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VOL. XXVII

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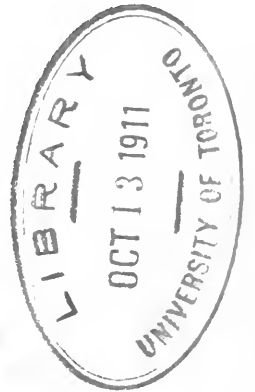


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THE SURVEY

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

PITTSBURGH IN PERSPECTIVE

Earlier, perhaps, than elsewhere, and more clearly than elsewhere, the essential tendencies of uncontrolled large-scale industry are to be observed in the Pittsburgh steel district. We have, however, constantly assumed that those tendencies are fundamentally national rather than local.

Through a generous gift of Charles M. Cabot of Boston, THE SURVEY has been in position to send John A. Fitch, the member of the staff of the Pittsburgh Survey especially charged with the investigation of conditions in the steel mills, to the other leading centers of steel production in this country. The intimate first-hand material which he has collected will serve to nationalize the earlier work of the Pittsburgh Survey, and will give a graphic social setting to the contemporaneous government investigation of which, of course, our inquiries have been entirely independent.

Mr. Fitch's Pittsburgh Survey data included the mill towns of the Monongahela valley where the United States Steel Corporation is dominant—Homestead, Braddock, Duquesne, and McKeesport. This data he set forth at length in the volume *The Steel Workers*, published by Charities Publication Committee for the Russell Sage Foundation. His second commission for THE SURVEY is undertaken, as we have indicated, in co-operation, not with the Russell Sage Foundation, but with a private citizen, who, as an individual stock-holder in the United States Steel Corporation, is carrying forward single-handed the campaign to provoke active interest and untrammelled discussion on the part of his fellow stock-holders as to conditions in the industry from which they draw dividends. The present inquiry has necessarily been selective. It covers the large independent mills in Pennsylvania; Lackawanna, the town built in a swamp; Gary and South Chicago, where the Illinois Steel Company is demonstrating that industrial accidents can be prevented; Pueblo, with its wonderful hospital system, and its wonderful disregard of law and human rights; and Birmingham, the center of the industrialism of the new South. An attempt has been made to seize in each district upon the unique characteristics—the features which differentiate it from others; yet, in spite of all, it is the constant factors that have insisted upon making themselves seen and felt.

What are these insistent, incontestable, and now clearly visualized constant factors of our steel industry? When the findings of the Pittsburgh Survey were presented in brief form in this magazine in January, February, and March of 1909, the public learned:

1. That two-thirds of the men employed there were unskilled laborers, earning what might be riches for an immigrant lodger but what did not provide decent family subsistence.

2. That a twelve-hour day and—for one steel worker in five—a seven-day week benumbed the faculties, blighted the family life, and destroyed the citizenship of the workers.

October 7, 1911.

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3. That a system of bonuses to "pushers" and other forms of "speeding-up" added over-strain to over-time.

4. That the financial burden of industrial injuries—195 steel workers were killed in Allegheny County in the year of the Survey—fell mainly on the families of the killed and injured, thus adding poverty to bereavement.

5. That through discharges, spy systems, and other repressive measures, resistance to these conditions on the part of workers through collective bargaining or otherwise was eliminated.

When the government in 1910 found conditions in Bethlehem rather worse than those in Pittsburgh, Charles M. Schwab indignantly protested against the government report, not on the ground of its accuracy, but because his plant was no worse than those of his competitors.

What we find is that Mr. Schwab is, in the main, correct. Everywhere we have found long hours, over-time, Sunday work, and low wages. Striking advances we have found in the protection of employes from personal injuries. The Steel Corporation has devised a safety organization of remarkable scope and effectiveness—one with inspection which puts to shame the factory inspection of any of our state governments. In its relief plan, it has gone a long way beyond the demands of statute and common law in the states in which its plants are located. A movement away from the seven-day week is discernible, and at the same time open advocacy of the twelve-hour day. When the American Iron and Steel Institute this spring appointed a Welfare Committee, the members, according to President Clarke of the Lackawanna Steel Company, were fairly staggered by the size of the problem before them. This note of sincerity no less than breadth of outlook has characterized the statements given out as to the work which the committee has set for itself.

One constant factor, none the less, we have discovered in all the mills we have studied—a denial to the workers of a right to a voice as to the conditions of employment,—thus placing squarely upon the shoulders of directors and stockholders the full responsibility for the evils which they alone may prevent.

Obviously, Pittsburgh must not be crucified as monopolizing the abuses of unregulated industry. Having said nothing in haste or in malice, THE SURVEY cannot of course withdraw or extenuate what we have been constrained by a knowledge of the facts to set forth; but we are now prepared to pass from impressions, and known but fragmentary facts, to a demonstration that the evils which we found in the Pittsburgh steel plants three years ago are to be found in other great centers of the industry. Other steel districts are better in some respects than Pittsburgh was then; but so is Pittsburgh. What one might well have been excused for believing to be the lowest level proves to be very near the standard character of the industry. Nevertheless, steel may yet lead the great basic industries of the country in taking on a human character—a social spirit. Of this, too, there are signs.

THE COMMON WELFARE

KANSAS CITY NATIONAL CONSERVATION CONGRESS

From overflowing rivers to children is something of an excursion in nature, yet the trip was consistently taken by those who met at Kansas City, Mo., last week, to discuss the ways, means, and methods of conservation. The occasion was the third assembling of the National Conservation Congress, September 25-27. This was the most harmonious and most interesting conference yet held by this body. The hostility between the Pinchot and anti-Pinchot forces which showed itself so strongly last year at St. Paul never reached the surface at Kansas City.

In a much-applauded speech before the Congress, Dr. Harvey W. Wiley, chief chemist of the United States Department of Agriculture, advocated a federal health bureau, the director of which should sit in the president's cabinet. Speaking of public health he said:

There are persons who say that marriage is an affair of sentiment and that it is the business of none but those who contract the tie. But I say that marriage is an affair of state. If the state can give licenses to marry and say when couples may part I say that the state then has the right also to say who shall marry and to forbid marriages. The power of the state to protect its citizens from disease may be constitutionally exercised before as well as after birth.

Speaking of children as a public asset, he declared:

"The man who dilutes the milk waters the stock of the wealthiest company in the world."

At the conclusion of his speech, he said:

"Finally, in order to unify the national and state activities making for the public health, the establishment of a national department of health is almost a necessity. It is true that the wise physicians are in favor of the national department of health, not because it is a 'physicians' trust' but because it is for the good of the people. The department of health necessarily includes the function of education. Both of these offices have been recognized as a necessity and both are in existence. What is needed is to bring together all the

activities of the national government into one department having the prestige and power of presidential advisement. We are working most for a law that will provide for the establishment of a National Board of Health with real power. Its director shall have a seat in the President's Cabinet and shall have a right to say a word when he feels like it. That's coming after a while.

In his opening address President Henry Wallace put pithily the thing that makes conservation imperative to-day:

The nineteenth century farmer was, speaking generally, no farmer at all, but a miner, a soil robber. He sold the stored fertility of ages at the bare cost of mining it.

The very "root and kernel of our modern farm problem," he declared, "is how to retain on the farm all the boys and girls born there, who are fit to be farmers or farmers' wives. This can be done only by making farm life worth living."

He insisted that the two great important problems before the congress were the conservation of the fertility of the soil and the conservation of manhood and character standards in the country.

Neither the rural schools nor the rural churches measure up to their opportunities, said Prof. G. P. Holden, of Iowa State College.

Frequently the teachers are town girls without farm experience or sympathy. They do not interest boys and girls in the things of the farm and home; our present system educates away from the farm. . . . The rural church must be as broad as the rural community in which it exists. The minister should have as thorough a training in agriculture as in theology.

Speaking on The Country Boy vs. The City Boy, Judge Ben B. Lindsey, of Denver, advocated a children's bureau in the Department of Commerce and Labor. After reviewing recent steps taken in behalf of children he said:

The school free restaurant is as sure to come within the next ten years as the playground and recreation center has come in the past ten years. To say that the child is the chief asset of the state is short of the real truth. The child is the state; it is therefore futile to oppose the movement going on in this country for the conservation of child-

hood on the ground that it is parental. The state has got to be the over-parent. It cannot escape if it would; it would not escape if it could.

My own experience is that our public school education too often fails to equip children for earning more than most scanty wages. An opportunity between the sixth and eighth grades in our city schools to learn some kind of useful trades is a reform in our educational system which the champions of child labor must espouse if they would round out a systematic battle in this fight for the salvation of children. I want to see the time come when a boy from fourteen years of age up may be a valuable help to the plumber, carpenter, or printer at a decent wage, instead of going to the messenger service and the street. One of the saddest things in my experience has been the little fellows who have requested me to send them to the reform school that they might learn a trade. The principal of a school once said to me: "Judge, why don't you send that boy to a reform school so that he can learn a trade?" On behalf of the boy I replied: "In God's name, why don't you people on the board of education give him an opportunity to learn a trade at home?"

The objects of the congress, of which J. B. White, a wealthy lumberman of Kansas City, is the next president, are three-fold:

(1) To provide a forum for discussion of the resources of the United States as the foundation for the prosperity of the people; (2) to furnish definite information concerning the resources and their utilization, and (3) to afford an agency through which the people of the country may frame policies and principles affecting the wise and practical development, conservation, and utilization of the resources, to be put into effect by their representatives in state and federal governments.

N. Y. LOAN SHARKS UNDER BROOKS LAW

From an unusual source has come testimony of the usurious operations of the salary loan companies of New York city. A firm of lawyers retained by one of the daily newspapers to assist victims of the "loan sharks" who applied for help have reported on their work, which lasted nearly three months. During that time the lawyers settled 300 cases for people who had been in the clutches of loan companies for from six months to five years. The total principal borrowed by these 300 persons was \$8,290.60, and the interest which they had agreed to pay for this money for three months was \$3,744.71, or 180 per cent. The attorneys say

that in almost every case they were able to settle immediately with the loan company, by offering to pay back the original amount loaned with interest at 6 per cent a year.

The report states that in nearly all of the cases handled the original loans had been obtained for burial expenses or doctors' fees. This disagrees with the popular view that the borrower on a salary is usually a profligate or spendthrift. Others who have studied this matter believe that worthy borrowers constitute about half of those who apply to salary loan companies.

According to the report there are at the present time 116 salary and chattel mortgage loan offices operating in New York city. Others acquainted with the conditions have found as many as 150, and the number is believed to be even larger than that.

One month of the operation of the Brooks law, which was passed during the summer by the New York Legislature and which went into effect September 1, has served to demonstrate the inefficiency of some of its features. The passage of this bill was succeeded shortly by that of another, establishing

a commission to inquire into the workings of laws relative to certain loans commonly made at extraordinary rates of interest or charges, and to make recommendations for legislation.

The latter bill was vetoed by the governor because of the appropriation carried by it. The Brooks bill contains three notable features. It fixes 18 per cent as the maximum rate of interest for a salary loan. It makes into legislation the recent decision of the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court to the effect that before an assignment of wages of an employe can be valid a copy must be given to the employer within three days of the time the loan was made. The Brooks bill, indeed, goes a little farther than the court's decision by declaring that the date of the loan shall be deemed to be the day when the money is actually delivered to the borrower. Finally the bill provides that all salary loan companies shall, "on or before the first day of July next ensuing the passage of this act," file with the county clerk a sworn statement containing the names and residences of the

members of such companies and their places of business.

With the second of these features, which is in accordance with court decisions, no fault has been found by competent critics. Of the first it is said that it has been shown often, and that the brief history of the Brooks act adds to the testimony, that 18 per cent per year is too low a rate on which to conduct a salary loan business. The result is that conscientious companies are driven out of business and unscrupulous concerns, comprising most of those in the field, easily evade the law, which carries no enforcing clauses.

SEATTLE HOLDS COMMUNITY GATHERINGS IN HER PARKS

The use of the public parks for community gatherings has been successfully tried for a third summer in Seattle. A joint committee from two school civic centres obtained permission from the Park Board, which was gladly granted; and Kinnear Park was secured for a meeting every Sunday afternoon at half-past three o'clock.

The park rules prohibit meetings for religious or political purposes. The community meetings held in Kinnear Park were therefore of a civic character. They were none the less religious and political in the highest sense.

The last meeting on Labor Sunday was typical. The general topic was the Toilers of the City, and among the speakers were Paul K. Mohr, of the Central Labor Council, Rev. Wilfred Washington, ministerial delegate to the Labor Council, Max Wardall, president of the city council, and Rev. Joseph L. Garvin, president of the Ministers' Federation.

The gatherings have taken up such topics as the Juvenile Court, the Political Situation in Great Britain, the Child Welfare Exhibit, Recent Legislation, and What America May Learn from New Zealand. Among other citizens Richard A. Ballinger, Prof. E. O. Sisson, of the State University, and ex-senator George F. Cotterill have addressed the meetings.

One feature has been the telling of a story by Gertrude Andrus, of the Public Library, and by others, to the fifty or one hundred children who have grouped

themselves on the grass around the storyteller. The band of the Volunteers of America has gratuitously contributed its services throughout the summer.

The meetings have been in the open air; the people were seated on the grass, under the trees, in a natural amphitheatre. The attendance has averaged four hundred. Not a single meeting during July and August was interfered with by inclement weather. The report of the meetings found large space in the press. The total cost for printing, music, etc., was \$25. A song-sheet was used, containing half a dozen national and other familiar hymns, together with the Hebrew psalm, "I will lift up mine eyes to the hills," and Prof. Walter Rauschenbusch's Prayer for the City, in all of which the people heartily joined.

It is expected that the community gatherings will be organized in all the parks of the city in the summer of 1912. The committee in charge this season believes that the parks should be utilized during the summer as civic centres, in the same way that the school-houses are being utilized during the school year.

PRELIMINARY SOCIAL SURVEY OF SYRACUSE

East as far as Boston, Lawrence, and Trenton, and here and there through the country to Seattle, the cities, keenly alive to the value of self-knowledge, have taken some form of community inventory. A number have had "Know-Your-City" weeks and in others the social surveyor has been at work in extended fact-gathering. These investigations have presented new data and new interpretations of old data that have brought thinking citizens face to face with conditions under their own eaves which they have never pictured nearer than in their nearest big neighbor; and the week designated for thinking of community needs has been of value in following out the ramifications of bad social conditions in terms of vice, disease, ignorance, sorrow, and neglect.

In the last few months Syracuse has been preparing for such a week, the preparation taking the form of a preliminary social survey; in other words, it has been making a study of surface conditions to

see whether, and along what lines, a subsequent more extended survey might most profitably be conducted and whether any recommendations for action looking to immediate reform might be made.

The project was initiated from within—by Syracuse people—and the Ministerial Association, composed of over one hundred clergymen, was the organization which first took hold of the matter definitively. The Chamber of Commerce, the Trades Assembly, and the Associated Charities have united with the ministers, and the preliminary investigation has been kept in motion by a central committee of twelve—three members from each of the four organizations—under the chairmanship of Rev. Murray Shipley Howland, of the South Presbyterian Church, and the secretaryship of Paul Ilman, secretary of the Associated Charities. The field work of the investigation started in July under the direction of Shelby M. Harrison, who spent five weeks in Syracuse in a social "sizing up" of the city and in defining the lines along which the studies would be made. With the co-operation of local people who gave their time, and the co-operation also of outside organizations like the National Consumer's League, the New York Child Labor Committee, the North American Civic League for Immigrants, the National Committee on Prison Labor, all of which sent representatives to Syracuse, the preliminary survey was able to cover phases of eight separate fields—housing of the work-people and the poor; foreign populations, their opportunities and needs; juvenile delinquency; civic improvement and city planning; betterment agencies; sewage disposal; health conservation; and labor conditions.

The findings of the survey are to be made public in a "Know-Your-City" week of meetings beginning November 19. The week will bring to Syracuse specialists in the subjects above named and in others, who can speak from a broad knowledge of advance movements in other cities throughout the country. The proposed program starts with a religious day, when the ministers will be asked to preach on civic and social subjects; Monday, educational day, is to be devoted

to educational exhibits—literary, historical, and industrial—to the reading of prize essays on Syracuse by school children, and to addresses on city planning; Tuesday will deal with child welfare, housing, and immigrant peoples; Wednesday, welfare work in general, health and sanitation, and moral and social prophylaxis; Thursday, local betterment agencies—their possibilities for co-ordination and greater effectiveness—and industrial conditions; and Friday evening will close the week with a civic rally.

FACTORY INVESTIGATION HAS BEGUN IN NEW YORK

As a result largely of the Washington Place fire in New York last spring, the state legislature arranged for the appointment of commissioners to inquire into the conditions under which manufacture is carried on in the first and second class cities of the state

to the end that such remedial legislation may be enacted as will eliminate existing peril to the life and health of operatives and other occupants in existing and new structures.

The commission expects to recommend such new legislation as may be deemed necessary to overcome defects in the present laws and to govern conditions which are not now considered in the statutes and ordinances. In order to help in determining what specific recommendations to report to the legislature the commission, which has now begun its work, has decided to make investigations of the following subjects:

1. Hazard to Life from Fire. The inquiry under this head will embrace such matters as fire prevention, inadequate fire-escapes and exits, number of persons employed in factories and lofts, arrangement of machinery and fire drills.

2. Accident Prevention, including the guarding of machinery, and the inspection of factories and manufacturing establishments.

3. Danger to Life and Health, because of unsanitary conditions, whether due to improper ventilation, lighting, seating arrangements, or to hours of labor that are too long.

4. Occupational Diseases, such as industrial consumption, lead poisoning, and bone diseases.

The commission will also make an examination of the present statutes and ordinances that deal with these topics and will try to find out just how far they

have been enforced. The field of the investigation is broad and one of importance to all the employes of manufacturing establishments in cities throughout the state as well as to the general public. Recognizing this fact the commission has engaged H. F. J. Porter as expert on fire prevention, and Dr. George M. Price as sanitary expert to aid in carrying out this comprehensive plan of work. Frank A. Tierney is the secretary of the Factory Investigating Commission and Abram L. Elkus its counsel. In order to be able to perform its duties properly the commission has appealed for the help of those who from special study or practical experience are able to furnish suggestions that would be of assistance. Public hearings will be held in New York, Buffalo, Troy, and other cities. The first of these is to be in the Aldermanic Chambers, New York city, on October 10. All who can furnish information as to dangerous conditions in manufacturing establishments or conditions that impair the health and threaten the safety of operatives, or who can suggest methods for remedying present defects by legislation, are invited to attend the hearings.

PLEDGE METHOD TO REFORM DRUNKARDS

A declaration endorsing the pledge method of reforming drunkards was signed by 555 delegates and members of the Thirteenth International Congress on Alcoholism, which convened at the Hague, Holland, September 11-16. This plan of treating inebriates was first tried in the courts ten years ago by Judge William J. Pollard, of the second district court, St. Louis, Mo. It is now known as the Pollard system. The method is simply to release persons convicted of drunkenness and petty offenses arising out of drunkenness on condition that they sign in open court a pledge to abstain from the use of intoxicating liquors for one year. Its adoption is left to the discretion of the judge, and violation is met by enforcing the penalty originally suspended. The plan has been adopted by legislative action in Great Britain, Victoria (Australia), and Vermont. Judge Pollard states that of the thousands whom he

has bound in that way during ten years less than 5 per cent have forfeited suspension of sentence.

The declaration adopted by the congress, reads as follows:

We, the undersigned members and delegates attending the thirteenth International Congress on Alcoholism assembled in The Hague, (Holland) September 11-16, 1911, desire to record our gratification at the recognition in statute law by Great Britain, Vermont, U.S.A., and Victoria (Australia) of the principle of reforming drunkards by the probation on pledge method, commonly known as the Pollard plan. The possibilities of this wise and beneficent policy are so great that we desire to commend its adoption throughout the world.

The delegates to the congress came from twenty-one countries. The discussions dealt with legislative and judicial treatment of alcoholism and with the social and medical treatment of the inebriate. It is the aim of the Congress to discuss the nature and manifestation of alcoholism and to advance the fight against its evils.

EDITORIAL GRIST

CHICAGO VICE REPORT BARRED FROM MAILS

GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR

Post office censorship to exclude immoral literature from the mails can be objected to by no right-minded person. But its application to a serious and scientific document prepared by an official commission to combat the social evil is to say the least ironical.

After allowing several hundred copies to go through the mails last spring, and another large quantity in August, the post office officials in Chicago have barred a thousand copies of the report of the Chicago Vice Commission.¹ The ruling is now upheld by a decision of the acting attorney-general at Washington. These copies were addressed, moreover, to public officials, sociologists, and others concerned in painstaking and practical efforts to control and reduce this social blight. Enlightenment as to

(1) See *THE SURVEY* for May 6, 1911.

the extent and exact nature of the evil and the ways it spreads—a facing of facts—is the first fundamental for rational action. This is provided by such reports as that from Chicago. Written in a plain, unsensational way, omitting names and all addresses, it is, as intended, a statement of actual conditions which must be known by those who would work intelligently. If the law prohibits the wider and thus more effective use of a tool designed to strengthen the hands of those struggling against the forces which violate the very law in question, it very obviously must be changed.

The Chicago Vice Commission has recently refused to place the "key" to the names and addresses omitted from its report at the disposal of civil service commission investigators of police collusion with gambling and vice. The chairman, Dean Walter T. Sumner, declares that the commission undertook its work, not to afford a basis for prosecutions, but to formulate a constructive municipal policy with reference to the social evil. To secure data for this sociological purpose the commission had promised informants that their names and testimony would be regarded with strict confidence. The continued existence of the commission as a private organization, independent of the city council and officials, is to be assured, it is reported, by incorporation.

LACKAWANNA'S OPPORTUNITY

JOHN DANIELS

Buffalo Secretary North American Civic League for Immigrants

The sad plight of Lackawanna has been talked about and talked about locally for years. When Buffalonians wish to conjure up a picture of the worst possible physical and social conditions, they utter the name Lackawanna. But now there is a different spirit in the air. At last people are beginning to talk about Lackawanna's opportunity. The opportunity has always been there, but hitherto has been so overlaid by grime as to be hardly discernible, and with such a glaring lack of ways and means of realiza-

tion as hardly to be considered practicable. But now the grime is being rubbed off in spots. In June, 1909, an event took place which made the opportunity practicable and immediate.

This event was the birth of the city of Lackawanna. Seldom has a city come into existence confronted by a harder problem, and seldom has a city had a more splendid opportunity. Both problem and opportunity may be summed up in the word "immigration." Will Lackawanna turn the opportunity into achievement? That becomes the leading question in the situation.

At the outset it is certain that all concerned—the immigrants, the various philanthropic individuals and organizations which are at work, the steel company, and the Lackawanna city officials—wish to improve conditions. This common desire for improvement is the most valuable asset at hand.

For the present the contribution of the immigrants themselves toward the amelioration of their own conditions must be the least. So inured are they to the only lot they have known that at first they may be expected to misunderstand and even to resist the efforts to help them. But as each improvement takes place they will become better able to take care of themselves, and that is the principal result for which to strive.

As for the philanthropic individuals and organizations whose activities Mr. Fitch has mentioned, they merit the highest commendation as blazers of trails and openers of the way. But that is the most and best they can do. For, if instead of showing the needs and the ways of meeting them to the city authorities they attempt to meet these wants themselves, they will accomplish but a puny mite.

That the steel company has a tremendous and fundamental responsibility in the situation cannot be questioned. It brought the immigrants there and it keeps them there, ever reinforced by newcomers. The hours and wages it decrees practically determine the level of the immigrants' lives. So long as a large proportion of its laborers toil twelve hours a day, seven days in the week, with twenty-four hour stretches every other week, these laborers cannot be more than

beasts of burden with brutish lives. Unless the steel company interests itself in improvement in a thorough-going way, improvement will be slow and well-nigh impossible; but if it does so interest itself, the improvement effected will be rapid and sure. That it is at least taking active steps toward betterment is a most hopeful element in the situation. But though the just responsibilities of the steel company are great enough and far-reaching enough, still it is neither a philanthropic institution nor a city government.

The city of Lackawanna: there is the agency which legitimately should deal with the situation and which possesses the power to treat it in a permanent and adequate way. This is the conclusion to which even a little thought leads one, and this is the premise on which all steps to better Lackawanna should be based. What, then, is the course which Lackawanna should adopt?

One-third of the residents of Lackawanna are Americans (as the term is used); the remaining two-thirds are recent and non-English-speaking immigrants. Manifestly, therefore, if this city is to realize its own potentialities, there is no other course open to it than to work out a well defined policy and build up an efficient machinery for Americanizing and assimilating its immigrant citizens. Over and above the regular activities of a city government, it must direct its energies to this special task.

The conditions and the needs are so clear that the measures required are easy to see. The Lackawanna department of public works is already taking the first steps. It is paving the principal thoroughfares, extending sidewalks, opening a sewer, draining the swamp, and trying to have the swamp land filled. But eventually—and the sooner the better—it must tackle the tough problem of correcting, so far as possible, the miserable lay-out and ramshackle structure of Lackawanna which Mr. Fitch describes, and of insuring a more satisfactory future development of the city. To this end, many buildings now standing will have to be condemned and torn down, all further building closely regulated,

new streets laid out, sites provided for new extensions, and suitable public buildings erected.

To guard its health, Lackawanna has a health officer and *one* assistant—and this with approximately 10,000 immigrants living in the most unsanitary conditions! The health officer told me that if Lackawanna had as many health officials in proportion to population as Buffalo—and Buffalo is under-supplied—it would have *six*. Certainly six should be a working minimum. At present only complaints can be attended to. Routine inspections of living quarters are practically impossible. Inspection of foods, eating places, saloons, bakeries, meat markets, etc. is impossible. Such inspection is needed. Beyond this some positive and constructive plan of educating the immigrants in matters of health should be undertaken.

The chief problem with which the departments of police and law should concern themselves is that of reducing the saloon evil. There are approximately 200 saloons in Lackawanna, which means one to every seventy-five of the population. Though it is a matter of common report that these saloons constantly violate the law by selling after hours, on Sundays, and to children, as yet not a single saloon has lost its license. That this is so is a disgrace to Lackawanna. The police should do their part and the court its part to end this disgrace. There are at least twice as many saloons as could exist if the law were enforced.

The other matter which the department of law must attack is the system of exploitation of immigrants which flourishes in Lackawanna. A number of "crooks," including several "men higher up," are making this contemptible work their business, and thus far with impunity. Every public official of Lackawanna should assist the court in ridding the city of these rascals.

But the most vital work of all must be done by the department of education. For though much can be accomplished to uplift the present generation, vastly more can be done to make the condition of the rising generation better, and what will surely accomplish most in this direc-

tion is the education of both generations. "Education, education, still more education," might well be adopted by Lackawanna as a battle-cry for the coming civic campaign. For it is education which will transform the immigrants from a dead weight or worse into intelligent active citizens.

Strict enforcement of school attendance is the first necessity. Evening schools, with chief attention to instruction in English and citizenship, are the next need. The school officials should not merely wait for the immigrants to come. The evening schools should be advertised widely, and in all possible ways the immigrants should be persuaded to come. Industrial education of the most practical sort should be provided, modeled, perhaps, after that of Buffalo's excellent vocational schools. Nothing will sooner enable the immigrants to live better than fitting them to earn better wages.

These suggested measures at least indicate the direction of the campaign of civic betterment upon which Lackawanna should enter. There is nothing novel about these measures. They are not the proposals of radicals, theorists, socialists, or of any other dubious breed. They mean simply the common-sense adaptations of Lackawanna City's activities to Lackawanna's special needs. All these things cannot be done at once, of course; but a start toward doing them can be made immediately. Are there any good reasons for delay?

Lackawanna's mayor and council and other officials are not to be commiserated upon their difficulties, serious as these are. They are to be congratulated upon their opportunity.

THE ALL-SUMMER BOYS' CAMP

ROBERT A. WOODS

Headworker South End House, Boston

It is getting to be a common-places that every city child should be provided with some experience of country life during the summer. In some cities practically every child actually has such an outing of at least ten days or two weeks.

The physical and moral gain which comes from even so much of mere contact with nature is impressive to all who watch its effects. When the vacation is carefully and sympathetically directed the results are found to be doubled or trebled. When this direction is in the hands of those who are close to the children throughout the year, and when the summer outing fills out one year's work and influence and merges into another's, the summer, instead of being a time when everything sags, becomes the pivotal point in the club worker's calendar. Every person who has had the experience even once knows what a rare awakening it is when one leaves behind conditions which seem to interpose many barriers between him and his boys, and passes to a new and altogether strange environment in which he and they suddenly find that he is father and mother to them all.

The unusual possibilities that lie in such summer outings have suggested the far-reaching gains that could be secured from all-summer camps in connection with settlement clubs. Hale House, Boston, has done important pioneer work with its all-summer camp at Squam Lake, N. H. On another page of this magazine is told the story of the all-summer project of the South End House for some sixty of its boys.

The all-summer camp is in the nature of the case not for all. Any such proposal would be economically impossible. Every city ought, however, to be making its experiment in this direction. A most suggestive basis for selection of the members of such a camp would be that of some proved capacity for leadership. A group of boys brought together on this basis, from different social centers; organized into a system which would elicit and guide their power of initiative; infected while in a peculiarly susceptible and educable state of mind with fine and appealing civic and moral standards; weighted with regular and substantial responsibilities on which their own and the group's well-being shall depend; retained as members of the camp for several years with the chance of increased opportunity and influence; and all brought together for occasional group meetings and kept under stimulating influences throughout

the winter in the city, might easily mean a succession of young citizens coming forward to be such leaders of the people as at present we only vainly hope for.

For the administration of the camp young men would be needed who should exemplify what the camp stands for; but a camp standing for such purposes could get the young men. The problem of co-ordinating its work with that of the different social centres represented by the boys and of re-enforcing their influence upon the boys during the winter by the loyal spirit of the camp would have fresh and suggestive interest.

Those who for a number of years have followed these two all-summer settlement camps, as well as the rapidly growing number of educators who are conducting all-summer school camps, will agree that the possibilities here outlined can hardly be too deeply emphasized. In England, for two or three decades, there have been all-summer camps, connected with the great boarding schools, at which the boys are in close and continued association with the most inspiring men. It is recognized that the life of these camps has had a profound, if not a determining, influence upon the careers of a considerable number of those who, in different pursuits, are today upholding the best standards of English civilization.

The Bretton Woods caddy scheme suggests that every golf club has a responsibility to the boys in its employ which is rarely fulfilled. An organization has recently been formed among golfers in England and Scotland for the formation of boys' clubs for caddies. The Northwestern Settlement in Chicago has entered upon the experiment of providing the caddies for a suburban golf club, the boys living in tents beside the links, under the care of young men from the settlement.

DISTRIBUTION OF AGRICULTURAL IMMIGRANTS

One of the first problems of the conservation of the agricultural industry is the maintenance of a wholesome, happy rural population. Upon the character of the rural people—their intelligence,

morality, ideals, and material well-being—more than on any other one factor depends the general welfare of the nation as a whole. A second but less important problem is the conservation and efficient utilization of natural resources, the restoration and maintenance of soil fertility. With these two problems the question of immigrant distribution is very closely interwoven.

Rightly settled, even on mediocre land, the foreigner from the agricultural districts of the old world has proved his capacity for agricultural development as well as for rural citizenship in a hundred instances. Under present conditions the capable hard-working foreigner with his family is able to out-compete the industrious American, with a smaller family, a higher standard of living, and a stronger desire for the "appurtenances of leisure." The ultimate settlement of rural New England by foreign farmers—Italian, Slavic, Hebrew, perhaps Teuton—seems inevitable. Gradually they are dotting the rural districts with their farms, slipping quietly but surely into the homes vacated by native New England farmers. The movement has up to the present been sporadic, unorganized, geographically scattered, and officially unrecognized—though it has been going on in the East for about twenty years.

State departments of agriculture in the East have been strangely blind to any duty or responsibility in the matter of immigrant distribution. Maine and New Jersey have taken occasion in their reports to describe and praise the industry, thrift, and foresight of certain large colonies settled within their borders. New York maintains a sort of bureau of immigration, but so far from rendering any material recognition, aid, or assistance, they have held it no part of their business. The federal authorities consider their duty well done when they have safely landed the newcomers in New York city. With very few exceptions privately organized colonization companies have been formed with a single eye to personal gain, regardless of the present or ultimate well-being of the colonized; of public colonization schemes there are none.

The results of this haphazard, devil-may-care method of settling our worn-out lands may be seen by any one who cares to investigate—even casually—the scattered foreign farm communities in New England. Exploitation by real estate agents, settlement on unprofitable soils, fruitless endeavor to wrest a living from exhausted acres, discouragement, disappointment, economic disaster are the too frequent accompaniments of this form of settlement.

The essentials of successful immigrant occupation are a fairly compact settlement in groups large enough to maintain a church and perhaps a school; land sufficiently fertile to produce the staple crops; capital to purchase a minimum equipment for the type of agriculture adopted; day-labor or some other immediately available form of income to enable the foreign settler to support his family until his farm becomes self-supporting. Let the foreigner pay for his purchase not more than 25 per cent above its productive value, and nine times out of ten he will win out on these terms. As long as New England or any other region permits the exploitation of the rural immigrant for private gain, the results of immigration will be disastrous both to agriculture and to the foreigner.

But beyond assistance in settlement and information concerning the character, uses, and values of farm land which every State Board of Agriculture should make easily and practically available to all home-seekers, it seems reasonable that the state colleges of agriculture and experiment stations should put their foreign-born farmers and prospective citizens in vital touch with the best methods and materials of agriculture. Successful agriculture in New England is specialized, intensive, and commercial. Careful preparation and tillage of the soil; selection of seeds; selection, mixing, and application of fertilizers; up-to-date methods of preparing, packing, handling, and marketing the products of the farm must be studied carefully and continually. The colleges have this information; it is free for the asking, but the immigrant knows nothing about experiment stations and a

bulletin in English is a sealed book. Massachusetts Agricultural College is one of the first, perhaps the only one, of the state colleges to recognize and make such provision, in a small way, by inaugurating a Polish-American "Farmers' Day," in the spring of 1911, for foreigners in the Connecticut Valley onion and tobacco district. Seventy-five Polish farmers visited the college, inspected the plant, listened to practical talks delivered through an interpreter, and asked questions on onion culture, dairy feeds, and good citizenship. No body of men who come to that college listened more eagerly or derived more benefit from a day's instruction than those Polish onion growers. But this is only a beginning.

Perhaps the nearest approach to an ideal method of supervised colonization is that of the Carolina Trucking and Development Company at St. Helena, N. C.,¹ where the promoters build the houses; sell the land on easy terms; provide work for the newcomers at fair wages; buy the timber cut from the individual clearings, at a remunerative price; provide expert farmers who teach the settlers in their own tongue how to clear the land, prepare it, plant the proper seed, and care for the crop in the most approved fashion. The company further gives personal and expert attention to the marketing of the perishable truck crops raised, and maintains an experiment station for the determination of practical methods, plants, and fertilizers, the results of which are at once communicated to the foreign farmers for whose benefit the station exists. The scheme is elaborate and detailed, but it seems likely to prove profitable and to result in a few years in a semi-foreign community of very superior small landowners, settled on land made valuable by their own intelligently directed industry.

The day is coming when the needs of the south-European farmer in the Eastern states must be recognized and ministered to by our federal and state institutions of agriculture in some such far-reaching, definite, systematic, and intelligent manner.

¹THE SURVEY, November 6, 1909.



Courtesy Lackawanna Steel Company.

"NEW VILLAGE," LACKAWANNA STEEL COMPANY.

THE HUMAN SIDE OF LARGE OUTPUTS STEEL AND STEEL WORKERS IN SIX AMERICAN STATES

I

LACKAWANNA—SWAMP, MILL, AND TOWN

JOHN A. FITCH

MEMBER STAFF (1907-8) PITTSBURGH SURVEY

Ten years ago—five years before a spade was turned at Gary—the Lackawanna Steel Company came up from Scranton, Pennsylvania, and began building a steel plant on the shore of Lake Erie just south of the city limits of Buffalo. It was a good location for a steel plant on account of the facilities for transporting iron ore from Lake Superior mines direct by boat and without rehandling; but it was a poor site for a town. About a mile in from the lake the railroads connecting Buffalo with the West and South run in a broad highway of steel. The belt of land thus cut off between the tracks and the shore line is low and for the most part swampy. Transportation facilities for taking people in and out of Buffalo are poor.

But there was, nevertheless, one overwhelming advantage at the outset—the town that must inevitably grow up around the plant had as good a chance to grow right as did the plant itself. It could have been planned with equal care in advance of bidding for work-people. The

steel company could have employed landscape architects and municipal experts as well as construction engineers, and laid out a town designed to overcome the physical disadvantages and also the mistakes of decades and centuries, which, in other municipalities, clothed with all the dignity of vested rights, are obstructing progress and burdening the people.

The steel company sees that now and is trying to correct its earlier mistakes. But it did not see then. It employed experts to build the plant, but, except for two clusters of company houses, let the dwelling places of its newly gathered working force grow mushroom-fashion as they pleased. So Lackawanna, handicapped by its site and by lack of leadership, has developed in the usual blind, stupid way of growing communities into unusual misfortunes. More than ordinarily, the building of the town was a "botched job."

A job of that sort has far-reaching effects. It is more than a question of esthetics. Health and prosperity and

morals are intimately bound up with the planning and manner of growth of a town. Let us take a look at the place as it stands today.

Down through the very middle of the community extend the lines of the Lake Shore Railroad, two lines of the Pennsylvania, the Nickel Plate, Buffalo and Susquehanna, the Erie, and the Lehigh Valley. In all, they form a great barricading road-bed with thirty-five to forty different tracks, splitting Lackawanna into two parts. As you stand on the single high bridge which spans the tracks and connects the two parts, it comes home to you that here is no town at all, but a confederacy of villages; for not only is its site thus cut in two, but in the strip to the lakeward of the tracks, shut in from the lake by the sheathed walls and grim stacks of the steel plant, there are practically three distinct and uncorrelated neighborhoods. These groups of houses are shunted off from each other by a central swamp of practically stagnant water, foul with unspeakable accumulations of all sorts.

Town life depends on cohesion, and, although Lackawanna officially became a city in 1909, swamp, tracks, and mill yard are so many barriers to its developing into a real community. A dwelling-place split up as this one is involves administrative difficulties and affects personal comfort and well-being in countless ways.

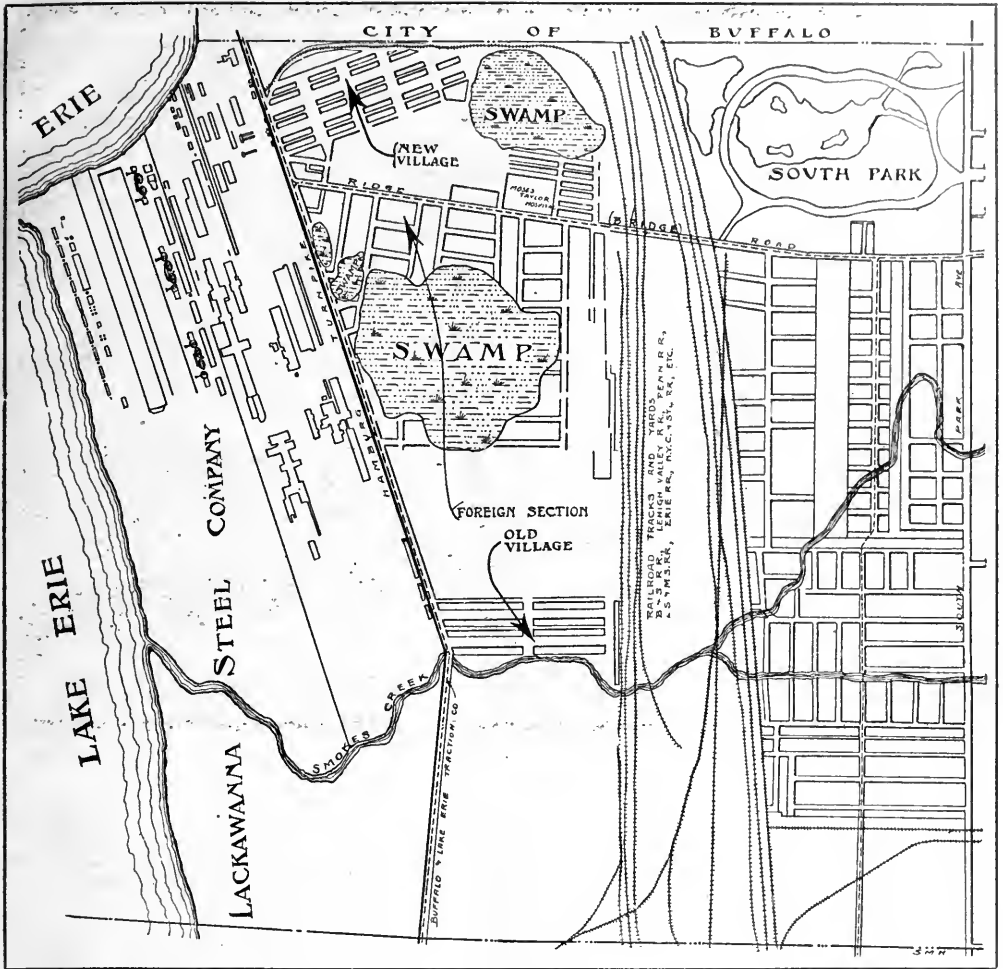
For example, the bridge referred to is the only one by which you can cross the railroads. Through all the rest of their extent between the homes in the east and west sections there is not a single highway from one section to the other! Since there are no highways, there are no gates and no flagmen. The trains do not abate their speed to any appreciable extent, and if a workman wishes to make his way across that maze of tracks, on his way to work, he takes the risk of being run down by any one of a hundred "limiteds."

There are a good many workmen living in this east section; it is mostly a residential district with detached houses and ample unoccupied areas, giving light and sunshine free play. But this very ampleness of living means that some of the workmen live more than a mile south

of the bridge, although their houses may be nearer than that, as the crow flies, to the mills themselves. If there were a direct bridge or a subway they could easily walk to work. Now they may either risk their lives on the tracks, twice a day, as many do, or they may take the street-car—which runs every half-hour—and ride one mile north to the bridge, another mile west to the steel works, and then as much farther south again as may be necessary to get to where their work awaits them.

Many of the skilled men, consequently, prefer to live in Buffalo. To and from Buffalo, however, the workaday transportation problem is only a little less difficult. It was on a November day in 1910 that I first saw Lackawanna. I got onto an interurban car at Lafayette Square, Buffalo, and after turning numerous corners and crossing a bridge or two, I found we were running south through a region of warehouses, factories, and shops, not far from the shore. Then the steady flow of buildings, on the right, suddenly stopped, the blue waters of the lake appeared, and we were traveling close to the water's edge. It was a windy day and the waves were dashing over the government breakwater, which extends far to the rear, in white spray. When we had crossed another bridge, the conductor called out, "Lackawanna, five-cent-fare limit!" and I, being economical as well as desirous of looking at Lackawanna from the ground, got out. I was on Hamburg Turnpike, West Lackawanna. The turnpike parallels both plant and railroad and connects the scattered village groups I have spoken of; while intersecting it at right angles, and crossing the sole bridge to East Lackawanna, runs Ridge Road—names which in themselves indicate how recently the neighborhood was rural.

Ridge Road appeared to be something of a business street, and south from it the turnpike also manifested business proclivities; all the same kind of business too, I found—all designed to furnish liquid refreshment to the mill-worker. Such alluring signs as "Workingmen's Rest," or "Pay Checks Cashed Here," adorned the windows. It looked to me like a poor place for anyone to rest. The



STEEL MILL, SWAMP, AND TOWN.

Map of the chief residence sections of Lackawanna, showing the swamp, which is also a cess-pool; Smokes Creek, which is also a sewer; and the railroad tracks, which separate the East and West sections.

saloon buildings were big, gloomy barracks, two and three stories high, absolutely uninviting. Across the street were the grimy smoke-stacks of the mills.

On my right, as I stood after alighting from the car, was the office building of the Lackawanna Steel Company, a substantial two-story structure in the foreground of the big plant. On the left was a group of houses which I learned afterward belonged to the steel company, and which is known as the "New Village." The houses are of pleasing design and are mostly detached, single and double. On later inspections, I learned that they have from six to eight rooms to each apartment and

are provided with hot water, furnaces, and electric light fixtures. The rent is \$16.50 for apartments in the double houses and \$19 for the single houses. These houses are all provided with bathrooms and the residents appear to be well satisfied. The rent is lower than would be charged for the same accommodations in Buffalo. Here, without doubt, the efforts of the company to attract and hold a group of workers within call of their lake shore plant had been at their best. The families are chiefly those of skilled workers. It remained to see the shelter within reach of the low-paid men who make up the great bulk of the force in all steel plants.



Photograph by George J. Hare.

OPEN SEWER FLOWING INTO LOT ON "THE AVENUE," LACKAWANNA.

Just south of these houses, but belonging to the same group, was one long brick row, presenting an unbroken front to the street and containing apparently ten or fifteen separate apartments. Beyond this group was the boarding-house section, not controlled by the steel company, of which I shall have more to say shortly; and on a higher piece of ground a half-mile in the same direction appeared another group which I identified as that famous in Buffalo and vicinity as the "Old Village."

I started toward these other groups of houses, walking beside the mill fence. For some distance there was a sidewalk, but it ran out and I picked my way as best I could along an unpaved road, deep with mud, with here and there a pool of water, or of mud a stage or two nearer liquid than the rest of the surface. I was soon passing the saloon-boarding-house section, where, through a break in the row, the swamp at the rear opened up to view, and I could see that many

of these buildings and private houses also were built half over the water. A little farther on two or three more saloon buildings were built apparently entirely over the water. Back of them, and far to either side, extended this unsightly swamp, perhaps a half-mile long and nearly as wide.

The "old village," like the "new," is owned by the company. It was rather an amazing spectacle as I saw it for the first time. It consists of seven brick rows, a story and a half high, six extending with unbroken front, one after the other, and the seventh heading them off at right angles with its back yards close to the railroad tracks. Each row is as long as two ordinary city blocks and contains twenty-four to twenty-eight separate tenements. Each apartment has four or five rooms. Nine have bathrooms, but each is provided with inside toilet. The four-room apartments rent for \$6.50 a month and the five-room ones for \$7.50. Sanitary conditions are ex-



Photograph by George J. Hare.

SWAMP AND BOARDING HOUSE.

cellent, and the houses appear to be fairly well built. But instead of there being a waiting list of people anxious to get these exceptional accommodations for the low rentals paid, there were over a hundred vacant apartments in November, 1910. The tenants were foreigners, Negroes, and the more poorly paid Americans.

Getting onto a car I rode back to the boarding-house section and walked through it on wooden sidewalks, which occasionally between buildings were built up on stakes over two or three feet of water. Some of the planks were rotten, and there were no railings. I should think it would require careful navigation on a dark night—especially if one were returning from the "Workingmen's Rest."

