hospitals.

In working with the industrial handicaps, we have found that opportunities are available for refitting disabled men without government aid. For instance, we have been able to have a man trained as a barber who was unable to continue his work as a steel worker on account of heart disease. Another man obtained training as a motor mechanic at a Y. M. C. A. night school when he was physically unable to carry on the strenuous work of a horseshoer, which he had done for twenty-four years. The young men must not be given the places of caretakers or watchmen until it is shown that nothing better can be done. The trade schools offer many opportunities to the intelligent man who is the victim of accident or disease, and the rehabilitation of the industrial cripple can frequently be undertaken with the facilities which most of our large cities offer. The St.

Louis Bureau has been in close touch with the Rankin Trade School, its director being a member of the committee.

After the St. Louis Placement Bureau had been for several months in successful operation it was taken over by the St. Louis chapter of the Red Cross and is now ready to take up all problems of industrial placement which may be presented to it from the military or civilian population. It is likely that the disabled soldiers will present somewhat different problems from those that have been encountered from the civilian population. They will be better trained, more skillful, younger, more adaptable, and will have had a varying amount of psychological adjustment making them ready to take up the problems at home with the same wonderful spirit of courage and cheerfulness that they have shown on the battlefield.

I have gone into the question of the placement of the handicapped in considerable detail in order to show what the problems are as we have found them. I wish to emphasize that successful placement of the handicapped is one of the important steps in the rehabilitation of the physically disabled, and that it can only be done by a careful study of the conditions of employment on the one hand and of the physically handicapped individual on the other hand. Such a study must be carried on by local committees or agencies and this can best be done by the establishment of placement agencies as part of all local home service work of the American Red Cross.

THE BLIND AS INDUSTRIAL WORKERS

By Lieut.-Col. James Bordley,
Medical Corps, U. S. A.

Before I set forth our plans for the training of the blind, I want to say a few words about the social aspects of the blind question. There are many types of handicaps which result in economic and social troubles but I think I can aptly term the blind as the Ishmaelites of this century. They have been driven out of community life, out of industry, prevented from owning their own homes and maintaining them, and for decades they have cried out for a chance and the answer has always been "Charity." What could be more conducive to idleness, to melancholy and to despair than to know that your brother must be your keeper? I speak with some intimate knowledge of the blind when I say that they are swayed by the same emotions, stung by the same criticisms, elevated by the same praise, won by the same influence as are the seeing. Therefore, in our dealing with them and their handicaps we should be guided by the same standard that we set for the seeing. As it is now, when a man loses his sight he finds himself adrift in an unknown and unchartered sea and until of his own wit he can find his bearings he is lost. Now, this has not been the result of any intention on the part of society. It is simply one of our horrible social mistakes. Great Britain, France and Italy, at the very beginning of the war, horrified by the number of blind soldiers, began to take inventory of the possibilities of occupations for these soldiers and to start training centers where they could salvage such human wrecks. The results of these experiments—because experiments they were—have been most beneficial industrially for the blind. Now, our battle cry is exactly the same as that of our Allies—freedom for nations and liberty for individuals—and like them we are going to leave no stone unturned to see that the men who have given so much for us shall be given at least an opportunity for employment without the stigma of charity. The work of re-educating and rehabilitating the blind is probably one of the most difficult phases of the reconstruction problem that we have to face. In the first place, the public has made up its mind that the blind except as peddlers of shoe strings and lead pencils are industrially useless. They forget all that long list of distinguished blind men—statesmen, musicians, poets and merchants; and the family, overwhelmed by its grief, misguided by its own sympathy, throws every obstacle in the way of opportunity; and the blind man himself misled by his friends and by the attitude of the world is easily persuaded to "fling away ambition." These difficulties we are trying very hard to overcome, and we, like the blind man, need sympathy and charity less than we do active assistance and moral support.

A great many people ask me the question, "What can a blind man do?" Well, a blind man can perform any operation in which judgment based on sight is not necessary. In order concretely to translate this, the Surgeon General of the Army, in conjunction with the Surgeon General of the Navy, has established in Baltimore a training school for the blind. This training school is located on a magnificent estate tendered the government for the purpose by Mrs. T. Harrison Garrett of Baltimore. To this place are to be sent all the blinded soldiers, sailors and marines, also such men as are blinded while working in the government munition plants. To supplement this work Congress has authorized and empowered the Federal Board for Vocational Education to take the man when his training is completed in our hospital school, and carry it to completion and see that suitable jobs are provided. The Red Cross has organized, at the request of the Surgeon General of the Army, the Red Cross Institute for the Blind. This is to supply the necessary economic and social supervision for the blind men after their discharge by the various governmental departments.

In the preparation of courses to be taught the blind men, we first had to determine by experience and investigation what a blind man could do, and we found that he could do so many things that we began to classify them, and now when a man comes into our school we have several groups of things to offer him—professional, industrial, commercial, agricultural, blind-shop work, and home work—and just which group this man will fit into we only know after a thorough and complete study of the man. We go even further; not only do we study the man himself but the community in which he lives and his family. These are very essential considerations in the choice of any occupation. Then we have in the hospitals a group of teachers culled from the best in this country. Our supervisor of education is, for instance, a man of years of experience in one of the largest institutions for the blind in this country.

Now, when it comes to industrial work we have not proceeded in a haphazard manner. We have not said too urselves, "John Jones works in a cigar factory; therefore we will adopt that particular trade for our school." We have put on the road to make a scientific survey of industry for us a most competent industrial engineer. He is organizing a force of investigators. They will go into plants and study conditions. If a plant itself comes up to the standard which we have set, then he goes to work to analyze the jobs and to set aside in memoranda form any particular feature of any particular job that a blind man can do. Then the memoranda are sent to Baltimore to be studied by those who know the blind, to determine the feasibility, from the blind man's standpoint—of that job. If it is believed possible for a blind man to carry on such trades, the memoranda are sent back to our industrial engineer for elaboration. A complete motion study is then made of the particular operation selected as a basis for the school course of that trade. We believe that the failure on the part of many of the blind who have attempted to go into industry has been due to lack of training.

We must acknowledge at the start that the blind man is handicapped—that he is handicapped let us say 30 per cent. Then it behooves us to make up for that 30 per cent natural loss of efficiency by 30 per cent better training than that received by the seeing. Let us take typewriting. We are working now to devise a typewriter for the blind. Of course, a great many of my blind friends and those who teach the blind say that this is unnecessary, and that a blind man should be able to use any typewriter. I agree to that, but he should have one typewriter on which he can exceed in speed the sighted man, and that is what we are working for. If we succeed in getting it we will then make him an industrial, commercial asset. It is our idea to increase everywhere we can by skillful education the blind man's efficiency, and we feel that when we are able to do that, when we have devised courses and started work which will result in that, that we have at last found a way to assist the blind man into industry. Further, we have thought not only of the blind man but also of his employer. We do not intend to have an employer discharge a single one of our blind men for inefficiency. Our industrial engineers will know when a blind man falls below the standard set by the plant and we are going to take him out and *thank* the employer for giving him a chance. We feel if we do that we will be making friends for the blind men. The incompetent will be taken back and re-educated for some other profitable position.

The manufacturers and the other business men have opened their hearts to us. They see our difficulties and are willing to help us. In fact, they have gone so far as to offer to open schools in various trades and take our men at their own expense and teach them trades—trades which will pay $3.00, $4.00 and $5.00 a day—and stand all the necessary expense and worry and trouble in order to help us get the blind soldiers, sailors and marines back on the job. When we establish these things for the military blind, as Major Todd states, we have opened the way for the employment of the civilian blind as well.

Our military blind are young and as we get them started shortly after they are injured they are fine subjects for training. We realize that for the civilian blind of the past we can probably do little. We are looking in our dreams for the civilian blind to those of the future, to the hundreds of thousands for whom we should be prepared. Some scheme must be devised to get the man early, to give him the proper training and to keep him forever under proper supervision.

In our army, we have divided our services into that for France and that for the United States. Those two subdivisions have complete organizations. The work in France is under the Chief Consultant in Ophthalmology of the A. E. F. In this country there is an officer connected with the Surgeon General's office who supervises the work. The work begins abroad when a man gets back to the hospitals; there he is instructed in games, reading and writing. He must primarily be entertained with no serious attempt at any occupational study. He goes from the base to a special hospital center. There the Field Director, who is a member of the staff of the Chief Consultant in Ophthalmology, and who has charge of the active field work will have his headquarters. Here also are congregated the instructors. These instructors will teach not only literary subjects; they will show the blind men how to shave, walk with a cane and use a typewriter.

From the special hospital center, the blind men are sent to the port of embarkation to be transported across the ocean. Our teachers will instruct invalided men who are coming back with the blind, how to care for them on the return voyage. The high morale of the returning blind bears mute testimony to the splendid work of the Chief Consultant in Ophthalmology in the A. E. F.

When the blind reach the States, they go to the distributing hospital at the port of debarkation. They are there given a physical examination by special surgeons. If there appears to be a chance of saving some sight by surgical procedure, they are sent to a physical reconstruction center, devoted to eye surgery. There the man's eyes are again gone over, looking to the possibility of the restoration of vision. If it is deemed possible to do more, the attempt is made. If the attempt fails, the blind man is sent on to the blind-teaching center in Baltimore. The blind-teaching center is a military establishment under the command of a military officer. Besides the military personnel there is a civilian director of education, teachers, schools and shops. When the man completes what we have to offer, he will then be given practical instruction in shops, factories, etc. When he is through his practical training, he will be ready to be placed in the profession, trade, or whatever happens to be his future occupation. At first we will place him on trial employment, to see whether he can make good. If he cannot, we will withdraw him and re-train him for some other occupation.

In order to demonstrate the practicability of selected shop work, we are not only having our engineer devise courses, but are preparing to send out teams of blind civilians. These civilians will be untrained and they will go into factories with the full knowledge of employers that they are not what we call ideal workers but are to be used to demonstrate the practicability of the particular job at which they are set. If they can perform the work even moderately satisfactorily, we feel confident that our trained blind will be able to make of that job a definite success.

A complete "follow-up" system has been organized. The Civilian Relief of the Red Cross has divided the United States into districts—sixteen in all—from each one of which there is to be sent to our school in Baltimore one trained social service worker to be educated in our school side by side with the blind. In that way these workers become acquainted with the needs of the blind.

Each trained worker will build up in her district the necessary organization for taking care of the blind of her district. Of course, being skilled in handling the blind, these local directors will be of infinite help in seeing that the blind men live up to our expectations, and she will keep us posted as to the success or failure of our undertaking.

We believe that it is essential that the men be cheered up just as much as possible. When they come in they are met in a perfectly frank way. They are told a perfectly truthful story about their condition. We make no attempt to force them into work. We give them time to think over their future, and while they are thus occupied, we lead them along right paths. Simple things such as typewriting are started abroad and are continued, though serious work is not attempted at this stage. The teachers take advantage of this period to sound the man out as to his desires and ambitions.