Here, between the two company villages, in this swamp community of private property on stilts, there was most obvious evidence of the sudden growth of Lackawanna to meet a sudden need.

In Homestead, in Johnstown, and other steel centers where the town has grown slowly with the industry, the lodgers find accommodations in ordinary dwelling-houses. In Lackawanna, two- and three-story barracks were erected in anticipation of the demand for lodgings, with sleeping rooms on the upper floors, and on the first floor the inevitable saloon.

In these saloon-boarding-houses there are often two or three different "boarding-bosses," sometimes one on each floor. The saloon-keeper sub-lets the rooms to the "bosses" and they, in turn, provide food and lodging for the roomers. In one boarding-house there were five beds in one room. In another place, which was conspicuously untidy in every respect, a man was found sleeping in a little room across a hall from the kitchen. This room was also a storage room for various supplies; a dressed pig hung in one corner, while other meats were piled on shelves. In a few instances it was

found that the beds were being made to do double duty, one set of men occupying them at night and another during the day. My visit, however, was at a time when for some time the mills had been "running slack." Many workmen had gone elsewhere looking for work, and there was not, consequently, the degree of congestion that is often found in such communities. In several houses there were unoccupied rooms and in others whole floors were without occupants. But with the return of prosperity and rush orders in the mills, there would again be congestion in the boarding-house district.

I was told that a majority of the houses in this section are owned by foreigners who are paying for the property by filling their houses with boarders. The high price of building lots was given also as a reason for the building of tenement boarding-houses and the location was explained by the fact that the swamp land is the only available property near the plant; the steel company had bought up the higher land for its two villages and let the low land get into the hands of private speculators.

We have the situation, then, fairly before us. The steel company made a definite effort to provide dwelling-places for some of its employes, when it laid out its plant on this untenanted lake shore. In its "New Village" it outdid what commercial real estate companies offer to better-paid wage-earners in Buffalo; in its "Old Village" it offered better household conveniences than are within the reach of common laborers who deal with petty landlords. As we shall see, it provided both with a sanitary equipment in sharp contrast to the inadequate arrangements which the lax town government has constructed for the neighboring areas. But the company failed to grasp the idea that it was creating a community and must plan for it as a whole. These two disjointed groups together house not over a third of the households of Lackawanna. The homes of the more resourceful work-people have spread out in a leaderless fashion to the landward of the railroads, their domestic traffic and their natural daily travel to

and from work impeded at every point by physical obstacles outside the control of the individual family and today outside the control of the company itself; while the half-inundated building sites nearest the mill—rendered desirable by these very obstacles, but the worst in the district from the health standpoint—have become the habitation of many of the company's work-people. Had the Lackawanna Steel Company done no more than secure title to all the ground between the lake shore and the railroads—a strip a mile wide and as long as desired—and reserved it for industrial purposes, the town must then have grown up a compact and organized community on the rolling land beyond the tracks, free of the muck, subways giving its people access to the lake-side plant.

Not only in its initial layout, but in its sanitary equipment, the community suffers from lack of concerted planning. As a city, Lackawanna is only about two years old. Before that it was not even a village. It was simply the township of West Seneca. The township form of government is a very good one. Several millions of people in the United States are living under it, scattered about on farms, just as they were in West Seneca ten years ago. But the West Seneca township government hardly filled the bill when 15,000 people decided to live on about four square miles within its borders. That created a sanitary problem beyond the ken of the town fathers. Some form of sewage disposal, however, became imperative, so a contract was let for the construction of sewers and a disposal plant. The work was finished some time ago, and it then developed that the town authorities and the contractor had tried too hard to be metropolitan. A court enjoined the city from accepting the sewer and several town officials went to jail. It is alleged that the contractor hated so to delay the work that whenever a rock was encountered he built the sewer up to the rock on one side and then began it again on the other, an expeditious and conservative plan. Consequently, the city has had to depend largely on privy vaults and cesspools. In the better section, east of the railroads,



Photograph by George J. Hare.

THE "OLD VILLAGE."

private enterprise has built sewers emptying into Smokes Creek, which winds about through that section and runs toward the lake just back of the "Old Village." In addition to the private homes thus provided for, there is an immense institution in the northeastern corner of Lackawanna, a home for children and infants, often housing a thousand or more at a time. The sewage from this institution also empties into Smokes Creek, which thus becomes an open sewer, running through the residence section east of the tracks.

The evils of this situation are much less than might naturally be expected, because the eastern section of the city, and especially that portion adjacent to Smokes Creek, is not closely built up. The menace to health that exists there will, of course, grow increasingly grave with the increase in population.

On the lake side of the tracks two widely different sets of conditions pre-

vail. The two villages owned by the steel company are each provided with sewers built by the company, which adequately meet the needs of the residents. Here we find the best sanitary conditions to be found in the city of Lackawanna. But between the two villages, in the foreign section, shocking conditions prevail. This is the region of boarding-houses, with the usual attendant carelessness and irresponsibility. One would think that modern sanitation had not yet been heard of. There are privy vaults, often unspeakably filthy, and even impossible of use. The difficulty involved will be apparent when you remember that this is a swamp region. Water in some cases completely surrounds the houses. In other instances, there is dry land on two or three sides at best. In practically every part of this district, even where the water is not close to the houses, it stands in the cellars.

Still, some of the big lodging-houses

there have bathrooms and inside toilets. I asked how the waste was disposed of, and the boarding-house boss took me out and showed me an open sewer emptying into the swamp, a few rods distant. I had noticed the open sewers before, but did not dream that they were intended for anything more than waste from the kitchen sink.

The swamp then becomes a great open cesspool in the heart of the foreign boarding-house section. Practically all the sewage of this section ultimately finds its way thither. But that is not all. The city provides for garbage removal, and the wagons are supposed to go around twice a week. Perhaps they do,

but few care to try to do what might be done toward making the section more habitable. The interiors of some of the houses—a minority—are remarkably clean. But outside there is everywhere filth. It is not only the back yards that are neglected. In every vacant lot and alleyway, no matter whose living-room windows open upon the scene, there was, when I was there, the accumulation of months—beer kegs, bottles, old shoes, tin cans, débris of all sorts.



Photograph by George J. Hare.

TYPICAL LACKAWANNA SCENE.
Sidewalk, swamp, and boarding-house.

but I saw heaps of garbage in the rear of a great many houses, every time I passed along the streets. Sanitary cans were neither provided nor required. Consequently, the swamp seems to be a great temptation and garbage is often thrown from the back door into the water.

There is a sort of "what's-the-use" air about this foreign quarter. The chances of being clean and sanitary are so re-

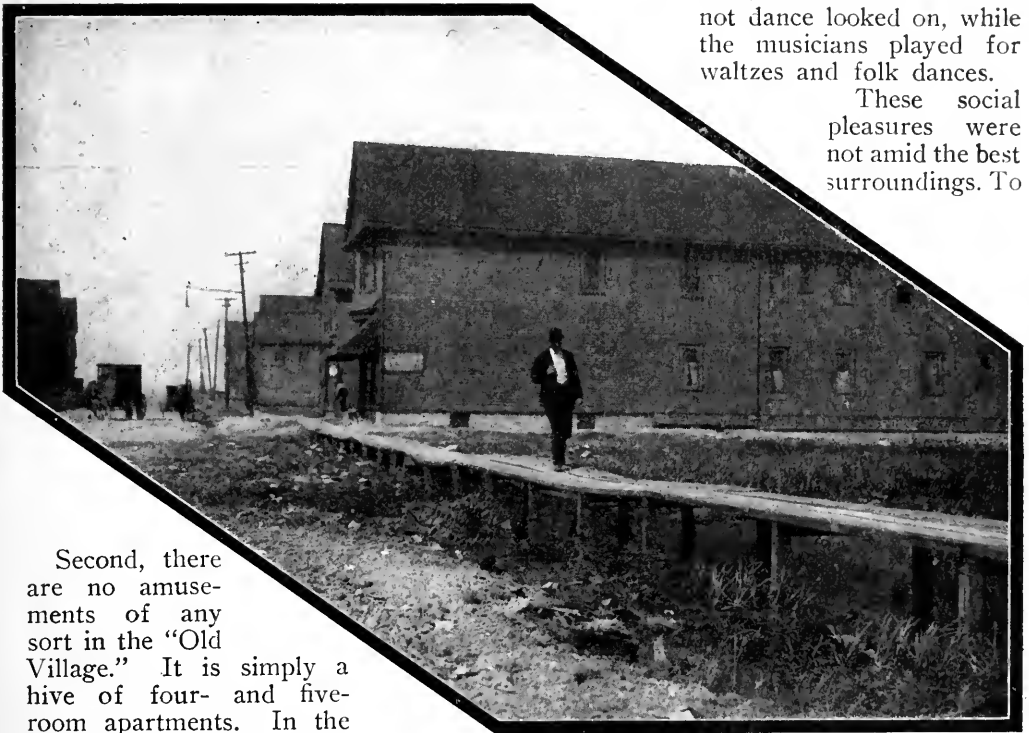
Yet, the foreigners prefer this section to the clean and sanitary "Old Village." I remarked above on the vacant apartments there. I am told that even when the mills are running at full capacity the demand for apartments is small, while congestion is at the maximum in the swamp district. There is no doubt that people, whether native or foreign born, dislike monotonous box rows as dwellings. They also dislike anything that is all too plainly stamped "company house." Yet you might naturally suppose that in spite of these things there would be a constant battering at the doors of the company houses to escape the filth and ever imminent pestilence of the swamp district. But if you should

expect that you would be overlooking two things.

First, the residents of the saloon-boarding-houses are untutored peasants. They have never been taught anything about the importance of sanitation in congested centers, and, having come from farms or small farm villages in Europe, they have not had object lessons. Hence, they do not dread the open sewers and the swamp as their children—those who live to grow up—will do.

only play-house in Lackawanna—a moving-picture show—and found it packed with a “standing room only” crowd, mostly foreigners, who with a quiet absorption were watching a very excellent set of pictures. In the foreign saloons that night I found the men in congenial groups at the bar, around the stove—sometimes talking, sometimes singing—and other groups playing pool or cards. In a large room back of a saloon I found a dance in progress. There were only five or six women and girls to about fifty men, but those who could not dance looked on, while the musicians played for waltzes and folk dances.

These social pleasures were not amid the best surroundings. To



Second, there are no amusements of any sort in the “Old Village.” It is simply a hive of four- and five-room apartments. In the beginning there was not even a store in the village. Now a grocery displays its wares in the small rooms of one of the dwellings. A drug store is to be established. But still there is no opportunity for social pleasure. There is no place in the “Old Village” where any considerable number of people may gather together. There is neither church, nor saloon, lodge room, nor dance hall, and it is nearly a mile to that part of the town where these things may be found.

I realized what this could mean when, on a Saturday night, I stepped into the

be sure, everything was quiet and orderly, a feature to which contribution was undoubtedly made by the presence of the two policemen who were my very accommodating guides; but there was considerable liquor drinking in all of these social groups, and each time between dances in the “ball-room” the men took their partners to the bar, and young girls and women alike took their drinks. Yet, out of it all,

Photograph by George J. Hare.

ANOTHER LACKAWANNA SCENE.
Street, Saloon, Boarding-House, and Swamp.

I got a new impression of the Slavs and Huns as social beings, and when I thought of those bleak company rows I was less inclined to wonder that there were a hundred vacant apartments there.

So far, I have been writing of the community without regard to its activities during working hours, which, no less than the physical environment, shape and mold the life of the townspeople. Lackawanna is an industrial town. Most of the male population work in the steel mills, two-thirds of them as day-laborers.

Common laborers are paid by the hour and the present rate is fifteen cents. That allows a daily wage of \$1.50 for a ten-hour man and \$1.80 for twelve hours. Frederic Almy, secretary of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society, after a careful study of the cost of living, in all sections of the city, reinforced by years of relief work among needy families, estimated in 1910 that the least *tolerable* income that would admit of the decencies of life for a man and wife and three children was \$560. This is just for the decencies and does not allow a cent for amusements, toys, postage stamps, extra hair-ribbons, or even medicine or doctor's bills. A steel works laborer can just about make it if he works twelve hours a day, 313 days in the year—a schedule which allows him his Sundays off. If he wants to take the children to a moving-picture show, or have an occasional visit from the doctor, he can attain to those advantages only by working Sundays too. But, if he happens to have a ten-hour job he cannot reach this "tolerable" income even by working every day in the year. His year's earnings would be \$547.50—twelve dollars and fifty cents below Mr. Almy's minimum. Bad transportation facilities and scarcity of land have no more to do with congestion and unsanitary homes than does this schedule of wages, which compels the 60 per cent of all employes, to whom it applies, either to remain single or to take boarders. It shows us the great economic lowland in the community life, as dominating in its way as the swamp which it fairly resembles.

How large a proportion do work twelve hours a day and seven days a week, and so achieve an income sufficient to support a family, I do not know. But I do know that in November, 1910, when I was there, a majority of the steel workers at Lackawanna, as at Pittsburgh and elsewhere, were working a twelve-hour day. The seven blast-furnaces were operated continuously, seven days a week, just as everywhere else; and, contrary to the custom of the United States Steel Corporation, the twelve open-hearth steel-making furnaces were also operated continuously. To man the blast and open-hearth furnaces required about 1400 men. But, in addition to these, about 100 electrical workers, and at a very minimum estimate 150 millwrights, repair men, furnace tenders, and watchmen were required in the plant on Sunday. Besides these, the gas-house men and three hundred hours a day and seven days a week. This made a total of about 2,000 men working in the seven-day departments, most of them working twelve hours a day and seven days a week. Crews were provided in the open-hearth department, where something over 300 men are employed, of sufficient size to give each man one day off each two weeks; but in the other departments a rest day came only on the request of the men.

"A man can't live a decent sort of life working that way," a seven-day workman in Lackawanna said to me. "Life is just a steady round of toil, and it tells on a man in time. It's simply a killing pace and I'm going to quit as soon as I get a stake."

But this was a ten-hour man—he worked only seventy hours a week. I talked with another man, Charlie Smith, who, the week before I saw him, had been required to work, with brief stops for lunches, from six o'clock Saturday morning until two in the afternoon on Sunday—a total of thirty-two hours. Then Monday morning he went to work at six as usual, but at six that evening the man who should have relieved him failed to appear; so he had to remain for the night shift also, making another period of twenty-four hours of continu-



Photograph by George J. Hare.

A HOUSE WITH WATER HANDY.

ous labor. Thus, during the seventy-two hours from Saturday morning to Tuesday morning, this man was actually on duty fifty-six hours, and had sixteen hours for rest—exactly one-third of the resting time that most men get during an equivalent period of time. I asked Smith how he could stand it.

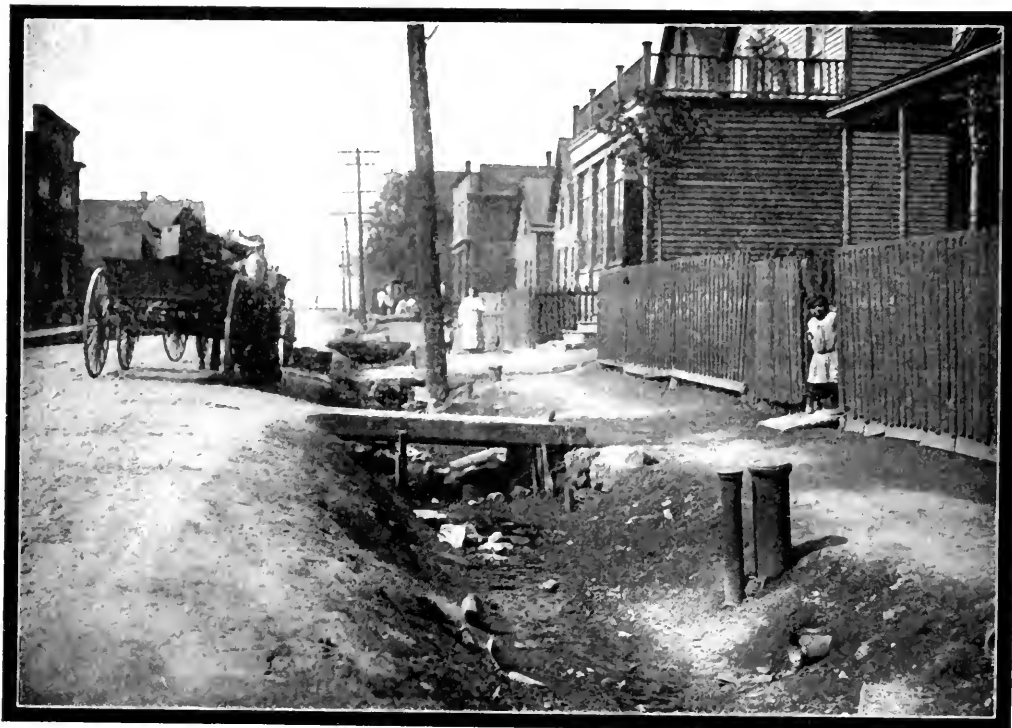
“Well,” he answered, “I’m dead for a week after a long grind like that. It’s pretty hard to stand, all right. You would think they would at least pay us extra for over-time, but they don’t, so we don’t even have that to console us.”

“But it’s hard on the wife, too,” said Mrs. Smith—we were talking in Smith’s sitting-room—“I have to get up at half-past five every morning to get him his breakfast. On Mondays he goes to work earlier, so I get up at half-past four. And it’s late at night before I’m through with the work. But worst of all is the uncertainty of everything. I never know when he will have to work a long shift. If he comes home at half-past five, that

means I’ve got to rush supper so he can get back to the mill. We never dare plan to spend an evening out anywhere. We have made so many engagements only to have to break them.”

It is no wonder that steel men are looking for other openings—for a chance to get out of an industry that leaves them no time in life that is not dominated by toil. Jim Everitt, another Lackawanna man, summed up what many steel workers, all over the country, have told me when he said, “I don’t take any pleasure in my work, nor the other men don’t either. If we had eight hours it would be a great job, with lots of excitement, one that I’d want to get back to. But the way it is now, twelve hours a day and sometimes seven days a week, I don’t get any pleasure out of the job or out of life.”

It is the effect of this working schedule upon everyday life that is most important. The twelve-hour day and seven-day week are as effectual bar-



Photograph by George J. Hare.

OPEN SEWER IN INGRAHAM PLACE, LACKAWANNA.

riers against healthy social growth and good citizenship as the railroad tracks and the swamp are a check on the healthy growth of the community.

Just one more illustration will make the point clear: I did not try to take a religious census, but there are at least four Protestant churches in Lackawanna, the largest being a Presbyterian church. None of them appeared to be very strong, or to attract a large number of people to the regular services. There is at least one Catholic church where the membership is predominately American, and several foreign Catholic churches.

It seemed to me that there was something significant in the fact that the Congregational church in southeastern Lackawanna was not holding Sunday morning services; that the pastor of the Methodist church did not reside in Lackawanna, but made his living in business in Buffalo, coming out on Sundays to preach; that the pastor of the Presbyterian church was adding to the area

within which his voice might be heard by editing a weekly newspaper;¹ and that even the Catholic churches could not depend on their members observing the rites of the church. I asked the pastors of two of the Protestant churches and the priest of the American Catholic church about it. They all said the same thing—that the long hours and Sunday work of the steel mills are fatal to spiritual growth. The Congregational church suspended its morning services because its male members are either at work or in bed, after a night of work, at the time for beginning Sunday morning services.²

¹This minister has now left Lackawanna. The paper is in other hands and the church, for the present, is without a pastor.

²In the spring of 1911 important changes took place. The blast furnace crews were organized on such a basis as to give each man one day of rest in seven. An attempt was made to do the same in the coke ovens, but the men objected on account of dissatisfaction with the day of rest allotted, so the plan was abandoned. The men do take off about three days in each month. In addition to these changes, which give a weekly rest day to 1300 or 1400 men, the working day for the common labor force has been reduced from twelve to ten hours.



Photograph by George J. Hare.
A TYPICAL SCENE IN LACKAWANNA.
Boarding-House, Swamp, and Steel Mill.

"It is a calamity to a community," said one of the churchmen, "to have a steel plant built in its midst, for steel is made in America today under conditions ruinous to health and morals."

But there is a better side, a more hopeful side to Lackawanna, which must not be overlooked or forgotten. The town was not built right; but there are many existing evils which can be overcome despite its false start; and there are many evidences that both the people and the steel company want to overcome them.

Some of the undesirable conditions that prevail are due to the natural crudeness of a young and rapidly built city. It has been only about two years that the people have had an adequate governmental machine for carrying on the work of the community. There has been much improvement since the incorporation of Lackawanna as a city, and plans for larger improvements are now on foot.

Still, if one were inclined to be captious, he might inquire why the Health

Board has not tackled more vigorously such comparatively simple matters as the keeping of alleys and yards in a clean, sanitary condition, and the proper removal of garbage. This summer, after a seven months' absence from Lackawanna, I was able to recognize an accumulation of refuse between two houses as the same that I had noted on my previous visit.

But health board and council are both waking up, and it has been determined to end the congestion in the lodging-house section. The council has passed a tenement-house ordinance, regulating air space. The present is a peculiarly strategic time for getting such a movement started. Since the lodging-houses are now half empty, it should be much easier to prevent a recurrence of overcrowding than to empty over-full houses. The city is building cement sidewalks and is paving Ridge Road with brick.

In May, 1911, the State Board of Health advised the local authorities to

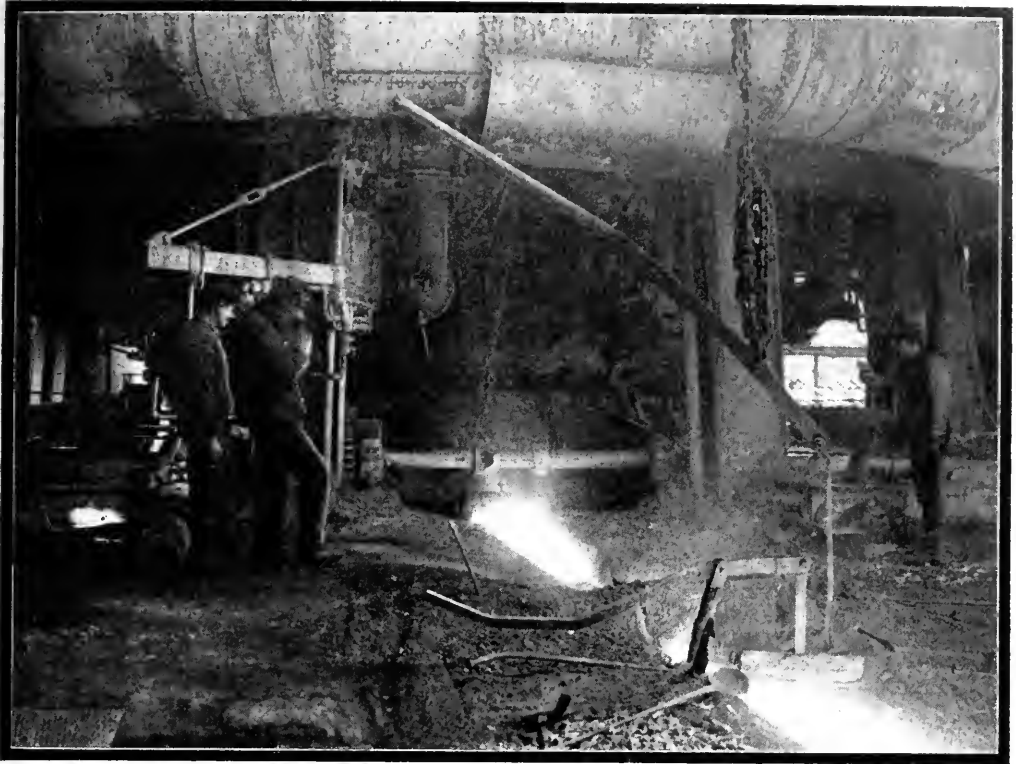
start the pumping plant, which had been tied up in the court proceedings, and get the sewer in operation. This was done, but since the sewer had never been formally accepted by the city, it is not connected with the houses. The only effect of starting the pump has been to lower the water in the swamp, which seeps through the broken joints of the imperfectly constructed sewer. This may not prove to be a sanitary move after all, for small open sewers still empty into the swamp, and the sewage must now collect in little pools here and there, instead of being diffused through a large body of water. Yet this action may prove a step preliminary to completing and getting into operation an adequate system of sewers.

To turn to the social enterprise being manifested by the steel company: during the past year it has nearly completed the work of filling with slag the swamp land adjacent to the "New Village." Recently the Rogers-Brown Iron Company, operating blast furnaces in South Buffalo, near Lackawanna, offered slag free to the city for filling the swamp in the boarding-house district, and the South Buffalo Railway Company, a subsidiary of the Lackawanna Steel Company, offered to haul the slag free of charge and dump it at convenient points. In June this work had not yet been started, and it was said that some of the non-resident owners of swamp property object to having to pay for the mere distribution of the filling, after it has been brought to their very doors. It would seem that there could be little doubt of the power of the city to compel the land-owners to take advantage of the offer.

In addition to these forward movements, the steel company has recently interested itself in social work. In the summer of 1910, it secured the services of James Bronson Reynolds in a thorough investigation of social conditions in Lackawanna. Both along civic and industrial lines, Mr. Reynolds brought unique equipment to this commission. He was for a number of years head worker of the University Settlement, New York, and during the Low administration was secretary to the mayor, in

which position he was able to give a more complete social content to municipal activities in New York than had hitherto characterized them, and to bring the City Hall into intimate touch with the many foreign-born people on the East Side. Later he represented President Roosevelt on a number of important special commissions—among them an inquiry into housing conditions in the national capital which resulted in the creation of the president's Homes Commission, and, with Labor Commissioner Neill, the special investigation of the Chicago stock-yards following the exposures of *The Jungle*. James Speyer, a member of the board of directors, is also the leading trustee of the University Settlement. In recasting the social policy of the company it was natural that the directors should turn to Mr. Speyer's old associate. A number of interesting and hopeful things have resulted directly and indirectly from Mr. Reynolds's report, the first of its kind submitted to the officials of a large employing steel corporation by a man of independent standing as an economist and social worker.

One of the first things was the organization of a Sociological Department. So far it has not been determined just what lines of activity are to be taken up by this department, but a way is being blazed out for it in an interesting manner. About a year ago a settlement, in which several Buffalo people were interested, was started in Lackawanna by Miss Emma Kaan, an artist of Hungarian descent. A committee has been organized of which George P. Sawyer, of Buffalo, is chairman, and with which General Manager C. H. McCullough, of the steel plant, is co-operating. This committee has assumed charge of the settlement and of social work in general in the community. One year ago there was practically no social work in Lackawanna. Now, in addition to the settlement itself, there is a model lodging-house conducted by the settlement; two visiting nurses are at work; a Y. M. C. A. worker, who last winter conducted evening classes for men, spent the summer in charge of a boys' camp in the country near Lackawanna; a trained Charity Organization Society worker



Courtesy Lackawanna Steel Company.

TAPPING BLAST FURNACE, LACKAWANNA.

has been in the field since March; a playground has been opened and a director secured; a modified milk station and a dispensary have been established. Of the expense attendant upon these enterprises five-sixths is borne by the steel company.

During the past month Elizabeth S. Williams, long head-worker of the College Settlement on Rivington street, New York, has taken up residence in Lackawanna. Miss Williams takes temporary charge of the settlement to develop its activities; and during her stay she will study the needs of the community and help organize further efforts at improvement. The Sociological Department of the steel company will undoubtedly keep closely in touch with this outside work and thus rather remarkable co-operative relationships for improvement in mill and town will be instituted. The application of the experienced judgment and democratic standards of neighborhood

workers, who have had their training in the tenement life of the great cities, to such an outlying self-contained industrial community as Lackawanna is in itself an experiment which will be watched with interest.

There is need, however, for many things in Lackawanna which can be solved only through the municipality; and it is towards such public action that these voluntary agencies will no doubt in no small measure address themselves, in co-operation with those residents of the town who in the past have stood out for better things.

The filling of the swamp should be insisted upon. The building of an adequate sewer system should be rushed. The Health Board has at last been allowed one inspector—that is good, but more are needed. The city should be cleaned up. The schools should be made to serve the people better in the way of vocational and night schools. The build-



Courtesy Lackawanna Steel Company.
WARD IN THE MOSES TAYLOR HOSPITAL,
LACKAWANNA.

ings should be opened as social centers. For these and many other advances the city is the logical source of authority.

These proposals are indeed part of the program that the North American Civic League for Immigrants is proposing to the city authorities of Buffalo proper. Their program puts chief emphasis on the extension of educational facilities in the form of evening schools, systematic instruction in citizenship, the use of school buildings as social gathering places, and such measures of industrial betterment as industrial education and adequate agencies for obtaining employment. Inasmuch as over two-thirds of Lackawanna's population is foreign-born, it is especially desirable that the league should extend its activities, as it has already tentatively done, to this industrial suburb.

But there is more to be considered than the reforming of Lackawanna. After all, it grew up in just about the same way that most towns do. That is no reason, though, why we should not learn from the experiences of Lackawanna how not to build a town. For the last new town has not yet been built, and we may as well consider how a better job may be done in the planning of industrial communities.

Everybody knew there was going to be a town at Lackawanna, just as soon as it became known that a steel company had planned to build a big plant there. The steel company knew it and acknowl-

edged its responsibility by building its two villages. It would have better discharged that responsibility, so far as the town was concerned, if it had been instrumental in making the beginnings of a well-planned, well laid-out city.

When a corporation goes into new territory to build a plant, it is by that act inviting men and women to come and live in the community. When it does that it owes it to its employes, and to society even more, to see to it that the community is a decent place for men and women to live in. You cannot erect a tenement in a city without submitting specifications to a public official and securing a permit. And if you do not intend to use certain materials, or take certain precautions, you cannot have the permit. Neither will it avail you anything that you are a well intentioned person, and that you cannot afford the prescribed material, or the kind of plumbing demanded. If you cannot afford it, you do not build. I think that sometime we will demand of a corporation that, before it commences building a plant in a district unsupplied with dwellings, it shall show to a state official plans for the development of a town where people may live amid healthy, decent surroundings. And if the company cannot afford, after paying the experts who have built its plant, to invest something in starting the town as a town should be started, with due regard to public health and morals, it should not be permitted to open its plant. This will give the community which the plant is to call into being the same protection that we now afford to the dwellers of a single tenement.

Regulation of that sort would have avoided many of the difficulties which now burden Lackawanna people. But it leaves untouched the larger problem—the work-relationships of the wage-earners. From every point of view this is the most serious problem. It is so to society at large, because of its extensive ramifications. It is so to the management, because of the serious conflict of interests where stockholders clamor for dividends, while higher wages and shorter hours may conceivably cut down those

dividends. And most of all it is so to the wage-earner, because, given fair work conditions, reasonable hours, and a wage that commands the comforts as well as the decencies of life, he can, in the long run, in a democracy, settle the other problems himself.

There are no easy solutions of the labor problem. It is not a local matter. You can regulate tenements in Lackawanna, but labor conditions are affected by competition and tend to uniformity throughout the country. It is not in Lackawanna alone that the twelve-hour day saps the vital energy of strong men and makes them useless as members of the social body. It is not here alone that men have forgotten the calendar because one day was no different from another, through the seven work-days of each week—a system now largely eliminated. Nor is it here alone that the wages paid are inadequate to maintain a normal standard of living.

But the Lackawanna Steel Company has carried the twelve-hour day further than has the United States Steel Corporation. It has exceeded the latter in the amount of Sunday work demanded; it not only requires continuous seven-day operation in blast furnaces where continuous operation is a technical necessity, but also in open-hearth furnaces, where it is not a technical necessity, and it pays

common labor a cent and a half per hour less than is paid in the Steel Corporation mills in Pittsburgh, a hundred miles away. The Lackawanna Steel Company has not, as yet, for various reasons, proved a financial success. Following a complete reorganization of the operating management of the company a few years ago a tremendous work of rehabilitation began. This should be borne in mind in reviewing the existing situation, especially in appreciating the difficulties which a management not yet in position to declare dividends may have in securing appropriations for purposes not directly productive of profits but which would improve living and working conditions.

But we are well within the bounds of reasonableness in asking the Lackawanna Steel Company—and the Pennsylvania and Bethlehem Steel Companies, too, whose employes are worse off than those at Lackawanna—that they shall bring their standard of labor conditions up to that of the best of their competitors, low as that is; and then we have a right to demand of the steel industry in America that labor conditions be raised to a point where there may be sufficient leisure and sufficient comfort in the homes of the workmen to develop healthy ideals of citizenship, and strength to meet local problems with democratic intelligence.



Courtesy Lackawanna Steel Company.

ORE UNLOADING MACHINERY AT LACKAWANNA.

WORK-ACCIDENTS AND THE FARM HAND

DON D. LESCOHIER

MINNESOTA BUREAU OF LABOR

The substitution of power machinery for hand labor has made agriculture a hazardous industry. Corn shredders, grain separators, gasoline engines, threshers, cream separators, and other forms of machinery have changed the character of agricultural processes, until much of the labor in the industry has become more analogous both in method and in danger to factory work than to earlier agriculture. Not only this, but much of the machinery used is far more dangerous than that used in most factories, for sufficient attention has not yet been paid to guarding it. The public has not known enough about the number and the causes of accidents on farms to realize that farmers need legal protection against unguarded machines as badly as do factory workers. Prevention is further retarded by the fact that the accidents are distributed over so wide an area that the persons injured do not combine and crystallize a sentiment for pro-

tection. When five men in a factory are killed in a year the operatives begin to ask why these accidents are happening and how they can be prevented; but when as many occur among the same number of farmers they do not realize that they have need to co-operate for protection.

Sixteen fatal accidents, two likely to result in death, eighty-five serious injuries, and thirty-two severe ones—a total of 135 accidents—were reported from Minnesota's agriculture during the past twenty months, eighty-two of them, including four fatalities, in the last eight months. The reports for the first twelve months were especially incomplete, but there is no reason to believe that the records even for the last eight months are a complete toll of the accidents. The figures given must be considered as illustrations rather than statistics.

Forty-one per cent of the accidents occurred on corn shredders, which are the most dangerous agricultural machines in use in the Northwest. One hardly realizes how common accidents on them are until one picks up the "country" pa-

¹This is the fourth of a series of articles on the prevention of work-accidents, by Don D. Lescohier. Previous articles were: The Risks of the Ore-Diggers, July 1; The Lumberman's Hazard, August 5; Some Work Hazards which go into a Loaf of Bread, September 2. Price for each issue, 25 cents.

AGRICULTURAL ACCIDENTS. MINNESOTA—20 MONTHS.
Nature of Injuries.

Part of body injured.	Fatal.	Loss of part.	Breaks and fractures.	Serious crushings and bruises.	Severe crushings and bruises.	Serious lacerations.	Severe lacerations.	Total.
Fatal	16							16
Arm		9	4	4		3		18
Hand		10		4	2		6	22
Three or four fingers		13						13
One or two fingers		23		1	1			26
Foot		1		2				4
Toes				2	1			1
Two legs		1	5					1
One leg		1				2		7
Two eyes		1						3
One eye							2	2
Ribs			5					5
Collar-bone			1					1
Body				7				7
Head					1		1	3
Unclassified						6		6
Total	16	58	16	16	7	13	9	135

pers during November and December and reads the comments of the editors.

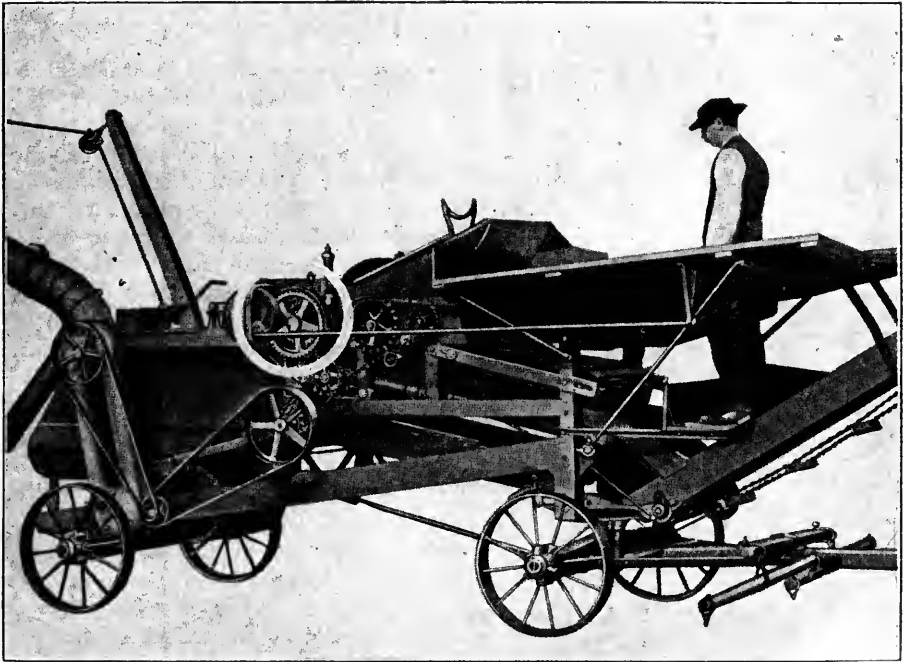
One more was added to the long, long list of victims of the deadly corn shredder, when Curtis Kreger had his hand caught in the husking rolls of his father's shredder, Tuesday afternoon. He lost three fingers.

The crop of corn-shredder victims is not as large this fall as in former years, but every now and then fingers and hands are caught. Last Friday Frank Peterson cut the tips off the fingers of his right hand.

While Roscoe Mead is the only corn-shredder victim so far from Marshall this season, the shredder is numbering its victims by the

thirteen, of one finger. The death was due to blood-poisoning.

Fifty-two of the accidents happened on the "snapping" and "husking" rolls; one in some gears while oiling, and two on belts. The accidents on the rolls are typical accidents on the machines, and to make clear the manner of their occurrence and the means of their prevention we have presented the accompanying illustrations. The shredder reproduced is the "Deering" six-roll shredder.¹ The workman is standing ready to feed the



THE MOST DANGEROUS MACHINE IN NORTHWESTERN AGRICULTURE.

Corn-stalks are fed from table on operator's left to snapping-rolls concealed by hood in front of him. White circle indicates gears that operate snapping-rolls.

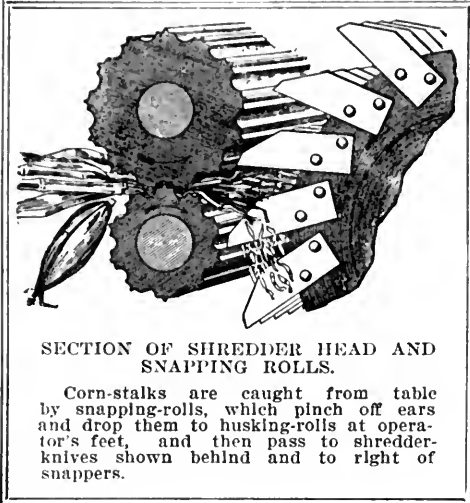
score throughout the state. The same machine upon which Roscoe lost all the fingers of one hand has twice before removed the hands of operators, one being the owner.

Fred Yes lost all the fingers of one hand and Charlie Saufferer's hand was badly lacerated last week. Both were victims of the terrible corn shredder, which takes its toll of the farmers every year.

Of the fifty-six accidents on these machines one was fatal; four resulted in the loss of an arm; nine in the loss of hands; nine, of four fingers; four, of three fingers; four, of two fingers; and

cornstalks into the machine. The bundles will be pitched down upon the platform at his side, on which a feed belt runs, and will be directed by him into the open hood which he is facing. At the back of the hood, at the point where the gear wheel at the left side of the machine has a white mark around it, are the "snapping-rolls." These consist of two corrugated rolls, which draw the corn-

¹The illustrations are reproduced from advertising circulars of the International Harvester Company.



SECTION OF SHREDDER HEAD AND SNAPPING ROLLS.

Corn-stalks are caught from table by snapping-rolls, which pinch off ears and drop them to husking-rolls at operator's feet, and then pass to shredder-knives shown behind and to right of snappers.

stalks in and feed them into the shredder knives, and at the same time snap off the ears and cause them to fall down into the "husking-rolls" underneath.

The second cut shows a section of the snapping-rolls, with the shredder knives behind them, and gives the reader some conception of how terrible it is for a man to get his hand caught in the snapping-rolls and drawn through to the shredder knives.

In the small, two-roll shredder the snapping-rolls are set in an oblique position, and the lower portion of them does the husking. They are probably more dangerous even than the large machines, because the stalks must be fed into a short oblique funnel instead of along a horizontal table, and the rolls are closer to the operator. Usually the accidents occur either because the stalks clog up the snapping-rolls and the operators reach under the hoods to try to make them run better, or because one or more ears clog up the husking-rolls, and workmen reach in and try to pull the ears out from there. A few illustrative accidents may be described in the words of the newspapers which reported them:

The machine was not running nicely, it having got clogged up with cornstalks, and Pete reached in with one hand to pull out the rubbish which caused the trouble. In some way his hand was caught, and two fingers clipped off.

He tried to loosen a corn cob which was stuck in the husking-rolls, and his glove was caught, drawing his right hand between the rolls in a second.

He had on two pairs of canvas gloves to keep his hands warm. One of the outer gloves was slightly torn, and this caught his hand and drew it into the shredder, breaking all the bones and lacerating the flesh in a terrible manner. His arm had to be amputated between the elbow and wrist.

The job was nearly completed when, about six o'clock in the evening, the machine became clogged. In the hurry, Mr. Lindstrom used his hands to clean out the husks. His right hand was caught between the husks and roller, and mangled so badly that the doctor found it necessary to amputate the fingers.

He was running a corn shredder and got his hand too near the blades of the machine and it was drawn in and badly mangled. Nearly his entire hand had to be amputated.

The 1911 Minnesota Legislature passed a law (copied from Wisconsin) designed to prevent these accidents. Its purpose is, first, to require such an elongation of the hood over the snapping-rolls that a man cannot reach in and touch either the snapping- or husking-rolls, and, second, to prohibit the operation of unguarded machines by incompetent persons. Vigorous efforts are being made by the labor commissioner to make the law effective and these regulations will unquestionably stop most of the accidents, though it will be difficult to prevent the employment of any but competent men on the old machines. The ability to reach the rolls and the youth and inexperience of many of the operators are the prime causes of the casualties.

Chapter 354, Minnesota Session Laws of 1911, reads:

Be it enacted by the Legislature of the State of Minnesota:

Section 1. No person, firm, or corporation shall sell, offer, or expose for sale any machine to be operated by steam or other power, for the purpose of husking or shredding corn or cornstalks, unless the said machine shall be provided with reasonable safety devices approved by the commissioner of labor for the protection from accidents from the snapping-rollers and husking-rollers, and shall be so guarded that the person feeding said machine shall be compelled to stand at reasonably safe distance from the snapping-rollers.

Section 2. No person, firm, or corporation shall use, operate, or permit to be used or operated any such machine purchased prior

to the passage and publication of this act, unless, during all the time such machine shall be used and operated, it shall be in charge of a competent person, whose sole duty shall be to oversee and attend to the operating and use of the same.

Section 3. Any such person, firm, or corporation, who shall violate any of the provisions of this act, shall be punished by a fine of not less than twenty-five dollars (\$25) or more than one hundred dollars (\$100.00) for each offense.

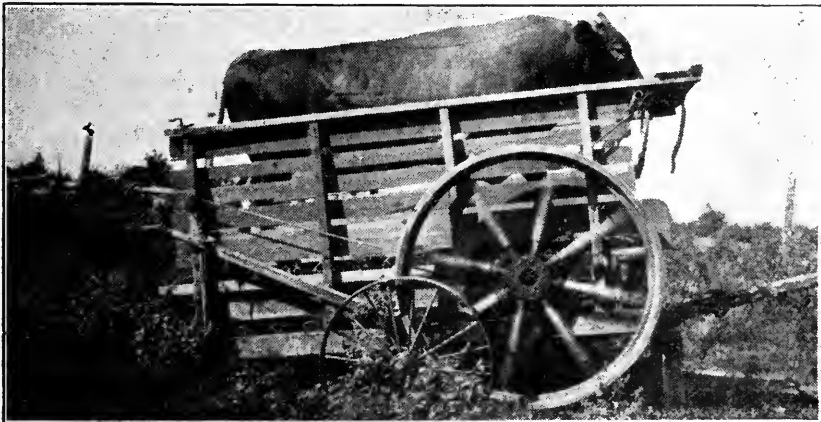
Corn shellers cause accident similar to those on corn shredders, but not so many of them. Five cases have been reported since August 1, 1910, in which the operators got their hands caught in the feed-rolls and drawn into the machines. Two each lost two fingers, another suffered a broken arm, and the fourth had his arm so crushed and torn that it was feared that it would be necessary to amputate it. These accidents, like those with the corn shedder, can be prevented only by so constructing the machines that the operators cannot reach the feed-rolls.

The wood saw is another dangerous machine on Minnesota farms, and, in the last five months, six serious accidents have been reported from its use. Most of them could have been avoided by a guard on the saw, though one was due to carelessness in nailing a board supposed to stop a belt from jumping. The board loosened, and fell on the saw, and it was thrown against the operator's head. At least one of the accidents was

due to a loose sleeve that caught on the wood-carrier and drew the operator's arm against the saw.

Belts and gear wheels probably rank next to corn shredders as causes of unnecessary accidents. The belt accidents are due either to attempts to put on or to take off belts with the machinery running, or to unguarded belts. A farmer who started a gasoline engine was caught by the belt and carried to his death in the shafting, and another, working near an engine, was caught by the trousers in the belt of the engine and whirled about the shafting, and his legs were broken. We can see no reason why light, transportable guard-fences cannot be used to guard the belts of machines moved from farm to farm, and a permanent guard be used to protect belts on stationary engines, as similar belts are protected in factories. Two serious accidents, caused by attempts to put belts on machines in motion, occurred in December. A farmer putting on a corn-shredder belt was caught by another belt and whirled three times around the shaft. He lost his arm above the elbow. Another was caught while attempting to push off a corn-shredder belt, and his arm was broken in two places. These accidents could be prevented by slowing down the engines while adjusting or removing belts.

Two deaths, two amputated arms, a crushed hand, and an amputated finger—the injuries in six gearing accidents re-



A UNIQUE "SAFETY DEVICE."

The tread-mill is used to keep his Royal Majesty, the bull, in sweet temper. He is doing service to his master and at the same time working off his surplus spirit.



THE NEW AGRICULTURE OF THE NORTHWEST.