In order to help the men, to stimulate them, the Red Cross Institute for the Blind has opened in Baltimore a house into which we invite one member of each blind man's family—either his mother, his sister or his wife. This relative is allowed to go to the school and see the men at work, so that she will understand the difficulties, and when the time comes for returning home, the family will be in a position to be of material service in the work which we have undertaken.

As an illustration of the practical character of the instruction to be given, let me describe our course in massage. The teacher in charge of this work is an instructor of massage in one of the important civilian hospitals. She will teach both theory and practice. But before she starts, the men will be given simple courses in anatomy and physiology by a competent physician. We have a wonderful opportunity to teach massage, because we have at our service all of the big reconstruction hospitals in the United States, in which the blind can actually work. It is our hope to turn out our masseurs so well-trained that they can be made the chiefs of this service in the reconstruction hospitals. Thus, they will get a chance to have under their direct charge from 2,000 to 3,000 patients.

We well understand that blind men will come back to this country men physically and mentally capable, also men who are neither physically nor mentally capable, others who are physically but not mentally, and still others who are mentally but not physically capable. Therefore, we must prepare not only for trades, where the blind must enter into competition with his fellows, but for home work, where he can make as much as his mental or physical condition will permit. Some will have to be placed in organized shops for the blind, where certain opportunities, narrow though they be for the blind man, are open. The shops for the blind have in this country really proven a godsend to the blind because, cut off from the ordinary means of livelihood, the blind in the larger cities have been able to help in their support.

BLINDED SOLDIERS AS MASSEURS IN HOSPITALS AND SANATORIA FOR RECONSTRUCTION AND REHABILITATION OF DISABLED SOLDIERS

By S. Adolphus Knopf, M.D.,
Professor of Phthisiotherapy, New York Post-Graduate Medical School and Hospital, New York City.

From the addresses on the reconstruction and rehabilitation of disabled soldiers which were delivered at the annual session of the American Medical Association in Chicago[1] and from Lieut.-Col. E. H. Bruns' article on the tuberculous soldier (*The Journal*, Aug. 3, 1918, p. 373), one may obtain a good insight into the work which Surgeon General Gorgas, his staff, and the Division on Reconstruction and Rehabilitation are contemplating. In his address on "The Blind as Industrial Workers,"[2] Lieut.-Col. Bordley says: "After the blind will have received a practical training they will get training in professional work, the trades, or agriculture," but I do not know whether he had in mind also the training of some of the blinded soldiers in massage. As no mention of this subject was made, I may be permitted to call attention to the fact that many a blinded soldier might, with relatively little training, become a skilled professional masseur.

Brigadier General Alfred E. Bradley, Med. Corps, N. A., who recently returned from the front and with whom I communicated concerning the idea of employing blinded soldiers in this way, wrote me as follows:

> In regard to the employment of the blind as masseurs, I think suitable men will find this occupation a very agreeable and remunerative one. Our people in America, however, do not utilize massage as freely, nor to such an extent, as we see it employed abroad. While in London I was very much interested to watch the work of the blinded men taking a course in massage instruction at St. Dunstan's.

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[1] *Journal of Am. Med. Ass'n*, June 22 and 29, 1918. All these addresses have now appeared in pamphlet form and can be obtained from the office of the Association.

[2] Delivered at the Conference of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, on "Rehabilitation of the Wounded," Philadelphia, September 20, 1918.

> The Superintendent informed me that they had no trouble at all in placing all the men in lucrative positions, who qualified in the course as it was given there.
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> The experience of the French and English has been that for about every 1000 men wounded, there will be three men blinded; this fortunately is a rather small percentage, and of this number probably only a small portion would be suitable as masseurs; I should think, therefore, that it would be necessary not to depend entirely upon the blinded soldiers as a source of supply for massage pupils and operators.

Dr. John A. Wyeth, the well-known surgeon and the president of the New York Polyclinic, suggested to me that in a class of instruction in massage for blinded soldiers, there might well be included a number of soldiers who had received some injury to the lower extremities, and other types might be found if the need for the work increased. It is particularly the blind that I wish to consider here, however, as there are so few occupations open to them. It is well-known also that a blinded person develops a more delicate sense of touch than is usually possessed by the seeing, and this would certainly be an advantage in the work.

I have been informed by friends who have traveled extensively in Japan that there massage is exclusively a profession of the blind and that they develop a marvelous dexterity in manipulating muscles and joints for the cure or alleviation of many diseases.

As to the value of massage in certain nervous afflictions, in anemia, in orthopedic and some surgical affections, I need say nothing. The utility of masso-therapy in all these branches of medicine and surgery is well-known, but not so much so in tuberculosis. I have, however, found it to be of invaluable help at that period in the life of the tuberculous invalid when his disease has been arrested, but when, owing to the prolonged rest cure, his muscles have become flabby and his respiratory system indolent. Unfortunately, the expense of giving massage treatment in large hospitals for consumptives is prohibitive, but I have often used it with most satisfactory results in private practice after the return of the patient from the sanatorium as an arrested case. I have found massage to be of inestimable benefit at such times and an excellent preparation for active physical exercise and work.

In fact massage combined with carefully graded respiratory exercises and judicious hydrotherapy, skillfully and persistently applied for a period of from four to six weeks is the best and perhaps the only means to guard the tuberculous invalid against a relapse.

In many cases, because of economic necessity, the arrested case resumes his former occupation before his muscular, respiratory, and cutaneous systems have regained sufficient strength to resist the deleterious influences of over-fatigue, atmospheric changes, the invasion of the pneumococcus, and minor respiratory infections to which the well man is immune. The policy of the Surgeon General, not to discharge the tuberculous soldier when the disease is merely arrested, but to retain him until his physical vigor is restored, is a guarantee that we will not have nearly as many relapses in military as in civil tuberculosis practice.

To return to General Bradley's statement that the physicians in this country do not use massage as freely, nor to such an extent, as we see it employed abroad, this observation is absolutely correct and is applicable to all branches of medicine, including tuberculosis.

During my recent visit to the Adirondacks, I discussed the subject of massage with Dr. Edward R. Baldwin, the Dean of the Trudeau School, and Dr. Lawrason Brown, the well-known specialist and authority on tuberculosis. Both gentlemen were emphatic in their statements that massage is an important adjuvant in modern phthisiotherapy, but one much neglected in this country. Dr. Brown stated as his opinion that we do not use massage frequently enough in tuberculosis—first, because we are strangely indifferent and secondly, because it is too expensive. He also believes that it would offer a good means of livelihood to a certain number of blinded soldiers.

I submitted the draft of this manuscript to a number of other distinguished physicians, Prof. Hermann M. Biggs, State Commissioner of Health of New York, Dr. Thomas McCrae, Professor of Medicine of Jefferson Medical College of Philadelphia, Dr. Edward O. Otis, Professor of Tuberculous Diseases of Tufts Medical College of Boston, and Dr. David R. Lyman, of the Gaylord Farm Sanatorium, Wallingford, Conn., until recently Associate Director of the Rockefeller Tuberculosis Commission in France and the newly elected president of the American National Tuberculosis Association. Dr. Biggs writes: "I have read your article outlining a plan for the training of blinded soldiers as masseurs. It appeals to me strongly and I can see no reason why it should not be put into effect. I believe that massage is work which these men would be well qualified to take up." Dr. McCrae expresses himself similarly by saying that the suggestion of employing the war blinded soldiers in that way was an excellent one and hoped that the Surgeon General's department would take it up. As to the value of massage in tuberculosis, he regretted to say that he had not had opportunity to find out its effect on that class of patients, but that it would seem to him altogether likely to be very useful.

Dr. Otis wrote me as follows:

> I have read the paper with great interest and approval. That the blind will and do make skillful masseurs I am sure, for I have seen it. We have employed at the Boston Dispensary for some years a blind masseuse with great satisfaction as an example. Massage, I believe, is a valuable means in the post-sanatorium rehabilitation of the arrested tuberculous patient, and indeed, before that period in certain cases. I therefore heartily approve your plan of utilizing blinded soldiers. I believe massage could and ought to be employed in the treatment of tuberculosis much oftener than it is, but the reasons given in your paper are undoubtedly the causes why it is not. . . . . I believe your paper is excellent in its suggestions as to the employment of blind soldiers, and very timely when the rehabilitation and reconstruction of maimed soldiers is now under consideration, and it has my hearty approval. The teaching of massage to blinded soldiers accomplishes two things—it helps the crippled soldier and renders possible the application of massage to the tuberculous more extensively than heretofore has been possible.

Dr. Lyman expresses himself as follows:

> I think your suggestion as to the training of blinded soldiers as professional masseurs an excellent one. Beside the wide field open to them in general medicine there would be the splendid opportunity in our new government sanatoria to give them special training in the application of massage to properly selected cases of tuberculosis. There is no question but that we have neglected this important branch of therapy in our work in America.

To the opinion of these eminent physicians, let me now add that of Major Fred H. Albee, the Surgeon-in-Chief of U. S. General Hospital 3 for Reconstruction, Colonia, N. J., and Professor of Orthopedic Surgery at the New York Post-Graduate Medical School. He writes:

> The training of our returning blinded soldiers in massage is most important work in the rehabilitation of the wounded soldier. I know of no task so valuable for the delicate touch of the blinded man and especially since individuals skilled in this work are so scarce and so many are needed as the rehabilitation of our disabled soldiers goes on.

My late friend, Dr. Herbert M. King, the regretted physician-in-chief of the Loomis Sanatorium, to whom I suggested the use of massage in his institution, gave it a thorough trial and assured me later on that I had been right in the belief that it would prove a most excellent means to overcome the tendency of muscular flabbiness and degeneration. Yet he had to discontinue it. At times he had nearly 200 patients, and massage could be given to only a few. Jealousy and discontent among those who did not get it forced him to abandon it altogether. It was not always easy to get expert masseurs who were willing to go to a sanatorium. Phthisiophobia had doubtlessly something to do with it.

If, for the reason just given, masso-therapy cannot be carried out in an institution for the well-to-do, it is, of course, even more difficult to have it in hospitals or in sanatoria for the consumptive poor. None of the difficulties raised by Dr. Brown's statement nor those encountered in the experience of Dr. King concerning the application of massage to the tuberculous civilian, rich or poor, hold good when we are dealing with the soldier whose tuberculous lesion has been arrested or is quiescent so that massage will be truly helpful in preparing him for active exercise and work.

There will probably be a sufficient number of blinded or otherwise invalided soldiers who can take up massage as a profession. Phthisiophobia will not enter into consideration as a hindrance, for the soldier masseur will be instructed that no danger can come to him when dealing with the carefully trained invalid. The matter of expense to the government when there is a question of rehabilitating the tuberculous soldier and making him a breadwinner again and a useful citizen, is of course something which can only be considered as distinctly advantageous in the end.