An illustration of the rapidly developing use of traction engines in the plowing, harrowing, and rolling of farm lands in the Middle West and Western States.

ported during the past few months—show that these accidents are to be seriously considered. Two of them—the lesser ones—occurred while oiling corn shredders, the oilers having got their hands into uncovered gears. One of those killed was caught and crushed in the cogs of a separator, and the other was caught by a gear clutch on a gasoline engine, and hurled violently to the ground. The “loss-of-an-arm” accidents were simple cases of being caught in exposed cogs on gasoline engines. These accidents could all have been prevented, except possibly one of the oiling accidents, by covers over the cog-wheels. An inspection of the agricultural machinery on exhibition at last year’s state fair revealed that it is the common thing to leave dangerous gear wheels on agricultural machinery entirely uncovered. When one inquires why this is done, the manufacturers allege that the farmers want the machines at the lowest possible price, and they must economize wherever possible in manufacturing them. In Europe, where the laws compel the manufacturers to guard properly dangerous parts of agricultural machines, we are

informed that the same machines are sold by American manufacturers with proper guards.

Occasional accidents occur on a number of other machines—such as hay presses, cream separators, corn binders, hay and litter carriers, mowers, and grain separators—but in most cases the accidents are due either to a special carelessness on the part of the person injured, or to one of the causes we have already noted—especially gear wheels or belts. We will therefore not delay upon these accidents, but call attention before closing to some of the peculiar ways in which casualties occur in agriculture.

Three persons were drowned during 1910 by falling into wells, two of them well-cleaners, the other an old man who had been weakened by sickness and who lost his balance while drawing water. A well-digger was killed by an explosion of dynamite. Four farmers were badly injured by dynamite while blasting stumps. They clearly lacked knowledge of how to handle the explosive.

A farm laborer was killed by a vicious bull, and another seriously injured.

Three were badly hurt by horses. A farmer descending a wheat stack lost his balance and fell on a pitch-fork, sustaining injuries from which he died. Two threshers were going up a hill on a threshing-engine. The machine "reared up" as a horse rises on its hind legs. They jumped and ran. The machine came back to the ground and, uncontrolled, followed one of the men to the fence, crushing him to death. Two

others were crushed, but not seriously, between an engine and a separator, because of the breaking of a coupling-pin. A farm laborer fell in front of a gang plow. He was caught by the plowshare, and his leg was terribly lacerated. A farmer trimming one of his trees fell to the ground and was killed. Another was thrown from a wagon that tipped over while turning. His shoulder and several ribs were fractured.

SLAV FARMERS ON THE "ABANDONED FARM" AREA OF CONNECTICUT

ALEXANDER E. CANCE

EXPERT IN CHARGE OF THE REPORT OF THE IMMIGRATION COMMISSION ON
RECENT IMMIGRANTS IN AGRICULTURE

Recent agricultural immigrants to southern New England, though not numerous, represent three rather distinct economic types. First are the laborers, Portuguese, Finnish, Italian, and Polish, chiefly employed in gangs on the cranberry bogs of Cape Cod or on market gardens near Providence and Boston. Here, capitalistic, highly specialized, large-scale agriculture demands large numbers of low-priced laborers on the one hand, and highly efficient foremen or managers on the other—dear land and cheap labor. These immigrants are agricultural laborers pure and simple and are separated from land ownership or land proprietorship by an almost impassable gulf.

The second class are the rural communities of land-owning foreigners who occupy fertile soils, such as those in the Connecticut valley, and who are engaged in the production of special crops—onions, tobacco, fruit, or market garden produce. These colonies for the most are prospering wonderfully and have become permanent additions to the rural communities of their adoption. Their present problems are connected with

what may be called their higher life—social, educational, moral, and political. Materially they are on a prosperous and hopeful footing.

The Slavic and Jewish immigrants on the Connecticut highlands, with whom this article deals, must be regarded in an economic light as different from those just mentioned. There are few sections of Connecticut rougher, stonier, or less adapted to general farming than the upland towns lying between the eastern wall of the Connecticut valley and the Willimantic river, from New London and Saybrook northward to the Massachusetts line.

For many years this section has been agriculturally decadent, and the rural population has declined steadily. Communities that flourished a hundred years ago would now be well-nigh depopulated were it not for the recent ingress of foreigners; thousands of acres of land formerly in tillage have been allowed to grow up to chestnut sprouts, and extensive areas of pasture land are now producing little but brush and briars.

The restoration of these lands is a grave problem. Conservationists have recommended white pine, agricultural experts have advised the introduction of sheep husbandry, while with the same purpose in view—that of re-populating the worn-out ridges and restoring their

¹The material facts used in this paper, which is the second in a series by Alexander E. Cance on agricultural immigrant groups in the United States, were gathered by the author while investigating immigrant communities in New England for the United States Immigration Commission. The first article in the series, Piedmontese on the Mississippi, appeared in THE SURVEY of September 2. Price 25 cents.



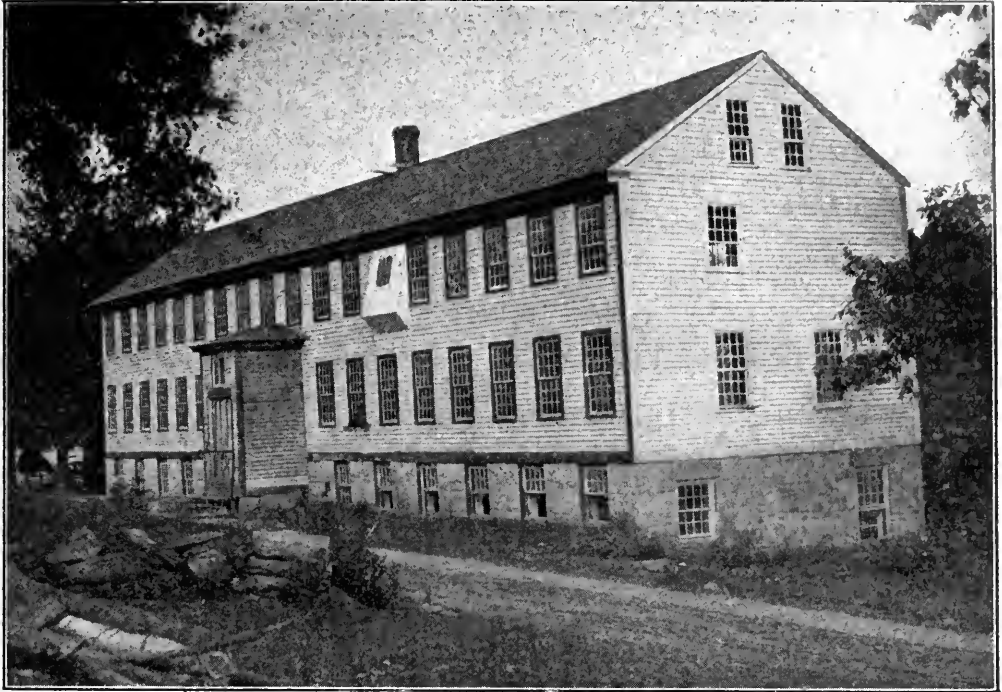
"BOHEMIAN HALL," WILLINGTON, CT.
The Bohemian flag is flying beside the American.

fertility—philanthropists, humanitarians, and real estate agents have urged immigrant occupation. The execution of this program of vicarious restoration has, strange to tell, proved more beneficial to the land agent than to the incoming immigrant. The immigrant pioneer settling the western prairies goes to his uncleared, virgin land as to a bank, upon which he may draw indefinitely for sustenance. The roughly scratched soil, sown to grain, without further effort gives abundant returns. On the thin, worn, long exhausted acres of upland New England, however, this procedure produces nothing. To draw from the bank, the immigrant must first make rather large deposits of labor and fertilizer. The soil must be constantly and consistently coaxed and stimulated. Consequently the foreign occupant, who frequently comes from a New York factory where he has been earning \$15 to \$25 a week, and who has invested nearly all his spare cash in land, with little capital and small knowledge of farming, is likely to meet discouragement or disaster in his first en-

counter with the exhausted farm, which the owner probably sold because he could not earn a living upon it.

One typical case may be mentioned. On the top of one of the roughest ridges in Tolland county a Slavic family, in 1905, bought an old farm of sixty acres. About half of the land had once been in tillage and \$1200 did not seem an exorbitant price to pay for land and buildings. The family consists of a man and wife, about fifty-nine years of age, two daughters employed in New York, and two sons about twenty-two and nineteen years of age, respectively. Despite the fact that the younger son works very steadily in a neighboring pearl button factory, the family have not been able to support themselves and have been obliged to call on the daughters for aid more than once. They are neat, careful, hard-working farmers, but the rock-strewn, infertile fields give meagre returns. A careful accounting showed that scarcely \$20 worth of produce had been sold from the farm in 1909.

Adequate capital and expert knowledge



PEARL BUTTON FACTORY, DALESVILLE, CT.
Many farm boys work here for supplemental income.

of fruit-raising would probably make the farm profitable after a few years. But the father invested all his savings in the land and a few head of stock. He is not an expert farmer and his hardest labor and most careful attention to details do not suffice to win a meagre subsistence from the sterile hillsides. This instance is rather a type than an exception in the particular neighborhood.

But the obstacles are not all of the same nature. Even with infertile soil the foreigner accustomed to the rent-ridden fields of Europe might be able to coax a lean return from the so-called "abandoned" hills of New England, were he able to purchase his land at a fair valuation. But this is reckoning without the "land shark." The movement of Slavs to Tolland county dates back but a few years—to 1902 or 1903. The greater number have arrived since 1905. The first comers, who dealt with original owners, fared very well, buying land at its real value—about \$4 to \$8 per acre. Later the available tracts were grabbed up by real-estate speculators, who gath-

ered in the bargains, sold the timber to lumbermen for the purchase price of the land, and, stocking the farm with a few old cows and some second-hand tools, disposed of the denuded acres to the credulous and unsophisticated newcomer for more than the original sale price. Some of the agents are Americans, some are foreigners who advertise extensively in Bohemian and Polish newspapers.

The testimony in regard to sharp practices is specific and ample.

"It is a shame," said an intelligent officer, "that such barefaced rascality should go on. I have known farms that were bought for \$1,000 to be sold by the buying speculator within a month for \$5,000, *timber rights reserved*. The price asked is ordinarily limited only by the size of the land-seeker's pocketbook."

One man who paid \$1,000 cash for a place found that the agent had bought the option on it from the American owner a few days previously for \$400. Another, who bought seventy-five acres in 1908 for \$1850, found on survey that the farm had shrunk to fifty acres and the



POSING FOR THE CAMERA.

assessed value to \$400. In Tolland county more than one-half the foreigners interviewed by the author for the Immigration Commission related tales of exploitation of one sort or another. The reservation-of-timber clause in deeds to immigrants is so common that it may be called universal. The buyer of fairly thrifty, growing chestnut timber land is thus not only deprived of his only immediate source of revenue, but is sometimes left without sufficient firewood in a region of forest. It is clear that some steps should be taken to investigate and prevent the continuance of methods that would scarcely have been tolerated in the palmy days of real estate piracy.

Exclusive of Jews, who have settled in comparatively large numbers near Chesterfield and Colchester, in New London county, perhaps 125 families of Poles, Bohemians, and other Slavic peoples have purchased farms on the upper Connecticut highland, chiefly in Tolland county. The Bohemians are perhaps the most numerous, the most prosperous, and on the whole the most discontented. Nearly all the foreigners migrated from New York city, but the Bohemians came from skilled occupations and brought more money with them than the Poles and Slovaks. The Slovaks are the most recent comers; they are poor, occupy rough, stony, barren land for the most part, and their hopeless attempts to clear and put in cultivation little patches of rock-strewn soil are pathetic.

It is significant that very few or none

of the thousands of immigrants employed in the textile mills that thickly line the banks of the Willimantic river have become farmers. The city-to-country movement of factory-workers in the immediate vicinity is almost negligible. Nor has there been any organized movement to this section nor any purposeful scheme of colonization. It is interesting to observe, however, that the motives actuating the rural trend of foreigners are not different from those that impel Americans to the countryside. Some confessed that they had gained their notion of the charms of country life when spending their summers with some Bohemian family in the country. A few families came purposing to take summer boarders and are discouraged to find that a forty-acre farm will not provide vegetables, fruit, eggs, and milk to feed forty boarders. The summer boarder industry, rightly managed, is a source of profit, but few have succeeded in the enterprise. Others came lured by the glowing advertisements of cheap land and easy living, inserted in Slav periodicals by land agents. Some came to escape the factory life of the great city and several came seeking health and a country home. Few have had much rural experience; most of them found land and rents ridiculously cheap compared with New York city prices, and practically all have felt severely the loss of the regular weekly cash income from factory labor.

The isolation has, in some respects, worn upon the women and the young, but the unresponsiveness of the soil to their constant and untiring exertions has been the greatest cause of discouragement. Some families live very meanly, and were it not for supplementary earnings in the small pearl button factories scattered here and there through the county they would surely suffer want. Several of the earliest settlers have given up in despair the hopeless attempt to win a living from their farms. The grown-up members of the families are almost invariably found employed in some supplementary factory occupation.

Two further considerations tend to retard the progress of the Slavic farmers;

the growing of staple crops exclusively, raised by primitive methods, and the inadequate facilities for marketing their products. The principal district under discussion is about fifteen miles square, with a branch of the Willimantic river running north and south through its center. Stafford Springs, having a population of 2460 in 1900, is the principal railroad town and marketing center; within its boundaries are fourteen woolen and shoddy mills, employing hundreds of immigrants. Despite this body of local consumers, the chief crops raised in Tolland county are hay and oats, corn, a few potatoes, and a little rye, buckwheat, and millet. Most farmers keep a few cows of nondescript breed, selling the milk, delivered at the railway station every morning, to Boston or Providence milk contractors. Most of the farms are six to ten miles distant from town, over rough, steep dirt roads, and few crops are produced for market. Excepting milk production, the agriculture is primitive, extensive, and self-sufficing. Of twenty-six farms investigated in some detail, only three-fourths showed any cash returns from products marketed. None of the Slovaks reported sales of more than \$250 yearly, and 41 per cent sold nothing for cash; one-third of the Bohemians sell less than \$50 worth of products per farm per year, one-half sell between \$50 and \$500 worth, and only three average more than \$500 worth of cash sales.

Oxen are frequently used instead of horses, scythes are more numerous than mowing-machines, self-binders and threshers are unknown. Annual applications of commercial fertilizer rarely exceed \$6 in value on Slovak farms, and in almost every respect agriculture is very backward. The native farmers are, on the whole, doing a little better than the newcomers, very few of whom are at all hopeful or contented. The Bohemians are hard and intelligent workers, and despite the dilapidated condition of the buildings when purchased most of them have greatly improved their surroundings and have neat and well kept farmsteads.

One of the greatest handicaps to agricultural progress is the distance to



THE BACK DOOR.

markets, or rather the actual dearth of markets for any produce that returns a profit. Milk is really produced at a loss, fresh vegetables for the local trade are not being produced in any systematic way, and shipments of perishables to the large cities are not remunerative. In fact, lack of markets is one of the most frequent complaints of the immigrant. Were it not for the income derived from mill employment and outside labor, existence would be impossible in some instances. Those fortunate enough to have unreserved timber tracts from which railroad ties can be cut are able to increase their receipts materially by removing the timber, but farm produce is not a dependable source of income.

Socially the foreigners are hindered by poverty and isolation. Nevertheless, several social enterprises have been set on foot by the Bohemians. In one place there is a local Bohemian band; in another a farmers' organization for crop and stock insurance and social purposes. An active local of a well known Bohemian mutual aid society has purchased a country school-house (over which float both the United States and the Bohemian flags) in which to hold regular meetings; a woman's auxiliary aids in developing the social life of the immigrants.

The foreigners have no common church affiliations—a fact of significance, permitting the rapid dissolution of national and racial ties and the ready Americanization of the Bohemians. The children attend the Protestant Sabbath



A SLAV FARM HOME IN CONNECTICUT.

schools with American young people, but few of the older people have any regular church connections. The Bohemians have high ideals of education. All their children of school age attend the district school with great regularity; some attend high school, and a few of the boys are at college. Lack of funds alone prevents a larger use of educational facilities. The Slovaks are poorer and have a lower economic and educational standard of living. A large percentage of the Bohemians are either American citizens or have taken out first papers; of the other Slavs scarcely any have taken any steps toward citizenship. All in all, immigration to this "aban-

doned farm" area has not been very successful from an economic point of view. On the other hand, the immigrants are for the most part a superior class. Numerous large colonies of Bohemians in the west are engaged in dairying and grain-farming on a large scale, and are exceptionally prosperous and progressive.

Or, by contrast, consider the remarkably successful occupation of the towns of Hadley and Sunderland in the Connecticut valley. In Sunderland the Poles will soon far outnumber the original native New England stock. They are steadily taking possession of the richest and most valuable riparian lands of the Connecticut, successfully raising tobacco and onions, buying homes for themselves, and settling down permanently. There is nothing exceptional about these Poles. They are industrious, and, working in tobacco and onion on fertile soil, their industry has been immediately and abundantly rewarded.

The fault lies not in the men but in the exhausted soil, the exorbitant prices paid for land, the isolated location, and the out-of-date system of agriculture. No people are more earnest or more willing to learn and practise more advanced methods; and herein lies a splendid opportunity for legal advice, agricultural demonstration, and practical extension work by the agricultural colleges, experiment stations, and state boards of agriculture, not only in Connecticut but in all of the older states where only expert, intensive, specialized farming is profitable.



SLAVS IN NEW ENGLAND.

A group that participated in the Polish-American Farmers' Day, held at Massachusetts Agricultural College, Amherst, Mass., March 31, 1911.



WATCHING THE MISSIONARY'S HORSE, SIDON.

SYRIANS IN THE UNITED STATES¹

IV

THE SYRIAN AS AN AMERICAN CITIZEN

LOUISE SEYMOUR HOUGHTON

In the early days of Syrian immigration almost all came with the intention of soon returning to the old country. Business can be done in Syria with about half the capital required here, and these pioneer immigrants expected to return home after accumulating a small capital for this purpose. They did not seek naturalization. Later, they began to consider the advantage which American citizenship might give them when they returned home, including, as it does for Americans and as they imagined it would for themselves, extra-territoriality. The American government has always held that its naturalized citizens retain their citizenship wherever they go, even in the country of original allegiance. In this doctrine, however, it has stood practically alone. The large standing armies maintained by European countries make these governments loath to admit the claim, which they do only, if at all, by special treaty. Turkey has never agreed to such a treaty, and any naturalized

American citizen originally of that empire who returns to Turkey does so at his own risk. As a matter of fact, this, so far as Syrians are concerned, is in the main a purely academic question. No Syrian naturalized in America has committed any crime against the Turkish government, such as would compel the latter to act in case of his return to Syria; and therefore the fear so often expressed, as an argument against Syrian immigration, that naturalized Syrians will return home, commit crimes, claim extra-territoriality, and embroil our government with that of Turkey, is a mere chimera.

Since the constitutional revolution in Turkey, however, though not in the least because of it, the attitude of our government toward the naturalization of Asiatics has necessarily affected Syrians. The United States has, however, recently amended the immigration and naturalization law by which Asiatics were excluded from becoming naturalized citizens. The question whether Syrians could become naturalized was raised in St. Louis, where the United States District Court held that

¹No. IV completes the series of articles on Syrians in the United States by Louise Seymour Houghton. The three previous articles were: I, Sources and Settlement, July 1; II, Business Activities, Aug. 5; III, Intellectual and Social Status, Sept. 2. Price for each issue, 25 cents.



DR. A. J. ARBEELY.
Washington.

DR. N. M. SALLUME.
Toledo.

N. S. TRABULSI.
New York.

they could not become naturalized. This case was carried to the Circuit Court of Appeals in that district and the decision of the lower court was reversed. The same question was raised in the Southern District of New York, (New York city) about two years ago, and the lower court held that they could be naturalized; this decision was affirmed by the Circuit Court of Appeals of this district.

It might be expected that the recent constitutional revolution, which for the first time put the Christian subjects of the sultan on a par with Moslems as to liability to conscription, would operate to check Syrian emigration. Up to that time the Turkish government had perhaps not dared, had certainly not desired, to put a musket into Christian hands. Until then, for a Moslem to emigrate was virtually an act of desertion, since every Moslem might be called to the army at any time. But Christians labored under no such disability. At present all subjects of the Sultan stand theoretically on the same footing, and, it might be presumed, with a corresponding effect upon the emigration of Syrian Christians.

The best Syrian opinion appears to be, however, that liability to conscription is hardly likely to affect emigration, for the present government does not seem greatly to desire the presence of Christians in the army. Conversation with

a number of intelligent and leading Syrians after the Adana massacres brought to light the fact that the liability of Christian Syrians to conscription would be likely to check the return of Syrian immigrants for some years, at least. Not that they dread the ordinary hardships and chances of army life, but they do not believe that a government which dealt with the Adana criminals as the constitutional government of Turkey did can be trusted to be just to its Christian conscripts. This, however, was two years ago.

At present, the best Syrian opinion seems to be that emigration will not be appreciably affected for years to come—perhaps not for half a century, writes one of the most prominent Syrians in this country, since

the chief incentive of Syrian emigration is commercial, and Turkey cannot possibly afford the commercial advantages America does for many generations to come. It is true that life in Turkey is beginning to have a larger horizon and greater privileges, but it is equally true that according to the universal law of civilization the needs of the individual increase with the increase of his advantages, and life becomes more strenuous. Therefore, so long as the advantages of America are greater than the requirements of life in Syria, emigration from that country to this will continue to seem desirable to Syrians. To this must be added also the fact that social life in America, being more free, enlightened, and sanitary, holds out more charms for enlightened Syrians than life in their native land. In



REV. A. M. RIBHANY.
Co-pastor Church of the Disciples,
Boston.

THE LATE SELIM KESSAB.
A helper on the new Arabic re-
vised Bible. Died 1909.

REV. M. E. BARAKAT, M.D.
Presbyterian missionary in the
western states.

short, it seems probable that constitutional government in Turkey will have no more restraining effect on Syrian emigration than such governments in Europe have had on European emigration.

Until the passage of the law excluding Asiatics from naturalization, the majority of Syrian immigrants sought naturalization, and fully one-half the male Syrians in the United States are naturalized, or have taken out their "first papers." They seek naturalization now because they propose to remain here, not because they expect to return home. It is true that from 20 to 30 per cent of those covered by this inquiry (1899-1907) declared their hope of returning home. These, however, were almost invariably recent arrivals. The exceptions were those who, having accumulated a small amount of money, insignificant here, but which would be a fortune in Syria, saw no way of increasing it except by slow economy, and preferred to go home to enjoy what they had. The prosperous have no intention of returning. Even those of the former class, so far as they have carried out their plans of going back to Syria, are more than likely to return within a few years. A Syrian from a city entirely outside the usual lines of travel returned to his native city after five or six years in this country in such a prosperous condition as to be the admiration and envy of all

his fellow-citizens. He built himself a fine house and took up as a pastime the study of the archeological remains in his immediate surroundings. This was seven years ago. Within four years he returned to America, finding it after all impossible to enjoy the *otium cum dignitate* of his life in Syria.

Some ten or twelve years ago, while the ideal was still to acquire a fortune and go home to enjoy it, many returned to Syria as soon as they had accumulated a little, bought land, laid the foundations of a large house, and came back to make enough to finish it and live in it. It would be safe to prophesy that not one in ten of these houses has been or will be finished for the original owner. Inquiry in more than twenty cities shows that not more than 1 per cent of those who are naturalized expect to go home, except for brief visits. The answer "Yes, and gladly!" given to the question as to the wish to remain appears to express the general opinion. Others answer, "All will remain." . . . "Some expect to go back but all will return."

Though in the case of other Turkish subjects, notably Armenians, permission has in a number of instances been denied, there seems to have been no difficulty whatever, either before or since the Revolution, as to the freedom of Syrians naturalized here to return to Syria for a longer or shorter visit. There is



FOURTH FORM BOYS OF GERARD INSTITUTE.

Field Day in Sidon, 1905. Several of these boys are now in the United States, two in South America. Two (college graduates) are teaching in Syria.

a constant though small stream of travel in both directions of Syrians who go home, sometimes alone to bring back a bride, to sell property, to settle an estate, or to buy goods, or, often accompanied by wife and American-born children, to visit parents and relatives. Such visits often last for several months or a year, but so far as Syrians are concerned no difficulty appears to have been found in gaining from the Turkish government the requisite permission for such a visit. It is certain that all Syrians in this country perfectly understand the laws and the practice of the Turkish government with regard to naturalized emigrants, and they are not likely to incur risks in the matter of visiting their native land.

Some Syrians express a wish that the brightest and most successful of their race should return home, since they could do much for their country. Love of Syria is rooted in every Syrian heart, however heartily they may propose to cast in their lot with that of their adopted country.¹ They are proud of Syria's natural beauty, of her undeveloped possibilities, her treasures hidden in the earth, her mineral wealth, her inexhaustible fertility. They believe Syria to be the richest country in the world, and they nourish a deep grievance against the late Sultan because his policy kept her

¹In this as in many other characteristics the Syrian, "the Frenchman of the East," is very like the Frenchman of Europe, whose loyalty to the adopted country—Holland, England, America, the Rhine Provinces—has for 300 years been proverbial.

in the rear of other nations. They long to change all this by the potent influence of Americanism, infused into her life by the return of her most intelligent and influential sons.

All Syrians in this country, quite as much, perhaps, since the Turkish revolution as before, desire a change in the government of the Ottoman Empire—the Christians through such a Protectorate as England has for a quarter-century exercised over Egypt, the Moslems by the substitution of some other Moslem power for that of the Turk.¹ But neither group desires to effect such changes by any other than the orderly method of working through public opinion to compel a reform in the existing government. Yet all this is rather a pious hope than an active endeavor.

There was therefore no foundation for the statement put forth a few years ago by several American writers that the Syrian love of freedom was taking the form of an organized effort to promote insurrection in Turkey. Such a statement places Syrian immigrants in a false light. A "United Syria" society does exist in this country, being perhaps the successor of the "Young Syria" society formed a number of years ago, not to promote insurrection, but purely to promote the welfare of Syrians. The Young Syria Society practically died some three years ago in the eastern states, especially in New York, where, as one of them said, (in 1908) "the Syrians are too busy to pay attention to Turkey."² Most of them, he added, are now American citizens, and would certainly not join in any step against the Turkish government. The Young Syria Society, however, still flourishes in the West, and appears to have gained new

¹In the early days of this inquiry it was interesting to discover that the less intelligent Syrian had devised a more immediate way. "Why does not President Roosevelt take Syria?" was the counter-question most frequently put at that time; and when it was pointed out that this would be beyond the scope of the president's powers, the instances of the Philippines and Porto Rico were always triumphantly adduced by way of precedent.

²A Syrian lawyer in one of our Eastern cities writes: "I have not recently heard of any activity on the part of the Young Syria Society with reference to conditions in Syria under the new régime, and I believe that interest in this movement in the eastern states is dormant. It may interest you, however, to learn that a new society is now being organized for the purpose of taking interest in the conditions of Lebanon. This society, is, however, yet in its inception."

hope and new activity since the constitutional revolution in Constantinople.

The United Syria Society above alluded to is of comparatively recent formation, and appears to stand on a much stronger basis than its predecessor. In the words of one of its officers, its purpose is "to improve the social and political status of Syria." The means by which it proposes to effect this end are by raising the general standard of enlightenment at home, and by arousing European public opinion. This (to quote

grant to this country was born and bred to manhood under a system of the most bitter religious hostility; that, as has before been shown,¹ the majority of local disturbances among them in this country have been due to the same cause, the fact that a society of Syrians can be founded upon a basis of broad catholicity (the word "tolerance" would do them injustice) speaks volumes for the influence of this country upon these men and for their capacity to become valuable members of the community. As



THE SECOND GENERATION.

The parents were born in Syria, the children in the United States. The picture was taken in Cairo during a recent visit.

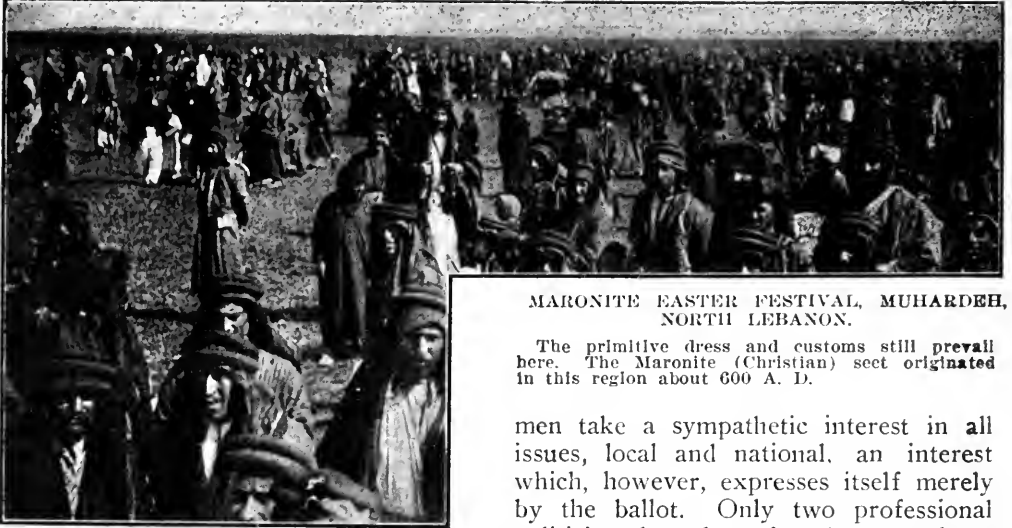
again) "is the largest Syrian organization in this country. There are no restrictions as to religions, and its aims are generally to promote the welfare of Syrians wherever it will find its efforts productive of results."

There is more significance than may at first appear in the statement that the United Syria Society permits no restrictions as to religions in its membership. When one reflects that nearly all the large uprisings and petty feuds in Syria have been due to religious antagonism; that every adult Syrian immi-

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¹THE SURVEY, September 2, 1911. Syrians in the United States, III.



MARONITE EASTER FESTIVAL, MUHARDEH,
NORTH LEBANON.

The primitive dress and customs still prevail here. The Maronite (Christian) sect originated in this region about 600 A. D.

are men of education and refinement, capable of holding their own among the better class of Americans. They always vote, and never sell their votes—although in one city they have been suspected of doing so—and they certainly have not been without the opportunity. A newly arrived immigrant, three years ago, naïvely wrote home to his family of the wondrous hospitality of this country, since he had not only been invited to vote, but paid for doing so; but such artless innocence is soon undeceived. Up to the present time Syrians have not particularly interested themselves in politics, save when a presidential election is impending. They have not aspired to office, except in one instance to be later noticed, but are at times sufficiently interested in local issues to combine their strength and throw their influence for a certain candidate. It is not surprising that as yet they are easily led by prominent Syrians and by leading American politicians; but, considering the proportion who cannot read English, and the largely personal character of the Arabic newspapers, they appear to be surprisingly well informed as to issues and candidates. They hold the franchise as a high privilege, and, although generally voting as Republicans, yet in local issues the character of the candidate appears to have more weight with them than considerations of party. The more educated

men take a sympathetic interest in all issues, local and national, an interest which, however, expresses itself merely by the ballot. Only two professional politicians have been found among them.

There is an independent political club in Chicago, with a charter and an executive committee of thirty members; but in most of the larger cities, especially in New York, religious differences work against political as well as social union. In one western city a prosperous merchant is frankly the political "boss" of a small colony. "The King" he is called, but more often by his American neighbors than by his Syrian adherents.

The one exception thus far to the statement that Syrians have not aspired to political office was found last year in Anton Simon, a prosperous commission merchant in New York, who lives in South Brooklyn. He was born in Lebanon, and has been a resident of this country for twenty years. Mr. Simon was chairman of the Roosevelt Reception Committee in 1910, and ran as the Republican nominee to represent the Fifth Senatorial District in the New York State Senate. Though defeated at the polls, his nomination was a significant and it may properly be said a hopeful event. In accepting the nomination Mr. Simon declared himself for state-wide direct nominations, for the income tax, the conservation of the natural resources of the state, and the hearty support of every effort to "drive out corruption in politics and to dissolve the union between corrupt politics and corrupt business."



With the exception of the one city where they seem to be of the least desirable class, and are certainly the least respected, the consensus of opinion is that Syrians make excellent citizens. Though they so far show the natural effects of centuries of oppression as not to be always morally robust, they are with few exceptions morally upright. They are frequently accused of being untruthful, and the accusation is no doubt well grounded; yet even this fault, in their case, is the reverse side of a virtue, or at least of a lovely quality—intense sympathy with the wishes of others, and an honest desire to promote them. It has been said, and hardly with



MRS. SALLUME'S SITTING ROOM.
RESIDENCE OF DR. N. M. SALLUME, TOLEDO, O.
THE DOCTOR'S WIFE IN HER STUDY.

exaggeration, that if you meet a Syrian at the fork of a road, and ask which branch will lead you to your destination, you will almost see, behind his eyes, the travail of his brain to discover from something in yourself which road would please you best. This certainly does not harmonize with the so-called Anglo-Saxon love of truth, doubtfully manifested by many Anglo-Saxons; and one must admit that the Anglo-Saxon variety of truthfulness is not a Syrian characteristic. But his untruthfulness does not always spring from that generally prevalent motive, desire to promote his own advantage; and if truthfulness includes loyalty, ready self-denial to promote a cause



FARHOOD AND KOTITE.
Importers, New York.

NEGIB DIAB.
Editor *Murrat-el-Gharb*.

that seems to him right, the Syrian is to that extent truthful.

So with business probity. One of the Syrians themselves says that a care for honor keeps them honest, but indirectly they will steal, when occasion serves, by misrepresenting the quality of their wares. This, however, does not seem to be exclusively a Syrian vice. Not a single exception has been encountered to the testimony of Americans who have business dealings with them that they are perfectly honest and reliable. And if it be true that only a care for reputation keeps them honest, it is certainly striking that the large number of Syrian immigrants who are scattered through the country by twos and threes, totally ignored by the communities in which they live, have not suffered morally by isolation.

Though they are even romantically loyal to Syria, they have a keen sense of the advantages America has to offer them, and their gratitude to this country is deeper than the character of their reception here would seem to warrant. And the advantages are certainly not all on one side. That New York paper which more than any other has given notoriety to the crimes and misdemeanors of this people testifies that "there is not a more industrious or capable representative of the East than the

Syrians. He generally brings money, lives at peace . . ." summing up with, "They have an important part in the future of this country,"

Especially is this true of the women of this race. Even more striking than their readiness to sink age-long sectarian rivalry, and work together for benevolent purposes, is the fact of their readiness to enter upon a professional career—a striking fact when one considers the secluded lives of Syrian women in their own country. A delightful public speaker who is much in demand at religious and philanthropic conventions of American women is Madame Layyah Barakat. The wife of a prominent Syrian physician has a diploma in elocution and is a most acceptable lecturer. The fact that Syrian girls in this country are studying medicine has been mentioned. Strikingly enough, the example was set them by a woman of one of the best families of Syria who has not emigrated, but who, encouraged by American missionaries and English residents of her country, went to England and took a course in medicine, returning home to bless her own people. She is peculiarly successful in treating diseases of the eye.

An impressive illustration of the attitude of Syrian immigrants toward this country is furnished by recent economic conditions. The financial depression of 1907 and 1908 almost turned the cur-

rent of immigration back upon itself; but although Syrian immigrants, from the nature of their business, had acutely felt the effects of this depression, and although the large emigration from Syria in recent years had both raised the wages of labor and lowered the price of real estate in the home land, Syrian immigrants appear not to have had an important part in this reflex movement.

Small as our Syrian population relatively is, and destined as it is to become relatively smaller, since the limit of Syrian emigration must soon be reached, all that has thus far been discovered bears out the correctness of the newspaper forecast. Syrians have that to add to American civilization which a recent, and therefore crude, civilization, a civilization largely built upon rapidly and easily gained wealth, always needs: refinement, natural good breeding, calm dignity, courtesy, grace, punctilio, the spirit of a child, enjoyment of simple pleasures, frankness in the expression of opinion. All these our Syrian fellow-citizens are contributing, except where an instinctive sense of being underrated shuts them within themselves. Their facility and elegance of speech, common to all Arabs, but beautifully tempered in the Syrian by gentleness and courtesy of language, must tend to affect the lamentable prevalence of slang, as the high aspirations which actuated so many of them in coming here must tend to enoble the ambitions of those around them. The Syrians are a people of fine gifts, inherited from highly literary ancestors. Six hundred years ago their country was the centre of culture, and the customs of that period created social characteristics not to be neglected now. Their aesthetic taste, though in the nature of things, with a few distinguished exceptions, not greatly in evidence here, is destined, in the opinion of Americans conversant with the work of the few artists and writers whom Syria has sent here, to have an important influence upon our own art and letters. Even the beauty of face and elegance of form which characterize this race is not a matter of small importance.

In a still more important respect the Syrian may have a positive contribution

October 7, 1911.



ANTON SIMON.

Member of American Arbitration League.

to make to American civilization. That loss of religion with which this country appears to be threatened is largely due to a too narrow conception of what religion is. Upon this conception light must come from the East. Syria is the native home of religion, and her people are instinctively religious. They have the aptitude for religious expression, even when, as is too often the case through the age-long lack of educational facilities for their priesthood, their religion is entirely a matter of form, and rather a party cry than a matter of personal experience.

All the chief religious sects of Syria are represented in this country, Maronite, Orthodox Greek, Latin (Roman) and Greek Catholic, (Papal Greek) and Protestant. In recent years Moslems have begun to come; though for them as already mentioned emigration is practically desertion from the army, and therefore none of this religion can emigrate with any hope of returning to their own country.

Moslem Syrians in this country are



SITT HELENE NOFAL.
A Syrian physician of Syria.

still few in number, the majority of those commonly considered Moslems being a few of the unorthodox Moslem sect, the Metualey. So far as can be ascertained there are ten Syrian Roman Catholic churches, thirteen Maronite, seven Papal and seven Orthodox Greek, and eighteen Protestant bodies having Syrian priests or pastors. The Maronite church has a Syrian bishop, resident in Brooklyn, where he has in recent years built a very good church, which was dedicated with imposing ceremonies. There are also (at least) nine Moslem, three Druse, and one Metualey religious bodies, though it is not certain that all or indeed any have a religious head. Recently a few Syrian Jews have come over, but not in sufficient numbers to permit any useful study. There was only one in New York in 1902.

Besides these religious bodies there are many small groups, and scattered members of each sect are found all over the country. To a large degree Syrians have remained loyal to their own religion, especially where they are sufficient in number to maintain a minister. In Philadelphia, where there are two Maronite churches, a relic of the founder of the sect, Mar (Bishop) Maron, is exhibited annually on his feast, which falls on February 8. The largest Moslem community is perhaps in Providence, where they number 150, many of these, however, being Turks from Asia Minor. The most important Druse communities are in Pittsfield and North Adams, Mass.; the largest if not the only Metualey community in America is in Sioux City. In Buffalo, with the exception of one prominent Protestant family, the Syrian community is wholly Maronite. This sect predominates in Lawrence, Mass., Toledo, St. Louis, Minneapolis, and St. Paul; Latin (Roman) Catholics predominate in Chicago, Duluth, Cincinnati, Pittsburgh, Troy, Holyoke, and New Orleans. Orthodox Greeks are found in Pittsburgh and many other Pennsylvania towns; they have a priest in Johnstown. About half the Syrians in New Haven belong to this sect. Papal Greeks predominate in Albany, Worcester, Boston, and one or two Connecticut towns. In all large cities, however, a variety of sects are represented. In Toledo there are seven Syrian free-thinkers, some, at least, originally Maronites, a remarkable and in certain respects a hopeful example of independence of thought.

Protestants are scattered all through the country, and generally hold a relatively high position. Naturally, perhaps, they come here in numbers greatly disproportionate to the total Protestant pop-



SYRIAN FACTORY GIRLS, NEW YORK.

ulation of Syria, which is estimated at 125,000. They are numerous in Boston, Lawrence, and Fall River, Mass., Toledo, O., St. Louis, and New York. In Albany there are a number of Friends, business people of excellent standing. A Syrian graduate of McCormick Seminary was educated in the English Friends' School, Brumanna, and the Syrian Protestant College, Beirut, coming to this country later. He was barely graduated when he was chosen from among eight candidates to the pastorate of a large Presbyterian church in an Illinois city. Though he has been in America only a few years, his English is perfect, like that of all the Syrians who minister to American congregations. Another Syrian, a home missionary of the Presbyterian Church, has founded no less than three churches in pioneer towns in Nebraska, Montana, and Iowa. There is a considerable contingent of Syrian young men in the Christian Associations of Pawtucket and Woonsocket, R. I.; Lawrence and Springfield, Mass.; Burlington, Vt.; Willimantic and Norwich, Conn.; Canton, Cleveland, and

Youngstown, O.; Pittsburgh, Pa.; and also of New York.

Where they feel sure of a welcome and have no church of their own, Protestants are glad to attend American churches. A number of Protestants in Pittsburgh do so. A certain church in Boston has so large a Syrian contingent as to cause some discomfort to its conserv-

ative American members. A Presbyterian church in Minneapolis has several valued Syrian members. A Syrian is an officer in one of the most important churches in Indianapolis. For lack, however, of the welcome which Protestant churches are too apt to omit to offer, many Syrians, staunch Protestants in their own country, drift away from religion. In California, where there are now 400 Syrians practicing professions,



DR. MARY SALLOM.
A Syrian physician of Philadelphia.

there is not a Syrian church of any sect or denomination, all Syrians attending American churches or none. The more generous welcome given to all immigrants in the west, as compared with the east, for the most part keeps the Syrians of that part of the country from growing away from religion.

Not only Protestants but members of the other sects are ready to attend American churches in default of their own. Roman and Greek Catholics and Maronites are apt to ally themselves with the Roman Catholic church, Orthodox Greeks with the Greek church where it exists, or—where they find a welcome—with the Episcopal church. It is worthy of note that a certain Dakota farm colony, breaking up for reasons which do not appear, but probably to secure educational advantages for their children, and removing to an adjacent town, moved their church building with them.

If American churches of those denominations most nearly akin to Syrian religious habits and beliefs would be more hospitable, they would not only find these people, as a very few have already done, faithful and capable workers, a source of inspiration and illumination, but in return would be able to help them to correct those deficiencies in the practical application of religion to life which are the natural result of religion conditions in Syria.

An interesting illustration of the best that America has to offer to its Syrian population, and the best that its Syrian population is capable of giving back to America, was given last April, when a reception was offered to Dr. and Mrs. Daniel Bliss by the Alumni, former students, and Syrian friends of the Syrian Protestant College, of which Dr. Bliss was the first president, holding that office

for more than thirty years, and resigning it eventually into the hands of his son, Dr. Howard Bliss. Though among the company then gathered in Kalil's restaurant were many prominent Americans who are interested in the welfare of Syria, the exercises were entirely in the hands of Syrians, and the addresses would have done credit to any gathering in New York city. Especially noteworthy was the love and loyalty manifested toward Dr. and Mrs. Bliss, toward the college, toward Syria, and, in hardly a less enthusiastic degree, toward the adopted country.

There is, however, grave reason to fear that the good which these people are capable of bringing to us may be aborted by the indifference and contempt of that large proportion of Americans who do not know them. They are in every way so different from ourselves, so comparatively little is known of their country and conditions, that it is not easy to induce Americans to interest themselves in Syrian immigrants sufficiently to understand them, and this indifference must and does react unfavorably upon them. There is pathetic cogency in the appeal of one of the most successful and socially acceptable of this race, speaking for his fellow-immigrants: "Don't misunderstand them! Give them the opportunities given to other races, and you will find them capable of a high development, of a very bright future."



SYRIAN FARMSTEAD NEAR LAWRENCE, MASS.

SOUTH END HOUSE CADDY SCHEME

CHARLES F. ERNST

An all-summer outing for the boys of settlement clubs, one which provides for a large number under almost ideal conditions and pays its way—this would seem like the beautiful empty dream of an irresponsible hour. Yet this is what may fairly outline a going enterprise just closing its fifth season. The South End House has since 1907 provided and directed the caddy force for the golf links at the two great hotels at Bretton Woods, in the broad valley at the base of Mt. Washington. For two years, the colony was under the direction of John P. Whittman; since then the writer has had charge. That this service is appreciated on its business side is shown by the fact that it is referred to in the circulars both of the Bretton Woods hotels and of the Boston and Maine Railroad.

At first, from the settlement point of view, it was feared that there might be demoralizing influences, particularly in connection with the method by which the boys should be compensated for their work. As to this and all other matters, the hotel management has heartily cooperated with the settlement toward conserving the boys' moral interests and promoting educational results.

The caddy service was formerly supplied by boys from the neighboring towns in New Hampshire, supplemented occasionally by recruits from the city. The total lack of organization and supervision under this system left the caddies practically free to do as they pleased, and they were not only irregular in their work but were frequently disorderly. The need of efficient service led the hotel management to seek co-operation with some organization capable of supplying discipline and supervision. The South End House was interested in supplying vacations to city boys, and out of this joint need came the "Bretton Woods Caddies."

The plan has been successful beyond hopes. The hotel has secured a body of well trained boys under careful supervision. Improved living conditions

have been provided, as it has been demonstrated that the outlay is returned in improved service. The piano is no longer considered a luxury nor the matron a concession to sentiment. The management allows the caddies the use of its most exclusive ball-room for a concert, provides hayrack rides, and together with the guests has in some instances provided prizes for athletic competitions and automobiles for trips to the "Old Man of the Mountain" on Franconia Notch.

The boys—to the number of sixty or seventy each season—are benefited by two solid months of good air, good food, wholesome companionship, and something real to do, which are the best possible elements in the vacation of any normal boy. Caddying is practically free from danger and exposure; the hours are short; the work, while sufficiently taxing, is well within the strength of the boys.

The caddy scheme was successful at the start because it was organized within a neighborhood by a group of responsible people. The parents of the boys were at first doubtful about letting their sons go away all summer. The White Mountains suggested a remoteness from civilization that held some terrors; to this was added the ever-present tenebrous dread that children away from home might be subjected to some form of industrial exploitation. Even though the neighborhood experience with the vacation houses of the settlement furnished a basis of confidence, there were questionings during the first summer, and the lot of those who stood sponsor for the experiment at the city end was not wholly an easy one. Gossip and misrepresentation from the camp gained energy with every mile they traveled. A story of sickness, bad food, or unkind treatment precipitated tempests not easy to allay. This parental interest has proved a great asset in the end, however, for the boys now know not only that they have committed themselves to experienced leaders but that there are satis-

fied parents in the background. This force at home is invaluable in securing strong, easily carried organization in the mountains.

The boys are prepared for their duties by means of illustrated lectures showing the scenery and physical geography of the mountains; and friends at first explained the duties of a caddy and described the various golf equipment. After the first year the boys themselves were both ready and anxious to air their knowledge of sticks and the game; this has made formal instruction not so necessary.