Having had the opportunity to study massage and the Swedish movement cure in this country and abroad, I have taught these valuable therapeutic adjuvants to many of my pupils and nurses, and in cases where, for financial reasons, a professional masseur could not be employed, I have often succeeded in teaching a well member of the family how to apply the treatment to the tuberculous invalid. It was surprising to me to see how many men and women there are with a natural aptitude for this work. In some instances they developed into experts so that I could employ them in other families.

It is this experience which convinces me that many a blinded soldier might be advantageously taught the art of massage, not only as a way of earning his livelihood, but also because he could do valuable work in our military hospitals for reconstruction and rehabilitation. Many masseurs will be needed in these hospitals and owing to the cessation of immigration from Scandinavian countries, there is already a dearth of experts. Later on, if there should be more masseurs than needed for military work, I am convinced that any well-to-do invalid in need of massage treatment would rather employ one of our blinded soldier heroes than an imported masseur.

Do I need to say that we physicians or surgeons, whether in military or civil practice, who have occasion to prescribe massage, would consider it a patriotic duty to help the blind soldier masseur to make an honest living by his newly acquired profession? He has given so much in comparison to the little we can give him in return.

Lieut.-Col. James Bordley has set forth (pages 104–110) the work which is being done under his direction in the United States Base Hospital No. 7, at Roland Park, Baltimore, Md. The institution seems to be exceptionally well placed and has already twenty inmates (soldiers and sailors) and the Colonel has given assurance that the morale of all the men is excellent, being doubtlessly greatly heightened by the generous provision of the government to have one relative of each patient live for some time on the hospital grounds to help and be present during the period of educational training. While all these blinded heroes regret that they had to leave the field of action "over there," they hope still to be of war service by aiding in the manufacture of ammunition. The plan in the hospital is to teach them to make small armatures, spark plugs and so forth, and to train them in other trades and professions in which the loss of eyesight is not a hindrance to attainment of the greatest efficiency. To my great satisfaction massage has been included among the professions to be taught to our blinded war heroes. This is but another evidence of the farsightedness of the Surgeon General and his staff and the thoroughness with which all work is done in that department.

A FEDERAL PROGRAM FOR THE VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION OF DISABLED SOLDIERS AND SAILORS

By Charles A. Prosser, Ph.D.,
Director, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D. C.

The following statement of the policies of the office of the Federal Board in giving vocational rehabilitation to disabled soldiers and sailors represents the best thought of the office of the Federal Board up to the present time. It has not been adopted by the Federal Board and is subject to change by that organization. In the form here presented it has been submitted to various persons for criticism. From this viewpoint it represents information on the part of the Director of the Federal Board as to what the office now thinks to be proper policies to adopt in dealing with the very difficult task of training and placing disabled men in happy and useful employment.

In dealing with the disabled man the board expects to treat him throughout as a civilian needing advice and assistance, to approve his choice of occupation, unless, after careful investigation, sound opinion shows it to be in the end not advisable, to train him to meet the needs of the occupation he has elected, to urge him to make the most of his opportunity to overcome his handicap by taking thorough-going instruction, to help him to secure desirable permanent employment, and to keep in close touch with him after he goes to work.

As soon as the army authorities have decided that any disabled man is to be discharged from the hospital and returned to civilian life, it becomes the duty of the Federal Board, through its vocational advisers in hospitals to deal with the problem of training him and of placing him in civilian employment. This task involves five possible steps:

(a) Election by the disabled man of a course of training.
(b) Preliminary training to fit him for a definite occupation or pursuit.

(c) A probationary period of employment in that occupation or pursuit.
(d) Placement in suitable employment in the occupation or pursuit.
(e) Follow-up work to safeguard his interests.

ELECTION OF A COURSE OF TRAINING BY THE DISABLED MAN

Representatives of the Federal Board will confer with each disabled man before his discharge from the hospital. If he is able to resume his former occupation successfully, or to follow some new occupation without special training, the Federal Board will assist him, if he so desires, to secure employment therein. Should he elect, even under these circumstances, to take additional training for his occupation before he enters upon employment, the law provides that he may do so at the expense of the government under conditions determined by the Federal Board. If, however, he is unable to pursue his old occupation or to enter successfully upon a new occupation, he may be trained by the Federal Board for any vocation or pursuit that he desires to follow and in which, in the opinion of the board, he is likely to become proficient.

In advising as to future employment, representatives of the board will equip themselves with information concerning the requirements and opportunities of the various occupations. Much of this information will be furnished to the men in printed form. The representatives will also be informed concerning the kinds of occupations from which certain types of handicap are shut out.

Every effort will be made to assist the disabled man towards that occupation in which he is most interested and for which, because of his aptitude and experience on the one hand and his handicap on the other, he is best suited. In order to utilize previous knowledge and skill, the disabled man will be advised—other things being equal—to elect training, should he need it, for the industry, business or pursuit in which he was engaged before the war, or for one akin to it.

As a general policy, a handicapped man will not be directed towards an overcrowded or a waning occupation in which present or future competition might make permanent employment uncertain. In order, however, to realize fully upon the man's interest and ability, he will be given the widest possible range of choice among those desirable occupations in which, in the light of the best medical and vocational knowledge available, with his special handicap, he can successfully engage. In this connection, the board will seek advice from those experts in the hospitals who have effected the man's physical rehabilitation.

The disabled man, with the approval of the board, may elect to be trained in agriculture, commerce, industry, transportation or the professions. The length and character of the course of instruction will depend upon the requirements of the vocation, the ability and interest of the man, and his previous training and experience.

After the vocational adviser has assisted the handicapped man to choose a suitable occupation, his case, with full information, will be referred to the office of the district wherein the man has received physical rehabilitation. Every case will there be considered individually on its merits by a local board made up of two representatives of the district office, one of whom will be a physician; and two representatives chosen from the locality, one of whom will be an employer and one a representative of labor. If necessary the man, himself, accompanied by the vocational adviser, may appear before the local board.

THE PRELIMINARY TRAINING FOR A DEFINITE OCCUPATION OR PURSUIT

After physical rehabilitation, the discharged soldier or sailor becomes a civilian to be trained for and placed in civilian employment by the Federal Board. As a learner and student it is proper that he be supported by the government; therefore, the same allotment and family allowance for his dependents will be paid as were received by them while he was in the military service. As a student, moreover, he will have the same freedom as any other civilian attending school or college. He will be "on his own," meeting such expenses as are not covered by the board from the compensation provided in the Vocational Rehabilitation Act and sent, monthly or semi-monthly, direct to him.

Through the district vocational office, where a medical officer will be stationed, the health of the disabled man will be cared for, while in training, by the board. After he secures permanent employment, he, as a beneficiary under the War Risk Insurance Act, will be cared for by the War Risk Insurance Bureau, should there be any recurrence of disabilities due to military service.

As a student supported by the government while taking instruction, the disabled man will be expected to pursue the work in a satisfactory way and to obey reasonable rules and regulations. Continued failure to do so will result in dismissal. Where it is found advisable to shift the student from one course of training or from one class or school to another, this, with his consent, will be done.

The disabled man will be given his preliminary training in a variety of ways. As far as possible, existing facilities will be utilized. While the plant, equipment and staff of existing schools and colleges will, in many instances, be used, there will have to be in many cases special arrangements to meet the needs of the disabled man. Manufacturing establishments, offices and farms will be employed to give preliminary training, especially for those occupations not yet regarded as being within the school or college field. In every case, however, the Federal Board will require the course of instruction to be adapted to the interests and needs of the disabled man, to be definitely planned for him as a learner, and to be arranged or approved, as well as to be inspected and supervised, by its agents. The length of this course of preliminary training will vary greatly according to the ability, ambition and handicaps of the man and the requirements of the work itself, or to the skill and knowledge required for present and future success.

A PROBATIONARY PERIOD OF EMPLOYMENT IN THE OCCUPATION OR PURSUIT

In assisting the disabled man to secure desirable employment, the Federal Board, as authorized and directed by the Vocational Rehabilitation Act, will utilize as far as may be practicable the facilities of the Department of Labor under some plan of coöperation to be determined. Where the man has been given preliminary training outside the plant, office or farm on which he is to be employed, this probationary period will begin when he is transferred, as a beginner, into the occupation or pursuit. Where the preliminary training has been given within the plant, office or farm, the period of probation will start at the point, in the case of each individual, where he becomes capable of entering upon the occupation or pursuit as a worker.

As a probationer he will be perfecting himself in processes, adjusting himself to the demands of commercial production and gradually fitting himself to become a permanent employe at the prevailing wage, either in the place where he is serving his probationary period or elsewhere. During this period the Federal Board will regard him as in training and subject to its inspection and supervision; but any wages he may receive as a probationer will be over and above the amount paid to him by the government while he is in training.

PERMANENT EMPLOYMENT IN THE OCCUPATION OR PURSUIT

This will begin at the point when, in the opinion of the board, the probationer has adjusted himself to the requirements of the occupation or pursuit as a workman. The shifting from probationary to permanent employment may be made in either the same or another establishment, and the disabled man will have the same freedom of choice and action as any other workman "on his own." Support by the government of them an as a student will cease at the close of the probationary period. As a beneficiary under the War Risk Insurance Act, however, he will be entitled to the compensation allotted under that act. In most cases this will be less than the support received from the Federal Board under the provisions of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act.

The aim of the board will always be to direct the disabled man towards, and to provide him with, training for an occupation in which he can become as proficient as the normal man, yet it must not be overlooked that some of the disabled men will not become fully competent to earn the prevailing wage. Therefore, where a disabled man is unable, because of his handicap, to earn the full prevailing wage for his occupation, an adjustment in accordance with the rules and regulations of the shop is to be made. Where working agreements are in effect between employers and employes, the regulations thereof shall govern the procedure in adjusting such partial wages. Where there are no such facilities, the adjustment is to be made by conference between the man, his employer and a representative of the Federal Board. It should be fully understood that the disabled man himself, as a free contracting agent, may in every case accept or reject any terms or scale proposed.

This disabled man should, however, receive equal pay for equal work, and under no circumstances will a wage for a disabled man be approved by the Federal Board where it appears that decreases have been made because he is receiving a compensation for his injury from the government.

As the official friend and adviser to the disabled man, the board will keep in touch with him, through its representatives, for such period after he enters employment as may be necessary to complete, in each individual case, his re-establishment as a civilian worker. The board will protect him against injustice or exploitation by the adjustment of difficulties and if need be by aiding him through further training or assistance to secure other and more desirable employment in the same or another occupation.

THE ADVANTAGES OF NATIONAL AUSPICES OF RE-EDUCATION

By James Phinney Munroe,
Vice-Chairman, Federal Board for Vocational Education.

We are today in the midst of the greatest waste and the greatest saving of all history. The nations are paying daily for war purposes more than most wars have cost throughout. On the other hand, these same nations, some perforce, and some of their own volition, are saving more each day in food, fuel, clothes and even such incidentals as gasoline, than they ever proportionately saved before. The war spendings—except their legacy of debts—will cease, fortunately, within a measurable and we hope a reasonable time. The war savings will presumably go on, though in less degree, forever. Consequently, it is not extravagant to believe that the colossal outpourings of wealth which this orgy of war has forced will be redeemed, possibly in one generation, by the spirit of saving that, with many other hard and salutary lessons, war has taught.

Even though this view be too optimistic, the war, with frightful personal and national sorrow, is bringing home for all time one lesson that the United States above all other nations needed: the wickedness and the needlessness of waste. Under the brandishing of a certain Big Stick, we had begun to wake up to the evils of our material wastefulness; but when some of those predictions did not materialize,—when, for example, our hard wood forests did not disappear within ten years, when we learned of a single range of mountains in the Southwest that will yield ten million tons of coal a year for at least three thousand years, when we began to tap the atmosphere for nitrates and to double the yield of each acre of corn or cotton, we were in danger of recovering from our national fright and of believing again that Providence has supplied this favored people with substantially unlimited resources. Fortunately, however, consideration of the waste of inanimate products had turned our attention to a far more important matter: the squandering, the mistreatment, the failure to make adequate use of that greatest of natural resources, men and women.

The war has brought us face to face with the appalling fact that we are wasting, like prodigals, these precious human beings, and in three chief ways: First, by killing and maiming them in battle, cutting off at the same time what would have been the high grade progeny of thousands of selected young men; second, by complacently permitting civilian conditions which not only kill off a frightful percentage of children and youth before they can render any service to the world, but keep the adult population in a state of low efficiency; and third, by failing to bring out, through proper training and subsequent effective utilization, the latent powers of creative work existing within almost every boy and girl.

The second form of waste—that due to bad hygiene and lack of sanitation—we are overcoming by sound and widespread teaching in the field of right living. The third form of waste—that due to failure to bring out the latent powers of boys and girls, and of men and women—we are beginning to remedy by wise, purposeful and individualistic education. The first and most wanton form of waste—that due to deliberate killing and maiming in war—we can, and please God we will, put an end to by forming a League of Nations which shall root up war itself.

Meanwhile, however, we are fronted with the fact that, since 1914, the world has murdered millions of men and has caused at least equal millions to suffer physical or mental impairment through violence of war. For the dead we can do nothing; for the maimed living, we can and we ought to do everything that modern science, modern wisdom and modern appreciation of the hideous wastefulness of waste can do. The character and magnitude of the responsibility laid upon this country by this handicapping of tens and perhaps hundreds of thousands of young men, should be brought home to every citizen of the United States. The federal government is fully awake to the situation, but its servants can do little unless behind their efforts stand the force of educated public opinion and the support of enlightened public help.

So long as war lasts, this country ceases to be a huge group of individuals voluntarily associated for their common welfare. War has fused that group into an autocratic war machine with all individual rights merged into the common necessity of overthrowing autocracy for all time. From the one hundred and ten millions of us, that war machine selects, by the process of the draft, such special millions and as many of those special millions as may be needed for absolute, decisive victory; but, whether we are within or whether we are without that special group, every one of us is an atom in the war machine and upon each of us depends the final outcome of the war. As such units, we can function only through the war machine itself,—which, under the Constitution, is the federal government—and so far as concerns the war (and that is the only present concern of the United States), all machinery of states and cities, all civilian organizations and all individual activities and rights absolutely disappear until the one supreme end, that of winning the war, shall be attained. The facing of this inexorable logic of a state of war is one of the hardest things to induce a democracy to do; and the amazing thing in this war is not that the people of the United States were so slow in understanding it, but that they faced it so quickly, so completely and with such total self-surrender.

The social and economic groups to which we belong, the towns and states in which each of us has legal residence are, for the time being, merely the culture in which the organism of war is nourished, the reserve out of which must come the material and moral sustenance of that fighting body of one and a half millions—soon to be five millions, and perhaps eventually to be fifteen millions—which constitutes the actual fighting machine. Whatever may be our personal relationship to any unit or units in that machine, whatever we, or those social and political organizations to which we belong, may do in connection with the war, we cannot escape the higher demand of the war machine as a whole, we cannot refuse, any more than the soldier can refuse, to obey its orders without question and without, at least audible, complaint.

While every one of us is a unit in the war machine, only males between 18 and 45 can be elements in the actual fighting machine; and, as a matter of fact, those who will get to the front will be mainly within the comparatively narrow limits of 19 to 35. Moreover, while all of us must sink our private wills into the public will of the war government, only those millions between 19 and 35 who constitute the actual fighting armies are required to surrender their bodies, as well as their wills, to the absolute dominion of that military General Staff which, under its civilian Commander-in-Chief, the President, determines the fate, from day to day, of individual men.

No government, however, and especially no democratic government, can assume such dictatorial powers without taking on, at the same time, equal responsibility. Not only is that military establishment bound, so far as the exigencies of war permit, to conserve the life of every soldier, not only is it bound to see that, while fighting, he is fed, clothed, supplied with ammunition and in a military sense, properly supported; it is bound also to look after his physical, mental and moral health, to make every provision for his rescue and rehabilitation should he be wounded or sick, and to return him, when the war is over, or when he is unfit for further military service, to at least as good a position in the economic world as that from which, by military process, it inexorably took him, because he happened, through youth, strength and comparative freedom from family responsibilities, to be fit for fighting rather than for supporting service in the all-inclusive war machine.

To argue, as some men do, that the work of getting these citizen soldiers disabled in national war back into the economic world is a task for the state from which they came, the community in which they lived, the churches which they attended, or even of such a world wide organization as the Red Cross, is not only to misinterpret the Constitution which, in war, places all power and all responsibility in the federal government, but to do violence to common sense. For the federal government to cease its responsibility for the disabled soldier or sailor at the moment he leaves the hospital, is as impossible to imagine as it would be that it should desert him at the moment of his wounding, refusing to send stretcher-bearers to bring him back or to provide hospitals and surgeons for his rehabilitation. It is no kindness to patch up a man's body, if that restored organism is to be thrown on the industrial scrap heap. To mend a man just for the sake of mending him is to do him an ill service. The physical rehabilitation, far from being an end in itself, is simply the means for making him once more a normal being ready to take his place, alongside other normal beings, in the great business of daily work and daily life.

It is absurd even to imagine any country, least of all the United States, leaving its wounded uncared for on the battlefield or untended behind the lines. But it is almost equally absurd to suppose that the federal government would abandon this task of surgery and medicine to the chance kindness of stray physicians, willing and competent though they might be. The work of functional restoration, we acknowledge without need of argument, is a task requiring complete organization by that power alone, the government at Washington, which can reach every man from every state and call to its assistance, if need be, every citizen of the United States. But what we have not seen, until this present war, is that this task of physical rehabilitation has its essential complement in that of vocational rehabilitation. Moreover, for this latter task, just as truly as for the former, is needed organization complete in itself and drawing its authority from that only source, the federal government, which can reach every state, and if need be, every man and woman in each state.

So strongly did this common-sense view of the situation appeal to Congress that, after due study and deliberation, it passed, unanimously in both Houses, in June of this year (1918) the Vocational Rehabilitation Act (known also as the Smith-Sears Act), placing as definitely upon a legally constituted Federal Board the responsibility for the retraining and placement of its injured soldiers and sailors as by statute and by age-long custom, the responsibility for physical rehabilitation had been placed upon those far older federal bodies, the Office of the Surgeon General of the Army and the Bureau of Medicine and Surgery of the Navy.

Under this Vocational Rehabilitation Act, the Federal Board for Vocational Education, made up, *ex-officiis*, of the Secretaries of Agriculture, Commerce and Labor and the Commissioner of Education, and of three other members appointed by the President, is charged with responsibility for the placing back in economic life and, if need be, for the training of every soldier and sailor so far disabled in military service as to be entitled to compensation under the War Risk Insurance Law. So long as that soldier or sailor needs daily hospital care or so long as he is adjudged fit to return to full or limited military service, he is the sole ward, of course, of the medical military authorities; but from the moment that he is discharged from military service, either because his disabilities are such as to preclude further army service, or because he is relieved from such duty by the coming of peace, he becomes automatically a ward of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, and, as such ward, has established rights which he alone and by his own free choice can surrender.

The chief of these rights are two: (1) To claim the aid of the cedented difficulties of the war itself. The federal government will do its part by providing the money and the administrative machinery necessary to make every disabled soldier as effective in the economic field as he was effective on the field of battle; but the government can do little unless it has the hearty and intelligent backing of every school, every industry and every citizen upon whom it may call for aid in this great, complex task of fitting back into economic life the thousands of men who, taken out by the inexorable command of war and injured in the exercise of war, have been or are to be rehabilitated by the government. That government which had the right to summon them to the abnormal service of military duty, has no less right to call them back again to normal, life-long service upon the farm, in the shop or mine or counting-house, on the railroad, or in the several professions. Before it can exercise that right, however, it must have fulfilled, as it proposes to fulfil, its sacred obligation to make those men as efficient as possible, not only physically, but also vocationally in the widest possible field of effective economic service.

THE RÔLE OF THE AMERICAN RED CROSS IN THE NATIONAL PROGRAM FOR THE REHABILITATION OF THE WOUNDED

By Curtis E. Lakeman,
Assistant to the Director General of Civilian Relief, American Red Cross.

My task is to summarize the rôle of the Red Cross in the national program for the rehabilitation of the disabled soldier or sailor. In one sense that could be done in a dozen words, by saying that here, as in all its work, the Red Cross will subordinate itself to government leadership and bend all its enthusiasm and resources to the promotion of the official plans and to the filling of such supplemental needs as may arise. While this would perhaps adequately express the spirit of Red Cross participation, a somewhat more circumstantial account of concrete activities already undertaken or contemplated on behalf of the men who have paid the price of permanent disablement will be expected.

Program of the Federal Government

The wounded soldier or sailor remains under the jurisdiction of the army or navy medical authorities, and in the service, until his active treatment is ended and all possible supplemental measures of physical reconstruction have been applied. In the army, at least, the intention is to retain in the service men disabled in the line of duty, until they no longer need treatment; since April, 1918, the stated policy has therefore been to discharge no man until he is cured or as nearly cured as may be expected in view of the nature of his disability.

For those who are eventually discharged, the government, through the War Risk Insurance Law, provides not pensions based on private legislation, but just compensation to faithful workmen injured in the extra hazardous occupation of constructing a world safe for democracy. This compensation varies according to the degree of disability and the size of the dependent family. It cannot be too frequently emphasized that this compensation cannot be reduced if and because a man increases his earning power by overcoming the handicap of a permanent injury. Accordingly, there should be no loss of incentive to seek the training which the government offers to those who cannot return to their old occupations.