Each summer there have been, however, substantial developments in the standards of intelligence, skill, consideration, and watchfulness with which the specific business of caddy is performed. This is the result of the constant supervision on the part of the directors, with many helpful suggestions coming to them and directly to the boys from the players. This year a plan for reducing the number of lost balls met a good response from the boys and has shown very satisfactory results.

The management is in the hands of the leader of boys' work in the settlement, assisted by one or two young college men and a matron. The leader must necessarily have at heart as well as in hand the welfare and individual interest of each boy; the assistants must be first of all good fellows; and the matron must draw upon all the feminine virtues, for she is called upon to nurse every ill from a cut to homesickness, and to create anything from a special dessert to the music that soothes the high spirits of the day into the bed-time mood.

The caddies are quartered at the Bretton Inn, a three-story building originally occupied by the farm hands and laborers of the hotel company. It is situated a half-mile from the hotels, and thus the caddy colony is free to establish and enforce its own standards. One might expect that the task of providing eating and sleeping quarters for so large a group would give the Inn an institutional cast, but the rooms are homelike; a play-room, parlor, open fire-place, and piano contribute to this effect. A covered porch twelve feet wide fronts the

inn and becomes practically an outdoor assembly room, especially in the evening, when it is well lighted by various colored electric globes; and a lawn with flower beds and a flag-pole lend dignity to the house. The hotel management supplies the food for the inn on the basis of a menu prescribed by the matron.

The director of the scheme serves as head caddy, and an assistant is the master at the second of the hotels. The daily routine is necessarily somewhat arbitrary. At seven a bugle-call summons the boys to morning exercises and to shower baths; another call at a quarter before eight announces breakfast; and a third at half-past eight starts the boys to work. The caddy master at each hotel assigns the individual boys to the golfers and is responsible for all caddy appointments. The morning work is usually finished at half-past twelve, so that the boys have time to take a dip in Lake Caroline (which lies a short hundred yards from the inn) before dinner at one o'clock. The afternoon until half-past two is generally free, and most of the boys sit on the porch watching the mountains change shape as the clouds pass over the range. Some caddy has had an experience in the morning, "his man," as the boys term the guests, being at the extreme a weird player or a runner-up to the champions. Or perhaps he played with a newly invented club or an imported ball which had peculiar advantages on the drive or on the ground; or it might have been that while looking for a ball lost in the long grass the caddy had discovered a bird's nest and "his man" had shown him how to mark it so that the next player would not tread upon the eggs. A bugle-call postpones the stories and the boys return to the links. Supper comes at half-past six; then music, stories, letters home, and a clinic for the sun-burns, cuts, and other little ailments, until time for "taps" at nine o'clock.

The boys find keen interest and great stimulus in associating with the men for whom they caddy. The guests at Bretton Woods are largely successful business and professional men; primarily good types of the "man of action." Most golfers take a real interest in their cad-



THE SWIMMING POOL.

dies, and as a caddy is with his patron approximately six hours a day for two weeks or a month, it is easily seen that the boy is unconsciously greatly influenced. Almost to a man the players show a sense of responsible consideration for the boys, particularly because they understand and appreciate "the scheme," as the boys always call it. They respond very fully to the suggestion that the caddies be paid simply at the regular rate for each round; though when a boy has served the same man for a period of weeks, a gratuity seems from any point of view not unreasonable. Some golfers make a real effort to ascertain the boy's character, means, and resources, and will often endeavor to map out with him a course towards a successful life. Such interest frequently continues through the winter by mutual correspondence. It is no rare thing for guests to visit the boys at the inn in the evening and relate their personal experiences, often full of hard-won battles through

the ranks of the industries. The inspiration from such talks fires the boys with ambition and resolution; and each year a number who otherwise would have gone to work enter high school. Of twelve boys who have been at the mountains during the four years of the experiment, seven are in high school, and four of the five who are working are employed by the men for whom they caddied.

Next to the influence of guests is that of the camp organization. During the first year of the experiment the group was small, and it was considered in the light of a family with the director as the head. He made the rules and was responsible for their enforcement. The group has now become so large that the "family" is a "community," with corresponding responsibilities on the individual. While the director is still practically the head, theoretically he is the chairman of a committee elected from their number by the boys. The com-



SOME OF THE CADDIES.

mittee of last year drew up a set of rules full of that originality which is the outgrowth of boys' idealism combined with a first-hand knowledge of one another's hopes and failings. The committee almost unanimously voted the adoption of the "by-laws." The work of the committee was at first largely executive and then for lack of other business became purely administrative. It met once a week to consider cases of boys who had offended by infractions of the rules, and imposed black marks, a certain number of which meant discharge from the camp and return home. After a few sentences were passed the community conducted itself so that offenders were very scarce. The committee then announced that white marks would be given as "credit for any exceptional act of volunteer service." This substitution of positive for negative government met with a whole-hearted response.

The committee handled all petty complaints either by removing the cause of the disturbance or referring the matter to the department which it concerned. When a lad complained that he was being made the victim of practical jokes, the persecutors were ferreted out and admonished. If a boy considered the cocoa not sufficiently sweetened, the butter over-salt, or his room poorly cleaned, the matron was asked to look into the matter. All complaints from the guests

or the hotel management were decided by the committee. The director, as chairman of the committee, presided, explained the business, and called for the opinion of the community. The policy is wholly democratic up to the point where self-education of the boys in real democracy has made them capable of applying it properly both to themselves as individuals and to the community as a whole.

During the season just closed an encouraging gain has been made in the sense of responsibility among the older boys for the younger ones. This tendency was much stimulated by the promotion for the latter part of the summer of one of the most experienced caddies to be caddy master at one of the hotels—with a change in the mode of address used by the entire group toward him from "Chick" to "Mr."

One big fact which lies at the foundation of the whole scheme is that the boys are in the Bretton Woods to work. They themselves realize that their personal success depends upon their value to the hotel management and the guests. The complex social and business relations between the guests, the manager, the leaders, and the boys themselves tend to develop and to train personal and group interest, cleanliness, reliability, independence, politeness, sociability, knowledge of team work, and a desire for fair play. With but few exceptions the boys are earning their first money, and the sums are therefore larger than they are accustomed to handle. Here, as in the case of government, the situation was first treated in the light of a family arrangement, the director taking the money from the guest, paying the boys' expenses, and returning the remainder at the end of the season to the boy himself or to his parents. Gradually, as the boys learned the value of money in terms of something other than sweets and pleas-

ures, they were given more responsibility. Now the director is banker and the community is depositor. In a few instances the boys have undertaken to be their own bankers, paying to the director only enough for expenses; but after one or two boys had lost their hoards this method of saving was practically abandoned. Each boy has a bank-book in which every item of expense, board, laundry, postage, and miscellaneous expenditure is recorded, as are also his deposits. The boys themselves know that their community is not subsidized and that they must work to live, and work regularly. The boy who does not earn enough to meet his expenses is discharged and sent back to Boston; and the boy who works one week and loafes the next, even though he has made enough to meet the expenses of both weeks, is apt to merit discharge because of some misdemeanor committed during his idle time. The practical application of the parable of the talents is clearly recognized by the boys, when they see that the caddy who works every day is gaining experience, which enhances his value, and the caddy who is idle becomes less reliable in the opinion of the caddy master.

At the beginning of the season the boys are urged to have some definite reason for saving their money, such as a gift to their parents of a ton of coal, a needed article of clothing or furniture, a month's rent, or perhaps a suit of clothes for themselves. The general response is a race to see who can reach his goal first. After the goal is reached, or failure threatens, the boys generally wish to spend a little money on themselves, and after this desire is satisfied another effort is made to reach or go beyond the goal which has been set.

The boys report at noon and again just before supper to deposit earnings, or, if they have no money, to give the reason. This gives an opportunity to keep track of what each boy has been doing during the day, and especially to become acquainted with individual characteristics. Thus it was revealed that two boys had made an agreement to sacrifice everything to earn as much money as possible. They were the first to leave the inn and the last to return. They

seldom played ball or golf, and were constantly on the watch for chances to increase their income by blacking boots, digging worms for bait, etc. Not content with this strict application, they began to give up their noon meal because they found that some of the guests played regularly from twelve o'clock till two and had no caddies. The whole story came out when at evening they turned in unusual sums of money. A boy who failed to hand in his usual amount reluctantly explained that his room-mate had been unfortunate in not getting a job and he had given him "his man." On the other hand, a boy occasionally becomes tired of caddying by reason of prosperity. Such a lad is generally not loafing but merely desires a change of occupation. If he can be spared from the links, he is allowed to devote his energy to chopping wood, building a raft, or taking pictures, as his fancy may dictate.

The caddy scheme attracts and provides for all sorts of boys, even those whose energy and roughness make them undesirable in ordinary boys' camps. The real proof of the value of such mingling of characters is the appearance of a distinct type, combining individual qualities. In addition there are the broader lessons taught by the everyday life. Especially useful is regularity of work, play, eating, and sleeping, supplemented by careful supervision; this not only insures health, but brings many to realize that it is just the lack of regularity and care which is responsible for their comparatively poor condition through the winter.

Organization of the boys' own play is one of the most vital elements in the caddy scheme. A boy will work somewhat in the hope that he may play, and when he finds his work is taking up his playtime he frequently ceases to work, although he may still give time to an employer. The boy who has ample opportunity to play will be a factor in his employer's chances of winning a match, whereas the same boy deprived of an opportunity to play will merely carry the bag round the course. Even the prospect of money does not create a working spirit. Play alone produces the

desire to work, and in return work makes the play more real. The boy who does not play says his job is "too much work," and the boy who does nothing but play finds real organized play "too much work." It is this old but too often forgotten philosophy of both work and play that has to be put in practice in order that the boys may be truly happy and helpful. Naturally the play has to be directed, so that it will not conflict with the work either by interfering with appointments between the employer and the caddy or by rendering the boy unfit on account of over-exertion. Base-ball and track sports are therefore not well adapted to this camp. The fact that there are few games or meets serves to make the occasional match of more intense interest to both players and spectators. Swimming and golf are the sports particularly adapted to the situation. The close proximity of Lake Caroline to the inn not only insures safety but makes it convenient for the boys to go swimming without fear of missing the bugle-call for meals. The management has granted the use of a splendid pool in the Mount Washington Hotel for one evening each week. The most popular swimming "hole" is the natural cut of the Amononsic River just below the falls. Golf is even more adaptable, in that no preparation is required. Clubs are presented to them, and the boys have constructed a crude but very sporty nine-hole course in a large field across the road from the inn; and here they spend nearly every leisure moment matching their ability or trying to work out new styles of playing. The great advantage of the game is that there is just as much fun for the boy who wants to play alone as there is for those who need competition to furnish excitement. The experience which they acquire by playing on their own account makes them more capable and valuable as caddies. Aside from athletics, the mountains and the woods exercise great and continuous fascination, and hardly a day passes without a group asking permission to build a camp or to tramp over some one of the surrounding ranges. At least once a year the new boys and as many others as can be spared from the links climb the Ed-

mands Trail up Mt. Pleasant and over Franklin and Monroe to the Tiptop House on Mt. Washington. It is the star event of the season; it marks the day of the boy's first big conquest; and the experience thus gained forms the background for what will be among the best of life-long remembrances.

Two-thirds of the boys spend their evenings in the piano room. The other third busy themselves with games or letters home. At about half-past eight the boys who want to hear a story retire to their rooms and prepare for bed. Then the leader announces whose room is to be the "story room," and the boys assemble there, to be introduced to Conan Doyle, Poe, Scott, Stevenson, Cooper, Kipling, and others whose writings are comprehensible to city boys only when they become acquainted with the rough wildness of the woods.

Another opportunity to learn something of the boys' natural bent presents itself on rainy days when everybody is forced to stay indoors. Some boys welcome the chance to write unusually long letters, or bring their bank accounts up to date; others pass the time playing cards and games. But to the majority a rainy day corresponds to the Sunday of a great many artisans; two of the boys bring out their violins, another his cornet, others request the matron to try over a song with them, and there are always those who can neither play nor sing but make up an attentive audience. Another group with a leaning toward drawing or painting will assemble in a room hastily fitted up as a studio, and here again there will always be a certain element of kindred spirits interested enough to sit quietly or serve as models if needed. Then there are those mechanically inclined who whittle out models of golf clubs, draw plans for a hut, or develop pictures. Still others spend the whole day decorating their rooms with pictures cut out of the magazines or Sunday supplements, or strip branches of balsam fir for pillows. A final group comprising the boys who want to read or hear a story is the largest of all. Thus the director, instead of dreading a rainy day, feels, as he is called into this or that room to view a successful film, or pass

judgment on a sketch or the effect produced by changing a picture from one position to another on the wall, that the day has been one of real recreation.

The boys enjoy a new and valuable experience when at various times during the summer representatives of the settlement visit the camp. The caddies then have the opportunity to play host. The boys take great pride in the camp and in explaining the country round about.

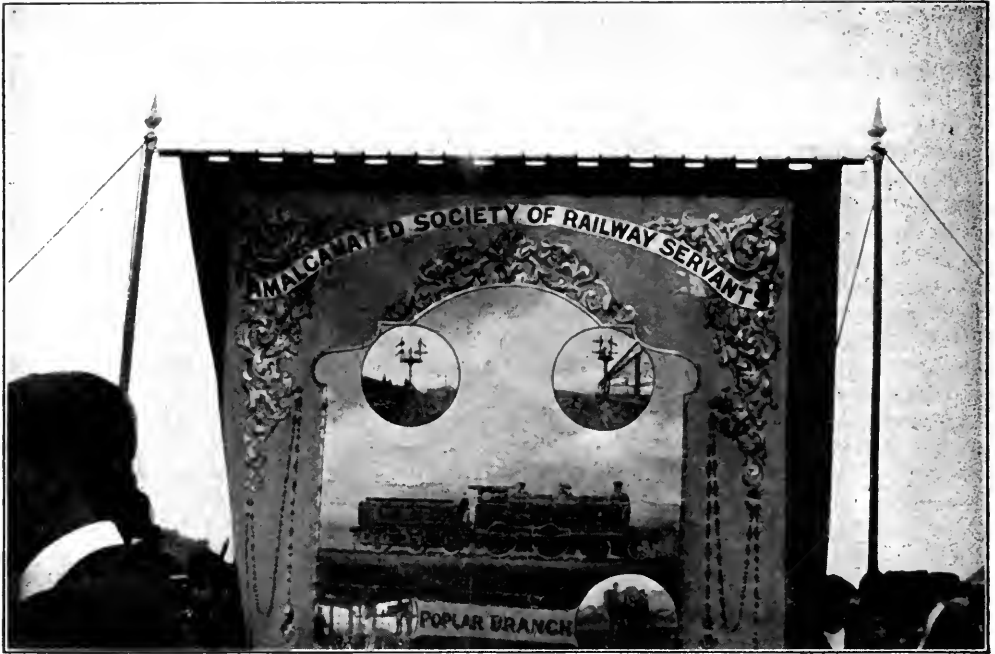
One of the most vital things about the caddy scheme is the way in which the summer activities lead up to and follow out of those of the winter. The boys are selected from the clubs and classes of the settlement, their election depending upon the evidence which they give not only in the club, but also in the public school and on the street, of their ability to make the most of the advantages pertaining to the mountain plan. It is as if each caddy were the winner of a scholarship which he may hold until he becomes ineligible because he has moved out of the neighborhood, gone to work, or fallen below the standard. While the number of seasons that a boy may go to the mountains depends upon supply and demand, it is safe to say that a majority of the boys in the neighborhood will each have had at least one year in a caddy group by the time they are sixteen years of age. Thus since 1907, out of one hundred and fifteen different boys, twelve have been in the group for four years, twenty-one for three, thirty-two for two, and fifty for one year. Eighteen of this whole number have moved from the neighborhood, but the rest are connected with the settlement. Working boys are not entirely excluded; for in the busy weeks of August and September the boy can earn enough at the mountains to pay the expenses of transportation and his board during his week or fortnight of vacation. This season the older boys saved their vacations until September, to supply a sufficient number of caddies after the school boys returned to the city.

The caddy force is organized during the winter into several groups; one of grammar-school boys, another of high-school boys, another of working boys under sixteen, and another of alumni who are over sixteen or who have en-

joyed the caddy privilege for four years and hence are ineligible as candidates for another all-summer position.

The caddy influence carries over into another group of those who have never been to the mountains but are prospecting for the chance. These lads are tested on the basis of lessons objectified in the caddies, and their individual and club standards of organization are thereby raised. The boys in both groups meet together occasionally through the winter to consider club and neighborhood questions and especially to plan for the following summer. Gradually the whole boys' organization, the year round, is being controlled by a spirit of pride and loyalty which acts as an incentive for right-minded boys and a check against those who would like the caddy privileges without complying with the standards. Nor is the spirit of tolerance and helpful consideration lost sight of. Each year as a matter of grace a few boys whom the caddies will not sanction are included in the summer work by the directors, with the hope that the change in environment will induce sufficient development to make them capable of entering the full comradeship of the group.

The caddy system is thus taken out of the catalogue of interesting methods of summer vacations for city boys. It is to be compared rather with the organized school camp as part of a broad system of education. Extending over those years in the life of the boy when influence is most vital in forming character, it has succeeded in fostering the desire for a standard of living and of morals higher than but not apart from that of the neighborhood in which the boys live. Beside development of a new individual type, it has created an enlightened gang loyalty, with a changed attitude toward citizenship, the first fruits of which are to be seen in a more friendly and more closely unified neighborhood. In connection with a distinctly new spirit of public responsibility which is developing in the neighborhood, the two most hopeful forces are, on the one hand, the caddy alumni and, on the other, the parents of the caddies, who all feel they have the evidence that the scheme of the settlement is real.



A BANNER OF THE RAILWAY STRIKERS.

ENGLAND'S REVOLUTIONARY STRIKE

GRAHAM TAYLOR

The strike of England's transportation workers not only marks but is making a new epoch in the industry of Great Britain. This epoch, now in the making, is so new, came so suddenly, developed such paralyzing power so quickly, and is so portentous in its far-reaching results that it startles the nation and the world. No one knows what to make of it. Employers never had to cope with such a situation before, and are wondering whereunto it may go. The British Cabinet and Parliament are evidently baffled by its complications and the possibilities of its almost certain recurrence. The working people themselves are manifestly surprised, as by an unexpected discovery. Even those who brought about the concerted action of so many organizations and individuals are pausing before the new power they have evoked, much as people do before a new power-producing invention, or as a child cautiously yet expectantly handles a new mechanical toy which he has

seen "go off" only once. The British Trade Union Congress was certainly scared away from the discussion of it at first, when it met at New Castle the week after the truce in the strike was declared. Its leaders made no provision for bringing the situation up for consideration or action. Notwithstanding the rule that only such matters as are sent in two or three weeks in advance can be placed upon the "agenda" of the Congress, or can be submitted by resolution for action, the discussion was forced from the floor. Although speech was free and bold, here as always in England, action was as cautious and conservative as the minds of the 500 delegates were uncertain and divided.

This fact that the movement which issued in the strike was so spontaneous, so unpremeditated, so much more moved by the masses in the ranks than by the leaders, and, therefore, so little understood, makes it all the more impressive. Like all mass movements, this one is

to be accounted for more by general conditions than by the specific grievances or by the immediate occasion which may seem to have given rise to it.

NATIONAL SYMPTOM OF UNREST

Indeed, it would be unjust to English conditions to account for this uprising solely upon the ground of the grievances which merely gave occasion for it. It cannot be understood apart from the very prevalent unrest among the world's manual wage-workers to which it gave a local, yet national, expression. Whatever the immediate occasions for this unrest may be in different lands, however the local situation and grievances may differ, whithersoever the movements of this unrest may tend under differing political and economic conditions, it has a common origin and a common goal. This world-wide unrest has its origin in the world-wide spread of aspirations which increase the wants of the people. Its common goal is a larger share in the product of the common toil and larger control of the conditions under which the working people live and labor. The dominant motive and aim of their struggle is for a higher standard of living and better working conditions. By a strangely common impulse, yet without international organization, or even an understanding between any of them—except the socialist minorities—the ranks of the industrial peoples of Spain and Italy, Belgium and Holland, Germany and France, England and the Scandinavian countries, Australia, New Zealand, and America, and even of the poor peasants of Russia are seething with discontent, and with a fixed determination to share more largely the increasing wealth of the world and the better conditions of human life which they think they are producing. For this they have enlisted in a war without discharge. If all signs fail not, the twentieth century comes in with a people's movement more widely revolutionary than that with which the eighteenth century went out. Its second decade is freighted with greater portents than even the year 1848.

This general background must be kept constantly in mind in order to under-

stand the forces in action on any foreground. Moreover, the vast changes which they are tending to produce, and toward which only the initiative has yet been given, must be forecast if the present play of these forces is to be estimated at their voltage power.

THE FORE-RUNNING STRIKES

As far as could be learned from extended interviews with leading Liberal and Labor members, this in brief is the story of what happened on those two eventful days, Friday and Saturday, August 18 and 19. It is told in the terms of the acts and speech of those who not only were close to the situation, but were part of it.

Long prior to these dates both the seamen and the dockers at all the ports had made their final stand for higher wages and changed conditions. Their strikes had not only been threatened, but had been called. The great passenger and freight liners were already tied up at the docks for the lack of coal and because their cargoes could neither be loaded nor unloaded. Meanwhile the government had been actively negotiating through its Board of Trade, both with the companies and the unions of their men, for the resumption of work on the basis of new joint trade agreements between them. Peace had just been negotiated, through the successful mediation of G. R. Askwith, head of the Labor Department of the government Board of Trade. For his service in securing this peaceful settlement Mr. Askwith has since been knighted by the king.

To John Burns was appropriately entrusted the announcement to the dockers that they had been granted what they had asked for and could go to work on the new terms at once. His appearance as a cabinet minister on the very scenes in East London where years ago he led the first great dockers' strike was dramatic. Then he faced the situation, as well as the police and the soldiers, with only his rough, undisciplined, newly organized, yet devoted following of poverty-stricken, desperate men behind him. Now he faced the strongly organized, well-led dockers' unions, with the agreement of their employers in his hand and

the guarantee of the government to back it up. His reception by his old associates was watched with keen interest to see whether he had lost his hold upon them since he became a minister of the crown. But on his appearance in their midst they flocked around his automobile as they used to follow his foot-steps. To the echo they cheered his congratulations upon "their bloodless victory" in their peaceful struggle for which "not a baton had been drawn by a policeman nor a soldier used in all London, with its vast population and acute differences amongst its people." Like a benediction of peace his words fell upon the scenes so full of stress and strain:

"May the higher wages so hardly won be wisely spent, so that the workers with their wives and children may from the vantage ground of better conditions rise to a still further improvement of their social and industrial lot."

FIRST GENERAL RAILWAY STRIKE

But no sooner had this declaration of peace relieved the high tension of the public mind than the scene suddenly shifted from the docks and ships to the railways and their freight handlers. Before the seamen manned their ships or the dockers got under their accumulated burdens, the four great unions, including the engineers, firemen, guards or trainmen, and the "goods" or freight handlers, gave twenty-four hours' notice of their intention to declare a strike if the companies would not meet representatives of these unions to discuss changes in the conciliation boards, whose operation was unsatisfactory to the men. The railway managers promptly and peremptorially declined thus to "recognize" the unions, declared their satisfaction with and determination to stand by the conciliation agreement of 1907, and claimed their ability to maintain an effective, however restricted, service with the protection which the government had assured them.

PRIME MINISTER'S ULTIMATUM

Then the administration took what it supposed to be its final preventive measure. The executives of the four rail-

way unions were summoned to Whitehall to meet the prime minister. After a prolonged conference, at the Board of Trade offices, Mr. Asquith delivered the government's ultimatum in announcing the intention to appoint a royal commission to inquire into the grievances against the conciliation boards, and warned the men that the government was fully determined and prepared to keep the railway traffic open. More by his manner than by what he said, the prime minister's attitude irritated the men and was resented by them. His language, moreover, was misinterpreted, by reason of a sensational announcement, attributed by the press to a prominent railway manager, that "every available soldier would be placed at the service of the companies." The executives of the unions thereupon refused to accept the government's basis for an agreement and retired in silence. On that same Thursday night the strike was "called" by hundreds of telegrams sent to all branches of the railway unions in the three kingdoms: "Your liberty at stake. All railway men must strike at once. Loyalty to each other means victory."

The response to this summons startled all England by its promptness and unanimity. By Friday noon the railway service began to be seriously crippled. Even before the trains stopped running passengers showed their disinclination to run the risk of taking them. By Saturday noon both the passenger and freight traffic was paralyzed. The docks, too, were still deserted. The vessels could neither discharge nor ship their cargoes. Their crews had not yet reported for duty. The "carters" or teamsters in London, Liverpool, and other great ports refused to deliver "goods" and baggage. Liverpool's municipal trainmen struck. The garbage collectors of that city disappeared from their rounds. London's subway trainmen abandoned the service. The coal miners in Wales started a "walk-out" which threatened to cut off the supply of fuel, as the food supply had already been menaced.

APPROACH TO GENERAL STRIKE

Such a situation had nearly existed in France and Russia, but it had never been



BEN TILLETT ADDRESSING STRIKERS IN HYDE PARK.

dreamed of as possible in England. Yet here the first country-wide railway strike was a grim fact. The "sympathetic" strike of the transport men on the waterways and of other trades had actually started. The "general strike" was partially realized to an alarming extent already. All the police force and military resources available had been called out and were in the field. Warships had been dispatched to Liverpool harbor. It looked more like civil war than anything Englishmen had seen since the "Corn Law" agitation confronted the Duke of Wellington's battalions. Moreover, a parliamentary crisis was imminent. For already the leader of the Labor Party in Parliament, J. Ramsay MacDonald, had served the chancellor notice of his intention to move a vote of censure upon the government for the way in which it had conducted the negotiations relating to the industrial strife.

ENTER—CHANCELLOR LLOYD GEORGE

Something had to be done, decisively and quickly. And Lloyd George, chancellor of the exchequer, undertook to do it, acting for the government hereafter

as the authorized representative of the prime minister. In response to Mr. MacDonald's formal request to appoint a day for moving the vote of censure, the chancellor proposed to reopen negotiations for the settlement of the strike with the leaders of the labor party in parliament. Mr. MacDonald, who had always striven for a peaceful settlement of the strike, summoned his colleagues forthwith that Friday. But when they met face to face this stern Scotchman insisted upon a categorical answer to just this one question: "Has the government urged, is the government urging, will the government urge the railway managers to meet the representatives of their employes for the settlement of the strike?"

The prime minister had declined to do more in this or any other way until after the royal commission to be appointed had rendered its report. The chancellor also hesitated, yet stopped short of breaking off the renewed negotiation. By turns he too appealed to the hope of a satisfactory settlement and to the fear of the forcible interference of the government. Neither appeal availed to change the deadlock.

GOVERNMENT'S CHANGE OF FRONT

Thus Friday passed. But overnight something happened to change the attitude of the government. No one outside the Cabinet knows what occurred to effect this change. Whatever it was, it indicated no change in the position of either the railway managers or the railway unions. It must have been something of moment to the government. It was rumored among members of Parliament that a diplomatic dispatch had been received by the minister of foreign affairs intimating that Germany was taking advantage of the preoccupation of the British Cabinet and army in their home crisis in order to increase its demands for more power in Morocco. However it is to be accounted for, peace began to dawn with Saturday morning's sun. The attitude of the three cabinet ministers charged with the settlement of the strike showed a marked change as soon as the conference was resumed. It was explained to the labor party conferees that the prime minister had been misunderstood. The "royal commission" was really an "urgency committee" which would be immediately appointed and convened and would report as soon as possible. The railway managers would meet the union representatives of the men. Overnight the summons upon these managers to appear the next day was sufficiently mandatory to produce their presence. They met. And before midnight on that eventful Saturday the joint agreement was reached, was signed, and was issued by government authority for publication.

Its terms were that the strike should terminate forthwith; that all employes involved in the strike or lock-out should be reinstated, no one to be subjected to proceedings for breach of contract or otherwise penalized; that questions in dispute be settled forthwith by the authorized boards of conciliation; that temporary provision for arbitration be made for the settlement of questions not conciliated; that both sides cooperate with the Commission of Inquiry to devise the best means of settling disputes.

But above and beyond these terms, the fact of most significance to the workingmen was that for the first time "recog-

nition" had been given their unions in the signature of the joint agreement by representatives of the railway companies, of the men's railway unions, and of the government Board of Trade. Forthwith the strike was called off, and the telegraphic summons back to work was obeyed as promptly and generally as the call to quit. Forthwith Parliament adjourned, after the stormy final session in which the breach was widened between the liberal and labor parties. Forthwith the Special Commission of Inquiry was appointed, convened, and began to take the testimony of the railway union men, the non-union railway employes, and the representatives of the railway companies. Such is the pending truce, during which all three parties to this serious struggle are only resting on their arms—except that extraordinary police and military preparations and precautions continue to be made by the government in anticipation of the possible recurrence of hostilities.

ROYAL COMMISSION OF INQUIRY

In this pause, so pregnant with issues that are certain to develop rapid and radical changes in policies, legislation, and political action, public attention is drawn to the daily sessions of the royal Commission of Inquiry, the Trade Union Congress, and the Labor Party Conference, and to the action of the railway companies, chambers of commerce, and other bodies. At these points are to be seen the manoueuering to gain any possible advantage in the class struggle that has only just begun.

The commission of inquiry sits in open session at the Board of Trade daily from ten o'clock in the morning to five o'clock in the evening. Testimony is widely sought and freely given by the railway union men, non-union railway employes, the officials of the railway companies and of the boards of conciliation. The personnel of the commission includes two able and conservative representatives of the labor interests; two strong men identified with commercial interests, one of them a railway attorney; and, in the person of the chairman, a representative of the government who has held many important official positions. Both the

witnesses and the commissioners are left entirely free from any restrictive rules of procedure to question and answer each other fully.

THE RAILWAY EMPLOYEES' CASE

The men's side of the case centers about three grievances. The first is the disparity between the rapid increase of the cost of living and the slower rise in the rate of wages. While all questions of wages and hours belong to the conciliation boards to settle, this underlying cause of discontent crops out upon the surface of every discussion of the situation, in and outside of the commission. A comparison of the government figures issued by the Board of Trade, the statements of railway managers, and the wages-census compiled by statisticians for the railway men's union yields the following conclusions: In the last thirty years wages have risen 6 per cent on the average, while retail prices have increased 17 per cent. In the decade 1899-1909, the rise in railway men's wages on the average has been only three farthings (one cent and a half) per capita. Between 1901 and 1910 the purchasing power of the sovereign fell 8 per cent, so that the railway employes on the average suffered an actual loss of one shilling per week during those nine years. This disparity between income and the cost of living is the greater when the low total of weekly earnings is taken into account; 134,000 railway employes receive \$5 or less per week; 107,000 over \$5 and under \$7.50; 78,000 over the latter amount. Of the engineers, firemen, passenger and freight trainmen, one-half receive between \$5 and \$7.50, and only a little over 11 per cent earn more than \$1 per day. In this discussion, fortunately, there are well authenticated figures to appeal to, for a comparative study of the cost of living and the rates of wages in the United Kingdom and in the United States and other countries has been made by the government Board of Trade. The timely appearance of the American statistics in Mr. Askwith's official report on the Cost of Living in American Towns gives an accredited basis for testing the facts ap-

pealed to both in this and the tariff controversy.

THE CONCILIATION BOARDS

The second grievance is the alleged failure of the scheme for conciliation and arbitration which has been in operation since 1907. It was established by the Board of Trade, through the instrumentality of Lloyd George, when he was president of the board. It was devised to avert a general railway strike which was then threatened. The principal railway companies and the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants entered into the agreement it involved and obligated themselves to abide by its provision for seven years, and thereafter it is terminable only upon a year's notice given by either party. It provided boards of conciliation for the settlement of such differences over wages and hours as could not be settled by the parties at variance. These boards were constituted by the appointment by the employes from among themselves, and by the company, of one or more representatives each. In addition to these sectional boards which deal with the differences of certain groups, there is a central board of conciliation for each railway, consisting of one or more members from each sectional board, to which is referred on appeal any question not satisfactorily settled by the latter. In the event of the failure of this central board to decide the matter, it is committed for final decision to an arbitrator agreed upon by the two sides of the divided central board, or, in default of such agreement, by the speaker of the House of Commons and the Master of the Rolls.

The complaint of the men is not against the principle of conciliation and arbitration, but against the failure of the scheme to settle differences promptly and justly. This they charge is due to the alleged trifling and manipulation of the railway managements. Many instances of obstructive delay and failure to adjudicate the differences referred to these boards were cited before the commission by railway employes from all parts of the United Kingdom. What is considered the plain and persistent breach of the spirit of the conciliation agreement

of 1907 is alleged by the men to justify their strike, which broke its letter. They further claim that the conciliation boards have operated to reduce their wages one pence lower on the average than the rate prevailing the year before the scheme came into effect. Their loyalty to the method of arbitrating their differences has undoubtedly suffered a serious setback under the disheartening delays and discouraging ineffectiveness which they charge against the operation of these boards during the past four years.

The third grievance and the one on which the final stand was made in agreeing to any settlement of the recent strike was the refusal of the railway managers to recognize the unions by meeting their representatives to confer over the situation. Recognition or a general strike were the alternatives laid down in the ultimatum of the men and their parliamentary leaders.

THE RAILWAY COMPANIES' CASE

Representatives of the railway companies before the Commission of Inquiry stoutly maintained their allegiance to the conciliation agreement and charged the unions with an open and inexcusable breach of their contract, three years before its term expired. They denied that more than 27 per cent of the railway employes eligible for membership are actually identified with the unions or represent the non-union employes. They claimed that the railways had made a great concession in relinquishing to arbitrators their right to control wages and hours, in order to secure the agreement of the unions neither to strike nor to demand recognition during the contract term of seven years. They insisted that recognition of the unions would destroy discipline and increase the power to call strikes and stop traffic, and should therefore be refused as heretofore. They were willing to amend the act regulating conciliation boards so as to expedite their decisions and increase their efficiency. They proposed to make striking a penal offence as a means of securing compliance with the decisions of the boards of conciliation and of the arbitrators. This was justified on the ground that continuity

of railway work is in the public interest and that the same loyalty to the public should be legally demanded from railway employes as from soldiers and sailors. They neither denied the employes' complaints of the delays and failures in adjusting grievances, nor referred to the disparity between the cost of living and the rate of wages in accounting for the strike. But it has already given impetus to the Labor Party's campaign for the national ownership and operation of railways. Thus before the commission as elsewhere Greek met Greek, indicating only "the tug of war."

ARE UNIONS CHANGING FRONT?

If the government changed front in bringing about this truce for the settlement of the issues which occasioned the strike, just as surely are the British trade unionists doing so in the tactics to which they are resorting. The historic policy by which the trade unions of the United Kingdoms have grown into power and set the type for the constructive action of the labor movement in other lands, and especially in America, has suddenly been set aside, at least for the present crisis. The autonomy of the separate trades has hitherto been tenaciously held as the unit of their policy. But the joint action of all the railway unions substitutes action by industries for that of the specialized or "sectional" trade unions. The all-comprehensive transport workers' federation became a fact before it was agreed upon or ratified by many unions. The "sympathetic strike" so suddenly evolved the class consciousness of "solidarity" that it has become the watch-word of a new crusade. This strange strike transformed the representative character and method of the English labor movement, for the time being at least, into the "syndical" plan of action—the class acting en masse through "syndicated" trade unions—which has already become a well established and widely developed labor policy on the continent of Europe.

Thus almost over night the most radical change in the spirit, method, and policy of British trade unionism was

sprung upon old England. That it was the spontaneous movement of the rank and file and was neither premeditated nor expected by the leaders was evident.

BLOWING OFF STEAM IN HYDE PARK

Hyde Park, as usual, was the first touch-stone to tell the feeling of the men. This great safety-valve was as wide open as ever. On the Sunday afternoon following the midnight declaration of peace, marching bodies of the striking railway men began to arrive on the park's great lawns, headed by bands of music and carrying the picture-banners of their unions. By two o'clock 25,000 or more of them had gathered in great groups around the wagons that served as platforms for the speakers. No restriction was placed upon their presence or their freedom of speech. Only a few policemen were in sight. Here as everywhere the self-restraint, patient good-humor, reasonableness, and tact of the hard-worked and often hard-beset London police once more established their reputation for the best control of excited crowds.

This mass meeting, which was called as a council of war while the strike was on, turned out to be a ratification of the peace which, to every one's surprise, was declared over night. The railway union leaders were moderate in their tone and without bitterness in their speech. The crowds of men, who cheered to the echo every reference to their loyalty to each other in united action, were orderly, good-natured, and apparently grateful and hopeful over the plans and prospects for a peaceful adjustment of their grievances. They greeted with equal applause the summons "back to work tomorrow" and the call upon their railway unions to join the Transport Workers' Federation. "From sea and river, road and rail" they promised to unite in the one brotherhood of the one industry.

OLD vs. NEW TACTICS

The Trade Union Congress at Newcastle was another index of the attitude of the old unions to the new and hitherto untried mass movement of British labor. For forty-four years this



From Illustrated London News.

"TOMMY ATKINS" ON STRIKE DUTY.

affiliation of unions had been growing increasingly conservative, and now the officials of the congress and leaders on the floor hesitated to take any position. The chairman made only a passing allusion to the winning of recent strikes. The report of the parliamentary committee failed to assume any pronounced attitude. But the rank and file were not to be silenced. Occasion was readily found to open the discussion. It was forced, as was the strike itself, by the lower paid, unskilled, and less permanently organized men. The talk they started was radical. There was a most marked tendency to revert to the strike as the first instead of the last resort. Even Shakespeare's lines were forced into new application:

Let those now strike who never struck before,

And those who always struck now strike the more.

Such rallying cries were raised as, "No more sectional strikes or lock-outs;" "let all strike or none;" "federated trades must act as whole industries, not as separate unions."



LIVERPOOL'S MOVING FORT.

From Illustrated London News.

The "armored" motor shown in this picture was used by the police to escort prison vans and for other strike duty. The photograph was taken on Scotland Road.

A labor member of parliament was rebuked for introducing a bill forbidding strikes until after thirty days' notice, just "when we are only beginning to see how effective a strike may be."

But the action of the congress was never the less conservatively slow and cautious. And yet its delegates unanimously voted to call conferences of "sectional" unions in specialized trades to organize all the unions in the industry into a federation. The consolidation of the Trade Union Congress and the Annual Conference of the Labor Party was also initiated. These far-reaching initiatives, however, did not satisfy the more expectant majority. They expected, with the editor of the widely circulated weekly *Labor Leader*, "a clear ringing note of militance and inspiration, . . . a sense of burning indignation, . . . a bold ringing challenge of the government's at-

titude, . . . a discovery of the value of the sympathetic strike which had come as a revelation to the workers." They felt with him that "it is impossible to disguise the fact that the congress as a whole failed to do justice to the situation." On the other hand the conservative leaders who are in official control of the Trade Union Congress, together with the strongest men representing the Labor party in Parliament and the leaders of most of the strongest unions, expressed satisfaction with the cautious deliberation and minimum amount of general discussion with which the congress, as a whole, assumed its attitude and took action relative to the situation. Their sentiment was voiced by Thomas Burt, M.P., who is recognized and revered as "the grand old man" among the leaders.

"The present movement may do good,"

he said, but he repeatedly warned them that "the general and national strike is a dangerous weapon; the poorest of the poor are the first to suffer and suffer most acutely." Nevertheless he admitted that "national and sympathetic action means a shorter fight."

On the contrary, the men who express the feeling of the more radical rank and file refer to the temporary agreement arranged by their parliamentary leaders as a "surrender of the strike, at the very rise of its overwhelming power . . . the railway men's Sedan. . . . Suddenly, tragically; and farcically the nation has passed through the greatest industrial crisis in its history . . . "what should have been the climax of the industrial upheaval has been turned into an anti-climax by the terms of settlement." Nevertheless, J. Ramsay MacDonald insists that this settlement, which he negotiated, is "all that could be provided now—an opportunity through the methods of collective bargaining to present their case for advances and improvements in their conditions. The railway servants will now do exactly what other trade unionists have to do—and that for the first time in the history of railway trade unionism. The railway companies now see that wages must be advanced and conditions improved. The strike convinced them that preparations had to be made at once for improvement."

REVOLT AGAINST CONSERVATISM

The dissatisfaction with the attitude and action of the Trade Union Congress already takes the form of a revolt against its leaders. The *Labor Leader* declares "this old, unheroic spirit" to be "the great drag on the labor movement. . . . Never can it do itself justice till this spirit is utterly cast out."

Even Philip Snowden, one of the ablest representatives of the labor party in Parliament, declares:

"At the close of the congress the country was still left in ignorance of the real attitude of the responsible leaders of the unions to the new revolutionary methods. The recent unrest has been a movement of the rank and file, who have led the leaders. The old trade union leaders have not courage to

put themselves in opposition to the revolutionary tendencies, or place themselves at the head of the movement."

Of course the small but active minority of socialists are going a great way further. They say, "We told you so." They take for granted that trade unionism will be seen to have proved itself inadequate, that its labor party is only a tool of other party politicians, that the sympathetic strike and syndicating unions by industries is half-way socialism, and that only a straight-out socialist party can and will assert and gain the rights of labor. Varied and forcible utterance was publicly given to this revolutionary spirit and tactics by the actual leaders of the strike "at the front" in Liverpool. Ben Tillet, who, although heard with indifference in the Trades Union Congress, is a most effective open-air agitator, expects his Transport Workers' Federation to lead the way to the class solidarity of the working people.

"The movement was a spontaneous up-rush from below," he said. "There was no organization in the ordinary sense. If there had been it would have failed. The ordinary trade-union leader would have been too cautious. The rank and file came in with a rush. One class after another joined hands with extraordinary unanimity and spontaneity, making common cause as a band of brothers. It was splendid."

On this same occasion, however, he deprecated violence and the general strike.

"We felt and said from the first that our cause was injured by anything that savored of violence. Those who talk so lightly of paralyzing everything have no responsibility."

Yet Keir Hardie talked just so.

"The only course to be taken at Liverpool is to paralyze everything," he declared. "Let every working man drop work and sit tight, using no violence, making no demonstration; simply let him refuse to do a hand's turn of work for any one. It is the only thing to be done . . . The old revolutionary spirit which seemed to have died out in the time of the Chartists seems to have revived in our midst. It is a most welcome and delightful sur-

prise to me. It is a revolution that is brewing, and it is going to come. And, as the next step, let them paralyze everything."

Tom Mann, who, as leader of the strike at Liverpool, was dictator of the city for a week, went beyond the limit, still further.

"We don't care for your public opinion," he said to William T. Stead. "We do not ask for your sympathy. You have failed—failed utterly—to abolish poverty. All your churches, all your governments, all your institutions, all your laws have failed. You are an admitted failure, all of you. But, by Heaven, we are not going to fail. We are going to abolish poverty, and to do it ourselves, without asking the help of any but ourselves."

By contrast, the trade unionism of the British Congress and the American Federation of Labor is surely the conservatism of the labor movement. And so far the choice lies between these two tendencies, other than which there is no third as yet in sight or in prospect. It remains to be seen which will win the ascendancy. In England, as in America, it will depend upon the strength and progressiveness of the conservative leaders, and the encouragement they get in counteracting the effect of the repression of legitimate trade unionism, by which their followers are driven to dangerously radical extremes. If the leadership of Tom Mann and Keir Hardie supersedes that of such men as J. Ramsay MacDonald, Thomas Burt, Arthur Henderson, and John Hodge; if the spirit and policy of the Trade Union Congress are abandoned for the aims and methods of the European syndicalism or socialism; will it not disrupt and disintegrate the organized labor of England? For these radical movements are not likely either to transform the conservative characteristics of the British working-people, nor to modify their methods quickly enough to fit the hitherto inherent conservatism of all Britishers, before the disruption of the trade union constituency would occur under the stress of the transition. How such a sudden transition can take place without civil war not even the genius of the English peo-

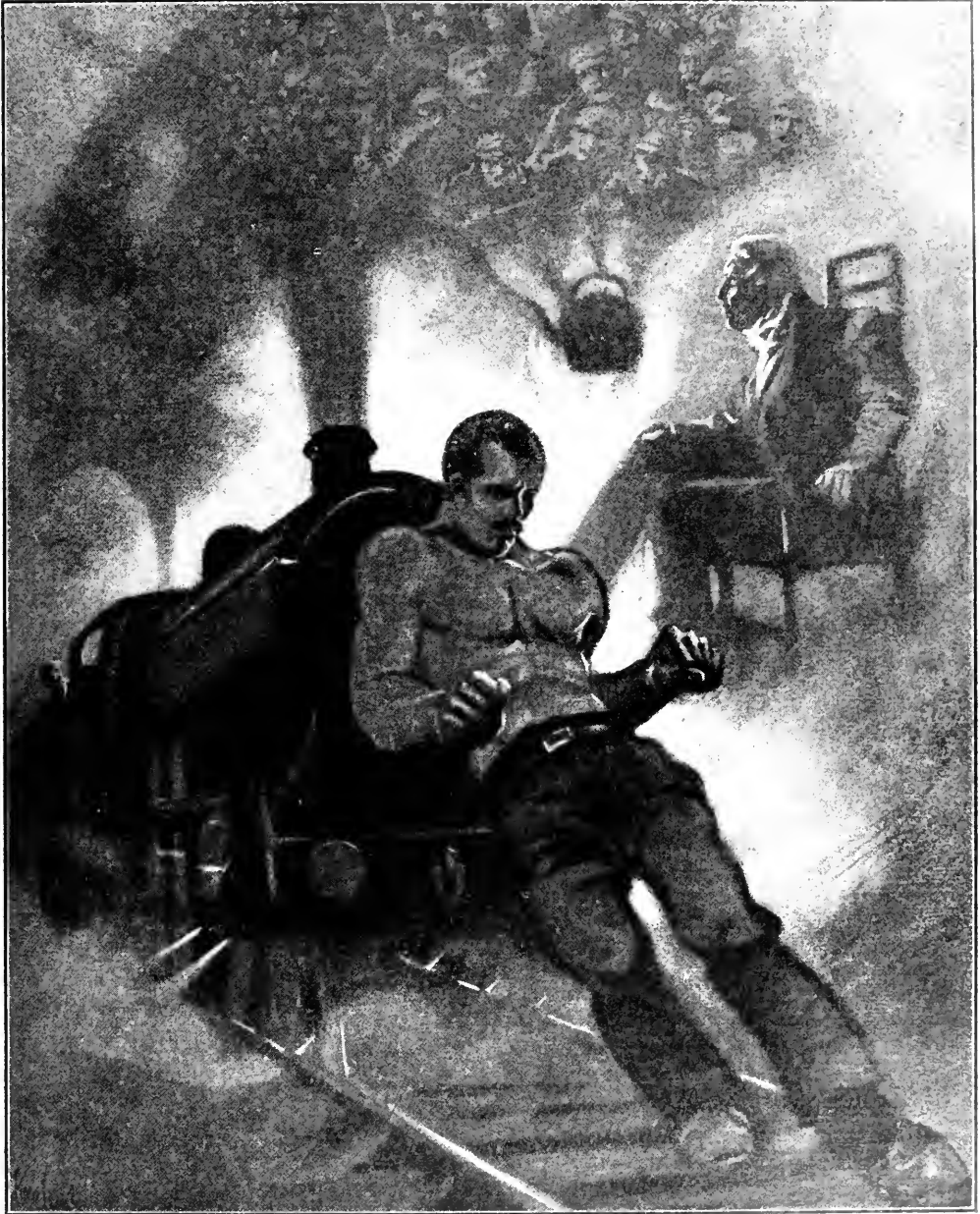
ple for evolution within constitutional limits gives any assurance. But if the better type of seasoned leaders can still lead the new enthusiasm among the rank and file for united effort, a constructively progressive policy would be practically irresistible in its realization of democracy through legislative and economic advance.