Aside from this automatic government compensation, those workmen of liberty who have had sufficient native foresight, or who have been adequately persuaded, will receive for total disability the benefit of 240 monthly payments of government insurance varying in amount according to the principal they have chosen to take out. The Federal Board for Vocational Education is then authorized to offer to the free choice of any discharged soldier receiving compensation who cannot return to his old occupation, an adequate course of re-education for self-support in some other occupation suited to his condition. Similar advantages are available to those who can take up their former work, but in these cases the Vocational Board pays no family allowance during training.

When the men are trained, the same board is charged with finding them positions. In this work of placement, moreover, the board is not limited to men whom it has retrained, but has authority, under the law, to help into a new job any man who has been physically rehabilitated in the army or navy hospitals.

For those men who are entitled to compensation, and who require continued treatment after their discharge from military service, the Bureau of War Risk Insurance is authorized to provide hospital care or other necessary medical or surgical attention.

During the long period of convalescence in the hospital, the application of work is necessary for purposes of mental hygiene and functional restoration. This work should form a continuous process with the vocational training which supervenes on the man's discharge. To this end and in accordance with the Vocational Rehabilitation Law, officers of the Vocational Education Board are working in the military hospitals in coöperation with the army and navy authorities, advising the men about to be discharged and endeavoring to ensure the continuance of re-education on the voluntary civilian basis after the men leave the service.

Other federal departments stand ready to coöperate to the fullest extent of their ability. The Secretary of the Interior has an interesting plan for the assignment of reclaimable lands to returned soldiers. The Secretaries of Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor, and the Commissioner of Education are ex-officio members of the

Federal Board for Vocational Education so that thorough integration of governmental resources and effort is possible and seems assured.

THE WORK OF THE RED CROSS HOME SERVICE

Where, then, does the Red Cross fit into this comprehensive program of official activities on behalf of the disabled soldier? Obviously it will have no direct responsibility for the treatment, training, or even placement of the returned men. But the Red Cross has, according to its federal charter, assumed an obligation of auxiliary service reaching to every soldier and sailor and to his dependents whenever they indicate a need that the Red Cross can fill. This service cannot be brusquely terminated at the point of discharge, but must continue, both for the man and his family, during that indeterminate but critical interval while the man is awaiting the application of the government's plan to his individual needs and while he is getting back on his feet in civilian life. It is especially appropriate that any service rendered to the man's family should be linked up with service to the man himself when discharged. Whatever the Red Cross does in this connection naturally falls to its Department of Civilian Relief as a phase of home service work and organization.

Red Cross home service has been described as an effort to keep safe the homes and the home standards of those who fight to make the world safe for our homes. Without intrusive insistence, but with prompt and eager readiness when called upon, home service offers the channel through which patriotism and neighborliness combine to assist and protect the wives, children, mothers and other dependents of soldiers and sailors.

There is indubitable substance in Sir Baden-Powell's oft-quoted epigram that the war will be decided about 1935 in favor of the nations which retain the quality of manhood requisite to carry on the country's work after the war. Red Cross home service is inspired by an unshaken belief that every well-considered effort to prevent deterioration in the home life and home standards of America during the war is a telling blow toward this eventual victory.

Looking with shorter focus at the immediate emergency, home service charges itself with the execution of the nation's guarantee that no enlisted man's family shall lack for anything within the power of tactful, intelligent, neighborly and community good-will to supply. The majority of soldiers' and sailors' families need no outside help in order to maintain their normal standards of health, education, industry and family solidarity. To such it would be an impertinence to offer help. But with families already nearer the danger line, the stress of war may bring definite disaster unless the inexhaustible resources of the community spirit supply the timely remedy. Red Cross home service is the community's machinery for the execution of this intention. To such families, when and only when any need is intimated, it offers information, medical or legal service, business counsel, ordinary human companionship, in fact, every possible form of practical and friendly aid.

This effort must not be narrowly conceived as one of financial relief. It is largely in order to prevent such misapprehension that the name and concept of "home service" has been utilized. The government has rightly and generously assumed the burden of money relief through allotments and allowances, and compensation and insurance payments under the War Risk Insurance Law. It remains for the Red Cross to meet temporary emergencies by grants and loans pending arrival of government checks, and to provide relief in certain definite and necessary instances where the government finds it impossible or inexpedient to act.

Last in statement, but first in importance among the objects of home service is its effect on the soldier's morale. (There is no harder-worked word in the war shop, but no adequate substitute has yet been found.) It is still difficult to realize the size and peculiarity of the psychological problem which the war imposes on the American, as doubtless also on the Canadian and Australian armies. These men fighting in France are totally removed from the possibility of those frequent visits to their homes which are so important a part of the established routine of the French and even the British soldier. Our boys must carry on without these periodic opportunities for the relief, refreshment and inspiration for renewed effort which comes from a few days with their own folks. Therefore their home atmosphere must so far as possible be transported to them. The Director General of Civilian Relief of the American Red Cross recently studied this whole problem at first hand along the American front in France, and no one has more convincingly pictured its bearings on the war and the remedies to be applied. Of the morale of our fighting men he heard only uniform approval throughout France. They are maintaining that morale under conditions which, because of loneliness, strangeness and remoteness do not predispose to buoyance of mind.

That our men may be protected as far as possible from worry about their families, and that nothing else which will maintain morale be left undone, it is obvious that the American people must see to it that no family of a soldier lacks for anything which will enable it to write honestly cheerful letters abroad. Any condition which would disturb the man at the front and make him anxious to return and set things right with his family must be cured without delay. The Red Cross, then, undertakes to assure every soldier or sailor before he leaves for the front that whatever may befall his folks at home the local home service section may be depended upon to act promptly, sympathetically and adequately to maintain their comfort and peace of mind. A classic of the growing home service literature is a brief letter of thanks from a boy whose mother and sister had been visited and helped in some simple way. "I want to thank you all for what you have done; I can soldier better now."

Home service attacks these responsibilities through a highly developed special organization within the Red Cross. On the solid foundation of community self-expression through local committees of each Red Cross chapter, it is guided and standardized by trained executives working in these home service sections, as they are called, in fourteen division offices covering the entire country, and finally at headquarters in Washington. From the beginning there has been undeviating emphasis on the highest standards and on the need of special training for the responsible and complex duties of dealing with family relationships. The supply of trained workers was wholly unequal to the new demand, so that the Red Cross has been obliged to set up a complete educational system to meet the emergency. In twenty-five or more cities at strategic points throughout the country, home service institutes give repeated courses of six weeks duration in the principles and practice of this freshly inspired form of social work. Shorter courses are given by many chapters and additional lectures at universities, and before general audiences systematically describe the purpose and program of home service.

At present 50,000 men and women are enrolled and serving on

10,000 of these local committees. More than 300,000 families have been given some form of assistance. Even with financial relief in the background of its program, the current expenditure averages $400,000 a month. It amounted to $1,500,000 for the first six months of the present year and will probably exceed $4,000,000 during the second half of 1918.

HOME SERVICE IN RELATION TO THE DISABLED MEN

Thus the Red Cross has already in operation a special piece of war service machinery, created over night, and peculiarly adapted to assist in the after-care of the disabled soldier. Congress has framed into the national law its reasoning that the task of making civilians out of soldiers is work for a civil department of the government. In this process of "demilitarization" of those who have finished their work at the front, it is surely appropriate that if the coöperation of voluntary agencies be required, a large rôle should be played by this great group of workers for the welfare of soldiers' and sailors' families. Obviously it is difficult and wasteful to separate what is done in helping a returned soldier through the critical stage of transition to civil life from what is done for his family. In theory, both functions may be effectively discharged by the same organization; in practice, the Red Cross has long been ready to meet the similar but differing requirements whenever and wherever the government, which properly takes the chief responsibility, may accept its aid.

Where, then, is such aid most likely to be asked for and how can it be given? First in continuing for the returned soldier's family, the same oversight and service which, if needed, has already been given to that family while the man was at the front. So far as medical or legal advice, information, companionship, opportunity for recreation, practical helpfulness of any kind was needed then, it will be needed now, both because the nation cannot see the family lose ground or suffer and because now more than ever, the man must know that all is well at home if his spirit is to "carry on" through these further weeks of separation during his hospital treatment and perhaps during his vocational training.

Throughout this period the influence of the family must be counted as a powerful factor in having the ex-soldier take the decisions which should lead to a safe and productive future for himself and, inseparably, for his family. The man must be advised against demanding premature discharge from the care of the medical officers, now so freely offered under the generous policy of the War Department. Vocational training under the law of June 27, 1918, is optional with the man. Often he must be wisely and sympathetically induced to see its advantages to himself and to his family. In bringing him to a keen realization of his own best interests in all these respects the knowledge and opinion of his family must be accounted a factor of the first importance. Those in a position to form and guide the family's opinion can render an incomparable service in thus assuring its future.

In several groups of cases, such as the blind, the tuberculous, and the mentally diseased, home service workers will often be able, on request of the proper authorities, to give confidential and timely advice, aiding the medical officers both in reaching accurate diagnoses, and in determining whether and when it is safe and wise to discharge the patient for convalescence at home.

Similar assistance can be rendered the vocational officers in studying the factors of personal, family and community background which must be taken into consideration in any sound decision as to the best occupation for a given man to undertake. Once training is commenced the support of the family must be strong and steady, and its influence must offset any temptation to take immediate work at inflated wages, to the neglect or abandonment of preparation for a safe and increasingly productive future.

But the interest and helpfulness of home service also extends directly to the man himself, though here, more than ever, the prime responsibility of the Federal Board for Vocational Education is recognized as the agency called upon to deal officially with the needs of discharged men. Already, however, the Red Cross offices have been able to furnish the Federal Board with lists of men who have been discharged and who may be eligible for training or for more productive re-employment. These men have come to the attention of local home service committees, and have been given preliminary information, relief or counsel as to their rights and duties under the War Risk Insurance Law and the Vocational Rehabilitation Law. Such informational work is the first duty of home service in its contact with the disabled man.

In the normal instance such men are presumably willing and anxious to take advantage of the plans of the government and need, first of all, to be told of their rights and how to make application. Cases have already come to the attention of Red Cross workers, however, where men have refused to apply for compensation or any other benefits under the federal laws, being convinced that there is involved some mysterious plan on the part of the government to get the men back into the army. It goes without saying that such misapprehension could arise only among the ill-informed. It is obviously an opportunity and duty of the community Red Cross workers to take the lead in correcting any such state of misinformation and ignorance as to the beneficent purposes of the law.

So far as possible it is understood to be the plan and intention of the Vocational Board to place men for training in schools or industries near their homes. Nevertheless in some instances circumstances may call for the training of men in particular industries which offer the necessary facilities at best advantage only in a few places. This may mean that some men must continue their training for a certain number of weeks or months at a distance from their homes. In this event the Federal Board will naturally make every effort through its local agents to see that the constant friendly advisory services of an experienced older man standing either in an official or unofficial relation toward the discharged soldier shall be available for his guidance and protection. Red Cross home service sections in such cities will stand ready to render such assistance in this respect as the Vocational Board may desire. Since representative citizens, bankers, lawyers, doctors, business men and clergymen, are in practically every instance represented on home service sections, the organization is already equipped to offer intelligent service of this friendly and brotherly character.

In most instances it would probably be unfortunate if families felt obliged to migrate to any considerable distance in order to remain near the men during the relatively brief period of training in these instances where they cannot be trained near home. The home service sections have constant occasion to deal with problems of family migration and would be prepared in such instances to study each such problem on its own merits and assist in the wisest solution.

Thus again we are led back to the conclusion that no practical separation can be made between official or private efforts to assist the man and similar efforts to aid his family. All of this points to the desirability of the closest working relations between the Vocational Board and the home service organization of the Red Cross. It is gratifying to be able to report that such relations have already been established and disabled soldiers and sailors are already being cared for under a clear understanding of the respective spheres of authority and interest of the several agencies concerned.

There is danger, in so much reference to service, of giving the impression that there is something smacking of "charity," something essentially out of accord with the American spirit of self-reliance and individual ambition in the plans which have been discussed. Nothing could be further from the truth and from the spirit of Red Cross home service. Just as the greater number of families of soldiers and sailors have needed no outside assistance, so it may be expected that among the discharged men only a minority will either themselves or because of their families require such aid as the Red Cross can offer. The experience of the past year and the records from all over the country bear witness, however, to the fact that there are a definite number of discharged men and families who have welcomed the information and assistance which the Red Cross has been in a position to give and who have accurately estimated the spirit of patriotism and homage to those who serve, with which such aid is offered. And nothing is more fundamental in the social philosophy of home service than the conviction of its duty and of its success in making those it aids self-reliant and self-sufficient in the highest possible degree.

Within the Red Cross a distinction is made for administrative purposes between the functions of the Department of Military Relief and the Department of Civilian Relief. The former controls all work done directly for the men while in service; the latter has charge of the work for families and for the men after their discharge. But it would be a mistake to imagine that such technicalities of internal organization involve any distinction in the spirit and effectiveness of Red Cross work. The functions of the two departments dovetail at many points and their respective agents work together toward the single object of serving the needs of the men.

At each military post and hospital the Red Cross Bureau of Camp Service has a field director with a staff of assistants charged with constant direct contact with the men and ready to help them in every way. Thus provision is made for keeping families informed about the health of the men, and for establishing connection with the appropriate home service section, whenever the associate field director finds a soldier or sailor distressed because of some need in his family.

Under the Department of Military Relief has also been conducted the pioneer research and educational work of the Red Cross Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men in New York, and the more recently established Red Cross Institute for the Blind, which is intended to supplement the work of the army hospital at Baltimore, where all our blinded soldiers are receiving the most expert care and teaching. Here indeed is a final instance of the close correlation of Red Cross activities. The home service organization is assisting the military medical authorities in obtaining essential data as to the previous history of the blind men, in explaining the government's plan to the family, and in selecting the relative who will be taken to Baltimore by the Red Cross Institute and trained side by side with the blinded soldier.

A final responsibility of the Red Cross is to coöperate with every community movement to make known generally the purpose and program of the government. Home service workers are constantly explaining these matters to individuals, and must likewise lead or aid in presenting them to the public generally. When once all citizens of all ranks understand the splendidly conceived government plan, they will stand back of it in every detail and make it an assured success. Then and only then will pass away every danger of hysterical, ephemeral hero-worship which may otherwise prove a stumbling block. Then and only then will a sound and wholesome public opinion dominate and save the disabled man to a happy and productive life, in which he shall still play a glorious part in the peaceful achievements of his community, his state and his country.

VOCATIONAL WORK OF THE INVALIDED SOLDIERS' COMMISSION OF CANADA

By T. B. Kidner,

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In this article I shall not go very fully into particulars of the work undertaken in Canada in connection with the rehabilitation of our wounded and disabled men, except in so far as will be necessary to afford a background for a few lessons which it seems to me may be learned from Canada's experience.

We think a great deal about the war cripple, as the man who has lost an arm or a leg. Now there are reasons for our thinking this way, but I happen to have some striking figures as to the ratio of surgical to medical cases in the present war. In a report issued by the British Minister of Pensions for the week ending August 23, 1918, the latest report to be received on this side—at least it is the latest that we have in Washington—was that there were 55,869 men under treatment in the hospitals in Great Britain. Of that 55,869, 20,495 were suffering from wounds and injuries—just a trifle over 36 per cent. Nearly 2,500 were suffering from neurasthenia, paraplegia 224, epilepsy 474, and this is the appalling figure, the next one, 7,576 from tuberculosis. From other general diseases—everything under the sun, if I know anything about it from our experience in our Canadian work—other diseases 24,672. I merely mention that because the problem of the absorption of the disabled from war into industry is not wholly a problem of dealing with a man who has lost an arm, or lost a leg, or eyesight. I am thankful to say that the latter are very few in comparison. Six weeks ago we wished to have the exact figures to date, and the Canadian official figures to date of the number of men blinded in the war out of our Canadian Army of nearly half a million men were forty six. Forty-six men have lost their sight to date. That is bad enough, but I think it cannot be too often rubbed in, so to speak, that the war cripple in a great majority of cases is outwardly whole. He is not what we see in the magazines and the moving-pictures, etc., although that is the kind of thing, of course, that the magazine illustrator wants. The very first man on this side to do any publicity work on this subject, and he has done yeoman service, sent to Canada to us for some pictures. When he was given pictures of the men attending some of our hospital schools, he sent them back and said, "That is not the kind of a picture I want. These men don't look like war cripples."

We had very little information upon which to build our policy when, about the middle of the year 1915, our disabled men began to come back to Canada. The first consideration was the provision of convalescent hospitals, for at that time hardly any men requiring active treatment were sent home. The Military Hospitals Commission (now the Invalided Soldiers' Commission) was appointed to provide convalescent hospitals, and before long a chain of these institutions was in operation from coast to coast. It soon appeared, however, that if these men were to be returned to civil life, arrangements would have to be made for their employment. Therefore, in co-operation with the several provinces, employment commissions were established in each province by the provincial government to work with the federal authorities. At the same time the matter of providing vocational re-education for those whose disabilities would prevent their return to their former occupations was also considered, and early in 1916 steps were taken to inaugurate this work. In this phase in particular, there was very little upon which to base any plans, and the first step undertaken was to make a survey of several groups of disabled men in different parts of the country. We had up to that time rather less than one thousand men on our hands returned disabled from the other side. This survey revealed several very interesting and significant facts, perhaps the most important of which was that only a comparatively small proportion of the disabled would be unable to return to their former occupations. I need not elaborate this, for it is well known and is borne out by the experience of our Allies, but roughly speaking, it appeared that of the men returned to Canada as unfit for further service, only about 10 per cent required re-education for new occupations. Of course, this is not a percentage of the total wounded, the great majority of whom are restored to further usefulness in hospitals on the other side.

Another interesting fact revealed by our first hurried survey and borne out by our experience since, was the small proportion of men suffering from the loss of a limb. Up to the first of June last out of nearly 30,000 disabled men returned to Canada, less than 1,500 had suffered a major amputation.

Serious, then, though it is in point of complexity and difficulties, the provision of vocational re-education for new occupations is not a serious one in point of the total number of men to be dealt with. At the outset, therefore, the Military Hospitals Commission felt that for the moment there was a more pressing need and that was to provide occupation, as far as medical requirements would allow, for all men undergoing convalescent treatment in the commission's hospitals. Commencing in a small way, this has grown until in or in connection with each institution where disabled men are undergoing treatment in Canada, there is provided a wide range of opportunities for occupational work during a man's hospital period. The value of this work is manifold; first, from the therapeutic standpoint, I think the commission has proved the value of occupation for mind and body of the sick man. Of course, this was not an entirely new thing, for something of the sort had been in operation for some years in connection with the treatment of mental cases in many of the more advanced institutions. I think, however, that it was the first time that the work had been undertaken on so large a scale and to embrace such a variety of occupations. The facilities included class rooms for general educational work, commercial training, workshops for arts and crafts, and a variety of mechanical and other occupations, and also outdoor work in gardening and poultry-keeping.

A second point of value was that it was disciplinary both for the disabled man himself in that it prevented that moral and social deterioration, which is always a result of a prolonged period of idleness, and was also of value in the discipline of the institution itself. There was at first a tendency to spoil our returned men by over-attention and for this it was found that active, interesting occupations formed the best antidote.

A third point which I think was proved most conclusively was that in a great many cases a man's deficiencies of education could be supplemented, or he could be given an opportunity of improving himself in some way, so that upon his return to civil life his earning capacity was increased as the result of his hospital experience. In hundreds of instances men who have passed through the hospital schools in Canada are today holding better positions and earning more money than they were able to earn before they enlisted. I believe that the results in this respect alone have been worth the expenditure of all the time and money which this work has entailed. Later on, cases requiring active treatment were returned to Canada and for these men light ward occupations were provided, but in my opinion such work can have but little vocational value, although it may form an important therapeutic agency in the restoration of the man to health.

The commission next turned its attention to the serious task of providing vocational re education for those who could not take up their former occupations. As a preliminary—two things seemed to be absolutely necessary. Already we were hearing from France of the reluctance of men to overcome their handicap and improve their earning capacity by means of vocational or industrial training because of the fear that it might reduce their pensions. There were indications also from Germany that the same condition of things prevailed there. Canada was at the time making new pension regulations and therefore it was arranged that a very distinct regulation on this matter should be included. Section 9 of the Pensions regulations dated June 3, 1916, reads as follows:

> No deductions shall be made from the amount awarded to any pensioner owing to his having undertaken work or perfected himself in some form of industry.

That is to say, a man's pension is determined by his disability in the open labor market and not by his earning capacity, which may be tremendously improved by his vocational re-education, of course to his own benefit, but even more to the benefit of the community and the nation.

The other consideration was the question as to how a man and his dependents should be supported during his period of training, for it was obvious that a man could not be expected to undertake any course unless he could be assured of his support and of the support of those dependent upon him during the time that he is undergoing re-education. That of course brought up the much debated question as to whether a man should be retained as a soldier and receive his military pay and allowance during his period of training, or should be discharged and maintained by the government on some other basis as a civilian. I need not elaborate on that. It has been a subject of a great deal of discussion in the United States and in all of the countries that are dealing with this problem. The Canadian authorities decided on the latter method, I am glad to say, and established a scale of pay and allowance graduated according to the number of a man's dependents, which should be payable to the man during his period of training and for one month after his course is completed. I was glad because I believe that the duty of replacing a man in civil life as a useful member of a community once more is not a military function. In point of fact, the process of rehabilitation of a disabled soldier or sailor must include his demilitarization, so to speak. It is a necessity that as a soldier or sailor he shall sink his individuality and shall in all respects live under orders in all his doings throughout his military career. It is this very fact which has made the problem of the ex-soldier always a difficult one, and in my opinion just as soon as it is decided that a man is of no further use in military service, he should be discharged to the care of some civilian authority should he need further treatment in the way of education or training to fit him for replacement in civil life.