We have let these events and those who enacted or personified them speak for themselves. Our single purpose has been to reproduce the stirring scenes and speech, seen and heard or, better still, narrated in personal interviews by a very few who themselves were identified with the turns of affairs in Parliament, in the strike council of cabinet ministers, in the hearings of the Royal Commission of Inquiry, and in the leadership of the strike. Our readers may thus be in better position to interpret for themselves not only these swiftly moving events described but also their more widely significant issues which are sure to follow in England and elsewhere. These critical issues are to be looked for in industry, in politics, and in religion.

THE INDUSTRIAL ISSUE

On the labor side of the industrial situation, we have already raised the questions: Will this epoch-making strike make for a reaction toward the safe, slow-moving, accredited trade unionism which has been more in accord with British constitutional methods? Or will it develop the "syndicalist" policy of the revolutionary labor movement in France? Or will it lead still further afield into the German type of Socialist Party politics?

On the part of the employers and investors in labor-employing interests there is as yet apparent chiefly their silence in their alarmed surprise at the overwhelming power of the general strike. So far it has been broken only by a few personal or formal demands upon Parliament to penalize the strike in public service employment; and to rescind the legalizing of "peaceful picketing" in the Trades Dispute Act of 1906. The under-paying of transport workers is denied by few, and the increased rate of wages secured by seamen and dockers



Fred Leist in London Graphic.

AN EFFECT OF STEAM UNFORESEEN BY JAMES WATT.

This cartoon is an allegory of the great strike and shows the worker holding up the mighty mechanism. The figure of Stephenson is seen seated beside the legendary kettle which is said to have given such epoch-making ideas to his great predecessor, James Watt.

and demanded by railway men is not considered excessive. British stock markets and volume of trade stood the strain of risk and loss remarkably well.

Consols fell $\frac{1}{4}$, home railway stocks

not more than $\frac{3}{4}$, and a few industrials $\frac{1}{16}$. The Government Board of Trade reported for August 373,615 employes directly involved in trade disputes, as against 17,305 in this month last year;

2,323,800 working days lost, as against 140,300 in August last year; 228,600 employes received a net increase of \$47,000 per week in wages, and 30,000 teamsters and lightermen in London had their working hours reduced; but 130,000 coal miners and 4,700 blast furnace men suffered a reduction of their wages. Nevertheless the volume of trade fell off surprisingly little and in trades other than those affected directly by the strike employment was almost as good as in July.

THE POLITICAL ISSUE

In politics the issue is imminent and acute. The Liberal government depends for its majority in Parliament and therefore for its continuance in power upon the votes of the Labor Party. Nevertheless, it could not have done less to preserve the peace and restore order than it did and yet claim to be a government at all. At Liverpool, and among the mixed races in the mining population of Southern Wales, life and property were in great peril. Yet the use of the army there and the extraordinary military precautions and plans now being projected, and the proposal to increase the police by a large volunteer force to be available only in emergencies, are deeply resented. This and other collisions with the Liberals threaten an early disruption of their alliance with the Labor Party, and their consequent retirement from power. To this the Labor Party is indifferent. For while it has little to expect from the Conservatives, it expects a great increase of votes at the expense of the Liberals, and it hopes ultimately to succeed them as the progressive party of the nation. In any event the political sphere in England, and also in America, as it is in Germany, is to be the arena of the struggle for industrial democracy.

THE FINAL APPEAL TO RELIGION

Into the religious sphere of thought and action the struggle has already entered. The churches, as Dr. F. B. Meyer, revered leader of the Free Church Council, publicly proclaims, cannot keep out of it if they would. For not only are their own ideals and standards of life and relationship involved, but also

those of a large and influential part of their own constituencies. In their membership are many wage-payers and captains of industry indeed, but far more wage-earners and labor leaders. It would surprise American church people to find so many of the national and local leaders of England's trade unions in the membership, official positions, and active work of the churches. Pages of THE SURVEY could be filled with the names and services of these labor leaders who are lay preachers, at the head of church brotherhoods, prominent in adult Sunday Schools, leaders in temperance and missionary work. Scores of these more prominent leaders hold a "Fellowship" to express their common religious aim and enjoy religious friendship." On their "Labor Week," held for the last two years, these men publicly express their views on the relation between labor and religion. More loyalty to Christianity and dependence upon its faith and power are never expressed in church assemblies than was avowed by these leaders now most prominent as heads of their unions and as labor party members of Parliament.¹ This "Fellowship" is described by a London citizen prominent in social work as having a spirit of religious earnestness and determination like that of the old Covenanters.

In any event, and on either side of any dividing line, such men as these must be reckoned with in the future, as they always have been in the past. Without them and their leadership any advantage gained for labor by methods which they could not follow is sure to be more temporary than permanent, more apparent than real, more productive of reaction than progress. So, without the ideals and spirit of religion leading and supporting the people in their coming struggle for better conditions of life and work and for a more democratic control of them, there will be spasms of blood and tears, instead of a steady, progressive, irresistible movement for the certain attainment of human rights and opportunity for all.

London, Sept. 15, 1911.

¹See LABOR AND RELIGION, by Ten Labor Members; CHRIST AND LABOR, by Eleven Labor Members of Parliament. Also HOW OLD AGE PENSIONS BEGAN TO BE, by F. Herbert Stead.

THE
SURVEY
SOCIAL CHARITABLE CIVIC

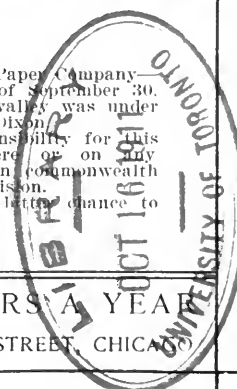


VALLEY OF DESOLATION.
FLOOD-SWEPT SITE OF AUSTIN, PENNSYLVANIA.

Seventy-six people needlessly met death when the dam of the Bayless Pulp and Paper Company—a fifty-foot wall of concrete just beyond the mill stacks—broke on the afternoon of September 30. The work of relief among the survivors and the sanitary control of the littered valley was under way within twelve hours, directed by State Commissioner of Health Samuel B. Dixon.

That was the first duty of Pennsylvania. The second is to place the responsibility for this disaster and to take such steps as will absolutely prevent a recurrence here or on any other of her mountain streams. A like obligation rests on every other American commonwealth in which waters are impounded without adequate public regulation and supervision.

The state that could not learn a lesson from Johnstown has now a second better chance to lead the way to safety.



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Emergency relief work and prompt sanitary control have followed the desolating flood which swept the little valley of Austin, Penn. on Sept. 30.—P. 991.

A new national body, known as the American Federation for Sex Hygiene, has been launched. The executive officer is Charles W. Birtwell, who on October 3 closed a service of twenty-six years with the Boston Children's Aid Society.—P. 991.

With Francis H. McLean at its head, the new National Association of Societies for Organizing Charity has divided work with the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation.—P. 993.

St. Paul, Omaha, Grand Rapids, Des Moines, Sioux Falls, Detroit, and Cedar Rapids are the cities visited this month by the "teams" in the Men and Religion Forward Movement. "Without any doubt," writes Fred B. Smith, "the greatest single advance we can make is to put intense religious enthusiasm upon the social service methods which are being employed so splendidly to-day." The work and aims of this movement are reviewed by Dr. Devine in his Social Forces in this issue.—P. 989.

The Chicago conference of the American Association for Labor Legislation caught up the threads of progress made in this field, and showed the impetus that has been given to the American movement for protecting wage-earners.—P. 998.

At the International Hygiene Exposition at Dresden this summer graphic exhibits embraced almost every field that has enlisted the service of the social worker.—P. 997.

The new Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, created by act of the last legislature, and vested with catholic powers to prescribe standards of safety for every place of employment, to order safety devices, and to issue mandates designed to protect the life, health, and welfare of employes, is a hopeful sign of the new social statesmanship of the Middle West.—P. 1001.

The trial of the McNamaras begins in Los Angeles this week, one year after the explosion which wrecked the *Times* Building.

Bonfire time: poke your nose in at the door of any primary school room in any small town in the land. Every small boy is a sachet of burnt leaves.

October 1 was the date set by the resolution passed at the annual meeting of the Steel Corporation last April for report by a stockholders' committee on labor conditions. The resolution was offered by Charles M. Cabot of Boston as part of his campaign among stockholders, with the idea that the labor policies of the management should be put before them for criticism and backing in the same way

THE SURVEY

Edward T. Devine, Editor Graham Taylor, Associate Editor

A Journal of Constructive Philanthropy

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that financial policies are made the subject of detailed statements. The committee was not yet organized on October 1, the mandatory date set for its report. Judge Gary states that it has been appointed and will get to work soon.

Judge Lindsey and Mrs. Kelley, from two points of view, discuss the experiment in regulating children on the stage embodied in the new Colorado Child Labor Law.—Pp. 995, 996.

SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

MEN AND RELIGION

Not as Presbyterians, Baptists, Lutherans, or Methodists; not as Evangelicals or Trinitarians; not as Anti-Catholics, or Anti-Semites, or Anti-anything whatsoever; but as positively and directly interested in the social welfare, we extend a hearty welcome to the present forward movement in the Protestant churches which has taken the name of Men and Religion Forward Movement. We do not know whether it will prove to be the greatest religious movement since the Reformation; but this is certain, that its influence should work for unity in spirit among the great historic religions rather than for enmity and division such as the period of the Reformation was compelled to witness. We do not know whether its effect upon foreign missions will be to hasten the substitution of the name of Christ in the orient for that of Mohammed and Buddha, as sixteen hundred years ago the Roman emperors turned from their pagan gods to the religion brought by the oriental missionaries; but this is certain, that Turks and Hindus and Chinese are in our own immediate world; and our religion will stand or fall by its ability to help us in defining our relations to them and to all "strange peoples."

Boys' work, bible study, evangelism, social service, and missions are the specific features of the movement. Of these we are naturally concerned primarily with the fourth. Recognizing the interrelation of the five departments, and the importance of all of them, it is still a source of special satisfaction that the leaders in this forward movement have definitely put into their program this demand for tangible evidences of the sincerity and permanence of the local response to their campaign. Revivals we have had and religious awakenings which were as ephemeral as they were emotional; superficial in their methods, transitory in their influence, negative in their effects. This is not because they were emotional. All religion appeals, and rightly appeals, to the emotions. It is rather because they have not given fruitful direction to the emotions. All true religion seeks a two-fold outlet: in worship and in service. Christianity as a historic religion holds man to worship and to service. That which we worship is the noblest conception of the spirit of man, the highest in power and in good will, revealed to us through the teachings and traditions of the church, through the prophecies and gospels of the sacred books, through the sacrifices and victories of heroic souls, and supremely through the life and teaching of Jesus of Nazareth. This worship of the highest and best, however imperfect the conception of it may be, is the beginning of a religious character. Revivals are necessary and are justified, as far as they go, because they mark for many this elementary beginning of a religious character which may develop infinitely here and hereafter. But worship, however devout and however redeeming, is not the whole or the main part of religion. Sincerity, humility, and courage, which Frederic Almy found to be the most impressive qualities of the leaders of the Men and Religion Forward Movement in his three days at the Silver Bay conference, are the natural fruits of a devout spirit. If the leaders can impart these qualities to the

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multitudes with whom they will come into direct and indirect relations throughout the winter, they will be preparing the soil for a great religious harvest. Devout worship makes men sincere, humble, and courageous, and without these elements there is no religion.

As, however, this forward movement is to be more than a revival, more than a week's campaign, more than an emotional appeal, its leaders have naturally sounded as its distinctive keynote, service to fellow men. This is but to put in its natural place the very essence of the Christian religion which is the spirit of service. Social workers must assume this spirit. Religion generates it. If that which goes by the name of religion does not bear fruit in the improvement of social conditions, it is evidently misnamed. No mere enlargement of the nominal number of church members, no multiplication of religious organizations, is convincing evidence of the growth of religion. The rehabilitation of broken families, the diminution of drunkenness, the reformation of criminals, the transformation of slums into homes, the lifting of the burdens of the oppressed, the enlightenment of the administration of justice, the disappearance of social bitterness and unrest, the socializing of business, of industry, of the professions, of government itself, by the penetration through them all of the spirit of service, sustained and fortified at all times by the spirit of justice—these are evidences of religion in any community.

As the leaders have recognized, it is not enough to enumerate these and other specific duties of this kind, as any evangelist might do, and then lightly dismiss them. Here, as in boys' work, missions, and other departments, knowledge and experience must be brought directly to bear upon the impressionable minds of converts and awakened church members who would bring forth works meet for repentance. The reformation of criminals, for example, is not to be accomplished by preaching a sermon to them, by visiting them in prison, or even by extending a hand in utmost sincerity, humility, and fraternity. These may be desirable features of a process of reformation, but the whole process goes much farther back, and reaches much farther forward. It embraces probation and parole, suspended sentence, indeterminate sentence, and appropriate occupation in confinement. It is closely related to the school problem, the recreation problem, and the housing problem. It takes the Christian who would prove his faith into the prison cell, to police court, to legislative committee rooms, and to many other curious places. This sounds discouraging; but it is not, for there are everywhere at hand some people who have worked out these relations of the various aspects of social reform and who are ready to come forward on request with their specific plans and remedies, which the individual church member may adopt or reject without unreasonable demands upon either his time or his intelligence. Some of these movements are within the church, but that of itself does not make them more religious. Some of them are inter-denominational, and these may give the best possible scope for the service which seeks the greatest needs and the greatest and most legitimate rewards. Some are distinctly secular, and the worker who cannot recognize in these also the opportunity for genuinely religious service would do well to seek a new baptism of the spirit of Him who, on Sabbath days as on other days, found it lawful to do good rather than to do evil, to save life rather than to destroy it.

THE COMMON WELFARE

SEX HYGIENE FEDERATION ANNOUNCES ITS OFFICERS

On October 3 Charles W. Birtwell closed a service of twenty-six years with the Boston Children's Aid Society, to become the executive officer of the American Federation for Sex Hygiene, which is now in process of organization. The announcement of the federation's policy and program, which have not yet been determined upon, will be made in an early issue of *THE SURVEY*, together with a review of Mr. Birtwell's long service in the field of work which he is leaving. He is succeeded by J. Prentice Murphy, superintendent of the Children's Bureau of Philadelphia.

The Boston headquarters of the federation are to be at 6 Hancock avenue. The New York office is at present in the Pullman Building, 17 Madison avenue. The officers of the federation include Charles W. Eliot, president emeritus of Harvard University, honorary president; Prince A. Morrow, M.D., president; Major Henry L. Higginson, treasurer; James J. Hill, R. Fulton Cutting, and Col. George Goethals, vice-presidents. The permanent executive committee will include Dr. Morrow, President Eliot and Dr. Henry P. Walcott of Boston, Cleveland H. Dodge and Felix N. Warburg of New York, and Mrs. Caroline B. Alexander of Hoboken. Among the members of the advisory council will be Bishop William Lawrence of the diocese of Massachusetts, Dr. Arthur T. Cabot and Robert A. Woods of Boston, John M. Glenn and Homer Folks of New York, and Bleecker Van Wagenen of Orange, N. J. It is anticipated that persons of similar standing in other cities will become allied. The present executive committee, under which the organization is being effected, includes Dr. Morrow, Prof. Robert N. Willson, M.D., of the University of Pennsylvania, Delcevare King of Boston, Thomas N. Hepburn, M.D., of Hartford, and Donald R. Hooker, M.D., of Johns Hopkins University.

AFTER THE DAM BROKE AT AUSTIN

Merely the chance circumstance that it happened in daytime instead of in the middle of the night prevented the great flood at Austin, Penn., from involving an even greater loss of life than the six hundred first reported killed. So rapidly was the town overwhelmed on September 30 that, although warning was given as soon as the waters burst from the dam some two miles away, hundreds of people barely had time to escape to the hillsides, while seventy-six were caught in the death swirl. The fatalities could scarcely have been less than twenty times this number had the disaster come without warning in the night.

The water cut a swath so clean through the narrow floor of the valley that except for a pile of debris banked against a few brick buildings on one side, and another pile jammed in a clump of trees, scarcely a projection of wood or brick is visible for acres where there had been 245 buildings. But wreckage extends in a ragged fringe along the base of both hillsides and is strewn for miles down the valley past the little village of Costello, which contributed fifty houses of its own to the grinding mass, though only three people to the list of victims. The horrors of the situation were increased by fire, which broke out in the ruins.

The state of Pennsylvania turned quickly to the aid of the survivors. Within a couple of hours after the disaster a county representative of the state Department of Health was on the ground and caring for the wounded. On his own initiative, Governor Tener being absent from the state capital, Dr. Samuel G. Dixon, state health commissioner, sent a relief train with surgeons, physicians, sanitary engineers, and nurses, which was at the scene by early Sunday morning. A relief train with food and clothing, in charge of officers of the National Guard, dispatched by the adjutant general, and two troops of state police also arrived early on Sunday morning.

After a conference with the burgess and town council a survey of the situation preparatory to the work of relief and the recovery of bodies was rapidly made.

With only eleven wounded—though three of them seriously—to care for in the providentially spared hospital, the problem was essentially one of sanitary engineering and systematic relief. Headquarters were opened in a lodge hall, and the ground floor of the building was turned into a commissary in charge of the nurses. While the health officials were establishing a supply of pure water, getting the gas company to resume the supply in the undemolished part of the town—gas had been universally used as fuel for cooking—and planning the removal of débris so as to find the dead, the nurses prepared food and on Sunday afternoon carried a distribution throughout the town.

The houses left standing on the hill-sides and in a valley tributary to the flooded one included a number of dwellings which were unoccupied on account of the slackness of work. There was therefore sufficient shelter for all the survivors, including the 900 homeless, without using the tents brought by the National Guard relief train.

Philanthropic agencies were early on the ground. Ernest P. Bicknell, national director of the American Red Cross, arrived on Sunday and found the situation so well handled by the state health authorities under Dr. Dixon, who came to assume personal direction, that Red Cross help was unnecessary. The Pennsylvania State Board of Charities was represented by its executive officer, Bromley Wharton, and an assistant. The Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania, through a special agent, H. M. Peck, stood ready to help solve the problem of dependent children. But this phase of relief, and indeed the whole problem, was less difficult than it might have been. For a comparatively small proportion of the dead had been bread-winners and all but a few of those had been single men, or their families had been killed with them. The community, moreover, is predominantly American—composed mostly of self-reliant people whose relatives and friends, many of them in near-

by Pennsylvania towns, were glad to open their doors and help find new work. Already a considerable number of survivors have said good-bye to the desolate spot which once was their home town.

For weeks, however, relief work must be kept up in Austin, and the state authorities—who are feeding the whole town—hope that the generous contributions of money and supplies, which the railroads are transporting free of charge, will be continued. Pride is taken in the ability of the state to care for its own unfortunates. Although many of the townspeople have already left, the presence of several hundred laborers sent in to work on débris removal means a commissary problem for some time to come.

The concrete dam which is responsible for the disaster was completed by the Bayless Pulp and Paper Company less than two years ago. When first filled with water—only a month after completion—it cracked in several places and slid eighteen inches on its foundations, the top bulging to the extent of thirty-two inches. At that time—January of last year—the people of Austin fled to the hills and many camped out for two or three days. The pressure was relieved by dynamiting two holes at the top of the dam so as to lower the water. Although it appears that recommendations looking to the strengthening of the structure were made by the designing engineer, there is no apparent evidence that much was done except for the provision of a gate at the top of the dam and an eighteen-inch valve at the bottom. The dynamited holes were filled up and it is reported by eye-witnesses that when the disaster occurred the gate at the top was closed and the dam overflowing. This failure to strengthen the dam adequately was severely criticized in last week's issue of the *Engineering News*, which reprints an article, published in March, 1910, discussing the slip of the January preceding. No state authority seems to have had jurisdiction over the construction or condition of the dam. The act creating the state water-supply commission limited its supervision to streams which have been designated as public highways (i. e. navigable streams and streams used for logging purposes).

An inquest was started by the district attorney on October 6, but after formally determining the cause of death its hearings were indefinitely adjourned pending a search for legal authority to compel the superintendent of the Bayless Company to testify. His unbroken silence after the disaster culminated at the inquest with the familiar "On advice of counsel, I decline to testify." Yet this witness was not only the superintendent in charge of the mill and dam, but the president of the town council of Austin.

FORWARD MOVEMENTS IN THE FIELD OF ORGANIZED CHARITY

A division of work and plan of co-operation have just been worked out between the new National Association of Societies for Organizing Charity and the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation. This working agreement should enable both agencies to become very effective instruments in the co-ordination of charitable effort in this country. Francis H. McLean leaves the department to become the head of the new association, with Maurice Willocks of Birmingham as his associate. Fred S. Hall, formerly with the Pennsylvania Child Labor Committee, becomes associate director of the Charity Organization Department.

The association has opened an office at room 421 in the United Charities Building, New York. Those who deplore the multiplication of national movements cannot accuse this one, at least, of undue precipitancy, for the first of the charity organization societies was established in this country thirty-four years ago. They have taken their own time about achieving a national birth, but then the death-rate among associated charities and the agencies that under various titles are doing similar work is very low and their national organization will probably be equally hardy.

Mr. McLean has himself pointed out that an associated charities is very hard to kill, and that it is important, for this reason, to see that the new ones are well born.

"What has happened in the past," he writes, "is that these societies, when narrowly conceived and growing narrower as little almsgiving associations, have not kept their feet on the ground, but have sunk them in a marsh, so that sometimes only the head now is above the mud. . . . A marshy society is less inspirational than one soaring in the upper ether of generalities, but neither one is an associated charities."

Many of the more active societies had escaped both dangers, of course, and these had been feeling their way toward united missionary effort for some years. Their first active field work was begun in 1907 under the auspices of the publication committee of THE SURVEY, and was supported by the Russell Sage Foundation. Mr. McLean had charge of this work from the beginning, and its success is largely due to his generous vision and patient, careful working out of each detail. Two years ago, the work was taken over by the Charity Organization Department, with Mary E. Richmond as director and Mr. McLean and Margaret F. Byington as field secretaries.

Since October, 1907, over fifty charity organization societies have been assisted by field visits to organize or reorganize. Others have been assisted by correspondence only, but this method is very inadequate for a task demanding such careful inquiry into local needs. To get societies organized rapidly would not be difficult, but to study the needs of each locality and to subordinate growth to needs, the special propaganda to the general good, demands another type of service altogether. The Charity Organization Department has been able to render this service, and to develop the beginnings of other useful activities, such as case studies, a technical journal for the use of established societies, and a short normal course for the further training of charity organization workers.

The time is now held to be opportune for a division of these undertakings, for placing the extension movement under the auspices of the societies themselves, and for developing, under the department, the other tasks already begun. Under the agreement just effected,

the purpose of the new association will be "to organize and reorganize charity organization societies, and to promote their co-operative development"; that of the department will be "to study, teach, and publish in the charity organization field, bounding that field broadly to include the better co-ordination of all social service."

To quote one of the strongest leaders in the movement as to the working out of this agreement:

Judging the future by the past it is fair to assume that Mr. McLean and his assistants in the new association will, so far as possible, make field visits to communities about to organize associated charities. The appeal from these communities must come from the given place; there will be no pushing in uninvited. After forwarding the literature of the department and gathering as much data as possible by correspondence, after assurance that action would not be premature, a personal visit will be made, to follow up the clues already secured by letter. Sometimes such visits last a week or two, and must include a superficial examination of living and industrial conditions and many personal interviews with local people, before any meetings can be called. Separate reports have to be made, often, to different local bodies. A plan of organization will then be suggested, if the inquiry seems to justify it. No two plans have been exactly alike so far, but the points usually emphasized are (1) a *trained* paid worker, (2) a board of men and women truly representative of the *varied* interests of the community, (3) closest *co-operation* with existing agencies, (4) a program of case-work and of public service that aims not only to alleviate distress but to *prevent* it.

There is an equally important service to the existing societies, some of which are so backward as to need reorganization, and others of which, even the most progressive, are glad to avail themselves of the advice of those who see the field as a whole. Judging from the solid results already achieved, from the vigor of the new societies recently established, and the increased usefulness of the older ones that have invited field visits, the new association has a wonderful opportunity before it, and should have the generous financial support of all who believe in well co-ordinated social effort.

Under the continued guidance of Miss Richmond, with Mr. Hall and Miss Byington as associate directors, the Charity Organization Department will address itself to the following lines of work to be continued or begun: the working out, by a series of studies, of some case-work standards; co-operation in detail in such matters as transportation agreements, the inter-relation of national movements, and the securing of tests and standards for all the various processes of social service

agencies that deal with individuals; publication of the *Charity Organization Bulletin* and other propagandist and educational pamphlets; teaching case-work in the schools for social workers, and conducting the Charity Organization Institute; maintaining under the New York Charity Organization Society a practice district for case-workers.

The results achieved so far by the department in its case system of teaching and in its correspondence with charity organization societies about a wide variety of topics give promise of still wider usefulness, now that all its energies can be concentrated upon a group of closely related tasks. It is still at the service of the charity organization societies, but hopes, in addition, to be increasingly useful to those engaged in other forms of social service. The relations between the association and the department will be of the closest, of course, and there will be a constant interchange of tasks based upon the division of work here outlined.

THE PURE FOOD SHOW IN N. Y.

Would you rather eat pure food than food that is adulterated? Do you care to know how to tell the one from the other? Are you interested in cooking, domestic science, or home economics? Do you enjoy listening to free lectures, or eating pure food samples that cost nothing?

If so, you would have been glad to go to the "pure food show" held in Madison Square Garden, New York city, September 23 to October 4, and given by the Associated Clubs of Domestic Science and the *National Food Magazine*. To educate the public in the matter of pure foods was the purpose of the exposition. This was the second exhibit under the same auspices, and it is probable that an annual event will be made of it.

The aim of its sponsors was carried out in several ways. Over a hundred food manufacturers had exhibits with demonstrators. These ranged from a well-known brewer to a maker of shoe-polish. There were daily lectures on such topics as the Home-Made Loaf, Cooking With a Can-Opener, etc. The College of the City of New York maintained a laboratory where tests were continuously being made; for example, of baking powder for alum, or of paper drinking-cups for alum or soluble sulphites. The New York State Department of Weights and Measures had an instructive exhibit. September 29 was Philanthropy Day. A number of phil-

anthropic organizations had exhibits. The booth of the Women's Suffrage Party was flanked by that of the Commissary Department of the United States Navy, with male cooks.

CONNECTICUT PASSES SOCIAL LEGISLATION

The longest recorded session of the Connecticut Legislature closed September 26, after disposing of a mass of important legislation. The session lasted nine months. Among the bills killed the following are of interest to readers of THE SURVEY.

A direct primaries act; a law repealing the "fellow servant" doctrine; a workmen's compensation act; a bill granting suffrage at municipal elections and direct primaries to property-owning women.

A full list of the bills passed is not yet at hand. It will contain, among others:

A public utilities law; an act raising the limit for damages for death by accident from \$5,000 to \$10,000; a statute against black-listing, and other pro-labor laws; a number of statutes bearing on public hygiene; a law allowing a majority of voters in a no-license town to petition the county commissioners to allow sales of liquors in summer hotels; an act intended to secure for the consumer honest weight, full measure, and a knowledge of what he buys.

The public utilities law, which, a correspondent of the New York *Evening Post* declares, "signalizes the relaxed hold of the corporations on Connecticut's law-making body," abolishes the railroad commission, and gives to the public utilities commission jurisdiction over railway rates, and over steam and street railway, gas, electric light and power, telegraph, telephone, and express companies. What is declared radical for a New England state is a provision in the nature of a "recall," by which the attorney-general of the state must, on petition of a hundred voters, take steps to determine whether the commission, or any member of it, is incompetent or guilty of misconduct. If either is proved the penalty is removal. It is thought that the constitutionality of the bill is open to question.

Both houses of the legislature were democratic and the governor is a repub-

lican. Tradition was broken by the house assuming a conservative temper, while the senate became radical.

CHILDREN ON THE COLORADO STAGE

The Jones Child Labor Bill, reviewed by Mrs. Kelley on page 996, is now the law of Colorado. During the past two or three years, owing to a Supreme Court decision, the former law regulating employment of women and children had been hopelessly defective. While few statutes can be obtained in such perfect shape as their sponsors would like, Judge Lindsey feels that the new Colorado legislation contains features which, if the experiments prove successful, should have more than local application—notable among them being the sections dealing with child labor on the stage. Not prohibition but regulation under a system of bonding is the method devised. Describing the scheme of enforcement under the new child labor law, Judge Lindsey writes in the *Denver News*:

Children are not forbidden employment in concert or theatrical performances, but permitted such employment on the express condition that "it shall be made to appear that suitable provisions have been made by the employer of such child for the protection of the moral and physical health and the education of such child."

Further provisions follow, permitting the school authority granting the permit in the first instance or "any person" in the interest of the child bringing the matter to the juvenile court to require a bond for \$2,000, with sufficient sureties, conditioned that any terms imposed as a condition to granting such permit shall be carried out.

Under this provision a teacher, tutor, nurse, or other care-taker may be provided the stage child, with a bond to secure enforcement of the condition. It is at least an important gain for the stage child over the present unregulated and unrestricted employment of children on the stage.

The permit thus granted may be revoked at any time by the juvenile court if its conditions are violated or if considered not for the best interests of the child. The act also provides that where conditions are such as to justify granting such permit, and where it is granted, the performances of such child shall be considered a part of its training and education. This recognizes the work of the willing, talented stage child as different from that mere drudgery of the unwilling and unprotected factory child. Such permits are to be kept on file at the box office of the theater and subject to inspection.

Experience will no doubt develop the real truth as to these various contentions as well as the necessity for some changes and strengthening of the law. Yet it is believed a law along this line with mandatory provisions, if such shall prove necessary, requiring security against violation in other states of conditional permits, and the establishment of a co-operation between the juvenile courts now in every large city in America in seeing to the rigid observance and enforcement of the conditions on which permits to stage children are granted, may prove an acceptable solution of about the only question concerning child labor that has threatened any division of opinion among the best known of those in this country who have been foremost in the fight against child labor, and the sincerity of whose different views in the matter of the stage child no one can honestly question.

If a good, fair try at regulation fairly and reasonably to safeguard the stage child should fail in spite of this effort to do justice to the stage children and the public, it may become necessary by law to prohibit the stage child.

EDITORIAL GRIST

COLORADO'S STAGE AND FIELD CHILDREN

FLORENCE KELLEY

Under the Jones child labor bill, recently enacted after a hard struggle, Colorado enters upon an interesting experiment in the care of stage children. This bill provides that permits shall be granted for stage children by the school authorities, who may require a bond to be filed with suitable sureties that any terms imposed as a condition to granting the permit shall be carried out.

In an article commenting on the new law, Judge Ben B. Lindsey says: "Under this provision a teacher, tutor, nurse, or other care-taker may be provided the stage child, with a bond to secure enforcement of the condition." Judge Lindsey points out that the number of stage children in Colorado is small, and that this concession to the theatrical interests was intended to facilitate the enactment of other urgently needed provisions for protecting children in mines and factories.

The spectacle of school authorities and court jointly granting a permit for stage work, and requiring a bond with sureties

for the cost of a nurse for a child young enough to need one, will be watched with alert interest by those friends of the children and the dramatic arts who have in Massachusetts, Illinois, Louisiana, and Oregon banished young children from the stage to the cradle and kindergarten. They will be keen to observe whether the Colorado experiment affords real protection to the traveling children. Especially critical will be the scrutiny of those who know at first hand the sorry failure of the licensing system in New York.

Interesting and new is also the provision that children working in fields, gardens, and orchards for persons not their parents must have permits from the educational authorities. This is intended to reinforce the compulsory education law and prevent the recurrence of abuses such as have been alleged to exist in recent years in the beet fields. Henceforth, children thirteen years old may work in the beet fields, under restrictions as to their hours, and with permits.

The new Colorado law contains the list of prohibited physically dangerous occupations common to the child labor laws of the industrially developed states, but unfortunately omits the prohibition of night work in the messenger service for boys between sixteen and twenty-one years. This "closed season" for minors is now in force in Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, and Wisconsin. Conceivably the juvenile delinquency law may answer the purpose in Colorado, in the absence of large cities aside from Denver. This, however, like the bond and sureties provision for the stage children, can only be shown by the test of experience.

A horrifying clause is that which permits girls of ten years of age to vend goods in the streets. Even in sinful New York city girls below the age of sixteen years have for many years been effectively banished from the street trades.

All told, however, in spite of this blot, this new Colorado statute is a long step in the right direction. It tends to repair the damage done by adverse decisions of the state courts, which had for three years more or less completely invalidated the child labor law, and it adds to the child labor legislation of the nation new

censures in relation to stage children and to those employed in rural outdoor occupations.

INTERNATIONAL HYGIENE EXPOSITION

RICHARD KITCHELT

To the visitor to eastern Germany, whether scientist or sociologist, student or mere tourist, Dresden offered during the past summer in the International Hygiene Exposition a feast of easily assimilable information worth a journey half around the earth to partake of. A visit to the exposition impresses one with the conviction that the central thought of those who collected and arranged the exhibits was to instruct not only the medical man and scientist, by adding a little more abstruse learning to a mind already deeply informed, but to teach also the ordinary, average man, woman, and child the things which, if they knew them, would almost banish disease, pain, and misery from the world.

Every exhibit, while prepared with scientific accuracy and truth, was illustrated and described with a strikingness and simplicity which could not fail to appeal to the least learned. Comparisons were illustrated not with figures but with colored charts, when the actual objects or models of them could not be used. Exhibits did not lurk in dark cases waiting for the determined student to search them out. They stood forth and demanded the attention of the uninterested passer-by.

A great glass tank full of red fluid represented the amount of blood the heart pumps every twenty-four hours. Near it an iron ball on a lever, which the visitor could lift a limited distance, afforded an idea of the energy the heart uses with every beat. Mechanical illustration of the heart valves, anatomical specimens, models of diseased hearts, illustrations of the effects of occupations, exercise, and excesses on the heart, all pointed the one general lesson of how to take care of that important organ.

A large chart showing the membrane surface with which nose-inhaled air

comes in contact to be three-tenths greater than that which warms mouth-breathed air was one of many striking arguments for the removal of adenoid growths and against mouth-breathing. Other charts, models, and specimens illustrated the lungs, lung surfaces, lung diseases, the effects of breathing dirty air, of tight clothing, and of chest exercise.

A demonstrator before a large transparency of the human figure manipulated a series of electric switches so as to cause various colored lights to run back and forth along the nerve lines of the chart, illustrating to an interested group, as he lectured about nerve functions, the difference between reflex and volitional actions.

Every organ, part, and function of the human body was similarly illustrated and demonstrated. Ergographs were there for visitors to test their endurance. They could put their finger-tips under a little lever and watch an indicator-hand mark off their pulse beats. They could test the relative sensitiveness of different parts of the skin of their hands by touching it against little double points at various distances apart. They could look through innumerable microscopes at a great variety of specimens, forms, and preparations. Demonstrations rarely seen outside of the laboratory were provided for the public. Everything was free and open.

The perfect freedom with which everything relating to the human anatomy and its functions and derangements was displayed, without, apparently, any thought of impropriety, was most refreshing to an American accustomed to the interference of a narrow prudery with certain efforts to convey to the public information most vital to its well-being. The managers of the exposition evidently believed that, if "the proper study of mankind is man," no part of man is improper to study and nothing relating to him is wrong for everyone to know. In this same spirit the public seemed to receive the exhibits. No one seemed to gaze with any thought but to be informed; and men, women, and children from the ranks of the common people studied and seriously dis-

cussed exhibits of the most intimate parts and functions of the human anatomy.

After its simplicity and instructiveness, the vastness, exhaustiveness, and thoroughness of the exhibition most impressed the visitor. The ramifications into which the proper study of hygiene extended seemed almost limitless. It penetrated into almost every field that has enlisted the attention of the social reformer. Entire departments of the exposition were devoted to housing conditions, working conditions on sea and land, factory inspection and insurance, the relation of wages to disease, milk- and water-supply in our cities, women's and children's labor, schools, playgrounds and parks, smoke and noise. The bearing which all these have upon human health was shown clearly and in detail.

Much space was given to illustrating the medical and hygienic devices of savage races, and to ancient and medieval methods for combating and preventing disease. These sometimes showed a strange semblance to modern methods, though they were mixed up with the absurdest mummeries and superstitions.

Man's food and drink naturally formed an extended exhibit. All the standard foods and drinks were analyzed and their constituent parts shown in tubes, their adulterations exhibited, and their nourishing and warming values given. Potatoes were shown to be the cheapest food, in Europe at least, with rice a good second. Many popular fallacies were exploded; among others, the idea that chemistry might some day prepare a day's rations in such elemental form that a pill box would hold several meals. It was shown that each pill to maintain the consumer's efficiency would have to be about the size of a base-ball.

The effects on the human organism of alcohol and other stimulants and narcotics were fully illustrated. In this department an exhibit conspicuously labeled "Beer, the food-drink," compared the solid constituents of twenty-five cents' worth of beer with those of twenty-five cents' worth of bread. It showed the former to be about one twenty-fifth of the latter—and German beer is twice as heavy and half as expensive as the American brew!

Men as well as women crowded the room where the care of babies was demonstrated—how they should be held, washed, fed, dressed, and not rocked. There was an extensive display of cheap and pretty clothing, and of sanitary paraphernalia and appliances which were compared with the expensive and insanitary articles so frequently bought by poor people.

Of course, hygiene in the armies and navies of all countries and its evolution received much attention in a country where both occupy so important a place. Hygiene in land and water transportation and even a section devoted to air navigation showed the completeness and up-to-dateness of the exhibition.

Russia, Japan, Formosa, Hungary, Switzerland, Spain, France, Italy, and Brazil, and the cities of Paris and Amsterdam had buildings and special exhibits of their own. Other large buildings were devoted to commercial appliances relating (some of them very remotely) to hygiene. Public concerts were provided on the grounds, which formed part of a large public park, and the usual "midway" features were represented, though not extensively.

The exposition seemed to be very well patronized; yet all too few of the world's people saw it. It seems a pity that the whole affair is not to be transported from country to country and from city to city throughout the civilized world, to teach its valuable lesson in its forceful, simple way, for the improvement of that greatest of man's assets, his health.

CONFERENCE ON LABOR LEGISLATION

LUCILE EAVES

Those attending the Chicago Conference of the American Association for Labor Legislation were impressed by the substantial progress of the American movement for promoting the legal protection of the wage-workers. In addition to many members employed in the welfare work of large employers or connected with casualty insurance companies, there were present over fifty public officials who are engaged in administer-

ing labor laws in the United States and Canada. These officials came prepared to present the industrial problems of states as widely separated as New York and California.

In reviewing the work of the association during the fifteen months since the last Chicago conference, President Seager laid particular emphasis on its service in promoting the passage of accident insurance or compensation legislation. During this period ten states have enacted laws of this kind. These with the three states that already had such statutes make thirteen which are committed to this policy of greater justice to the injured wage-worker. In summarizing the provisions of these laws Professor Seager pointed out the tendency to adopt the elective rather than the compulsory type of compensation law. He said this was due to the decision declaring the New York compulsory law unconstitutional, and expressed regret that the stronger laws had not been tested in other jurisdictions, where they might have received a more favorable interpretation.

The exhibits and several of the best papers of the conference dealt with the prevention of industrial accidents. The first of these papers, by John Calder, formerly an inspector of factories in Scotland, gave a comprehensive summary of the reforms needed to bring the United States up to the best European standards. Our laws are weak in that they often make the factory inspector responsible for pointing out dangers instead of charging the employer with the obligation of making his place of work a safe one. They often fail because of omissions in the attempted enumerations of dangerous machines to be safeguarded. It would be wiser to specify dangerous elements common to many machines, such as intaking gears, pulleys and clutches, fly wheels, belts, etc., and call upon employers to protect workmen from all such risks. The manufacturers of machinery should be required by law to provide guards for dangerous parts. A greater effort should be made to enlist the services of mechanical engineers in the solution of the problems of constructing safety devices. A knowledge of safety devices and methods of work

should be taught in the trade schools. Mr. Calder emphasized the impossibility of attaining good standards in the United States until we shall have better trained factory inspectors and civil service regulations permitting a more permanent tenure of office.

The tendency of progressive employers to improve on the legal requirements in the provision of means for preventing accidents was well illustrated by the stereopticon lecture of Robert J. Young, safety inspector of the Illinois Steel Company. The members of the conference were shown pictures of the varied forms of guards, platforms, stairways, hand-rails, and warning placards devised for the prevention of accidents in the great establishments of this company. The means by which the workmen are enlisted in the effort to "boost for safety" are particularly interesting and worthy of imitation. Edgar T. Davies, chief inspector of factories for the state of Illinois, told of his work and suggested ways of instructing inspectors in the more efficient discharge of their duties.

The interest in the discussion of the second general topic of the conference centered in the new experiment by which Wisconsin simply requires that all places of employment shall be safe, and leaves the details necessary for making the law effective to an Industrial Commission of three members. Prof. John R. Commons, who is a member of this commission, pointed out the advantages of this method of administering and originating industrial legislation, particularly in the matter of the prevention of accidents. When, after a public hearing, the commission has issued its regulations, prosecutions are to determine merely the fact of a violation of an order. The question of the reasonableness of the order can only be raised in a suit against the commission, which must be brought in the county court of Dane county. This prevents interference by injunction with the work of enforcing the orders of the commission. The extensive powers granted this group of experts do away with the need of many forms of legislation for which the average law-maker does not possess sufficient special information.

The Industrial Commission has the means of collecting detailed information about labor problems; it may seek the assistance of volunteer boards of experts; it could create such a body as the Massachusetts Board of Boiler Rules; it could adopt the rules of factory inspection of another state; and it could formulate orders for the prevention of industrial diseases.

Another phase of the administration of labor laws by commission was illustrated by the history of the Massachusetts Board of Boiler Rules presented by the chairman of the board, Joseph McNeill. He outlined the earlier unsuccessful efforts to prevent the loss of life due to boiler explosions, and told of the work of the board in establishing standards that are being extensively adopted in other progressive communities.

The discussions on the Uniform Reporting of Industrial Injuries revealed our national backwardness in administering labor laws. John B. Andrews spoke of the enormous economic loss to the nation from preventable industrial diseases, and reviewed the work of the association in initiating legislation in this field. Bills to secure the reporting of such injuries have been passed in the legislatures of six states. The question of whether physicians should be paid a fee for reporting cases of illness due to employment called forth a lively debate. As such patients are often charity or poor pay cases, and as it is desirable to get the reports from physicians rather than from untrained observers, the weight of opinion seemed to be in favor of a small fee for making the required report.

The methods by which the Minnesota Bureau of Labor has obtained fairly complete accident records were explained by Don D. Lescohier. He suggested that the fear of publicity often prevents the making of reports and that this could be overcome by having detachable slips on the schedules. These identification blanks should be filed where they will not be accessible to the general public. He has found the clipping bureau a valuable means of learning of accidents. It is advisable to send letters to large employers at the end of the year inquiring

whether all accidents have been reported.

The discussion of the need of uniform schedules for reporting industrial injuries made it clear that the collection of authentic information is the prime requisite for progress in dealing with many problems that are now before the state insurance and compensation commissions and the casualty companies of this country. United States Commissioner Neill declared that the present lack of uniformity not only renders our industrial statistics useless for practical purposes, but has at times given positively vicious results. Edson S. Lott, of the United States Casualty Company, showed that those engaged in the business of industrial insurance would be greatly benefited by statistics enabling them to calculate the degree of exposure to accidents in different industries. He claims that compensation is much more expensive than the liability system, declaring that one in eight of those injured in this country obtain damages, while the ratio in Germany is one in four.

A comprehensive discussion of the reasons for the present demand for information about industrial injuries and the best methods of obtaining uniform schedules was given by Leonard W. Hatch, of the New York Department of Labor. He considers the American Association for Labor Legislation the organization best adapted to the work of bringing about the needed co-operation between state officials. The rapid expansion of the movement for industrial insurance in this country makes the need of reliable statistics imperative. He thinks the insurance companies and employers maintaining their own departments of insurance should be required to furnish information, and that they should adopt schedules uniform with those of the state officials. Statistics of this kind are necessary in order to estimate the cost of any proposed system of compensation. The lack of uniformity in our schedules shows the crudity of American work up to this time. It is possible to find this uniformity in the fundamental causes of industrial accidents, and state officials could easily co-operate in the formulation of a standard schedule that would cover all items of information needed.

In the informal discussion of items that should appear in such a schedule, Mrs. Florence Kelley suggested three points which should be included: sex, age, and the hour when the accident occurs. Commissioner Neill amended this by pointing out that the connection of fatigue with the accident could not be shown unless the hour of beginning work was also indicated. He suggested that the number of days at work on the machine should be given, as it seems probable that many accidents are due to lack of experience in using the machine causing the injury. L. W. Hatch, John R. Commons, Don D. Lescohier, L. W. Chaney, and J. B. Andrews were appointed a committee on uniform schedule.

THE WISCONSIN LEGISLATION OF 1911

WILLIAM M. LEISERSON

The Legislature which recently adjourned in Madison struck out many new paths in the legislative field. Controlled by the followers of Senator La Follette, urged forward by fourteen clever socialist politicians, this legislature has set marks in the progress toward better social and political conditions which must be gratifying to all the organizations and individuals who have been blazing the trail for our law-makers to follow. Progressive measures which have proved successful in other states have been copied with improvements wherever possible. And new experiments have been launched, the results of which are bound to affect the course of legislation in this country for many years.