Having settled these two points, the matter of providing courses in vocational re-education in new occupations was taken up vigorously. May I point out one thing on which there would seem to be a good deal of misapprehension? None of the warring countries has endeavored to provide re-education for new occupations for all discharged men, but only for those whose disabilities incurred on service will prevent them returning to their former occupations. The provision of a course of re-education is not the reward of valor, but a recognition of the fact that it is to the interest of the nation as well as to the individual concerned that every disabled man be restored as far as possible to the fullest usefulness.

I think, however, that the United States, by virtue of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act, passed by Congress on June 27 last, goes further than any other country, for it *does* provide that any man who is entitled to compensation as a result of his injuries may be provided, after his discharge, with a course of training at the expense of the government, even though he may be able to return to his former occupation. No provision is made, however, for his maintenance, or that of his dependents, during his training, though he will receive any compensation due him under the War Risk Insurance Act. But if his disability prevents his return to his former occupation, he will not only receive his training at the expense of the government, but his other expenses will be met and allowances for his family will be continued, just as if he were still in military service. For this last class of men, the provisions are very similar in the United States to those in Canada.

One of the first questions usually asked by inquirers is: "For what occupations do you train the disabled men?" A line of investigation which seems to attract a great many is the attempt to discover specific occupations which will fit, or be suitable for, men suffering from specific disabilities. In my opinion, this is not possible, for there are so many factors, practically every one of which is variable, to be taken into consideration. Further, in a great many cases, the disabled man is suffering from a complication of disabilities. He may, for instance, have some disabling leg condition which would be no bar to his taking up any one of a large variety of occupations, but he may also have been gassed, or have heart trouble, which, together with his leg disability, makes it greatly more difficult to find a suitable occupation towards which he may be directed.

In our practice in Canada, from the first, we adopted the plan of considering every case individually in the light of every factor which may have a possible bearing on the case. This plan has been adopted also by the Federal Board in dealing with disabled American soldiers and sailors.

I have in my possession some survey blanks which are used by the vocational advisers of the board in dealing with disabled men who are potential cases for re-education and it may be of interest to mention, briefly, some of the items of information asked for so as to enable a man's future occupation to be considered intelligently in the light, as I have said before, of all the factors likely to bear on his case.

After the usual identification particulars common to all such forms, such items as the birthplace of the man and, if he were born abroad, the date he came to this country follow. Then comes a simple statement of his disability. One of the most important factors is the man's educational history, both the amount and kind, and this is most carefully inquired into and recorded. Of even greater importance in many cases is his industrial history, for this is often most revealing of the man's nature and characteristics, as well as of his skill or experience in the occupations.

I have just used a phrase which I should like to repeat. I spoke of the new occupation "towards which a disabled man is to be directed." I used that phrase advisedly, for it is of great significance. The disabled man himself must have the will to succeed, the will to overcome his handicap, if his re-education and successful placement in a suitable position in some civil occupation are to be accomplished. No compulsory scheme for the re-education of our disabled is possible. In the language of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of Congress, the man "elects" his course. It goes without saying, though, that he must be assisted in every way to elect wisely, to elect not on his whim of the moment, but in the light of all the information with which his vocational advisers can provide him.

The next question on the form is, then, an inquiry as to the man's preference (or preferences, for he is asked to make a second and a third choice) for his new occupation. Various items regarding his personal characteristics are next recorded, after which a record is made of the occupational work he has done as a part of his therapeutic treatment during his hospital period. Under the auspices of the Surgeon General of the Army, training in a variety of work is provided as a therapeutic measure in the reconstruction hospitals. The officers in charge of this work are often able to make good suggestions as to a man's future occupation in the light of their experience of him in the hospital classes. A careful medical examination is then made to discover the man's remaining abilities, and, side by side, the technical and medical experts consider the several occupations which, in the light of the numerous factors briefly indicated as appearing on the survey form, may be open to him.

Thus, and thus only, in my opinion, should the very serious duty of directing an adult towards a new occupation be undertaken. In Canada, our disabled men are being trained in about two hundred occupations and it is hoped that with the greater industrial development of the United States, an even wider range of occupations will be possible on this side of the line.

It is, of course, a cardinal principle that a man's previous education and experience should not be "scrapped," but rather should form a background or foundation for his new occupation. Hence, if at all possible, a disabled man is trained either for some new branch of his former occupation, or for some allied or related occupation.

The training is given in a variety of ways. Some few occupations can be taught in schools or other institutions, others only in the industries themselves. Others again can best be taught by a combination of these two methods. The Federal Board plans to use all three methods. The many existing institutions will be used for such occupations as can be taught in them properly. The industries of the country will be used as training places for the much larger number of occupations which cannot be taught in schools or colleges. Already the board has been assured of the hearty coöperation both of employers and representatives of labor in this work.

The wide distribution of the disabled throughout a great variety of occupations is in my opinion wise and expedient. Many troubles which would occur if a large number of disabled men were trained for a few occupations will thereby be avoided. It would be most unwise to train our disabled men for new occupations merely because it was easy to provide training in a certain few. Therefore the policy of spreading the men out is the wisest, but as I say it is hoped that here in the United States even more occupations will be found than the range of two hundred, in which we are training our disabled men in Canada.

I have rather refrained from statistics but I should like to quote briefly from the latest figures as to vocational re-education in Canada. To date 1,347 men have completed courses of re-education for new occupations and 1,868 are at present taking courses. In addition over 2,000 are taking courses during convalescence in the curative workshops and class rooms attached to the convalescent hospitals.

I think it can be fairly stated that the majority of the men who have completed their courses are today in at least as good positions as they filled before enlistment and many are actually better off. It must be remembered that they are continuing to receive their pensions, in addition, in many cases, to being able to earn the full wages paid in the industry in which they are working. That is to say, instead of leaving as an aftermath of the war a large number of men dragging out a useless existence as pensioners on the nation and on other agencies, public or private, they are self-supporting, capable members of the community, fulfilling their duties in peace as they did in war.

It seems to me that this is one of the big things we are learning from the war and already there is evidence that the lesson will be carried over into industry for the benefit of the large number of victims of industrial accidents and disease annually resulting from modern industrial life. At this moment there is a bill before Congress, "To provide for the promotion of vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise and their return to civil employment." The bill proposes a scheme of coöperation between federal and state authorities, very much of the type already in operation under the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act for Vocational Education. The experience gained in dealing with the disabled from war will be of great value in dealing with the victims of industry. Already many firms and corporations have discovered that something better than a gatekeeper's or a watchman's job can be found for a partially disabled skilled mechanic and that the conservation of the remaining powers of the man and the utilization of his previous experience and training are alike a duty and a sound business proposition.

For our disabled soldiers and sailors, it seems clear that it is the duty of the nation (and the nation has already recognized it) so to manage its work that the men disabled in the service of the nation by wounds or disease may come out of the disaster improved morally, socially and economically. It is a great work and worth all our efforts and will well repay them.

A CONSTRUCTIVE PROGRAM FOR THE REHABILITATION OF THE RETURNING SOLDIERS

By Frederic C. Howe,
Commissioner of Immigration at the Port of New York.

The problems of reconstruction and the redistribution of millions of men and women to immediate profitable employment on the termination of the war are as colossal a problem as the mobilization of the army. And it is so recognized in other warring countries. Great Britain has created a Ministry of Reconstruction, and a number of official investigations and reports have already been made.

Any adequate program of rehabilitation must be developed by the government. It cannot be left to chance, to chaos, to private initiative. The consequences would be too terrible. Millions of men would drift to the cities. There may be a long period of unemployment. Industries will have to re-adjust themselves to peace demands. A million and a half women have taken the places of men, while upwards of twelve million men are, directly or indirectly, engaged behind the line in the production of war products. New cities have been built. Old cities have been congested with workers. These are some of the conditions which will be violently deranged on the termination of the war. An adequate program of reconstruction and demobilization includes the following:

(a) Provision should be made for the soldier, and, in a measure, the industrial worker as well until he is needed or has been found employment. He should be given a furlough. In England unemployment insurance is being advocated to carry the soldier over this period. The United States employment service is a proper agency for carrying through the work of demobilization. It is a nation-wide agency. And it can by expansion develop itself into the agency for the handling of the tremendous human problem involved in the re-location of men at their homes, at their work, and on the farm.

(b) Education should play an important rôle in reconstruction. Our colleges and secondary schools should re-take to themselves the men whose education was interrupted, and adjust their educational equipment and curricula to the needs of the soldiers. They should be industrial, mechanical, agricultural. Examinations and degrees, and hard and fast methods should be relaxed. The aim should be to absorb into the schools as large numbers as possible, and at the same time to adjust our education facilities to the industrial and social needs of the country.

(c) The federal government should provide emergency work on a large scale. Preparations for this should be undertaken immediately. A survey should be made. Engineering plans should be prepared, and an appropriation should be secured for this purpose. A big program of internal development should be formulated looking to,

1. Afforestation.
2. Reclamation projects.
3. Reclamation of swamp and cut-over timber lands.
4. The building of roads and highways.
5. The carrying forward of building projects interrupted by the war.

These are indicative of the types of work to which great bodies of men could be immediately directed if provision were made for the same. It is in the open; it is suited to the life the men have been accustomed to; the great engines of war could be in part used for these purposes, and the industrial reconstruction work could be carried out on a semi-militaristic basis.

(d) There should be a big transportation program, and the development of a unified railway, water, and terminal system, for the purpose of making the agencies of transportation as efficient as possible. Great terminals are needed in a score of cities; our harbors and docks should be developed; thousands of miles of new railways should be built; the rivers of the country and the canals should be integrated into the rail transportation. As a result of such a program freight rates could be reduced, transportation facilities could be speeded up and the country could be organized for the handling of its domestic and foreign commerce as are the countries of Europe.

Secretary McAdoo has suggested a great hydro-electric power system, with central stations in different parts of the country. This should be identified with the railroad development projects; they should be large enough to supply cities and industries with power; there is an endless possibility in the harnessing of the white coal of

America as there was in Switzerland, and the Province of Ontario where state-owned hydro-electric projects have been carried through.

(c) All of the warring countries are emphasizing the necessity of returning the soldier to the land. And in England, Australia and Canada, a new kind of agriculture is being developed known as the farm colony. Experts have admitted that the soldier will not take up an unbroken piece of land where he is isolated from his fellows. Moreover the public domain of America is gone, and such a policy is impossible. Official commissions in England and Australia are developing plans by which the state will sell to the returning soldiers ready-made farms of from three to thirty acres, which a single man can cultivate. The farms are grouped about a village community, with educational, recreational and coöperative agencies for marketing and buying. An educational expert directs the activities of the colony. Would-be farmers are sold small farms, with a house, barn, and sufficient capital on easy terms, the state advancing nine-tenths of the capital, to be re-paid on long term installments. The experience of Australia in this field and Denmark as well, has demonstrated that men will remain on the farm under these conditions, that production is increased, and a new interest in agriculture is awakened. Such a program should be carried out in the United States. The colonies should be located as near cities and markets as possible. They should be located in New England, the Southern, Central, and Western States, and each colony should be adjusted to an especial kind of farming. Tractors and farm machinery should be owned in common as is now done in Massachusetts, New York, and Pennsylvania. In this way great economies are introduced, while the farmer through his coöperative agencies is able to protect himself from those speculative interests that have contributed largely to making agriculture unprofitable.

Such a program as this involves no permanent burden to the nation. It pays for itself. And America is in need of a big internal program in order to develop her resources and make the nation industrially efficient. A big agricultural program is demanded by the drift of population to the cities, the growth of tenancy, and the exhaustion of the soil. If such a program is not adopted, the alternative is industrial depression, the drift of large numbers of men to the cities, and widespread suffering. Only the government can take up the slack, for only the government has the resources to do so.

PLANS FOR THE EDUCATION OF DISABLED AND CONVALESCENT OFFICERS OF BRITISH AND ALLIED FORCES

By Henry Chellew, D.Sc.,
Honorary Secretary, London School for Officers

In order that wounded officers of the English and Allied Armies may have the opportunity to receive educational or technical training during the time of their convalescence, classes for this purpose have been instituted by the Appointments Department, Ministry of Labor, London. In these classes, opportunity is afforded these officers for such educational or technical training as will fit them for munitions or other national war service so long as the medical board certifies them as unfit for general service. Further, they will be fitted for their eventual re-entry into professional, scientific or commercial occupation with new knowledge, completed training and refreshed experience.

The purposes of the officers' university and technical classes[1] are as follows:

1. The restoration of the health of wounded and debilitated officers, so that if possible they may be restored to general service fitness.
2. Alternatively the provision of technically trained officers who, after a course of instruction, remaining unfit for general service, are available for Ministry of Munitions or other national requirements.

But in addition there is the broad purpose of:

3. The building up of the scientific and technical knowledge of the nation.
4. The provision of a system by which the officer proving to be unfit may be guided toward resettlement in civil life through a process based on training.

The Department is staffed almost entirely by serving officers who are temporarily disabled. Headquarters and each district directorate is a training field in business administration. Selections are made from the officers for attachment to such offices, and important emergency calls to appointments are filled from time to time direct from among the tested members of these staffs. Others are then brought forward for training.

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[1] It should be noted that the London Officers' University and Technical Classes is in liason with the University of London and with all the colleges, institutions and polytechnics of the University, besides many institutions and private coaching firms which do not come under the jurisdiction of the University.

OPPORTUNITY FOR FUTURE CAREER

Endeavour is made to place a man according to the indication which a consideration of the future career of each candidate suggests as most advisable. So it is that arrangements are being made with each University by which the time spent at the University studying one or another subject may count towards a degree, provided the officer-student after the war, or when released from the army, decides to return to the University to continue his studies and pass the necessary matriculation or other examinations if he has not already done so. The Universities are giving to each officer-student, if he leaves, a simple certificate setting forth the time which the officer has spent at the University, the subject upon which he has been engaged, and so far as possible the quality of the knowledge he has attained.

It will be seen that the scheme of the Appointments Department, under the system as carried out through the officers' classes, gives opportunity for study at the earliest possible moment to every officer so seriously damaged or debilitated as to have six months inactivity ahead of him when last Boarded. It gives the government offices and private firms the opportunity of selecting from such officers the men they require. It gives the officer a better chance of recovery to fighting fitness. It gives the too seriously damaged officer the hope of passing out to civil life without jar and with mental activities operating. Further, it gives to the officers of the Ministry of Pensions, who are working in close coöperation with the officers' classes, a review of each seriously damaged ex-officer, a review prepared not in a moment, but based on a record created by the officer himself while attached as a serving officer to an adjutant who is responsible for keeping his district director and headquarters informed as to the studies, successes and difficulties of each officer attached to him.

The serving officer seriously damaged who makes earnest effort while serving and attached to the officers' classes may expect the best possible consideration from the officers of the Ministry of Pensions when he in due course becomes an ex-officer.

COURSES OPEN TO DISCHARGED OFFICERS

With a view to assisting discharged officers to fit themselves for suitable appointments in civil life, a course on business education and administration has been arranged by the London School for Officers. The course is not of a theoretical or academic nature, but is designed to suit, as far as possible, the special requirements of those who are likely to attend it.

Subject to such alterations as may seem desirable from time to time as the scheme develops, it is proposed that the subjects comprised in the course should be as follows:

1. *Accounting:* Giving special attention to company accounts, cost accounts, agricultural accounts, and the accounts of foreign traders.

2. *Business Organization:* Dealing with the varying forms of organization suitable to different types of businesses; the relations of business houses towards each other; the effective control of employes; the handling of work-people; and other similar subjects of especial importance at the present time.

3. *Commercial and Industrial Law:* Approached from the point of view of the business man, rather than from the point of view of the lawyer.

4. *The Elements of Commerce:* Including the organization of British and foreign trade, and the organization of markets, economic and geographical. This course will include an explanation of the resources of the various parts of the British Empire, and of the more important foreign countries.

Other business subjects will be arranged for as and when experience suggests the desirability of so doing.

The course will consist of twelve weeks' instruction, given partly by lectures, partly in classes and partly by means of seminars. The first course was started Monday, July 1, 1918, and arrangements made for subsequent courses at intervals of three months. Every effort will be made to let the men attending these classes feel that they are receiving individual attention at the hands of the lecturers who will, so far as lies in their power, assist the officers who have lost touch with business affairs to regain confidence in themselves and in their ability to follow a successful business career. It is confidently expected that a large number of business houses will gladly welcome these courses and do their best to provide suitable employment for those who have passed through them. It is proposed that the government should pay towards the cost of maintaining these courses an inclusive fee of £6.6. 0d. (about $30.00) per officer per quarter, and under present conditions the executive committee could arrange to accommodate one hundred officers simultaneously.

The following subjects are announced by the school for Courses I and II:

COURSE I

Industrial Economics and Psychology

The Science of Industry and Commerce: The Sources of Efficiency: Functional Management: The Problem of Supervision: Direction and Control: The Human Factor: Industrial Pyschology: The Problem of Discipline: Time, Energy, and Money: Handling and Training the Staff: Marketing the Product: Post-War Problems in Commerce.

Business Organization and Administration

General Introduction: The Constitution of Business Houses: Partnerships: Companies: Ententes and Alliances of (*a*) Men (*b*) Masters: Business Terms and Their Meanings: Business Finance: Capital and Revenue: The Organization of Credit and Payments: Bills of Exchange: Cheques: The Stock Exchange: Secretarial Work: Meetings, Reports, Agenda, and Minutes.

Commercial Law

Sale of Goods: Nature of Business Contracts: Who May Contract: What Constitutes Offer and Acceptance: Void and Voidable Contracts: Bankruptcy and Bills of Sale: Master and Servant: Bailment: Carriers.

Accounting and Business Methods

The Aims of Accounting: The Meaning of an Account: Debit and Credit: The Theory of Double Entry: The Trial Balance: "First Entry" Records: Capital and Revenue: Balance Sheets and Profit and Loss Accounts: The "Double Account" System: Depreciation: Trading Accounts: Stock Accounts: Modern Methods of Accounting without Books: Sectional Balancing.

Commerce and Commercial Geography

The Exchange of Goods: Markets: Speculation: Prices: Costs of Transport and Marketing: Freight Rates: Prices and Values: Payment for Goods: International Indebtedness.

The geographical distribution and supply within the British Empire of some of the more important food-stuffs and raw materials of Industry, with special reference to the position and needs of the United Kingdom.

COURSE II

Industrial Economics and Psychology

The Science of Organization: The Scientific Method Applied to Industry: Internal Organization: The General Manager and His Functions: The Human Factor in Management: Staff Training: Psychology as Applied to Industry: Methods of Increasing Efficiency: Men, Money and Machinery: Vocational Adaptation: The Nature of Industrial Regimentation: Scientific Distribution.

Business Organization

The Remuneration of Employes: Credit Records and the Handling of Bad

Debts: Selling: Advertising: Buying: Cycles of Trade: Speculation in Relation to Business: Hedging: Insurance: The General Organization of Expanding, Contracting, and Temporary Businesses Compared: State Regulation of Trade and Industry.

Banking, Currency and Exchange (6 Lectures)

The Functions of Money and Types of Money: The Functions of the Banker: Banking Business as Revealed by the Analysis of Banking Balance Sheets: The Bank of England: The Bank Rate: Foreign Exchanges.

General Elementary Methods of Statistics (6 Lectures)

The Collection of Data: Definition of Units: Classification and Tabulation: Percentages: Averages: Graphic Methods.

Commercial Law

Principal and Agent: Executorships and Trusts: Bills of Exchange, Bills of Lading, and other negotiable instruments: Persons under Disability: Partnerships: Insurance: Limitations of Actions: Remedies.

Accounting and Business Methods

Methods of Balancing: Branch Accounts: Foreign Currencies in Accounts: Foreign Branches: Systems of Internal and External Check: Precautions against Fraud: Tabular Bookkeeping: Periodical Returns: Reserves and Reserve Funds: Goodwill: Profits: Partnership Accounts: Capital Reorganizations: Cost Accounts: Criticism of Accounts.

Public Administration

The Structure, Finance, and Functions of Local Government Bodies in England.

The Commercial Relations of the Chief European Countries before the War

The Geographical Basis of the Internal Trade of Europe: Deficits of Continental Europe Supplied from the Outside World: The Work of British Shipping: Europe as a Market for the United Kingdom: The Coal Trade and Its Importance: The Demand for Manufactures: Competition: Transport and Tariffs: Financing of Industries and Trade: Peaceful Penetration: The Relations of Central Powers with Neighbouring Areas.

Lectures on Various Subjects, by Well-Known Authorities

EDUCATION OF [illegible] AND [illegible]

Debts; selling; Advertising; [illegible] Trade Marks [illegible] to Business; [illegible] trading; [illegible] Industry.

[illegible]

The [illegible] Banking [illegible] Bank of England; [illegible]

[illegible]

The [illegible] tion. [illegible]

[illegible]

Financial and [illegible] Lading and other [illegible] ships. Insurance [illegible]

[illegible]

Methods of [illegible] Foreign Exchanges, Systems of [illegible] Fraud. [illegible] Cash [illegible] Criticism of Accounts.

[illegible]

The [illegible] England.

The Consular [illegible]

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