For the social worker the act of greatest interest is, probably, that creating the Industrial Commission. Hitherto, to counteract each evil disclosed in our industrial life we have had to secure a new specific law. When fire-escapes were needed, or machines had to be guarded, laws were passed stating that fire-escapes should be built and guards provided. The Industrial Commission Law changes this; for it lays down the general rule that all places of employment must be safe and that every em-

ployer must furnish and use safety devices and safeguards "and shall do every other thing reasonably necessary to protect the life, health, safety, and welfare" of employes. Then it creates a commission of three to administer the law.

The Industrial Commission has jurisdiction over every place of employment, and is vested with power to ascertain and prescribe standards of safety, to order safeguards and safety devices, to fix reasonable standards for the construction, repair, and maintenance of places of employment, and to issue orders designed to protect the life, health, safety, and welfare of employes. Hereafter, instead of special laws being necessary, the commission will, after an investigation and a hearing, issue an order compelling the employer to install the proper safeguards.

The Industrial Commission succeeds the old Bureau of Labor Statistics, and is empowered to enforce all labor laws. It will have departments for factory inspection, arbitration, unemployment, statistics, child labor, and workmen's compensation.

The Workmen's Compensation Law avoids constitutional objections by making the plan optional. To induce employers to come under the act, however, the common law defenses of assumption of risk and negligence of a fellow-servant are removed. Employers of over 20,000 employes have already chosen to become subject to the compensation plan, and most of the others are merely waiting for the Supreme Court of the state to pass upon the law.

The scale of compensation is, (1) medical and surgical treatment free of charge to the injured employe, and (2) 65 per cent of the average weekly earnings, to begin on the eighth day after the injury and to last during the period of disability, but not longer than fifteen years. The total disability indemnity is limited to four years' wages. (3) In case of death the dependents are entitled to an amount equal to four years' wages of the deceased, to be paid in weekly instalments.

Following the example of Oregon and Illinois, the Legislature limited the hours of labor for women to ten per day and fifty-five per week. In case of night

work, only eight hours per night and forty-eight per week are permitted.

Wisconsin now takes its place with the states which limit the hours of labor for children to eight per day and forty-eight per week and prohibit night work. The child labor law was also strengthened by prohibiting children under eighteen from working in mines and in other dangerous employments, and by requiring that no child over fourteen who cannot read at sight and write simple English shall be permitted to be employed unless he is a regular attendant at a continuation or an evening school.

The Legislature recognized the supreme importance of vocational training and passed several important laws on this subject. A State Board of Industrial Education has been created, composed of three employers of labor, three wage-earners, the state superintendent of education, the dean of the Extension Division and the dean of the College of Engineering of the University of Wisconsin.

Every town of over 5,000 is ordered to create a local board of industrial education, and smaller places may do so. Whenever as many as twenty-five persons file a petition with a local board of industrial education that they desire to attend an industrial, commercial, continuation, or evening school, the board must provide facilities for such instruction. A tax rate of one half mill is authorized in each locality and the state will grant aid up to 50 per cent of what the local board spends.

Wherever industrial, commercial, continuation, or evening schools are established, all working children between the ages of fourteen and sixteen are required to attend them not less than five hours per week for six months in the year. The total time spent at work and in school shall not exceed eight per day or forty-eight per week.

An experiment that will be watched with interest is the State Board of Public Affairs. This board consists of the governor, secretary of state, chairman of the finance committees of the senate and of the assembly, and three other members appointed by the governor. Its life is limited to two years. This board is to employ experts to audit and install

accounting systems in all the state departments, in the University of Wisconsin, and in all public bodies such as boards, commissions, institutions, etc. It will be a bureau of economy and efficiency for the state. The board is also to investigate the resources of the state, and promote their development by encouraging farm- and home-ownership in the state, by investigating the cost of living and devising measures for its reduction, by co-operation, development of markets, etc. Finally, the board will eliminate waste by co-ordinating the work of the various state departments so that their investigations and reports will not be duplicating each other, and so that they will be conducted in an efficient manner.

Through the efforts of the Wisconsin Equity Society a law was passed to facilitate the organization of farmers' and wage-earners' co-operative associations. The scheme of co-operation is modelled after the Rochdale Plan, but 6 per cent profit on shares is permitted. No one may have more than \$1000 worth of stock, and but one vote is permitted to each stockholder. Dividends will be declared on purchases and on salaries and wages of employes.

A novel plan of government insurance was devised by the Wisconsin insurance commissioner and enacted into law. It provides that the state shall administer a "life fund" for the purpose of granting life insurance and annuities. The liability of the state is limited to the amount paid into the fund, so that the commonwealth merely acts as a sort of trustee. It is hoped that this will overcome constitutional objections. Premiums may be paid to any state depository, or to the treasurer of any city, village, or town, who will transmit them to the commissioner of insurance. Life policies in amounts of \$500 or multiples thereof will be granted to those between the ages of twenty and fifty who are approved by the State Board of Health and the insurance commissioner. Pensions of \$100 or multiples thereof, to begin at the age of sixty, may also be granted, and pensions may be taken without the life insurance. Loans may be granted on policies and any premiums not paid when due will be charged as loans. Pending a decision of

the courts on the constitutionality of this measure, the Insurance Department is developing the machinery for managing insurance funds by insuring all state and county buildings and property, which is clearly within the state's powers.

Beginning December 31, 1911, there will be levied a tax on all incomes earned by individuals, firms, co-partnerships, corporations, joint stock companies, and associations organized for profit. Individual incomes up to and including \$800 are exempt. So also are incomes of husband and wife up to \$1200; and for each child under the age of eighteen, as well as for each dependent, there is an additional exemption of \$200.

The rate of taxation is graduated, beginning with 1 per cent on the first \$1000, increasing $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 per cent with each \$1000 up to \$5000, then increasing $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 per cent up to \$12,000. Any income above this amount is taxed 6 per cent. The State Tax Commission will administer the law and assess all corporations. Individuals will be assessed by County Assessors of Incomes, under the supervision of the commission.

The income tax is designed to take the place of the personal property tax, which is a farce in most states. Any person who pays a personal property tax is to have this amount deducted from his income tax.

The legislature did not neglect conservation. An unpaid commission to investigate and recommend measures to conserve the natural resources of the state was created. Water-powers are declared to be public utilities and placed under the jurisdiction of the Railroad Commission. Franchises will be granted to companies desiring to build dams and use the water-powers, but the state reserves the right to manage, regulate, and control the power generated and the level and flow of the navigable waters. An annual appropriation of \$50,000 for five years is constituted into a Forestry Investment Fund, to be controlled and spent by the State Board of Forestry for the purchase of land as additions to the forest reserve and for reforestation. Similar to this is the State Highway Fund consisting of \$300,000 annually to be spent in improving the roads of the

state. A Highway Commission is created to administer this fund, to plan a systematic scheme of state roads, and to aid counties in building roads efficiently and make them fit in with the general plan.

The legislature passed resolutions to submit to the people constitutional amendments providing for woman suffrage, and for the initiative, referendum, and recall in state matters. The acts of municipal councils and county boards were made subject to the initiative and referendum, and 15 per cent of the electors may petition that an ordinance be passed by the council, or, if not passed, that it be submitted to a vote of the people.

A general incorporation law for cities of the second, third, and fourth class was passed, under which they may adopt a commission form of government. The plan provides for a commission of three, a mayor, and two other members, nominated and elected by the people for six-year terms. They are subject to the recall, however, on petition of 25 per cent of the voters. Ordinances are made subject to the referendum on petition of 15 per cent of the voters.

Self-government was conferred on cities by permitting them to amend their charters by initiative and referendum, and to call conventions to frame new charters and adopt them by vote of the people. Doubts have been expressed as to the validity of this law, since it delegates legislative power belonging to the state.

Besides these reforms a stringent Corrupt Practices Act was passed, and the Primary Election Law was amended to provide for a second choice in order to secure nominations by a majority.

WANTED: A CHILD TO ADOPT

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The nineteenth century has been called the age of science or scientific development. It looks as though the twentieth century would be called the age of the application of science. Not that we have not already had many applications of the

natural sciences to the arts; but we are now coming to apply the higher and more abstract sciences to the more difficult art of living.

The writer was recently asked to make an application of scientific facts to the problem of adopting a child. A friend sought advice about answering an advertisement asking for a home for a homeless child. This led to the question, Who are the homeless and neglected children? Why are they homeless? Why should any child be neglected? These questions ought to be satisfactorily answered, and the answer should be taken into account by my friend or by anyone thinking of taking a neglected child into his home.

We may imagine a person ignorant of the facts attempting to answer these questions somewhat as follows: These children are not orphans, else the advertisement would have mentioned the fact; they cannot be the children of well-to-do parents, because such parents would take care of their own; they cannot be children even that have relatives, such as uncles or aunts or grandparents, or even cousins, who are in comfortable circumstances, otherwise the family ties would lead to their taking care of their homeless and neglected relatives. It would seem then that they must be, in many cases, the children of profligate parents, children of families who are unable to maintain their footing in the community, or even provide for the necessities of life. And this is the condition not only of the parents, but also of the other relatives of the family. In other words, these children have no relatives who are sufficiently endowed with self-respect and intelligence to enable them to make a living for themselves, or to have interest enough to care for their own kin.

Now what bearing does this have upon the problems of furnishing homes for the homeless? What effect does it have upon me, supposing that I contemplate taking one of these children into my own household?

If some farmer should offer me a calf on condition that I should raise it and care for it, take it and treat it like one of the herd, I would be considered a very poor and careless farmer if I did not

inquire into the pedigree of that calf, and ascertain as far as possible what the likelihood was that it would be worth raising—whether it had sufficiently good ancestry to give at least a fair prospect of its developing into a good cow. Suppose, further, that I am interested in the welfare and success of dairy stock and that I have in my yard fine breeds of cattle; how much less would I take a calf into that herd whose pedigree I knew nothing about, and breed from that calf and mix in my herd the blood of this unknown. Still further, suppose there was a good reason to believe, indeed every reason to believe, that this calf was of bad stock, mongrel, poor, even diseased. No man that pretends to any knowledge of stock-raising would think for an instant of taking such a calf, raising it, and breeding from it.

Now it happens that some people are interested in the welfare and high development of the human race; but leaving aside those exceptional people, all fathers and mothers are interested in the welfare of their own families. The dearest thing to the parental heart is to have the children marry well and rear a noble family. How short-sighted is it then for such a family to take into its midst a child whose pedigree is absolutely unknown; or, where, if it were partially known, the probabilities are strong that it would show poor and diseased stock, and that if a marriage should take place between that individual and any member of the family the offspring would be degenerates.

Lest any reader should be disturbed through fear that we are preparing to attack the plan of finding homes for the homeless, let me hasten to say that such is not the intent, nor is it the logical or necessary outcome of the argument. But no cause, scientific or humane, ever prospers through ignoring the facts; and in view of the hundreds and thousands of children that are annually placed in good homes and brought up practically as members of the family, and in view of the further fact now coming to be understood that disease and mental deficiency and possibly crime are transmitted from parents to children, grandchildren, and even to the fourth genera-

tion, it is not only wise but humane for us to consider the fact and perhaps revise our practice.

As I write, a bright-looking, well-developed girl of about twenty has passed in front of my window. To the casual observer she is a normal child; but to us who have known her a year or more she is distinctly feeble-minded, with no power of self-control, no consistent plan or ideals of life, and without the protecting walls of the institution she would rapidly degenerate into a criminal or a prostitute.

There hangs on the wall in front of me the family history, the heredity chart of this girl. It includes 319 persons in her family, going back to the fifth generation. Of these 319 persons now known to us, 119 are, or were in life, feeble-minded. This girl has seven half-brothers and sisters, all feeble-minded. Their parents were feeble-minded, the grandparents were feeble-minded, and also two great-grandfathers, and two great-great-grandfathers.

When we began to inquire into the history of the other members of this family our first information said, "a half-brother and sister are placed out in good families." As we read that sentence there comes before our minds a picture. This picture includes what we know of these children, of this half-sister that we know intimately, of the mother whom we know, of the father whose history we know. And then we see these children placed in a good family, growing up perhaps with every comfort, possibly with luxury, being accepted as possibly a little dull, perhaps not good scholars, but otherwise considered normal, because these people with whom they are living are not experts in the detection of mental deficiency.

To assume the most favorable case possible, we will say that perhaps these children are so dull that neither the son nor the daughter of the family will be tempted to fall in love with them. But some person in the community will undoubtedly do so. History shows that these people nearly always marry, and some probably intelligent, respectable young man may fall in love with this girl, feeble-minded as she really is, and

marry her. This slightly defective boy will have no difficulty in finding some girl who will consent to share his life with him, and so there is laid the foundation for another race of mental defectives, perhaps worse than the present. This is no "bogie" that we are creating. Our statistics show that this is the thing that is happening every day in every section of our country. Shall we go on making possible the occurrence of such things?

Let me draw you another picture of actual facts, perhaps not worse than this, but certainly more appealing. I have before me a family chart of a girl normal in intelligence, bright, and attractive. Not even the experts can discover anything wrong with her. She has brothers, and a sister, also normal; altogether, it seems that the feeble-mindedness which is so evident in the mother has for some reason run out and come to an end, and that now we begin with these children a new race. Let us follow the possibilities in this case. As we have said, the mother is feeble-minded, her father was feeble-minded, with several brothers and sisters in like condition. But the mother dies, her family are already gone, and people rejoice that at last the hindrance, the taint in the family, has disappeared, and these children are left without any of it; it remains only to find them homes where they will be cared for until they are old enough to care for themselves, and all will be well. Accordingly, a home is found for this girl, in a well-to-do family with three children of their own, but philanthropically disposed, with ample means, glad to take this nice-looking child into their home and bring her up as one of their children. She grows up as one of the family, except that all know she is not their own child. She comes to young-womanhood, the son of the family falls in love with her, and there being no visible objection to a union, they are married. In due course of time a child is born and then another and another. As the years go by these children grow up and to the horror of all interested it is discovered that one or possibly two, possibly even three of them, are feeble-minded.

When it first becomes evident that the

children are not normal, the older people say, "Ah, well, the grandmother was wrong, the great-grandfather was wrong, it was a bad family." And so the old law so well expressed in holy writ that the condition of the father is visited upon the son to the third and fourth generation still holds and will always hold. In other words, the parents who took this child into their home and later allowed their own son to marry her might have known, had they taken the trouble to inquire, that the probabilities were strong that if children were born to that girl some of them at least would be feeble-minded. The fact that neither she nor any of her brothers and sisters showed mental defect was no evidence whatever that their posterity would be free from it. Indeed, statistics now clearly indicate a high probability that defectives will again appear in that line.

These are facts, and in view of these facts, ought we not to take some thought and care in this matter of finding homes for the homeless and neglected? We are now face to face with the question, "What ought we to do?"

In the first place, we ought to be honest, as I trust we are, although many of us can look back to the time when we were not. The writer knows of at least one institution whose policy used to be to place its girls out in families and conceal from those families the true character of the girls, even when it was known to the institution management. But we trust that that has passed by and that today we do at least acquaint such people with the facts as we know them. But we cannot stop here; we must use every means to learn *all* the facts before we place these children in the care of other unsuspecting fathers or mothers who are willing to take care of them and give them a home.

It means that the family history of every homeless and neglected child must be ascertained just as far as possible, and that no pains or expense be spared to get all the information that can possibly be had. Then the prospective foster-parents should have before them all the information that has been acquired in regard to these children, so that they may

guard not only their own children if they have them but other children from any alliances that are dangerous from a hereditary standpoint. If this results in such families refusing to take these children, then we must provide for them in colonies. Charitable organizations, even the state, can well afford to do this rather than run the risk of contaminating the race by the perpetuation of mental and moral deficiency.

The problem looks large and is large. It looks almost hopeless, but it is not hopeless. The fact that we may not see the solution is no excuse for continuing blindly to do wrong and injustice to thoughtless, well-meaning people, and even to the very homeless and defective child itself.

This is not the place to go further into the question of ways and means. Such can be found, and ought to be used. It is neither right nor wise for us to let our humanity, our pity and sympathy for the poor, homeless, and neglected child, drive us to do injustice to and commit a crime against those yet unborn.

BOOKS FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

LILLIAN BRANDT

Contributing Editor

FIVE BOOKS ON IMMIGRATION

IMMIGRANT RACES IN NORTH AMERICA. By Peter Roberts, Ph. D. Y. M. C. A. Press. New York, 1910. Pp. 109. Price 75 cents. By mail of THE SURVEY 81 cents.

GREEK IMMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES. By Henry Pratt Fairchild. Yale University Press. New Haven, 1911. Pp. 278. Price \$2.00 net. By mail of THE SURVEY, \$2.15.

THE ALIEN PROBLEM AND ITS REMEDY. By M. J. Landa. P. S. King & Son. London, 1911. Pp. 317. Price \$1.21. By mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.30.

NATIONALITIES AND SUBJECT RACES. Report of Conference held in Caxton Hall, Westminster, June 28th-30th, 1910. P. S. King & Son. London, 1911. Pp. 178. Price 85 cents. By mail of THE SURVEY 93 cents.

ENGLISH FOR ITALIANS. By Edith Waller. William R. Jenkins Co. New York, 1911. Pp. 297. By mail of THE SURVEY \$1.00.

An influx of foreign peoples into an established community is always a matter of great interest, especially when, as with us, the addi-

tions amount to about one million persons a year. Not only are the numbers great, but the nationalities are so numerous that a new Baedeker is needed for the puzzled citizen to find his way around among Huns, Poles, Slovaks, Letts, Lithuanians, Croatians, and the like.

Such a Baedeker is provided in Peter Roberts's *Immigrant Races in North America*, a little book of about a hundred pages, which attempts to give in the briefest compass the essential facts about our immigrants. The scheme of classification includes forty-one different peoples, thirty-seven of which are those given in the immigration reports. The remaining four are separated from some one or more of the thirty-seven. These peoples are then classified under "groups," which are in the main based on language rather than on race, and which in turn roughly correspond to the greater divisions of the European and Asiatic races. Mr. Roberts proceeds with descriptions under the group headings, twelve in number, giving for each an account of its composition, language, government, religion, and its part in the history of immigration, ending with a brief bibliography.

It is obvious that with so much to include in a limited space the portrait of each group has to be drawn with a few positive strokes, leaving out the delicate play of detail that gives the real physiognomy of a people, and the intensive analysis of its character that would enable intelligent and sympathetic dealing with them. It is not, for example, particularly enlightening to be told that "the Latin peoples are fond of display and in government they love system and bureaucratic form of administration."

The special section given to "government" and the stress laid upon the bare fact of political subjection to another people indicates that this condition is considered of importance in the story of immigration. But as no conclusions are drawn from it, one fails to see why valuable space is taken up with a circumstance which is not in obvious relation to the problem.

Again, the need for brevity is partly to blame for the statement that "the Celts have lost all self-government. The Irish, Scotch, Welsh, and Manx are subject to the British crown"—a saying to cause any Scotsman to raise up his voice in earnest and indignant protest!

The very bracketing of Scotch and Irish together in one "group" is a further example of the handicap of brevity. Because a scheme of classification based on language is used, the Irish, all of whom used to speak Gaelic and most of whom have forgotten it, and the Scotch, one-third of whom used to speak Gaelic while two-thirds are akin to the English both in language and race, are classed together, although in most important particulars, especially those which bear upon their character as immigrants, they are widely apart.

The book is illustrated with portraits of race types, some of which have appeared in

THE SURVEY, and with two interesting maps, one showing the centre of immigration of the different groups to North America, the other the religious faith of the emigrants, by geographical divisions. But from both of these, curiously enough, our great body of Hebrew immigration is missing.

No complaint can be made of lack of detail in the next book on our list which, in contrast to Mr. Roberts's 100 pages devoted to forty-one peoples, gives us 275 pages about one people, the Greeks, who make up only 2 per cent of our total immigration. Dr. Fairchild has apparently gathered all available facts, figures, and opinions on all phases of Greek life, in addition to the results of his own personal investigations, carried on in the home country itself as well as in all parts of the United States where Greeks or Greek colonies were to be found. He has covered, in this task, the physical environment in the home country; the national character, religion, and language; the economic conditions; the causes, sources, and means of emigration; the economic and social conditions of the Greeks in the United States; and, finally, the effects of immigration on the immigrants themselves, on the home country, and on the country of their adoption.

It is interesting to see, in the successive histories of immigration of different peoples, one story repeating itself in its main outlines; it almost seems possible to dispense with any more attempts at proof of tendency, and continue our immigration studies only to satisfy a pleasant curiosity as to minor divergencies of type.

In this story of the Greeks, we have the familiar tale of an agricultural people, stirred by a desire to rise to a higher economic level, making their way to a country of better opportunities. First comes the young able-bodied male laboring force, unmarried or leaving wives and children behind. They are mainly from the country districts, used to hard work, poor, illiterate, but in good health. Arriving in the new country, they are at first, through ignorance, subjected to industrial exploitation at the hands of "padroni" of their own race or otherwise. Wages are low, but the immigrants are thrifty, send money home, and are not found in undue proportion in the dependent or delinquent classes of the new country.

At first they regard the old country as "home." Little by little they learn the ways of the new country, secure greater industrial freedom, send for wives and children, and settle down as permanent citizens of the republic. The second generation shows some unfavorable symptoms, due to the process of change, but gets an education, and on the whole, rises in the social and industrial scale. By the time the third generation is reached we have such good Americans that they are not distinguishable from the native element, and are themselves keen for the exclusion of the "ignorant foreigner."

Interesting illustrations of contrast and sim-

ilarity to our own problem are shown in the next book, *The Alien Problem and Its Remedy*, by M. J. Landa. In this instance the country is England, and the "problem" the Jews.

This book is distinctly a bit of special pleading for the Jewish immigrants to England, written by one of their own faith. He has obviously made the most of all points in their favor, and the least of all the points against them. The book centers about the Aliens Act of 1905, giving an account of the agitation leading up to it, and discussing the methods of operation and the effects of the act itself.

The similarity with our problem lies in the general attitude of fear and hostility of the native toward the foreigner and in the actual advancement of the foreigner himself, belying these gloomy anticipations. Notwithstanding the one-sided view of the author, the facts he adduces seem to set forth the same story told in the history of immigration to the United States—only in more positive terms—that the foreigner finds a normal place in industry, that depression of wages and overcrowding are not primarily attributable to him, that he is not a pauper, not a criminal, that ignorance is soon overcome, and that comparative prosperity soon follow immigration.

In contrast with most other immigrants, the Jews, in the United States as in England, are city dwellers, accustomed to working at trades and not at agriculture. They naturally tend to settle in cities, but are less liable to the ills of city life than the peasant immigrants from Italy and Austria. This we are familiar with, but the points of contrast between conditions surrounding the same people in the two countries are novel and interesting when looked at in detail.

In the first place, note the difference in the extent of the problem. The United States, with a population of 90,000,000, receives about 1,000,000 immigrants a year, of whom perhaps 100,000 are Hebrews; Great Britain, with 42,000,000 people, welcomes annually only about 28,000 immigrants, nearly all of whom are Hebrews. This is the estimated net immigration of Hebrews, for a large proportion of the actual Hebrew arrivals are *en route* for the United States.

Of these immigrants, practically all settle in one district of London, which consequently has to take the consequences that would arise were a twenty-fold immigration distributed even as widely as in the United States, where there is the same tendency on the part of the Hebrews to congregate in cities. Another contrast is found in the different relative position of the immigrant to the native working population of the country to which he has come. The Jewish immigrant, whose standard of living on first arrival is obviously lower than that of the native laborer or of the earlier immigrant in the United States, and who has to be pleaded for on the ground of his potentialities for improvement, shows to absolute and immediate advantage in

comparison with the native British workman, whose wage scale is low, whose crime rate is high, and whose dependence on charitable aid has become a fixed habit.

On the administrative side, it is interesting to watch the English government struggling with an unaccustomed kind of law. The Aliens Act was the first attempt at any systematic exclusion of incoming peoples, and there were no practical precedents to follow in working out the detail of the act and its administration. Space forbids a transcript of even a few of the many strange complications that ensued from the enforcement of the act. One circumstance only may be mentioned: that there is no immigration station on shore where immigrants may be landed for examination. They must be examined on board the ship itself and detained there, if further inquiry is deemed necessary, until such inquiries are answered satisfactorily. The abuses such a system gives rise to are obvious. The detained immigrants are the unwelcome guests of the ships and liable to all sorts of abuse, including robbery and bodily violence. And finally, if inquiries are not answered satisfactorily by the time the ship is ready to sail on the return voyage, the immigrant has to go back with it.

Were one-half the things done in the Port of New York that are described by Mr. Landa as occurring in the Port of London the result would be riot and revolution. Furthermore, we should consider a law applying only to steerage passengers and to vessels carrying twenty passengers and over about as effective as trying to dip up water with a sieve, and hardly worth enforcing at all.

Another way in which different races come into relation is by colonization, when, instead of the weaker people coming to the country of the stronger, to prosper by rendering service to their new land, a stronger people goes to the country of a weaker race, to gain prosperity through command of the latter. The problem is the same at bottom, except that in the case of colonization the claim of the weaker is more distinct and the right of the stronger less justifiable.

This aspect of the problem is the one taken up in the report of the Conference on Nationalities and Subject Races, held in London June 28-30, 1910. This is not the so-called Races Congress held in London every year at about the same time, but had its origin in a committee formed at an international conference held at The Hague in 1907. It was called the Subject Races International Committee, and consisted of representatives of seven constituent societies, one of which was the Friends of Russian Freedom so well known in this country.

This conference took up in two sessions the cases of Egypt, India, Morocco, Finland, Persia, and Georgia. The third session was given over to Ireland and Poland; the fourth considered forced labor in its different forms of peonage, indenture, and slavery, and the

black race in general; and the fifth meeting was devoted to the discussion of remedies.

It is interesting to note, on glancing over the papers, that the subject races were pretty well divided between Great Britain, at one end of the scale of freedom and civilization, as we are accustomed to think, and Russia at the other. And the complaint of exploitation and oppression as voiced in the protests made was as bitter against the one as against the other. In fact, the parallel was definitely drawn; the claim was openly made that the worst horrors of Russian oppression could be paralleled under the British rule in India.

It would be unjust, however, to base definite conclusions on the contents of this volume; for the addresses are most of them not only made from an extreme partisan standpoint, but are so lacking in particularity as to give no adequate ground for judgment. Many of them indeed are no more than expressions, perhaps one would better say explosions, of resentment, injured pride, and the like. But some contain really valuable information, as, for instance, Sir Charles Dilke's paper on Forced and Indentured Labor, referring to labor conditions in South America. The entire report is well worth looking through, to give at least suggestions of other possibilities of fact and principle than those afforded by imperialism.

Last on this list of books dealing with the foreigner in some aspect is a set of lessons called *English for Italians*, by Edith Waller. Although the book is planned primarily for Italians, the method and material may easily be adapted to the use of foreigners of other nationalities. It is intended for adult pupils, and the aim has been to make it practical and interesting as well as simple, and to hold the interest of the pupils by variety of form and subject matter. A glance over the 114 lessons shows an early introduction of practical words and topics; but, although the present reviewer has of course no means of testing the actual efficiency in use of this book, the criticism comes to mind that there is perhaps a little too much grammatical instruction for the untrained student to grasp while trying to master a new vocabulary, and that the vocabulary itself might be made a little more directly practical at the beginning than it is.

KATE HOLLADAY CLAGHORN.

HOSPITAL. MANAGEMENT. By Charlotte A. Aikens. Philadelphia, 1911. W. B. Saunders Company. Price \$3.00. By mail of THE SURVEY, \$3.24.

The method chosen by the editor for the compilation of this very useful volume is exceedingly effective. The book consists of a series of articles, called chapters, each by a different author. The writers chosen are people of well known ability. Many of them will be recognized as at the head of their respective professions. Each chapter, except the first and the fifth, deals with a clear-cut, well-defined department of the subject and

each part is treated in a very practical manner.

The result is an able presentation of the whole subject which will be of particular value to boards of trustees, and to non-medical superintendents of large institutions which include a hospital department among their activities; while to the superintendent of a hospital, especially a new one—where the superintendent is also comparatively new—the volume is simply inestimable.

The first chapter is by Dr. Charles P. Emerson, which is equivalent to saying that it is readable as well as wise and practical. Its title is the *Hospital Field* and it gives some historical data as well as a resumé of the whole subject of hospitals and their management. It is of course much more general in its range than any of the other chapters.

Chapter five on a *General Hospital for One Hundred Patients* is by a hospital architect and an experienced superintendent in collaboration. It goes into the details of construction and general equipment in a complete and exhaustive manner. Plans of buildings are shown.

It seems invidious to single out chapters for special commendation when all are so good, but those on the *Board of Trustees and Their Responsibility*, the *Dietitian's Province and its Management*, and the *Annual Report* seem to deserve special comment.

The only serious defect is the omission of a chapter on *Hospital Social Service*. That important subject is treated in fifteen lines and the writer seems to think it includes nothing but material relief on the one hand, and the avoidance of pauperization, which might come from treating people without charge when they are able to pay, on the other. Some slight amends for this neglect are made in a fairly good bibliography on the subject, printed on the opposite page; and Dr. Emerson, in the opening chapter, devotes one full page to the same topic. When a second edition shall be called for, it would certainly be well to ask Dr. Emerson or Dr. Cabot or Ida Cannon to write a chapter on *Hospital Social Service*.

ALEXANDER JOHNSON.

YOUNG GAOL-BIRDS. By Charles E. B. Russell. Macmillan Company. New York, 1910. 236 pp. \$1.10 net. By mail of THE SURVEY \$1.20.

This book gives well-chosen life-stories of fourteen English boys, from fifteen to twenty-five years of age, with their environment in the Manchester slums tellingly sketched. It is frank and without sentimentality. Several were hopeless cases; only a few were rescued from the round of unemployment, followed by short jail sentences imposed alike for sleeping out or crime. Each is a convincing appeal for probation or an indeterminate sentence in a reformatory.

T. D. E.

THE STANDARD OF LIVING AMONG THE INDUSTRIAL PEOPLE OF AMERICA. Hart, Schaffner, and Marx Prize Essay. Houghton Mifflin Co. Boston, 1911. 196 pages. Price \$1.00 net. By mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.

Frank Hatch Streightoff's essay on the Standard of Living Among the Industrial People of America is a study of the various original investigations that have so far been made along this line. Among these the eighteenth annual report of the United States Commissioner of Labor (1901) inevitably occupies the most prominent position as being by far the most extensive study of the kind ever yet undertaken in the United States, and the only one which attempts to set forth conditions in the country as a whole; but the high value of Dr. Chapin's more recent and more intensive investigation of the Standard of Living in New York city (1909) is duly recognized, and other local studies are largely drawn upon.

The first four chapters consider the amount and sources of income, the distribution of expenditures, and the extent of unemployment among the classes included in the title, some striking estimates being quoted on the latter topic, and the subject of children and women in industry being briefly but effectively touched upon. There follow chapters on housing, food, and clothing, and the moral, psychological, and social, as well as the physical effects of too low a standard are dwelt upon. In the chapter on Thrift (which, by the way, is inserted in such a way as to interrupt the natural sequence between those which precede and follow it), there occurs an interesting discussion of the relative value and availability to the poor of savings banks, building and loan associations, and life insurance. The inferior purchasing power of the "poor man's dollar" as compared with the "rich man's dollar" is tellingly illustrated, while the entire study impresses the never trite lesson of the inestimably greater personal cost at which it is earned. Even though some attempt be made to calculate the loss to the community of the productiveness wasted by unemployment, or of the shortening of the industrial life of toilers by the physical and nervous strain of over-work, how shall any statistician measure the value of the vitality lost by lack of proper ventilation, warmth, nourishment, and medical attention, or the cost in morality and self-respect of bringing up a family in a degrading environment, or of the theory that it is "cheaper to move than to pay rent"?

After estimating the living wage for the country at large, with no allowance for savings and but little for recreation, as from \$600 to \$650 a year, and pointing out that at least five million workmen are receiving less than this wage for their labor, Mr. Streightoff devotes his concluding chapter to brief mention of a few of the more important suggestions in the direction of amelioration (omitting any allusion to the program of Socialism).

The bibliography is interesting, and gains in value from the care with which, after the rather elaborate classification necessitated by the breadth of the subject, the number of titles has been kept within bounds.

Mr. Streightoff has permitted himself but little original expression in the present essay, and it seems probable that some further direct research would increase his power of discrimination among the authorities from whom he quotes. There are occasional rather startling misstatements—for example, that on p. 130, "It is probable that at any given time more than half the tenement-house dwellers in New York city have tuberculosis"!—and the diction is not above criticism. On the whole, the book is an earnest and valuable study in a difficult field.

CAROLINE GOODYEAR.

THE TREND OF THINGS

The Library of the New York School of Philanthropy began on October 1 the regular publication of bibliographical bulletins on social subjects. The first bulletin, on Farm Colonies for Vagrants, contains a list of the best books and periodical articles on this subject, carefully selected and annotated. As the act for establishing a farm colony in New York has but recently been passed, the bibliography is most timely. Nor will it be of interest only in this state, for the problem is country-wide and other states are advocating such farms or have already established them. The library hopes to make the bulletin of real service to social workers, and suggestions for increasing its usefulness will be appreciated. The next bulletin will be on Vocational Guidance. Readers of THE SURVEY may have the bibliographies free every month by sending a request to the Library of the New York School of Philanthropy, 105 East 22d street, New York city.

* * *

The first report of the New York-New Jersey committee of the North American Civic League for Immigrants, which was organized in December, 1909, to carry on the plan of work outlined by the State Immigration Commission, covers a period of fifteen months.

The work of the committee has been along the lines of strengthening, unifying, and standardizing work already begun, developing new agencies, securing the passage of new laws, and studying conditions in various centers of immigration. Along the last line work has been begun in Rochester, and at the time that this report was issued arrangements had been made to begin studies in Buffalo and Brooklyn within the month.

For the protection of the immigrant on landing an immigrant guide and transfer service has been established at Ellis Island, police protection at this place has been increased threefold, and other means adopted for pre-

venting exploitation. Transportation of immigrants on lines going out of New York has been investigated and some abuses remedied. An attempt has been made to do away with fraudulent practices of notaries public, and the trial and removal from office of sixty-four of them has had a most salutary effect. A like attempt to prevent the charging of fraudulent fees by lawyers in deportation cases is already yielding results. The bringing together for purposes of enforcement, repeal, or amendment of the state laws affecting immigrants has been begun, and a broad and fruitful program of education of both adults and children has been planned, and on a small scale has been put in practice.

The offices of the committee are at 127 Madison avenue, New York.

* * *

"Why is it that, with a steady increase in the prosperity of most classes in the community, there has been no corresponding improvement in the position of the lower classes of labor?" This question is asked editorially in the September issue of the *Charity Organisation Review*, London, England. The answer given is as follows:

"We are tempted to reply that the C. O. S. will once more prove to have been right in its persistent teaching that you cannot improve the position of the wage-earners by subsidising wages; and that school feeding, distress committees, old age pensions, and *id genus omne* have had their natural and inevitable effect in depressing the wage-earning power and wages of the class which benefits by them. No doubt there are other considerations to be taken into account, but no interpretation of the facts would be complete without this one."

Another editorial in the same journal declares:

"For some time now pauperism in London has shown a marked tendency to rise, after the great diminution caused by the removal of the pauper disqualification under the Old Age Pensions Act. The figures vary a good deal from week to week, but the rate per 1000, which on June 17 was 22.3, and on July 15 22.4, had reached 22.8 on August 12. This represented an increase on the previous week of 1257 paupers, of whom 690 were indoor and 567 outdoor. On August 19 there was another rise to 22.9."

* * *

The *Exploitation of Pleasure*, by Michael M. Davis, Jr., published as a pamphlet (10 cents) by the Department of Child Hygiene of the Russell Sage Foundation, comprises in full the report first made by Mr. Davis for the New York Child Welfare Exhibit. It gives a compact review of the problem of commercial recreations in New York. Mr. Davis has pointed out how modern industry and the modern city have created home conditions which, for the mass of the people, are too crowded to permit recreation and enjoyable leisure within the home. He shows, in consequence, how the spontaneous and normal demand for recreation, because of

the utterly inadequate facilities provided by municipality and private philanthropy, finds expression in the patronage of those opportunities which commercial enterprise has so abundantly and ingeniously provided. He believes that a thoroughly democratic recreation policy should include legal regulation enforcing a minimum standard, and constructive action for increasing opportunities for recreation of a desirable sort.

For practical policies he suggests enforcing a standard of purity in candy, regulating dance halls and academies, teaching dancing in the public schools, extending the use of school buildings, providing meeting-rooms as a commercial venture in combination with dance halls or moving-picture shows. In regard to the theater he writes: "Offer in the standard theaters more plays, especially for children, and make these widely accessible; apply brains to vaudeville; improve the license and building laws; provide means for enforcing existing laws against immoral productions; utilize the recreative and educational possibilities of the motion picture; connect the educational system with the drama by dramatic presentations in the schools and by a positive censorship of the commercial theaters."

These conclusions as well as the spirit of the study will emphasize the reader's realization that the democratic solution, the only solution of such a problem as that of recreation in cities, must be through the large and impersonal processes of legislation and public enactment. However great the services of private agencies in standardizing or in providing recreational opportunities, they reach a pathetically small proportion of the people.

COMMUNICATIONS

GOOD SAMARITAN DOWN TO DATE

TO THE EDITOR:

The Good Samaritan has cared for the half-dead traveller on the Jericho road. And now what shall he do? For the Jericho road still exists and men are still travelling it.

In the parable the Master illustrates the meaning and duty of neighborliness and he makes it very plain that loving helpfulness is the essence of all religion and is more than burnt-offerings and orthodox professions. And now what shall the Good Samaritan do in view of the fact that there is a Jericho road and that many people travel that way?

Yesterday he built a hospital along that road and equipped it with trained nurses to care for all wounded travellers. It is a very beautiful and Christian work; but, alas, the supply of wounded travellers seems ever to increase. This the Good Samaritan did yesterday.

What is the Good Samaritan doing today? Today he is going up to Jerusalem and is calling upon the Jerusalem police to break up the nest of robbers that are waylaying and wounding travellers. It is no doubt a very

necessary and proper work; for the ruler is the deacon of God unto men for good; he is an avenger for wrath on them that do evil. But, alas, he finds that there is an ever new supply of robbers to waylay and hurt travelers.

What will the Good Samaritan do tomorrow? Tomorrow he will call a few of his friends together and will ask them some pointed questions. How did it come about, my brothers, that Jewish boys became thugs and cut-purses? Are we in any way to blame? Have we neglected these boys and permitted them to become highway robbers? Come, my brothers, let us see to it that in the future no boys in our neighborhood shall be permitted to become highway robbers. This the Good Samaritan will be doing tomorrow; and in so doing he will prove himself a neighbor indeed to all men and will show that he is a wise worker in society.

SAMUEL Z. BATTEN.

Des Moines.

DOUBTS END OF TUBERCULOSIS

TO THE EDITOR:

Your issue of August 19 contains an article by Christopher Easton entitled the End of Tuberculosis. The author will no doubt pardon those who decline to subscribe to his Utopian plan. It is not difficult to outline an ideal scheme and with that as a basis to build an argument which has the appearance of being logical. It seems to the writer that in future the discussion of this problem should be conducted upon a basis of fact. Millions of dollars have been expended. Sanatoria have been multiplied. Enlarged powers have been given to boards of health. Yet today we are almost ready to ask whether the results justify the expenditure.

The reason is not far to seek. Ideally extravagant unattainable results were promised which could not be realized. In order to hit the mark one must "aim a little above it"; but to shoot wide of the mark is evidence of poor marksmanship or of an idealistic enthusiasm which ignores basic conditions.

The so-called war upon tuberculosis has been conducted upon the assumption that if those already infected can be prevented from infecting others no more cases would develop. That habits of cleanliness aid in the suppression of disease and tend to the preservation of health is axiomatic; but that tubercular disease can be ended by such means alone or even made a negligible quantity by segregation or corporate control is but a delusive dream. It may be granted that without tubercle bacilli there can be no tuberculosis. Yet we do not know whence tubercle bacilli come nor by what avenue they gain entrance to the human body. Whether they enter by inhalation or by way of the stomach and bowels or by some means yet undetermined is a problem which awaits solution.

The philanthropic efforts of laymen have done much to prevent disease by improving the environment in which people live and by

educating them in the art of living in a healthful manner. The average individual, however, fails to realize that the general health is undermined, the physiological powers of resistance lowered, and the door thrown wide open to infection by many of the habits which obtain in daily life. Among these are overeating, worry, indigestible food, drinking, use of tobacco, sexual excesses, anger, loss of sleep, poor ventilation, exposure, the habit of taking unnecessary risks, and insufficient food. Indeed, if we exclude acute disease, the conclusion is irresistible that many of the ills of man are the direct result of his own ignorance, careless recklessness, scorn of self-control, and of his determination to have what he calls a good time at all hazards. Our hospitals, sanatoria, insane asylums, and jails all bear mute but eloquent witness to the truth that "whatsoever a man soweth that shall he also reap."

The bearing of all this upon the tuberculosis problem is evident when we remember that it is a disease incident to physical degeneration, that individuals whose powers of resistance are normal are immune. The measures already taken to care for the sick and to afford some degree of protection to the public were necessary, helpful, and possibly as successful as can reasonably be expected; but at best it has been an effort to control the manifestation of a degenerative process.

Until the problem is approached with a clear understanding that the bacilli are present because of a breach in the human wall, and that we are playing a losing game until the breach is closed, we can not expect to control, much less end, tuberculosis. "The physical improvement of the race and the conservation of the physiological forces of the individual" should be the war-cry. The surgeon wastes no time fighting bacilli beyond enforcing a proper sanitary environment. He closes the wound and keeps the bacilli out.

There is a large field for the teaching of sanitary science in the home and the inculcation of self-control. The activity along these lines should be persistent and aggressive and the result will be far more effectual in preventing tubercular disease than millions spent in segregation camps under corporate control.

JOSHUA L. BARTON, M.D.

New York.

JOTTINGS

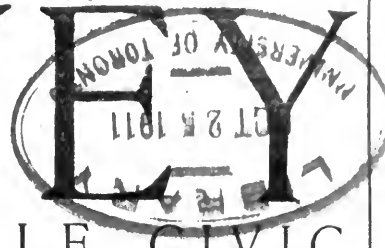
Roosevelt on Womanhood.—Under the joint auspices of the Civic Forum and the Metropolitan Child Labor Committee a meeting will be held at Carnegie Hall, Friday evening, October 20, at which ex-president Theodore Roosevelt will give an address on The Conservation of Womanhood and Childhood. The Metropolitan Child Labor Committee is an auxiliary of the New York Child Labor Committee. It is announced that Mr. Roosevelt, to whom an invitation to make this address was extended immediately after his African trip, will make no other public engagements for an indefinite time.

VOLUME XXVII, No. 3

WEEK OF OCT. 21, 1911

THE SURVEY

SOCIAL CHARITABLE CIVIC



By Mayer in the New York Times.

DR. WILEY AND HIS CRITICS.

The Human Roulette Wheel is a Coney Island institution—a revolving disk which hurls in all directions those who try to sit upon it. Mr. Mayer made use of it in what is perhaps the cleverest cartoon of the present phase of the agitation for pure food and pure drugs.

William Jay Schieffelin, who as a manufacturing chemist of national standing is a unique and strong figure in the campaign, puts some of the vigor he has shown as a civic reformer in New York into a plea in this issue of THE SURVEY for a National Department of Health. The Wiley case is his text.

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INFORMATION DESK

The following national bodies will gladly and freely supply information and advise reading on the subjects named by each and on related subjects. Members are kept closely in touch with the work which each organization is doing, but membership is not required of those seeking information. Correspondence is invited. Always enclose postage for reply. *Continued on next page.*

Child Labor

National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d St., New York. Owen K. Lovejoy, Sec'y. 25 State Branches. Where does your state stand? How can you help? List of pamphlets and reports free. Membership fee nominal.

Children

National Conference on the Education of Dependent, Backward, Truant, and Delinquent Children. Conference reports \$1 each, including membership in conference. Address Elmer L. Coffeen, Sec'y and Treas., Westboro, Mass.

National Health

Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Executive Secretary, Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York.

To unite all the government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

School Hygiene

American School Hygiene Association. Pres., David L. Edsall, M. D., Washington University; Sec'y., Thomas A. Storey, M. D., College of the City of New York, New York.

Yearly congresses and proceedings.

Working Women

National Women's Trade Union League, 127 N. Dearborn St., Chicago. Mrs. Raymond Robins, President.

Information gladly given. Official publication, *Life and Labor*, three months' subscription, 25c.

Prison Labor

National Committee on Prison Labor, 27 E. 22d St., N. Y. City. Thomas R. Slicer, Chn.; E. Stag Whitin, Ph.D., Gen. Sec.; R. Montgomery Schell, Treas. Prison labor conditions throughout the U. S. examined with recommendations for constructive reform. Pamphlets free to members. \$5 a year.

The Church and Social Service

The Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America operates through its Commission on the Church and Social Service.

For literature and service address the Secretary, Rev. Charles S. Macfarland, 215 Fourth Avenue (at 18th St.), New York.

Municipal Problems

National Municipal League, 703 North American Bldg., Philadelphia. William Dudley Foulke, Pres.; Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Sec'y. Charters, commission government, taxation, police, liquor, electoral reform, finances, accounting, efficiency, civic education, franchises, school extension.

Child Helping

Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, 105 East 22d St., New York.

Correspondence and printed matter relative to institutions for children, child placing, infant mortality, care of crippled children, Juvenile Courts, etc.

Recreation

Dept. of Child Hygiene of the Russell Sage Foundation, 400 Metropolitan Tower, New York City. Lee F. Hamner, Associate Director, Division of Recreation.

Research and the promotion of activities favorable to the physical and social welfare of young people.

Tuberculosis

National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d St., New York. Livingston Farrand, M. D., Exec. Sec'y. Reports, pamphlets, etc., will be sent upon request. Annual Transactions and other publications free to members.

Conservation of Vision

American Association for the Conservation of Vision, 25 West 39 St., New York. Ida B. Hiltz, Sec'y. To prevent blindness and impairment of vision from diseases, defects, accidents and abuse. Literature and exhibits. Ten state organizations. Membership \$1. Charter \$5.

Women in Industry

National Consumers' League, 105 East 22d St., New York. Mrs. Florence Kelley, Sec'y. Annual Report and other literature free.

Minimum wage boards, protection of women workers, pure food, sweatshops, etc.

Delinquents and Prison Reform

National Prisoners' Aid Society, 135 East 15th St., New York City. O. F. Lewis, Sec'y. Membership, \$1 annually, including monthly sixteen page magazine *The Review*, a digest of the field of delinquency. Parole, prisons, probation, vagrancy, farm colonies, prison labor, etc.

Studies in Social Christianity

October: Accidents and Dangerous Occupations.

November: Sanitation and Hygiene. See the lessons for classes and individuals in *The Gospel of the Kingdom*, published monthly by the American Institute of Social Service, 82 Bible House, New York city. Price 50c. per year. Social information supplied free.

Civic Improvement

AMERICAN CIVIC ASSOCIATION, Union Trust Building, Washington, D. C. J. Horace McFarland, Pres.; Richard B. Watrous, Sec'y. Parks; Recreation Centers; Billboard, Smoke and Fly Nuisances; Preservation of Scenic Wonders.

Playgrounds

Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Ave., New York City. Howard S. Braucher, Sec'y.

Play, playgrounds, public recreation. Monthly magazine, *The Playground*, \$2 a year.

Probation

National Probation Association. The Capitol, Albany, N. Y. Arthur W. Towne, Sec'y.

Advice and information; literature; directory of probation officers; annual conference. Membership, 50 cents a year.

Sex Hygiene

American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, 29-33 W. 42d St., New York. H. P. DeForest, Sec'y. 18 affiliated societies.

Report and leaflets free. Educational pamphlets, 10c each. *Journal of Social Diseases*, \$1 per year. Membership, annual dues \$2, includes all literature.

American Red Cross

WASHINGTON, D. C.

William H. Taft, President. National relief organization for great calamities; \$5,000,000 relief in last six years. First Aid Department. Full information on request. Annual Membership \$1.

Labor Legislation

Workmen's Compensation; Industrial Hygiene; Labor Laws.

Official publication: *American Labor Legislation Review*, sent free to members.

American Association for Labor Legislation, Metropolitan Tower, New York City. John B. Andrews, Secretary.

Remedial Loans

National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, 105 E. 22d St., N. Y. Arthur H. Ham.

Reports, pamphlets, and forms for societies free. Information regarding organization of remedial loan societies gladly given.

Short Ballot and Commission Government

The Short Ballot Organization, 383 Fourth Ave., New York City.

Woodrow Wilson, President; Richard S. Childs, Sec'y. National clearing house for information on these subjects. Pamphlets free. Publishers of *Beard's Loose-Leaf Digest of Short Ballot Charters*.

City Planning

National City Planning Conference, 19 Congress St., Boston, Mass.

Frederick Law Olmsted, President Flavel Shurtleff, Secretary

A Seminar for the Discussion of City Planning Problems Publishes Annual Proceedings Membership at \$5 a Year Includes All Literature

SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

THE FAMILY: THE PREVENTION OF DESTITUTION

Two books¹ bearing respectively the above titles, the first by Helen Bosanquet, the second by Sidney and Beatrice Webb, have appeared in England with an interval of five years between the dates of their publication. We trust that notwithstanding this interval and the apparent difference in their titles it will not seem fantastic to consider them together. After all five years is not a long time in the history of so ancient an institution as that of the family; and even the most confident of optimists, like the Webbs and *THE SURVEY*, must admit that five years may prove to be but as a day also in the series of campaigns which the abolition of poverty will require. Written from opposite points of view, the two books admirably supplement each other and serve as mutual correctives in the interpretation of the present English attitude towards social questions. The contrasts between them are perhaps the more striking and suggestive because the first was written before certain of the current issues which absorb the attention of the authors of the second had become acute.

Mrs. Bosanquet stands before her chosen subject in an attitude of acknowledged uncertainty and bewilderment. Modesty and reverence are the keynotes of her discussion. The baffling magnitude of the theme suggests to her that it is perhaps one more fit for a poet than for a sober prose writer. She takes comfort in the reflection that inadequacy after all need not mean failure, acknowledging that she has had nothing new to offer, but has merely called attention to a great fact which lies within the experience of every one. Very different is the attitude of the vigorous critics of the Poor Law in the campaign which they are waging for the prevention of destitution. There are people who would be glad to be as sure of anything as Mr. and Mrs. Webb appear to be about everything within the wide range of their discussion. They have a definite program and they leave us in no doubt as to what it is. Their confidence is superb; their courage equal to their confidence. They sweep to their conclusions with irresistible logic and with a thoroughness of preparation which would be exceedingly dangerous for any adversary who might rashly challenge either their facts or their reasoning. Every social worker may read and ponder with advantage Mrs. Bosanquet's subtle and sound analysis of the psychology of family life, which is preceded by a rapid sketch of the history of the family from the patriarchal and prehistoric type to that of the modern western world. She insists upon the unique place of the child in the family, where, even after he has become an ex-baby, he is still "never just one amongst the others as he is at school for the purposes of the teacher or in still later life as he is one amongst the others for the purposes of the census enumerator and tax collector." She has evidently no sympathy with the view of the "eminent writer" who declared that "schools are designed to curb and replace the evil influences of home." Realizing that the family may in individual instances fail to perform its natural function, Mrs. Bosanquet

¹*THE FAMILY*. By Helen Bosanquet. The Macmillan Company. London. 1906. Pp. 344. Price \$2.75. By mail of *THE SURVEY* \$2.90.

THE PREVENTION OF DESTITUTION. By Sidney and Beatrice Webb. Longmans Green and Company. London. 1911. Pp. 348. Price \$2.00. By mail of *THE SURVEY* \$2.20.

still holds that the "modern family is in no sense a weakened or degenerate form." Enfeebled phases have heretofore proved temporary and it may be hoped that they will again prove so. "Always the family has reasserted itself, at least in the next generation, and always it has proved itself the means of restored independence and prosperity."

In these last words we have the clearest statement of the idea which is set forth in the first of the books under review and tacitly if not openly repudiated in the second. Not that our militant reformers have any quarrel with the family as such; only they do not think of it as a means of restoring independence and prosperity. It is as a benevolent friend of the family that the authors of the *Prevention of Destitution* would calmly transfer many of its functions to the state or to the municipality. Sickness, child neglect, sweating, and unemployment are the particular causes of destitution with which they deal at length, and each of these is to be met by increased or reorganized state activity. As to sickness, for example, the authors, in their own italics, declare that "we ought to make, in each district, the directly elected local Health Authority . . . *definitely responsible for the prevention of sickness of every kind.*" The authors are emphasizing here the disadvantages and absurdity of the existing division of responsibility among various public agencies. Still, the authors will not charge us with misrepresentation in describing their remedies as inspired by a strong faith in the power of the state, operating through central and local organs, to prevent destitution by adopting radical and well devised policies to that end, and following up those policies with energy and intelligence.

Voluntary agencies are to be admitted to a participation in the task of relief and reform, but the responsibility is to rest neither upon them nor upon the family, but upon the state. The moral factor is by no means ignored in the program which is set before us, but it figures as an effect rather than as a cause. The policies advocated—control of disease, compulsory minimum of child nurture, minimum standard wage contract, industrial training of the unemployed with support for the family—are to have a beneficial effect on moral character as well as upon health and physical comfort.

The end which the reformers seek is not physical comfort for its own sake but strength, physical and moral. The policies which they advocate are not in the view of the authors paternalistic but democratic and scientific. The administration upon which they would rely to accomplish the work in hand would not be a bureaucracy, but a social service controlled by an aroused public opinion, developing professional standards and a fine esprit de corps.

We recommend the reading of *The Prevention of Destitution* quite as cordially as we have recommended the reading of *The Family*—not because there is any especial advantage in importing the current controversy over the reform of the English Poor Law, but because America also has her pressing social problems, different in intensity and in kind from those of England, but calling not only for the clear sighted, detached, and long range view of which Mrs. Bosanquet gives us so admirable an illustration; but also for the close range expert scrutiny, the mastery of detail, the uncompromising readiness to act promptly and vigorously when the case is made up, the courage of one's convictions, which have perhaps never been more completely exhibited than in Mr. and Mrs. Webb's campaign against destitution.

THE COMMON WELFARE

A WASHINGTON "YES" TO NEW YORK'S "NO"

The Supreme Court of a second state of the union has declared itself on the constitutionality of workmen's compensation. This decision was given by the highest bench of Washington on September 27, and is favorable. It is the result of a test case brought by a supply house against the state auditor to secure payment for a table furnished the Industrial Insurance Department. Judge Fullerton, who writes the opinion, states that in spite of their dissimilarity in form the principles embodied in the New York and the Washington acts are similar. He offers no direct criticism of the adverse decision rendered by the New York court last winter, but says that

notwithstanding the decision comes from the highest court of the first state of the union and is supported by a most persuasive argument, we have not been able to yield our consent to the views there taken.

The four grounds on which the constitutionality of the act was challenged were that it violates the constitutional provisions that no person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law; that no law shall be passed granting to any individual or class rights not belonging to all; that no individual shall be deprived of the right of jury trial and that all taxation shall be equal and uniform and based upon the money value of property. With the exception of this last objection, the arguments brought in the Washington case would apply to compulsory compensation equally with compulsory insurance. The first of these four considerations was, it will be remembered, the basis of the decision against the New York law. To offset the decision of the New York court the Washington court finds and quotes from

many statutes held constitutional by the courts where liability is created without fault and where the property of one person is taken to pay the obligations of another, with no compensation to the person whose property is thus taken.

Among these may be cited the Oklahoma Banking Law (Noble State Bank *vs.* Haskell) and the tax against owners of saloons to recompense for losses of property due to intoxication (Delfel *vs.* Hanson, 2 Wash. 194). The justification for such legislation Judge Fullerton finds in the police power, which he defines as the "power to govern," and he believes that the clause of the constitution quoted against the law cannot hold good against any regulation by this governing power which is reasonable and not arbitrary or capricious. The statute in question has to his mind this attribute of reasonableness—a reasonableness, it will be remembered, acknowledged by the New York court to be grounded on sound economic and moral principles—and should, he holds, therefore stand.

The police power also, the court holds, covers the second objection that the statute embodies class legislation. The limitations imposed on this power, says Judge Fullerton's opinion, allow of a wide discretion in this respect, one of its distinctive functions being to protect the community at large from certain businesses, for instance that of the rag-man, or to protect the workers in a business from the dangers inherent therein, by such regulations as the fixing of hours and the prescribing of safety regulations. Going further, he holds that the assigning of the funds collected for a definite class of workmen is entirely in conformity with many state and federal precedents held constitutional by the courts, such as the federal law that shipowners must contribute to a fund for a hospital for seamen, or the Kentucky law establishing a license fund for dogs, to be used to compensate sheep owners for the loss of their sheep.

With the same argument of the police power the third contention is met, the court holding that the employe may be obligated to accept the conditions of the statute even when they involve the withdrawal of the right of jury trial. Judge Fullerton acknowledges that there is no

direct judicial authority for this contention but holds that as the state may make it a condition of employment that a man may not be allowed to work more than ten hours a day, so it may force the acceptance of a fixed indemnity for accident as a condition of employment in a certain industry.

The final objection, that the insurance premium provided for by the Washington law is a tax and violates the constitutional provision that taxation shall be equal and uniform, the court meets by the argument that the imposition is not a tax in the ordinary sense of the word as no accession to the public revenue is authorized or aimed at. The fund is to be used not to meet the current expenses of government but to recompense employes for injuries sustained at work. It is in reality, the court holds, not a tax but a license fee, and the decision cites many federal and state decisions on analogous license laws to sustain its holding that such a fee is not inimical to either state or federal constitutions.

The Washington decision is unanimous, though Judge Chadwick in his concurring opinion feels that question of the right of jury trial should not have been decided in the abstract, but left to such time as some employer aggrieved at the operation of the law or some injured workman deprived of his right of jury trial brings a case which could pass for final hearing, on the federal questions involved, to the Supreme Court of the United States. With the conclusions of the court on the other three propositions Justice Chadwick agrees.

The brief for the Washington statute was prepared by George A. Lee and Harold Preston, of Seattle, attorney for the state liability commission which framed the law.

PAROLE ADVOCATED BY THE ATTORNEY GENERAL

Attorney General Wickersham was one of the chief speakers on the program of the American Prison Association in session this week in Omaha. Mr. Wickersham has been gathering statistics from the federal parole boards with

a view to making this an occasion for interpreting their significance and methods to the public. The chief prosecuting officer of the government is a thorough advocate of parole, and the experience under the federal law to date has been of a sort to sustain that position. Out of 207 federal prisoners paroled during the year ended June 30, 1911, but one has been returned to prison for violation of his parole.

The federal parole law was passed in 1910, and creates for each federal prison a parole board consisting of the superintendent of prisons of the Department of Justice, and of the warden and physician of such prison. The resolutions of the International Prison Congress last year endorsed a parole board made up of "at least one representative of the magistracy, at least one of the prison administration, and at least one of medical science." In Mr. Wickersham's opinion it is unwise to include prison officials as members of such a board, as it tends to disturb the relations between them and their prisoners. The provision of the statute that as a condition precedent to the granting of parole the prisoner's first friend must agree to employ or secure employment for him, and to report any lapse in conduct by the prisoner, the attorney general feels affords a powerful leverage to bring to the assistance of the prisoner while incarcerated all the influence and friendships which are usually denied him at the expiration of his sentence. The following facts epitomise the work reviewed by the attorney general:

On June 30, 1911, the federal parole boards had considered applications of 674 eligible prisoners. Paroles were recommended in 234 cases, and all but twenty-seven of these were approved by the attorney-general. Paroles were refused in 440 cases. Four prisoners refused paroles granted to them. Though this is the record of an incomplete year—for the system was not put into effective operation until the fall of 1910—reports made by paroled prisoners show that the aggregate sum of their earnings during that portion of the year remaining after their respective discharges was \$21,881.40.

Of the paroled prisoners, twenty-three were convicted of stealing from the United States mail; twenty-two of violations of the internal revenue laws; sixteen of counterfeiting; six for passing counterfeit money and one for



LOOKING DOWN THE NEW YORK BUDGET EXHIBIT.
Part of the display of the Board of Education.

having possession of counterfeit money; fifteen of embezzlement of National Bank funds; twelve of violations of national banking laws; ten for using the mails for fraudulent purposes; eight of manslaughter; four for embezzling money-order funds and four of larceny; three for each of the offenses of violation of the postal laws, obtaining money under false pretenses, defrauding the United States customs, selling liquor without a license, assault, and robbery; two for each of the offenses of bigamy, forgery, illicit distilling, and photographing United States money; and one each for each of the offenses of breaking into a post office, impersonating a United States officer, resisting arrest, wrongful conversion of post office funds, selling liquor to Indians, introducing liquor into the Indian Territory, rape, kidnapping, and mutilating United States coin.

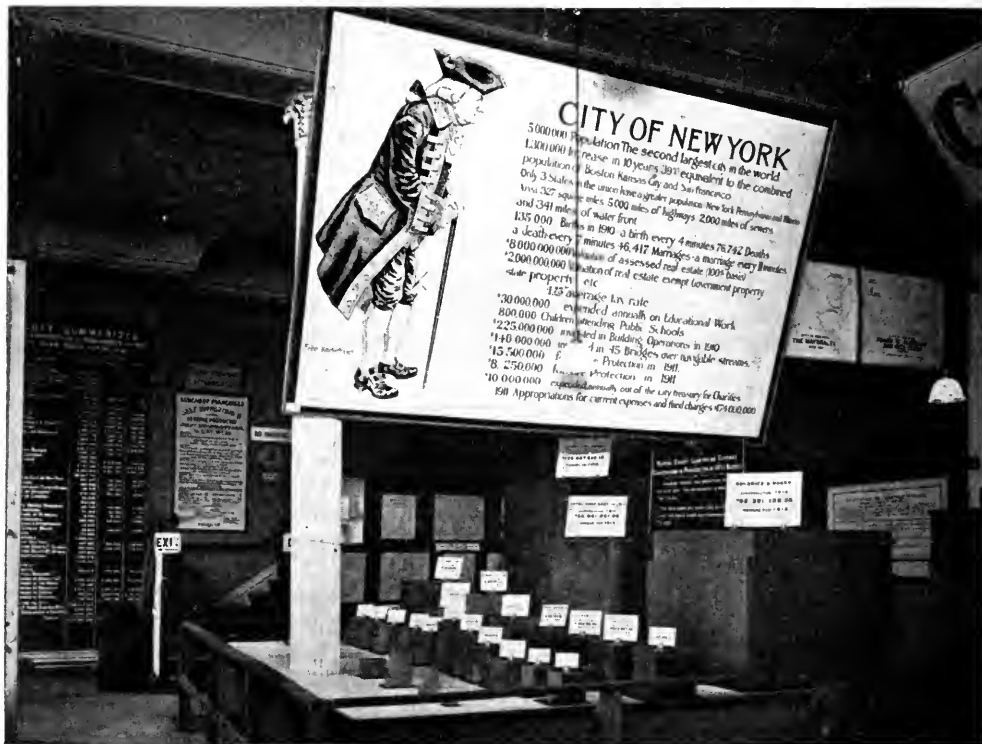
MUSEUM, CIRCUS, AND SCHOOLROOM IN ONE

Profiting by the experience gained last year, the city of New York is again trying by a graphic budget exhibit to satisfy the curiosity of citizens to know just what Father Knickerbocker gives to them in exchange for the tidy sum of \$174,000,000. For three weeks hundreds of thousands of men, women, and children, whose interest has been whetted by a campaign of advertising, have crowded the Tefft-Weller Building, 330 Broadway. The budget exhibit, which will continue throughout October, is interesting, illuminating, educating, and at the same time baffling, confusing, and bewildering, for New York is so vast an enterprise that this laboratory exhibit can but reflect its complexity. The exhibit has two elements, the spectacular and the statistical. It is a paradise for the sta-

tistician and not unlike a circus for the child, whose interest is keen in many of the practical exhibits of equipment, such as those of the police and fire departments.

At the entrance are eighty golden cubes, varying in shape and size, which represent the total amount allotted to each department this year, as well as the relation one departmental appropriation bears to another and to the whole budget. After these are passed, startling statistical tables and hundreds of photographs confront the eye from every angle. In a relatively small space information is marshalled in such a way that the eye may take in at a glance the expenditure of tens of millions of dollars. The displays of most of the departments are on the main floor. Upstairs is that of the Board of Education and in the basement are the bulkier exhibits of the fire, police, and street-cleaning departments. A number of bureaus occupy the same places that were allotted to them last year, so that those who went then feel a bit at home, especially as a few of the exhibits are the same.

As was true a year ago the uniform note of the entire show, for it is a show and a good one, is that every effort is being made to use money economically, but that larger sums could profitably be employed. Each department represented tries to show convincingly how necessary it is that it should have a much larger appropriation. The plea for more money is almost everywhere uppermost. But the citizen is now able to understand



FATHER KNICKERBOCKER TAKING ACCOUNT OF STOCK.
The entrance to the New York budget exhibit.

more easily than in former years the myriad necessary purposes for which tax money is spent, and under what varying conditions. Citizens are introduced to the wants of other citizens who live at a distance of twenty miles from them in totally different surroundings. An omission of the exhibit is the failure to show how the funds are raised as clearly as it explains how they are spent. The sources of revenue now used and those that might be employed are not explained, nor are the effects of the present methods of raising money, although a request was made that the Board of Estimate should consider the subject of revenue as well as expenditure.

THE CITY AS A SOCIAL WORKER

The social worker, although interested in the problems of all of the city departments, feels better acquainted with the work of a few which touch more closely that of the many private organi-

zations for social progress. The Department of Health, which is asking taxpayers for an increase in its budget for 1912 of 52 per cent, emphasizes the need for medical inspection of school children, for more funds with which to fight consumption, for better care of patients with contagious diseases, and for milk stations. In fact, one of the most striking displays in the whole exhibit is the model of a spick-and-span municipal milk station with a nurse in charge. For next year the department wants \$308,890 for seventy-three milk stations. This is an increase of \$269,290. The department as an argument for this increase shows that whereas the death rate of babies under one year of age for the whole city for the first nine months in 1910 was 142.3 per thousand, in 1911 as a result of increased effort it was but 124.6. Of the 3997 babies cared for in the municipal milk stations from April 22 to September 15, but eighty-five died—less than 2.2 per cent.



A MODEL MILK STATION.

The Board of Health wants seventy-three of these.

The Board of Education exhibits an interesting model of one of its 109 summer playgrounds. The Park Department for Manhattan also features its playgrounds and displays some of the equipment made by the children. Bellevue hospital explains in detail how it has cared for 2251 tuberculosis patients. The Tenement House Department, besides indicating some of the forms of dilapidated buildings that it has to guard against, as well as the sanitary evils it is fighting, gives copies of a few of the complaints it received. This department seems to be regarded as a paternal institution.

Dear Sir:—

Will you kindly inform what to do about a cat my neighbor will not keep in their own apartments—they turn it out at night—It comes in with the opening of doors of my apartment.—Anymore remarks on my part is likely to raise trouble and gurling (growling).

P. S.—It also eats out of my ice-box.

Yours respectfully,

Tenement House Department,
City of New York.

I want you to come and inspect the sink of our house. We have seen a snake come out of a hole and go in. The same thing was seen in the basement of the house.

Yours respectfully,

A popular exhibit is that of the Bureau of Weights and Measures, which shows some of the deceptive measures and weights found in its inspection of 60,000 stores. A striking showing is made by the Commission on Standardization which by new specifications for buying fresh meat in carcass form was able to reduce the meat bill in Bellevue and allied hospitals by 15 per cent. This economy will be duplicated in the health department, which has adopted the new system. In these specifications the commission followed the method employed by the Departments of Public Charities and Correction. This is but one instance of the kind of work the commission is doing.



WHERE HOUSEWIVES LEARN SELF-PROTECTION.

The exhibit of the Mayor's Bureau of Weights and Measures attracted many persons, both last year and this.

The police department shows, on a huge map, the position at night under the new system of stationary posts of every man in Manhattan. Among the realistic exhibits which almost make the visitor forget where he is are reproductions of a complaint desk at a police station, the corner of a public library, a dentistry clinic, a concrete fire-proof building, completely furnished with appliances both for preventing a fire and for sounding an alarm. Automatic sprinklers, standpipe attachments, buckets, axes, fire-hooks, extinguishers, metal doors, shutters, and even metal furniture are

part of the equipment of this sample fire-proof building. With the memory of the Asch fire still keen, this exhibit attracts many people.

A feature of the budget campaign this year has been the effort to interest churches, schools, colleges, and tax-payers' organizations to visit the exhibit. The principal of Washington Irving High School has sent his different classes under their various instructors of English, mathematics, etc., to see it. President Davis of Normal College expects practically all of his teachers and pupils to go in sections. President Lattimore

of Adelphi College, Brooklyn, has arranged for the students in civics to go with teachers. Steven's Institute of Technology, Hoboken, is to go in a body 400 strong, and Prof. Rowe of the University of Pennsylvania is bringing over several classes in public finance. The Y. M. C. A. School of Accountancy in Brooklyn and some of the other classes of the New York School of Accountancy and Finance are likewise studying this object lesson in municipal business.

Among other special groups to visit the exhibit have been ministers who wish to prepare sermons or references or bulletins regarding it, and a delegation of the Women's Municipal League. On Columbus Day 125 members of the Teachers' College course on school administration spent two hours at the exhibit under the guidance of Robert B. McIntyre, chairman of the Budget Exhibit Committee, and members of the Bureau of Municipal Research.

CITY ORDINANCES FOR FIRE TRAPS

That Boston is taking to heart the lesson of the Chelsea fire which destroyed the homes of tens of thousands of people is shown by the recommendations of radical changes which the committee on fire prevention of the Boston Chamber of Commerce makes after a year's investigation. The committee wishes to prevent a second holocaust which it believes is hovering over Boston; for in the Dorchester and Roxbury districts the continuous blocks of cheaply constructed "three-deckers" are dangerous fire hazards. The loss has thus far been very light, but the danger of a disaster which would sweep out blocks at a time is always present. To reduce this risk the committee recommends the enactment of city ordinances which will prohibit, within the city limits, buildings which constitute such great risks.

The committee insists that nothing but first-class, fire-proof buildings should be erected in the congested districts, and concludes that:

Even in our large cities where fire-proof buildings have become general, there are still in existence groups of buildings which on the

interior are largely constructed of wood. These so-called second-class buildings make possible a conflagration at any time. Such a holocaust as has been experienced by Elizabeth, Chelsea, Baltimore, San Francisco, Portland, and Bangor may be expected in Boston at any time.

The number of deaths due to fire is also out of all reasonable proportion in this country, over 6,000 people having lost their lives in one year. The loss of life in foreign countries is small. All rules and regulations which tend toward the reduction of fire waste will, of course, reduce this loss of life. Recent experiences in this country, particularly the fire of April 7, 1911, in New York city, show an utter disregard for law and reasonable conditions of safety.

To fix responsibility and insure publicity for every fire the committee recommends the organization of a fire bureau, the duty of which would be to determine the cause of every fire and to locate the responsibility in much the same manner as a coroner's jury investigates a death.

The bureau would also be charged with the duty of preparing and publishing regulations which would minimize the effects of carelessness, provide for safety of life, and for educating the public in the simpler facts and methods of fire protection.

To prevent carelessness or deliberate mismanagement it is recommended that a law be passed "regulating the issuing of fire insurance covering any building previous to approval by formal act of said fire bureau." Other recommendations are for the installation of a high-pressure fire service in the congested portions of the city and the adoption of motor apparatus. The preface of the report states that because of carelessness American municipalities lose \$250,000,000 worth of property a year—"a quarter as much as we build up."

Not less remarkable is the complacency with which the public views this destruction. Even though the seriousness is repeatedly brought to attention of the public by the daily press and by reports of insurance organizations, the average citizen seems well content to let things go as they are, without making any move toward improvement.

The money loss by no means represents the real cost of fire. The consequential loss due to sacrifice of lives, damage to business and homes, interruption of employment for many persons, and to general derangement of civic functions is so large that one dare not try to estimate it.

The comparison of per capita losses in this country and Europe—\$2.50 in the United States, 33 cents in Europe—is so startling that

it suggests a study of the relative conditions to see if the methods which prevail in foreign countries could be introduced here. An investigation of foreign conditions as compared with those in this country brings out that:

The building construction is much better on the average, and in some cities practically all buildings are of fire-proof construction.

Building laws are rigidly enforced, and frequent inspections are made.

A well organized fire marshall system exists in practically every city and the causes of all fires are investigated. A fire is considered a crime and the guilty punished, resulting in much greater individual responsibility.

The fire departments in foreign countries are certainly no better than ours and probably on the average are not as good. The preventive measures mentioned above are the fundamental reasons for freedom from fire waste.

ST. LOUIS WORKHOUSE IS SCORED BY REPORT

The Social Service Committee of the Civic League has just issued its report on the St. Louis workhouse. It recommends the prevention of vermin, the improvement of food, the doing away with the dungeon, the establishment of a night school, better classification, and better hospital advantages. The removal of the institution to a farm is urged. In common with petty magistrates throughout the country, the St. Louis judges impose fines with the option of the convicted person's going to jail if he cannot pay. Of this system the report says:

The most conspicuous unfairness of this system is found in the imprisonment of men for the non-payment of fines. In imposing a fine, instead of a term sentence, the court says that the offender ought not to be sent to prison. But in spite of that, he is committed, not because the court thought that a proper punishment, but because he is too poor to pay his debt to the state at a moment's notice. The private citizen can no longer collect his debts by imprisoning his debtor, but the state does it, compels him to associate with the worst of men, and turns him out with the stigma of "jail-bird."

If imprisonment were necessary it might be condoned, but it has been proved that by putting a man on probation, giving him time to earn and pay his fine, the court gets far more money than the prison collects. The public now pays for his commitment, supports the prisoner for a time, and does not get the fine. The prisoner is also prevented from working and supporting his family.

The system discriminates between the well-to-do and the poor. The former escapes imprisonment by the payment of a few dollars; the latter is punished for being poor.

NEW SOCIAL PROGRAM FOR ITALIAN CITIES

The recently organized *Associazione Italiana di Liberi Credenti* has established headquarters at 44 Via Margherita, Florence with Signor Gaetano Conte as general secretary. There are branches in Venice, Milan, and Palermo, and the work is under way in Florence, Bologna, and Rome. Signor Conte was for many years a valued member of Boston's group of social workers. Some time ago he returned to Italy and has been pastor of Methodist churches in Palermo and Venice. Certain urgent social needs of the country led to the organization of this society. Its leading purposes are stated as:

1. Civic and moral training in the public schools.
2. Increased effectiveness in and access to the public libraries.
3. Participation by the people in law-making.
4. Hygiene a concern of school and church.
5. More social work and less controversial discussion in the churches.
6. The administration of public charity on a scientific basis.
7. Opposition to the lottery, unsanitary housing, and other sources of immorality.

EDITORIAL GRIST

THE NATION'S HEALTH

WM. JAY SCHIEFFELIN

More and more intelligent interest is centering on the subject of the nation's health. The number of articles appearing in the newspapers and the magazines and the practically unanimous approval of the president's action in supporting Dr. Harvey W. Wiley are proof of the growing importance of this question. The endeavor to oust Dr. Wiley had such an absolutely opposite effect that those who promoted it are left in a ludicrous position. Everybody knows that he is honest; and the president as well as the people would not tolerate an attempt to force his resignation on ac-

count of a technical charge which insinuated that he had connived at improper salary arrangements.

Few crimes are meaner than the adulteration of foods or drugs, and the evidence that Dr. Wiley had been hampered in his efforts to bring many cases to trial justly aroused intense indignation. This conspiracy against Dr. Wiley has again brought into prominence the question: Why should these important health matters be under the control of the Department of Agriculture?

One of the most important measures now pending in Congress is the proposition to establish a national Department of Health. It has been computed that sickness and death cost this nation \$3,000,000,000 annually, if the value of the labor lost is capitalized. In the United States every year there are 1,300,000 deaths, of which 630,000, according to reliable authorities, are due to preventable causes. For many years our national government has expended an enormous amount of money annually in ascertaining and telling the farmers how to prevent diseases among hogs, cattle, and other animals. This is entirely proper, because it helps to conserve the material resources of the nation; but owing to the lack of necessary legislation, the government has not done nearly as much towards the conservation of human life. It has been said that the United States is the laughing-stock of Europe because of the fact that its health agencies are distributed among the Treasury Department, the Department of Agriculture, and other departments, while its people are dying from preventable causes at the rate of one every minute. This is a deplorable situation which the various states are unable to control; but if we had a Department of Health with the tremendous facilities of the national government at its command, it could gather and disseminate among the people information which would result in greatly improving their health and in largely reducing the death rate. Leading insurance companies are now making active efforts to prevent disease among their policy-holders, because they realize that it helps their business to prolong life as far as possible. The most valuable asset

of any nation is the health of its people, and there can be no more effective method of conserving human life than the spread of sanitary knowledge by the Department of Health of our national government.

It is a satire on our civilization that so much blind opposition should be offered to this attempt to conserve the lives of the people. Nobody suggested or intended that the measure to unite the government health agencies and to spread sanitary knowledge throughout the whole country would mean a campaign against the Christian Scientists and others.

Their apprehension almost amounts to an admission of a guilty conscience, but their zeal has evidently supplied a large fund for lobbying purposes and newspaper advertising, which has not been without its effect in delaying action by Congress; but now the tide has set in the direction of this reform, and there appears to be every probability at the next session of Congress the bill for the establishment of the Department of Health will be enacted. When this is brought about, it will be largely due to the character and the fighting ability of Harvey W. Wiley.

CHILD LABOR CAMPAIGN IN THE SOUTH

A. J. McKELWAY

With the adjournment of the Georgia Legislature, the legislative campaign for better protection of working children in the southern states ended for this year. It may be of interest to friends of the children to note the progress made in spite of opposition by employers. John P. Hollis, agent of the National Child Labor Committee, was in charge of campaigns in North and South Carolina. In North Carolina, the cotton manufacturers appeared before the legislative committee in opposition to any strengthening of the law. The committees in the House and Senate were, as usually in recent years, in favor of the manufacturing interests. The child labor bill advocated by the State Child Labor Committee was reported unfavorably. The only gain was the passage of the bill fixing a sixty-hour

week instead of the sixty-six hour week heretofore allowed in North Carolina. This shortens each working day one hour, though the sixty-hour week is to be distinguished from the ten-hour day. The sixty-hour week in cotton factories means generally an eleven-hour day for the five days, with a half-holiday on Saturday.

In South Carolina, manufacturers seem to have grown chary of opposing child labor legislation in the open. They have been hammered long enough to become a little sensitive to public opinion, and their attack this year was made before the State Child Labor Committee. The committee had agreed upon a program embracing a fourteen-year age limit. But upon threats of the cotton manufacturers that they would oppose any child labor legislation, unless this program was abandoned, an agreement was made to eliminate children under twelve years of age, who have heretofore been employed in South Carolina during vacation, or if they happened to be the children of dependent parents. A sixteen-year age limit was agreed upon for night work, and the certificate plan was changed to the end of greater effectiveness. These provisions take effect January 1, 1912. Governor Blease, however, vetoed the items of the appropriation bill providing for the salaries of two factory inspectors. We understand, however, that they are continuing their work by an arrangement made by Commissioner Watson, and it is hoped that the next Legislature will make ample provision for them, even if it has to over-ride the governor's veto.

In Florida, the child labor bill raising the age limit to fourteen years was defeated, and a bill for the creation of a bureau of labor passed one house and died upon the calendar in the other through want of time to reach it. The chief opponent of these bills was John G. Ruge of Apalachicola, Fla., who is interested in the employment of very young children in the oyster canneries of the gulf coast as well as in the cotton mills of Georgia. If we mistake not, the people of Florida are tiring of Mr. Ruge's attitude, and his appeals to ignorance and prejudice have probably reached the end of their effectiveness.

The child labor bill in Tennessee was introduced just before the emigration of a part of the membership of the Legislature to Alabama to prevent a quorum. During the interim, the Supreme Court of Tennessee declared the child labor law unconstitutional on technical grounds, the statute raising the age limit from twelve to fourteen years being held to be broader than the title of the act. When a quorum was finally established, effective representations were made for the enactment of a better child labor law. The cotton manufacturers had agreed to the passage of this bill before the Supreme Court rendered its decision, and the bill passed by a practically unanimous vote, being perhaps the only measure on which all of the political factions in Tennessee united. It fixes a fourteen-year age limit for factories and workshops, and for children employed in carrying of merchandise or messages; a fourteen-year limit for all occupations except agricultural and domestic service during the school term; a sixteen-year limit for dangerous occupations; and an eighteen-year age limit for the night messenger service. During the same session the factory inspection law was changed to secure greater efficiency, the salary of the factory inspector increased from \$1200 to \$1500, and a reasonable appropriation made for traveling and office expenses.

Partly on account of the heated controversy over the repeal of the state prohibition law, the only progress made in Alabama was the addition of an assistant to the office of the factory inspector and the securing of a larger appropriation. The child labor bill was not reached on the calendar, and the Alabama law will therefore remain unchanged for four years, unless there is an extra session of the Legislature.

A joint committee was formed in Texas in the interest of child labor legislation. It was composed of a committee from the labor unions, one from the women's clubs, and one from the State Charities Association. An enlightened child labor bill was introduced, but it was torn to pieces in the Legislature, the only thing that remained being the fifteen-year age limit for the employment of children in factories, and in dangerous

and immoral occupations. The new commissioner of labor seems earnest in his efforts to enforce the law, and the friends of the children in Texas are doubly resolved that the next Legislature shall enact a standard child labor law.

In Arkansas, the State Child Labor Committee agreed upon an excellent program of child labor legislation, but their efforts were unsuccessful. A good juvenile court law was secured, however, and the number of counties included under the new compulsory education law was increased from one-third to two-thirds of the number in the state. Of course this provision affects the working children in these counties, and may be considered a substantial gain in the matter of their protection.

The action of these states left Georgia occupying a bad eminence as the only commonwealth allowing children under twelve years to work in factories, and the only state with a sixty-six hour week for children. Three bills were introduced in the Georgia Legislature to do away with this disgraceful state of things; a child labor bill approximating the standard child labor law; a bill to reduce the hours of labor for workers in cotton and woolen mills from sixty-six a week to ten hours a day (House bill) or to a sixty-hour week (Senate bill); and a bill providing for a department of labor with a commissioner and assistant commissioner, with full powers for inspecting factories and enforcing laws for the protection of working women and children. All three were reported favorably by the House Committee. The Department of Labor Bill passed the House by an overwhelming vote, and the bill providing for a ten-hour day for workers in cotton and woolen mills passed the same body by a vote of 128 to 40. On account of a prolonged filibuster against an amendment to the state prohibition law, the child labor bill was not reached in the House. The cotton manufacturers at first opposed all legislation and employed two former members of the legislature, lawyers, as lobbyists. The passage of the ten-hour day bill in the House, which would have virtually diminished the hours of labor by two a day, alarmed the cotton manufacturers. They thereupon circulated

petitions among their employes, asking for the sixty-hour week, but protesting against the ten-hour day, on the ground that it would mean too serious a cut in their wages. A meeting of the Georgia Industrial Association was called, and some eighty manufacturers attended, presenting themselves the same afternoon before the two committees in the Senate to which had been referred the Department of Labor bill and the hours of labor bills. The bill reducing the hours from sixty-six to sixty was virtually agreed upon in the Senate. Representative Tarver, who comes from a cotton-mill town, was disposed to resist the Senate measure, but finally recognizing that in the closing hours of the session both measures might be lost, he agreed to the Senate bill and it passed the House without amendment. It does not take effect until January 1, and employes, by additional hours, are allowed to make up lost time, not to exceed ten days.

There was a still more desperate struggle over the bill providing for a department of labor. The two lawyers in the employ of the cotton-mill men devoted their whole time to work upon the Senate. Finally, after a dreary and driveling debate, so far as the opposition was concerned, it passed the Senate by a majority of one, and was later accepted by the House. Farm labor, including work on the turpentine farms, and saw-mill labor were exempted from the supervision of the department. An amendment to exempt the cotton and woolen mills from supervision by a department mainly designed to enforce the child labor law was barely defeated by a vote of 22 to 18! Another amendment, which originated in the Senate, makes the office of commissioner elective instead of appointive, and this will give the cotton manufacturers the opportunity to control the election of some one devoted to the interests of the employers, as has so long been the case in Pennsylvania.

However, the department has now been created and provision made for the enforcement of whatever laws we have or may hereafter have in Georgia for the protection of working women and children. The Hours of Labor Act is an amendment to the code of Georgia. The

old code provided that no minor child should be employed except between the hours of sunrise and sunset. This still holds good for other manufacturing enterprises, but, with the growth of the cotton and woolen industry, exception was made for the cotton and woolen mills, allowing a sixty-six hour week. It would be interesting to have a test made of the new Georgia law. It applies to all the employes of cotton and woolen mills. The report of the Bureau of Labor shows that 55 per cent of these employes are women, or boys and girls under sixteen years of age. It would be interesting to know whether the Supreme Court would apply the principle of amendment XIV, as to the right of contract of adult males, to an industry employing such a large proportion of women and children. In the fight for the hours of labor bill before the Senate committee, the calamity howls of the cotton manufacturers were discounted in advance by the quotations from the speeches the same gentlemen made in 1905 and 1906 when the Georgia child labor law was in process of enactment. Jack Spalding referred to the child labor bill then as "a line of legislation that the manufacturers know from experience means ruin to this state as it has meant ruin to other states."

Mr. Kincaid, another manufacturer, said that the passage of the bill would be "one of the most harmful things ever done by the state of Georgia. . . . The passage of this bill would do more harm than all the bills passed since the war. I have been to New England and know the conditions there, I know how these laws have hurt them, and if you want to ruin Georgia, just adopt the same kind of laws that they have got there."

Dr. Jeff Davis, president of the Georgia Industrial Association, published a letter July 6, 1906, saying of the child labor bill: "There are now about 300,000 spindles standing idle in Georgia for the want of laborers, and the enforcement of this bill will stop the hum of another 300,000, if not more."

Dr. Turner, late president of the Exposition Mills of Atlanta, said, "The fourth section will make us stop the mills and send the children to school."

Ex-Senator Hand, a member of the

Georgia Senate in 1906, brought out the information that by stopping 300,000 spindles there would be a reduction in the consumption of cotton amounting to 150,000 bales. Ex-Senator Hand appeared again in opposition to the hours of labor bill at this session of the Legislature. But it was common knowledge that the Southern cotton mills are not now suffering from scarcity of labor. Some of them have shut down for a time, some have gone into bankruptcy, others are being absorbed by a combination which may soon assume the proportions of a trust, many are running on short time, three or four days a week. But the trouble now is over-production of the coarse goods which are made almost exclusively in the South. The increase by the million of new spindles in England and the building of 108 large, well-equipped mills in Japan last year are factors of the situation which cannot be ignored, since, with the ever broadening demand for cotton goods, the mills of England and Japan are crowding the Southern cheaply-made and child-made goods out of the Oriental markets; at the same time the demand for cotton has kept up the price of raw material, so that the margin of profit has been small, even for the protected home market. For these reasons this is the time when restrictions concerning the employment of labor that is not needed could be made with the least injury. But the cotton manufacturers really seem to be in a panic concerning their present situation, and are averse to any restrictive legislation.

The debate in favor of continuing the inhuman schedule of hours of the former Georgia law would hardly be of interest to readers of THE SURVEY. The argument of Senator Hand that the cotton-mill operatives could work longer hours in the South than in the North because the New England climate is a great deal more enervating than the Southern climate is, however, worth quotation. This was received as a sober statement of fact, and the committee solemnly agreed that the eleven-hour day instead of the ten-hour was the proper working period for ten- and twelve-year old children in Georgia.

CIVICS

HELPING THE PUBLIC UNDERSTAND THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

WILLIAM H. ALLEN

Director Bureau of Municipal Research, New York City

So characteristic of the present year are school inquiries that 1911 is certain to go down in history as marking a change in the attitude of American educators toward their working material — their pupils and their publics. The nearly 20,000,000 children



TESTED COWS NEAR PACIFIC, MO.

This is a portion of the herd which supplies dairy products exclusively to the high school lunch-rooms in St. Louis.

registered this fall in public, parochial, and private schools will be studied, understood, and helped as never before.

Montclair, a city of 20,000, has just published the important results of a four days' study by Prof. Paul H. Hanus, now in charge of the comprehensive inquiry by the board of estimate into New York city's school system. The National Bureau of Education has made public the results of a month's study of Baltimore's schools by Dr. Elmer E. Brown, former United States commissioner of education, Prof. Ellwood P. Cubberley of the University of California, and Calvin N. Kendall, formerly of Indianapolis, and now state superintendent of New Jersey.

Special reports on investigations of the business management of the Cleveland and St. Louis schools will soon be published, and there are available a number of important documents dealing with the all-year school, intermediate school, school mortality, shorter course, emphasis upon the three R's, etc., by Superintendent Elson of Cleveland and his colleague, Dr. Frank P. Bachman, now assisting with the New York inquiry. State Commissioner Howell Cheney, a manufacturer profiting from efficiency tests, has set the machinery of a number of Connecticut cities toward self-analysis and has published some valuable bulletins. So marked is this tendency to find out what, the where, the why, and the way out, that even Rochester, famed far and wide for its efficient small paid board, is beginning to compare its school results with

its opportunity. A southern school man advertises help to school boards on an engraved card that reads "Consulting educationist."

This contagion of auto-inquiry attacked even the insurgent-swept National Education Association at

San Francisco, and it appropriated no less than \$6,000 for several school inquiries.

While it is easier to watch the actions of school men at a national convention or in broadly advertised inquiries in the larger cities, even greater importance must attach to the serious continuous study of their own schools by scores of superintendents in small and large cities.

Superintendent Frank E. Spaulding, of Newton, Mass., says:

"In several conspicuous cities those charged with the investigation of the educational department have not been connected with the school system in question, in fact have been comparative strangers to it. Before resorting, however, to such outside aid, it would seem to be the part of wisdom to answer ourselves such questions as are bound to be raised regarding the amounts of various expenditures and the reasons for each; if our answers are unenlightening, unsatisfactory, and unconvincing, then we may well turn to others for assistance."

Thus for the first time in the history of educational discussions in the United States we are getting a democratic basis for consideration of school problems, where the able man with a small school can, by reporting facts as to retardation, physical examination, or amendment of curriculum, earn higher rank as an educator than the superintendent of a large city school system who neither seeks nor admits the truth.

The layman who has not tried to learn which children fail of promotion will be surprised when told that in all probability his



IRRIGATION AT PARENTAL SCHOOL, SPOKANE, WASH.

edies at teachers' meetings; vacation catch-up classes; special reports by teachers on doubtful pupils and conference with their parents as to the meaning of failure; better enforcement of the compulsory attendance law, with special reference to catching the incipient case (the child after the first absence or two), instead of the chronic case of truancy.

Studying school problems from the standpoint of the child has been prompted by the wholesale adoption of examination for physical defects. Because the first experiments in removing adenoids and eye troubles

school superintendent has no idea what proportion of the children in each grade are not promoted and the probable reasons. If you will look at your school report, you will probably find that the total number of children on the rolls during the year is put in one column, and the total not promoted, if given at all, in another, and that is all you are told. Possibly instead of the total registered you are given some "mythical average number belonging," or "average attendance." The study of retardation which is now sweeping the country finds out the *total number of possibilities of promotion* after subtracting the deaths, removals from the city, etc. When, in this manner, the non-promotions are obtained, investigators try to learn the relation of physical defects to non-promotions, how many children are over age for their class or under age, how many have failed once only or twice or more than twice, and perhaps in what subjects and with what teachers failures are highest.

Among the causes of non-promotion the study of children has brought out the following:

Illness; absence due to illness; absence due to truancy; late entrance; changing school; foreign parentage; physical defects; mental defects; immaturity; slow development; home conditions; neglect; home work; inattention; cigarettes; nervousness; laziness; lack of general ability; inefficient teaching."

Finding causes soon leads to remedies such as:

Special night and day study-rooms for children whose home conditions do not permit study; thorough canvass of causes and rem-

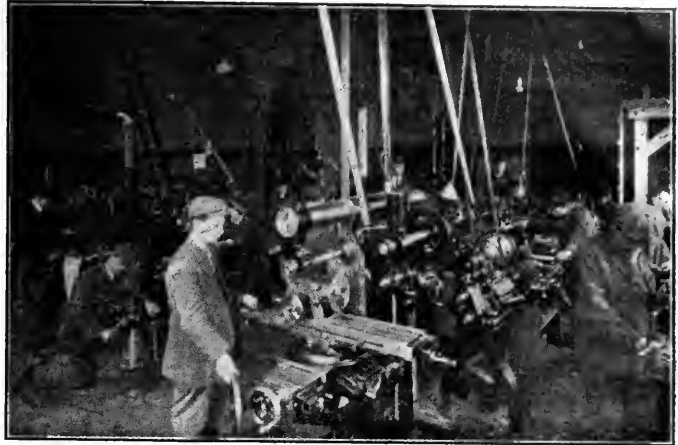
were followed by rapid progress in school, school men and women took it for granted that finding the defect would of course lead to remedy. But from one end of the country to the other finding the defect has led often to nothing more than piling up records of physical defects. Then come efforts to learn the reasons, and then the house-to-house instruction of mothers, and a long list of remedial steps which are imposing when put together, but which unfortunately are more apt to be found isolated than in clusters.

Inquiry and challenge being in the air, editorials in newspapers and magazines have raised questions in the minds of parents, taxpayers, mayors, etc. Each school man is coming to feel that until he has explained the situation of his schools to his own constituency he is on the defensive. Thus gradually—no, rapidly—the audience for school reports is changing from one's fellow superintendents, or from the students of education in colleges, or posterity, to the men and women who support the schools about which the superintendent is writing.

Perfunctory school reports will soon be a thing of the past. Even interesting school reports are not enough. They must be enlightening and convincing. To enlighten and to convince as well as to interest, many superintendents are employing the art which has given newspapers and magazines and advertising specialists their enormous circulation, namely, illustrations.

Topeka leads with no less than fifty-three attractive illustrations of buildings, handiwork, assembly rooms, etc; Columbus, Ga.,

follows with forty-two; Spokane with thirty; St. Louis with twenty-four; Macon, Ga., and Salt Lake City with twenty-three; East St. Louis with fourteen; Pittsburgh with thirteen; Newton, Mass., and Pasadena, Cal., with twelve; Waterbury, Conn., with eleven; Glens Falls, N. Y., with ten; Montclair, N. J., with nine; Newark, N. J., Chester, Pa., Aurora and Cairo, Ill., with eight; Pueblo, Colo., Chicago, Michigan City, Ind., Lexington, Ky., Grand Rapids Mich., and Portland, Ore., with seven; New York, Denver, Boston, Kansas City, Reading, Newport, and Hoboken have none, although several of these, notably New York and Hoboken, have made liberal use of photographs in special statements in the press.



A SCHOOL MACHINE-ROOM, SOMERVILLE, MASS.

Perhaps the best illustration of the *argumentum ad hominem* is the Newton school report, which as a public document must be classed as of the very highest order, not only in its effort to explain its business to the public, but in its form of presentation. Starting with the great increase of the expense of the Newton schools and with the rambling uninformed public criticisms, Superintendent Spaulding says:

"I propose to devote this report chiefly to an attempt to tell everyone who wishes to know just why school expenses in Newton have increased so largely in recent years, for what money is being spent, and just how much is being spent for each of the many things and activities which are a part of the school system."

His form of treatment is as follows:

I. Why did instruction cost more by.....	\$6.36
Regular classroom instruction cost more	\$3.50
Special instruction, supervision, and administration within the schools cost more.....	2.86
Total increased cost.....	\$6.36
II. Why did regular class-room instruction cost more by.....	\$3.50
On account of the increased average salary of class-room teachers	\$2.43
On account of smaller classes....	1.07
Total increased cost.....	\$3.50

In addition to the direct appeal to the individual and to the mass through the school

report, city superintendents are making direct bids for civic cooperation. Superintendent Christensen, of Salt Lake City, attributes an increase of attendance and enrollment to the increased number of parents' visits. Superintendent Cave, of Bellingham, Wash., says:

"I have never known a normal child who could not be reached by the school, provided the support of the parents was on the side of the school, nor have I ever known of the child who could be wholly reached, provided the support of the parents could not be depended upon."

No one has ever expressed better the attitude that should prevail among both superintendents and civic agencies than Superintendent Maxwell of New York city in his school report for 1905:

"I look forward with earnest hopefulness to the day when every educational agency, civic or endowed, will not feel its duty done until it contributes freely of its resources to the advancement and benefit of the great American and Americanizing institution of free education."

That day, of course, can never come until places where laymen can take hold are suggested by the school men themselves. School reports must list needs not yet met, work remaining to be done. Superintendent Brittain of Hyde Park, Mass., not only gives such a list, but tells exactly how much it will cost to install each improvement and to maintain it.

Hopeful as the outlook is, and sweeping as have been the improvements, what remains to be done requires constant promotion by some national agency equipped with funds to make available to all school men the best ex-

perience of each. The best time to hear of a proposed investigation is while the plan for it is still in progress. The best time to secure the results is immediately after they have been compiled. As Superintendent Poland of Newark says in his report:

"It is surprising indeed what ignorance prevails even among superintendents in large cities as to what the rest of the school world is doing. The widest dissemination of school information is needed, or otherwise there is apt to be little progress and great waste in experimentation."

A part of this field should be covered by the United States Bureau of Education. Why should it not publish in monthly digest the counterpart of the *Review of Reviews* in the magazine world, where school men may find in brief form the best of formal utterances by their colleagues in all parts of the country? Why should not state superintendents render a similar service for the school reports within their own states?

The need would be met by another national clearing-house with the latitude that thus far has been found possible only by private agencies—something like the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching—which would cover the secondary and primary schools, public, private, and parochial. Such a foundation could universalize efficient method and sound idea by means of reiteration. Again, as Superintendent Poland says:

"Such common expressions as average attendance, average school membership, per capita cost of school maintenance, have no exact significance until they are read in the light of other facts sometimes difficult or impossible to ascertain from the reports that are now published."

Between conceding the futility of reporting in general and admitting the futility of his own reports there is a great gap for practically every superintendent. Between observing the futility of his own reports and making those reports adequate is another gap for practically every superintendent. To fill that gap properly there should be someone to whom application can be made for suggestion and assistance. Moreover, there should be someone constantly asking questions and putting on pressure to get done to-morrow what today resolves to do. No man can write a proper school report after June 30 who did not ask the significant school questions before the preceding September and for each succes-

sive day during the school year. Adequate records will, however, follow a desire to know something that is not yet known. To stimulate that desire should be the function of some national fund which would be unremittingly at work distributing among school men questions and suggestions for giving the slowest and the weakest superintendent the benefit of the experience and method of the most efficient. That such a foundation would be welcome has been proved by questions sent to the Bureau of Municipal Research which, with a modest fund of \$10,000, spent in a period of over two years, has been able to send out about 200 such reports to 500 city and state superintendents.

HOUSING IN CANADA

JOHN IHLDER

Field Secretary National Housing Association

In Canada official recognition is given to the fact that the health and lives of the people are as well worth conservation as are natural resources. The Canadian Commission of Conservation has issued, under one cover, a report on Agricultural Work in Ontario and an address on Unsanitary Housing by Dr. Charles A. Hodgetts, medical adviser to the committee on public health of the Commission of Conservation.

At this time, when the people of the United States are painfully awakening to the fact that their loudly acclaimed cities of homes contain not only single houses but whole districts where the word home can be applied only in the bitterest irony, the Canadians are having presented to them some facts which call for serious attention. Not only in the old cities of Quebec and Montreal, but in younger and most attractive Toronto, and even in infant Winnipeg, conditions have developed which make inevitably for the moral and physical degeneration of the people. In all these cities, as in their American prototypes, the slum has appeared.

The points made by Dr. Hodgetts may be stated briefly as:

Unsanitary conditions due to lack of water and toilet facilities; tenement evils due to the overcrowding of buildings on land; shack houses without any provisions for wholesome and decent living; and room overcrowding with its inevitable results in physical and moral degeneration.

All these affect not only the very poor, but also the laboring man and his family. No one

who has given any thought to the subject is ignorant of the price in sickness and death which our cities pay for the privilege of permitting the continued existence of privies in thickly settled districts, for the conversion of old single-family dwellings into warrens to accommodate from six to a dozen families, with no adequate provision for light or ventilation, water-supply, or toilet facilities. But this paper brings out a point upon which we have not been accustomed to lay much stress—the building of shack suburbs.

“Should the married man live in the suburbs, it is perhaps in a shack town, the whole family being crowded into one or two rooms intended to serve as a kitchen annex to the house he hopes to build. His great expectations are slow to materialize and frequently he, or some other member of his family, dies in the making of a home—victims of unsanitary housing. This is an example of the working-man being the victim of land speculators whose sugar-coated offers have led him to launch out on a scheme of housing which they knew well it was difficult for him to carry to a successful issue. The man has paid too heavily for his land and finds the cost of building plus the interest and annual payment a greater burden than he contemplated. It is the lure of the land speculator.”

Even worse in some respects in its effect on the community is the shack town of wooden-walled, tar-paper-covered, tin-tack-studded sheds intended for the temporary occupancy of newly arrived immigrants. These often become the overcrowded, permanent homes of a foreign population which pays exorbitant prices for the accommodation it secures. The provincial board of health of Ontario describes such a colony as Sault Ste. Marie:

“This colony is crowded into a lot of miserable shacks, filthy both outside and inside; no cellars, no drainage, closets on the surface of the ground, vile beyond description; water from shallow wells, which were dirty and unfit for use, and most of them located within a few feet of the closets.”

Were this the only shack in town of its kind in Canada, the situation would be bad enough to shock the optimistic nation-builders of the north into some constructive action. But



A SLUM HOME IN TORONTO.

This scene shows the conditions in a lane just off the main business street.

instead it is typical of many. And what is true in Canada is true south of the boundary line.

The remedy, as the Canadian leaders see it, is not the building of model tenements. The registrar-general of Ontario says:

“There are also many other lines upon which improvements can be made, such as the housing of the poorer classes, preferably in detached houses or cottages,¹ the preventing of overcrowding, and I would go so far as recommending legislation to prevent, under certain conditions, the erection of the tenement. They are a damnable architectural invention, and their erection should be carefully considered. Space is what we require, so that fresh air and sunlight may be enjoyed by all.”

The danger which awaits those who rush into the erection of “model” buildings without studying the subject thoroughly is indicated by Dr. Elzear Pelletier, secretary of the Quebec Board of Health, who found that

“some so-called improved dwellings are constructed in which half of the rooms are lighted from enclosed yards, which consequently contain only stagnant air.”

So the burden of improving housing conditions on a scale commensurate with the need falls upon the public authorities, supported by an intelligent and vigorous public opinion. But in order that the authorities may act they must have proper legislation. Dr. Hodgetts believes the health officers might do more than they have, but has an excuse for them in that,

¹If detached they should be at least fifteen feet apart, otherwise solid rows of shallow houses giving light and ventilation to every room from front or rear are far better.—J. I.

as a rule, the health officer has to take his cue from the local board and too often finds that the local board is composed of ward politicians instead of sanitarians.

In order to prove that the legal powers of the health officer and the board are very considerable he quotes from the laws of several provinces, and there exposes a weakness of which apparently he is unaware. For these laws instead of being explicit in their definitions of what constitute unsanitary conditions too often leave this to be determined by the administrative officer. For instance, in British Columbia the law reads:

"If the local board is satisfied upon examination by itself or officer that a cellar, room, tenement, etc., has become by reason of the number of occupants, want of cleanliness, the existence therein of a contagious or infectious disease, or other cause, unfit for such purpose . . ."

In Ontario:

"If upon such examination it is found that the premises are occupied by more persons than is *reasonable* for the health of such occupants, . . ."

In Quebec:

"When a house or other habitation is ascertained to be *unhealthy*, . . ."

Such laws as these invite a pressure upon the health officer from his board of "ward politicians" or from influential outsiders to which it is unfair that he should be exposed, and which must interfere with the vigorous

and impartial discharge of his duties.

And even where these Canadian laws are explicit they do not seem to lay down very stringent rules. Dr. Hodgetts quotes from the law of Saskatchewan—a province which certainly must have plenty of space despite recent American immigration—a provision which, he says, shows that the people there are in advance of those of some of the other provinces. This provision is to the effect that where a tenement is erected it shall occupy not more than 80 per cent of the total area of the lot.

"But if such building is bounded on three sides by streets or lanes 90 per cent may be built on."

On crowded Manhattan Island the law for ten years has set a standard of 70 per cent of the lot except that on corner lots buildings may occupy 90 per cent. Sparsely settled Saskatchewan would crowd its tenements more closely than does the second largest city in the world.

Since this article was written Dr. Charles J. Hastings, medical health officer of Toronto, has published an exceedingly interesting report on the housing conditions of that city. This report, showing as it does the development of the tenement, the unsanitary condition of old converted houses, and the unspeakably filthy conditions in many alley districts, where privy vaults overflow into the public alleys themselves, will probably be a shock to citizens of the charming Canadian city. But they should comfort themselves by the reflection that, having been awakened to disagreeable facts earlier than some of their neighbors, they may more quickly than those neighbors do away with the evils to which they can no longer close their eyes.

CIVIC IMPROVEMENT

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON, Contributing Editor

TREES FOR COUNTRY HIGHWAYS

The County Forestry Commission of Los Angeles has applied to the Board of Supervisors for permission to set out 19,620 trees, at an approximate cost of \$25,000, on three great new highways which lead from Los Angeles to Long Beach, to Santa Monica, and to Pasadena. The total length of roadside to be planted is thirty-four miles.

DENVER'S PRIDE IN CIVIC CENTER

Of interesting significance is the fact that the official badge which was given to every delegate to the Denver Convention of the National Association of Real Estate Exchanges was a medallion showing a perspective of the splendid civic center which the people of Denver have voted to construct. Hanging from this medallion by ribbons of silver and gold was the seal of the combined city and county. Nothing could have spoken

more forcibly of Denver's pride in the great project, the very promise of which is making her famous. Yet when the plan was first broached there was an opposition which it took years to overcome.

A PROFITABLE BOULEVARD

The annual report of the Kansas City Park Commission is a richly illustrated pamphlet which contains a wealth of information. As the Kansas City park system is one of the most complete in the United States, the report is of exceptional interest. One of the many tables which it contains aims to show the effect upon property values of building a boulevard. Briefly stated, it appears that the assessed valuations of the land in the North and South Park Districts for the year 1898 (before Benton Boulevard was completed) was \$18,421,000. In 1910 the assessed land valuation in these districts was \$31,283,-

130. This represents a gain of 69.82 per cent, which is assumed to be the natural advance in land values in the section through which the boulevard runs. In 1898 the land fronting on what is now Benton Boulevard was assessed at \$131,415. Twelve years later the same frontage was valued at \$372,690, a gain of 183.62 per cent, or more than two and one-half times the large "natural" advance.

MANUAL FOR TEACHING CIVICS

Co-operation between the teachers of civics in the eighth grade of the Cincinnati public schools and numerous public-spirited citizens has led to the publication of a civics pamphlet for the use of teachers in Cincinnati. It is based on the principle that the teaching of civics "should be regarded as a piece of constructive work wherein, by a study of the local community and a comparison of it with other communities, the pupil arrives at a correct understanding of the fundamental principles of community life." The information contained in the pamphlet is arranged under general heads, such as the geography of the city; its history; the family in relation to the community (includes the tenement house problem); immigration; the protection of public health (includes a discussion of public works under various sub-heads such as water, sewage, etc.); the protection of life and property; the business life of the community (includes the labor problem); civic beauty; education; the care of dependents and delinquents; government; expenses and taxes. A list of books recommended for use in connection with the syllabus is supplemented by the statement that "teachers will find THE SURVEY particularly valuable."

RAILWAY GARDENING

Representatives of more than twenty railroads were present at the fifth annual meeting of the Railway Gardening Association held in Chicago a few weeks ago. The object of the association is "to consider a more thorough and systematic extension of railway gardening; to improve the appearance of all railroad way lands, especially those adjacent to passenger stations; to encourage the beautifying of grounds adjoining railroad property; to eliminate whatever unnecessarily detracts from the beauty of the landscape as seen from the car window; to stimulate universal interest in presenting more attractive appearances to the traveling public." It is encouraging to find that the list of papers, prepared by men who represented the Pennsylvania, Michigan Central, Illinois Central, Baltimore and Ohio, Canadian Pacific, and the Jersey Central Railroads, included such practical topics as the following: Fences and Hedges; Lawns; The Treatment of Cuts and Banks; Fertilizers; and, Should Railroads Purchase or Grow Their Stock?

THE MOST AMERICAN CLUB

The City Lunch Club of Rochester, which has been called "the most American club in

the country," has commenced its third year. The club's object is described in its annual report just issued as the "encouragement of intelligent civics by free discussion." Any man in Rochester can belong to it simply by virtue of attendance at the meetings. These meetings are luncheons held at one o'clock on Saturdays in a special dining-room of one of the hotels. To defray postage and other expenses there are dues of \$1 a year, but these are optional. The report states that during the last year forty-one meetings were held, with an average attendance of 110. The smallest number ever present was fifty, and the largest 300. The "membership" of the club is estimated at about 400, and of this number more than 300 paid the optional dues. The list of speakers last year included such men as Thomas M. Osborne Edward J. Ward, Max Eastman, Arnold W. Brunner, Joseph Fels, Dr. Grenfell, and Raymond Unwin, who all spoke without any fee-expense to the club. They were either passing through the city, or coming to it for other reasons, or came "because here was a group of busy, live men worth talking to—this was doubtless the best reason—and we paid them," says the report, "in the coinless currency on which is stamped the legend: 'These Men Inspired us to Better Citizenship.'"

MAKING A PARK SYSTEM

"No better illustration could be given of the making of a park system by a small city than the recent experience of La Crosse. Three years ago it had not even a park commission, and it is less than two years since the actual work of park construction was begun. Yet it has to-day the substantial framework of a comprehensive park system that is equaled by few cities, if any, of the same size."

This statement is made by John Nolen, who, as the landscape architect of the La Crosse park system, may be expected to speak with authority in the small pamphlet which he issues about the park system of this Wisconsin city. The park commission was appointed, the landscape architect engaged, and a mill tax levied by the city council, which also authorized a bond issue of \$75,000 for the purchase of land and for necessary construction. All this was done within six months, and the plans for the comprehensive system were soon made. Mr. Nolen attributes the success of the movement to reliance upon the public, to the application of efficient business methods in the administration of the park department, and to the making of a complete general plan before any actual step was taken toward its execution. This, he says, "inspired public confidence in every part of the city. Too much emphasis cannot be given to beginning in this way." He observes also that the high character of the commission, which is unpaid and free from political influence, contributed largely to the success of the project.

HEALTH

THE SANITARY CONTROL OF NEW YORK'S MILK SUPPLY¹

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It is unnecessary to preface this paper with a discussion of the importance to the public health of thoroughgoing governmental control of the sanitary quality of the milk consumed in large cities. It is widely realized to-day that this is one of the foremost problems of sanitary science, a problem which has increased in difficulty and complexity in direct relation to the growth of modern urban communities and to the expansion of our knowledge of bacteriology and preventive medicine. The simple propositions at the bottom of the municipal milk problem are familiar to all sanitarians. We know that cow's milk, containing all the elements of nutrition, is an ideal food if consumed in a clean state, and, while not a perfect substitute for mother's milk, is the best that we know, if there must be a substitute. But milk is unfortunately a most excellent medium for the growth of all kinds of bacteria. In fact the rise of the milk problem to its present dominating position among the tasks and responsibilities of municipal health officers is only one of the corollaries of the discovery and widespread application of the principles of bacteriology.

The general outlines of the methods adopted by boards of health and other governmental authorities in controlling the sanitary quality of the milk supply of a large city are also fairly well defined and generally accepted. It is recognized that a system of inspection of dairies where the milk is actually produced, supplemented by inspection of creameries and of the methods of shipment and handling all the way from the farmer to the consumer, are necessary elements in this public control. This inspection must provide for the detection of contagious diseases among those handling the milk, as well as the improvement of sanitary conditions. Whether these details are carried out under the supervision of municipal or state authorities is a matter of expediency largely governed by local conditions.

Theoretically it is better that the state authorities should exercise a uniform control over the production and sale of milk in all communities. In practice, some of the large cities, notably New York, have found it necessary, in the absence of thoroughgoing control by the state authorities, to develop their own systems of country milk inspection. This is done in New York by requiring permits from the Board of Health for the sale of milk sold in the city and making free access to farms for inspection a condition of granting the permit. New York now maintains a large force of inspectors who periodically investigate conditions at the farms located in the seven different states from which milk is shipped to the metropolis. The control of the conditions under which milk is handled and sold within the city is a still more usual function of the local authorities and includes the regular inspection of stores and wagons, with frequent chemical and bacteriological tests, and the usual methods of enforcing sanitary requirements by resort to the courts if necessary.

I have thus briefly outlined what may be termed the orthodox methods of insuring the safety of a municipal milk supply, in order the more clearly and emphatically to state my belief that these methods are inadequate to the purpose. My object in this paper will be to show why this is so and what is to be done about it. I shall begin by stating my conclusion.

This subject has been considered with extraordinary care and with unusual facilities for investigation by my associates in the Department of Health, and we have reached the point in New York where we firmly believe, and have officially proclaimed to the public, that the only way absolutely to guarantee the safety of the city's general milk supply is to require pasteurization, under official control, of all except certain grades of high-priced milk. We have, therefore, in the exercise of the complete jurisdiction, both legislative and executive, which the law gives to the Board

¹A paper submitted for the annual meeting of the Medical Society of the State of Pennsylvania, Harrisburg, Penn., September 26-28, 1911.

of Health in matters affecting the health of the city, adopted a sanitary ordinance requiring that after January 1, 1912, all milk except certified milk and certain other special grades must be pasteurized under the rules and regulations of the department. To insure a more scientific application of our system of inspection we have also adopted a plan for the official grading of all the city's milk in three classes:

Grade A. Milk suitable for infant feeding.

Grade B. Milk suitable for adults to drink.

Grade C. Milk for cooking and manufacturing purposes.

The two features, pasteurization and the grading of the milk supply, are closely related in our new milk program, which I believe constitutes the most important advance recently made by any city in the direction of a better supervision of its milk supply. It will be helpful to discuss each of these two elements separately.

Strongly as I have come to believe in pasteurization as a general principle, it is of course true that its necessity varies with local conditions and is particularly called for in great cities because of the enormous extension of the area from which the milk supply is drawn, and the consequent lengthening of the period which must elapse from the time the milk is produced until it is placed before the consumer. A brief consideration of the magnitude of the problem in New York, and of the manner in which attempts at an adequate solution have led to the present conclusion, will indicate certain principles of general application under similar conditions.

The present system of surveillance of New York city's milk supply is, without doubt, more comprehensive and well developed than that of any other great city in the world. Since its beginning, about twenty-five years ago, it has been gradually developed and perfected in accordance with the increase of scientific knowledge and the extension of the facilities at the command of the department.

In a general way, the department undertakes the supervision of the health of persons handling milk, so far as infectious diseases are concerned, on 44,000 farms situated in seven states which ship milk to New York, as well as in 1,100 creameries in the country, in numerous receiving and bottling stations in the city, and in 12,000 stores in greater New York where milk and cream are sold. The department also exercises a supervision over the sanitary conditions all along the line from the farm to the consumer, and makes regular chemical and bacteriological examinations of the milk. In the early days attention was paid only to the physical conditions of watering and skimming. Later the chemical content of milk was standardized and the requirements enforced in this respect. With the development of bacteriology it gradually came to be understood that the bacterial content of milk

at the farm was an accurate scientific index of its cleanliness. Experimental studies in which the research laboratories of the Department of Health played a leading part showed conclusively that the number of bacteria in milk decreased in direct proportion to the care exercised in keeping the barn and cows clean and the milk properly cooled. As a result of this development, the system of milk inspection was greatly extended, until in 1906 inspection of dairies was begun, with five country inspectors. This number has since been increased to thirty-three, and as a result of the work of the department there has been a great improvement in the methods employed in the care of cows and in the collection and handling of milk on the farms where the city's milk is produced. Consequently, the average cleanliness of the milk supply has, without doubt, been considerably improved, and the value of this work, not only on account of its additional safeguards to the health of the city, but because of its contribution to the slow process of education and to the raising of the general standard of milk production throughout the country, cannot be doubted.

This system of surveillance has materially lessened the danger of infection of milk through the presence of cases of infectious disease, such as scarlet fever, typhoid fever, and diphtheria, among the employes on the farms and in the creameries. Within the last two years, however, the progress of preventive medicine and the very development of the closer supervision of the milk supply which has just been outlined have brought to light certain hitherto unknown facts which point unmistakably to the conclusion that, no matter how complete or well organized the system of dairy inspection, it will not be possible to render entirely safe the ordinary commercial milk which is produced and shipped to a city from so large a territory as is comprised in the New York milk shed. It was as a result of careful studies of certain typhoid fever outbreaks, which were suspected to have been caused by milk infection, that several distinct though circumscribed epidemics of this disease were directly traceable to infected milk. The studies themselves were made possible by the development of the present system of country inspection. With the careful comparison and analysis of all possible sources of infection, when an unusual number of cases occurred in one locality in the city, it was found possible to lay the blame upon the milk supplied by a particular dealer and then to follow back the trail of this milk to its sources in the country and thus finally to locate, with all reasonable certainty, the actual origin of the infection. The striking feature of these outbreaks was that they were not found to have originated from cases of active typhoid fever or any other cases of recent development, but were shown to have been due to the infection of the milk through chronic typhoid bacillus carriers, who had suffered from the disease years before and who, at the time, were perfectly well and could not ordinarily

have been considered a source of danger. The investigation had eliminated all other possible sources of typhoid fever contagion and fastened the suspicion upon these individuals. Bacteriological examinations which were then made showed that the intestinal discharges of these persons contained large numbers of typhoid bacilli and that the milk supply contaminated from this source was almost certainly the cause of the outbreak. In one instance it was shown that an extensive outbreak was the result, in all probability, of such infection of milk by a typhoid carrier who had suffered from the disease forty-six years ago and who had during all the intervening years doubtless been a continuous distributor of the disease. No such important outbreak, to our knowledge, has been previously studied and described by municipal health authorities.

The bearing of these investigations upon the theory and practice of the control of the municipal milk supply must be considered as revolutionizing. They show conclusively that no ordinary method of sanitary supervision can exclude infection by disease carriers. In the light of our knowledge of the transmission of disease in this manner, efficient surveillance would require the bacteriological examination of the intestinal discharges of all persons engaged in the milk traffic. This is manifestly impossible. In the case of New York city it would mean the repeated examination of specimens from probably not less than 300,000 persons and would include a systematic examination of every new individual who should become attached to the business of producing and handling milk.

These are the conditions. In my opinion and that of my associates, the only way in which the sanitary authorities can meet them is by requiring pasteurization at least of all milk which is not of special exempted grades. Milk which is intended only for cooking or baking should be pasteurized to avoid the danger of this grade of milk being misused.

On March 23, 1910, Dr. Hermann M. Biggs, general medical officer of the Department of Health, whose standing I do not need to dwell upon before this association, submitted to the Board of Health a convincing presentation of the foregoing facts. The board thereupon adopted a resolution advising that all milk used for drinking purposes be either properly pasteurized or boiled, unless it be of the grades technically known as certified, guaranteed, or inspected milk. By way of bringing this advice home to the people of the city, the department caused notices to be posted in all places where milk was sold, recommending the use of certified, guaranteed, or bottled pasteurized milk for infant feeding and the boiling or home pasteurizing of any other bottled milk or milk from cans. After this policy of warning had been continued nearly a year, the Board of Health decided that the situation called for more drastic action, and on January 31, 1911, a resolution was adopted providing for the compulsory pasteurization, beginning January 1, 1912, of

the entire milk supply of New York city except for milk of the special grades.

At the same time the board adopted the outlines of a plan of classification of the milk sold in the city. This I have long believed to be necessary if we are to combine efficient sanitary control with the maintenance of a reasonable price for milk. I have always been impressed with the necessity of dealing with milk to be consumed by infants as a separate problem. Since the requirements are so much more exacting for milk for infants, and since it has been well established that this grade of milk is much more expensive to produce and should command a higher price than can ordinarily be demanded for milk in general use, it would seem wise to separate the two problems. We enter here into the economic phase of the milk problem, only to find that it is closely bound up with the sanitary problem. Probably the most serious difficulty that has arisen in connection with the development of the close supervision by the city authorities over the production of milk has been that it has not usually been possible for the farmer to realize an extra compensation for his milk, to enable him more easily to bear the cost of the improved plant and additional labor of production. This matter of an increase in the price that a farmer must receive for his milk will become more and more urgent. Some dealers are, of their own accord, paying special prices, but this is by no means the universal practice. One of the principal reasons for the failure of the producer to realize a better price, after improving the sanitary condition of his plant, is the general unwillingness on the part of the public to appreciate this element of value and to pay an additional figure for a better milk. Any general advance in the price of milk, at the present time, however justified by the higher cost of production due to the demands of modern sanitation, would be regarded as the unjust extortion of a combination of dealers formed to raise the price. It is probable that when improvements are more universal and the relation of milk to the public health more generally understood the public will be willing to pay a fair price for wholesome milk, guaranteed to be of good quality. Some progress has already been made in this direction in the introduction of the certified, inspected, and scientifically pasteurized grades of milk, for which a higher price is readily obtained. While these special grades are, in general, safe for consumption, it is apparent that they go only a very little way toward solving the milk problem, since the total of milk of these grades constitutes only a small fraction of the total supply.

Some years ago a careful investigation was made of the different grades of milk sold in New York, from the certified milk of the Milk Commission of the Medical Societies, sold in bottles at from twelve cents to fifteen cents per quart, down to so-called loose milk, retailing at from four cents to seven cents a quart. With the exception of certified milk

and some other special grades, the supply was unsuited for infant feeding on account of high bacterial count; that is, it was not clean. Much of the supply arrived in the city at a temperature above 65 degrees F., and during the summer months would readily sour. The conditions under which it was produced subjected the supply to a more or less constant danger of infection from scarlet fever, diphtheria, tuberculosis, and typhoid fever. It was the pressing problem of infant mortality and the need of better milk for babies which caused most of the agitation and resulted in most of the improvements which have since been made.

A scientific solution of the infants' milk problem demands that the field be divided and our efforts to preserve the purity of the total supply redistributed in a more economical and therefore more efficient manner. It would be an unnecessary waste of effort to attempt to raise the entire supply of 2,000,000 quarts to the standard of milk suitable for infant feeding. Yet the tendency hitherto has been to work on this basis. There is a temptation for the dealer to be unwilling to admit that his so-called market milk is not a fit food for infants when, as a matter of fact, there is not a city in the world whose milk supply is suitable for such a purpose, and it seems very unlikely that it can ever be brought to such a standard. To insist upon such a standard for the entire supply would raise the price of milk to a point prohibitive to the ordinary consumer and would involve much wasted effort. Bacteriological investigation has shown that milk which contains large numbers of the ordinary bacteria of the dust but no pathogenic organisms may yet cause intestinal disturbances among infants, particularly when the resistance of the digestive tract is lowered by hot weather. Yet this same milk may be consumed without danger by persons of mature constitution. Then there is the large fraction of the total daily milk supply which is consumed in cooking and manufacturing. Time and money spent in painstaking inspection of milk destined for this purpose is a waste of valuable effort which should be devoted to babies' milk. It is therefore our problem and our effort to divide the stream of milk flowing each day into New York into branches corresponding to the uses to which each kind is to be put and then devote the appropriate and only the appropriate attention to each branch.

With these conditions in mind, we have provided for the classification in 1912 of all milk sold in the city into three official grades:

Grade A, sold in bottles only, is especially intended for infants and children. Three kinds of milk will be eligible to rank in this grade: (1) certified or guaranteed milk, produced under conditions of the highest cleanliness as controlled by inspections of the County Medical Societies and the Board of Health; (2) raw selected milk drawn from tuberculin-tested herds on farms complying with at least 75 per cent of the regulations of the Depart-

ment of Health regarding sanitary production, and having an average bacterial count of not over 60,000 per cubic centimeter; (3) selected pasteurized milk, which must be obtained from farms complying with at least 60 per cent of the department's requirements and subsequently pasteurized in strict accordance with the regulations of the department. These regulations prescribe the duration of the exposure to heat, the temperatures to which the milk must be subjected, and the manner in which it must be handled before the term "pasteurized" may be used with official sanction. For the purpose of grade A milk of this class the average bacterial count of milk must not be over 50,000 per c. c. when sold.

Grade B will be regarded as suitable and safe for adults to use as a beverage. It will include the following classes: (1) all milk complying with the provisions required by the department for grade A; (2) raw milk complying with the requirements for selected milk in grade A, but substituting a physical test of cattle for the tuberculin test; (3) milk which has been properly pasteurized under the department's regulations. Milk of grade B must be delivered in bottles or drawn from proper containers, but not dipped from cans or other open receptacles.

Grade C will include all other milk, not classified in grades A or B. The use of milk of the third grade will be restricted to cooking and manufacturing. Purely as an administrative measure, it will probably be necessary to insist upon the pasteurization of this milk for some time to come, since we have not a sufficiently large force of inspectors to insure that the milk intended to be used in this class would really be so used.

There are many important aspects of the milk problem and of the particular requirements which we are trying to bring about in New York by these new measures which I have had no opportunity even to touch upon in this paper. Within the limits of the discussion, I have felt obliged to confine myself to a statement of the main outlines of our problem and of the reasons for and the significance of the radical steps we are about to take. I believe that medical and sanitary authorities in general are coming to believe as we do in the necessity for the wider use of pasteurization in protecting the milk supply of large cities, and that the experience of New York in this respect is full of significance for other communities which receive and consume milk under similar conditions. The proper grading of the milk supply has appealed to me for many years as one of the most important factors in the solution of this problem; and with a special grade of infants' milk, officially established by the Board of Health and sold for such at a reasonable price, I firmly believe that a great advance will have been made in that splendid campaign for the reduction of infant mortality which is now receiving the earnest attention of sanitary authorities all over the world.

EXAMINATION OF EMPLOYEES FOR TUBERCULOSIS

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Chicago Tuberculosis Institute

Periodic examination of machinery is a part of the business policy of all well managed establishments. Serious damage or even total destruction results from neglect to make timely repair. Entailment of a small expense to-day means prevention of a larger expense or possibly of total loss to-morrow. The policy of periodic examination, intended to stop leaks, to repair slight damage, to prevent irreparable deterioration, is applicable at present to all "inanimate" machinery. "Human" machinery is just beginning to receive the gradually increasing proportion of attention due to it.

It is readily understood that knowledge of the physical condition of a worker is of great importance to the employer, as health is a factor in determining productive efficiency. The period of usefulness of employes is lengthened through a system of examinations designed for detection of breaks in their physical condition and a policy of extension of leaves of absence at a time when "repair" is possible. It is in the interest of every business man to take stock of the health of his employes, if for no other reason than for the determination of their working capacity and prevention of total disability, which results in the loss of tried and experienced men.

In the detection of no other disease does the economic gain to the employer from this procedure stand out as prominently as in pulmonary tuberculosis, with its gradual and at first imperceptible impairment of the productive capacity of the worker. The early detection of this disease in an employe is of great importance to himself, his co-workers, and his employer. The chance of ultimate "cure" or "arrest" as well as restoration of the working capacity gradually diminishes with the growth of the disease. The possibility of infecting others grows with the gradual transformation of a "closed" incipient lesion into an "open" tuberculosis, with its swarm of tubercle bacilli in the sputum. The interests of the employer are alike vitally affected by the gradual diminution of the productive capacity of a tuberculous employe and of those subsequently infected.

These considerations call for a system of medical examinations of employes in all working places as a measure of great importance to all concerned, the expense entailed in the maintenance of such examinations being far outbalanced by the benefits derived. It is highly desirable that all employes should be examined for traces of tuberculosis, and it is possible that with the present tendencies in our system of government the state may eventually make provision for this purpose. Until then, however, the interests of the employer necessitate the conduct of such examinations at his own expense.

To test every applicant for position for traces of tuberculosis would entail a considerable outlay of money, though in a number of manufacturing and commercial establishments a large percentage of employes are at present given a thorough medical examination before their admission to benevolent associations connected with their working places. In Chicago, numerous firms provide general medical service for attendance on employes falling sick during their term of employment. Special attention is given to tuberculosis in the shops of Sears Roebuck and Company, Montgomery Ward and Company, and the International Harvester Company, three firms well known for their welfare work among employes. Each of these firms has built and maintains a special cottage for its employes at the Edward Sanatorium, Naperville, Illinois.

The great prevalence of tuberculosis among working people makes desirable, however, special medical provision in large establishments for early detection of this disease. To round up every possible case of tuberculosis, without going to the extent of examination of every employe, the following method was proposed to the International Harvester Company, which employs about 20,000 workers in the city of Chicago.

A list of suspected cases is prepared by a special tuberculosis nurse who has the cooperation of the foremen in charge of various factories of the company. The list includes the following groups of cases:

First: Employes in whom the diagnosis of tuberculosis has previously been made;

Second: Employes in whom poor general condition in connection with other suspicious symptoms suggests the presence of the disease;

Third: Employes with histories of protracted cough and expectoration;

Fourth: Employes in whose families a case of tuberculosis exists or death from this disease has occurred.

With the compilation of the list of suspected cases, a special tuberculosis clinic is to be inaugurated for the benefit of the employes of the company. This plan was first submitted to the Executive Committee of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute and on their approval adopted by the International Harvester Company. Doctor James A. Britton of this city and Miss Jane Flanagan, a tuberculosis nurse until recently on the staff of the Chicago Municipal Sanitarium, were placed by the International Harvester Company in charge of the proposed clinic. Beginning with the above mentioned groups of cases the system of examination for tuberculosis is to extend gradually to all suspicious cases.

With the inauguration of this first industrial tuberculosis clinic, the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute appointed a special Advisory Committee on Factories, consisting of Dr. Henry B. Favill, Mr. Sherman C. Kingsley, and Dr. Theodore B. Sachs. This committee

is to act in advisory relation to the clinic and has for its purpose the extension of similar provisions to other manufacturing and commercial establishments.

It is agreed that a case of tuberculosis in a working place should not remain unrecognized and uncontrolled. Knowledge of the actual conditions in reference to tuberculosis among their own workers is bound to enlist the active participation of employers of labor in the present great crusade against the white plague, and is destined to improve the entire situation.

DENTISTRY IN STATE INSTITUTIONS

ALICE WALRATH

The dentists are not to be outdone by the physicians and other professional men. The broad-minded dentist is devoting his time not only to those who seek him in his office, but also to scores and scores of his less fortunate fellow-beings. A few months ago the New York State Dental Society took upon itself to ascertain the dental conditions existing in the state charitable and penal institutions, and a committee of three, under the chairmanship of Dr. L. A. Timmerman, Fort Plain, was appointed to investigate the matter. Twenty-five institutions were consulted, the committee asking whether the institution had a staff dentist; how he was appointed; how much time he gave; what his compensation was; the class of dental work done; what equipment was furnished by the state; what percentage of inmates were able to pay for dental work, etc.

Replies to these questions, especially from the larger institutions, entered into details and contained suggestions showing careful thought. It was found that of these twenty-five institutions only eight had dentists on their staffs, and that there was no uniformity in the method of their appointment. Sometimes they were appointed by the superintendent of the institution, sometimes by a board of managers, while in three instances convicts were taken for the purpose. For the approximate 19,000 individuals in the twenty-five institutions it was estimated that less work was performed than five dentists would accomplish working eight hours a day and twenty-five days a month—that for an average of 3800 inmates there was only one dentist employed. For this service the state does not pay more than \$250 per month, and the class of work done consists principally of extracting, plastic filling, and cleaning. In a few institutions plate work is included, while if the inmate has a credit balance and is willing to pay for them he may have gold fillings and crown and bridge work.

The answers showed that the state provides a fully equipped dental office in only five of the institutions, while in twelve chairs and foot-engines are provided. Several have nothing more than extracting forceps. In reply to the question regarding the percentage of inmates able to pay for dental work, the answers varied greatly. On the whole, however,

it was found that but very few could afford it, as the great majority are without any financial resources whatever. Three of the institutions made no reply regarding the necessity of dental work, while the remaining twenty-two thought it a decided advantage.

The recommendations offered were interesting. One advocated the free services of dentists, while a few declared that they were satisfied with present conditions. Dr. William L. Russell, former superintendent of the Long Island State Hospital, and medical inspector for the State Commission in Lunacy, wrote: "A resident dentist should be employed in every state hospital in the state, and he should give his whole time to the work."

In his report to the State Commission in Lunacy, Dr. Russell said:

"The amount of dental work done is, however, I believe, less than it should be. The gums and teeth of the patients are frequently in bad condition, and the attention required to put them in good shape is very great. In some of the hospitals it is difficult to secure the services of a competent dentist, and at best the time for which he is engaged is too short for what is needed. In the largest hospitals there would no doubt be constant work for a resident dentist, who might be a salaried officer. At the other hospitals a salaried dentist might be employed who could attend to the work of two or more. The results in the improved health and comfort of the patients, and in the sanitary conditions, would more than repay the expense involved."

It is evident that much remains to be done in order to secure the comfort and improvement of those who inhabit these institutions. Is it not the duty of the state to give more serious thought to the welfare of these individuals? The inquiry made by the committee has certainly been of use in directing attention to this subject, and it is to be hoped that ere long the state will take decided measures to improve the dental conditions existing in its charitable and penal institutions.

JOTTINGS

A SANITARY UNIVERSITY

In an editorial headed, Wanted: A Sanitary University and a National Board of Health, *Domestic Engineering* points out our complete lack of provision for expert training for health officers and urges the need for facilities in the proposed federal department of health, which should be above all "a source of sanitary thinking, a directive agency of sanitary effort, a controller of sanitary activities. . . . At the present time the majority of our health boards are in the hands of bakers, tinkers, and candlestick-makers" and most of the sanitary officers "acquire their knowledge of sanitation after they get the job." In England the Royal Sanitary Institute has demonstrated its usefulness by setting the standard for sanitation and turning out experts, and the organized effort of plumbing and sanitary engineers in this country should be directed to-



ward obtaining a section in the bill for a federal department of health providing for a like national institution in this country.

PROSECUTIONS FOR SAFER FOOD

A vigorous campaign to improve the quality of the city's food supply has been started by the Health Department of the city of New York. On one of their most active days within the last fortnight thirty-three persons accused by the health inspectors of purveying unwholesome foods or drugs were arraigned in the Court of Special Sessions; nineteen of these defendants were found guilty, and assessed fines ranging from \$10 to \$500; of the others, two were found guilty and sentence suspended; ten cases were adjourned; one was discharged on a technicality, and one person was acquitted. Most of the convictions were for violations of the section in the sanitary code which forbids the sale or offering for sale of any meats, fish, eggs, birds, fowl, fruit, vegetables, or milk not sound, wholesome, and safe for human food. One conviction, carrying the inadequate fine of \$100, was obtained on the charge of selling "white whiskey" which contained about 40 per cent of wood alcohol.

FOOD FOR TUBERCULOSIS PATIENTS

Many traditions with regard to feeding tuberculosis patients and to food in general are given severe blows in a series of articles in the October number of the *Journal of Outdoor Life*. Dr. John R. Murlin, of the Cornell University Medical College, holds "that a consumptive will gain weight and do well on three pints of whole milk, eight ounces of cream, five ounces of milk sugar, six eggs, and two slices of buttered toast, as a ration for each twenty-

four hours. The entire diet with the exception of the bread and butter could be prepared in advance and served for a cost of about fifty cents per day. Dr. Murlin compares food to fuel in furnishing power for an engine. In selecting food we should eat enough to furnish energy for the day's work, but much more than this is not needed. He holds that the appetite is not a necessity for good digestion. "There is no fallacy of nutrition," he says, "greater than that which supposes that a food cannot be digested and utilized without appetite." Most of the food we eat, fully four-fifths, goes to supply energy for our everyday tasks, while less than one-fifth goes for building material.

Dr. David R. Lyman and Dr. Paul B. Johnson both agree that the ordinary person eats too much, and that the old notions about stuffing a tuberculosis patient at all times and seasons have been proved false. Dr. Lyman holds that eggs are not a necessary article of the consumptive's diet, and that a tuberculosis patient should eat anything that agrees with him, and that is nourishing. He thinks that a tuberculosis patient should eat only a little more than a person in ordinary good health.

Miss Cecilia Flick of the Henry Phipps Institute of Philadelphia also offers some sample diets which the ordinary family can prepare for even less than fifty cents a day.

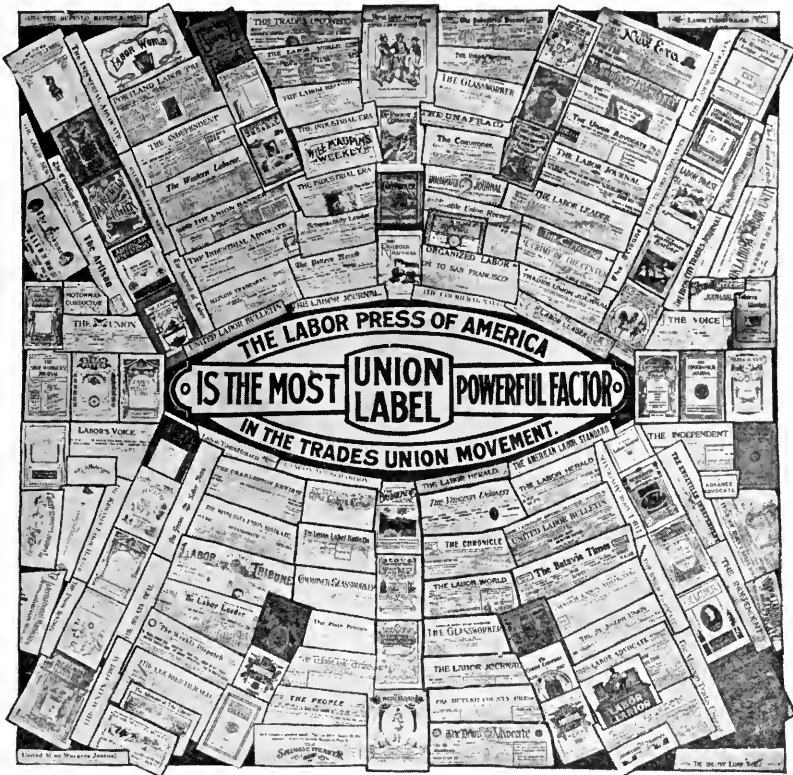
GUIDE FOR HEALTH-SEEKERS

Health-seeker's Guide to the Southwest is the title of a booklet published by the Excelsior Publishing Company of Menrovia, Cal. The book is a directory for the health-seeker of the various advantages, climatic, economic, and otherwise, of the principal resorts of Colorado, Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California. The information is arranged by cities. Under each city is a brief description of the place, followed by a discussion of the prevailing temperature, winds, etc. The prices of board and rent, and also of the most common necessities, such as coal, meat, vegetables, etc., are given. Under each city are listed the principal sanatoria in that locality. The transportation facilities are also noted.

TRAINING SCHOOL FOR CONSUMPTIVES

A new department in connection with Hohenlychen, the famous sanatorium for children at Berlin, was opened on June 22 by the German empress. It is known as the Training School for girls, and is for the purpose of giving girls of fourteen years of age, who have reached the convalescent stage, a chance to learn some practical trade, such as needlework or hand-embroidery. The school is under direction of A. L. Bernheimer. A training school for boys on similar lines has been put into operation under the same roof. Mr. Bernheimer has just published in English an illustrated pamphlet, describing the work at Hohenlychen, which will be sent to anyone applying for it.

INDUSTRY



THE LABOR PRESS.

Reproduction of banner put together by the Department of Church and Labor of the Presbyterian church. The title pages of 161 papers and periodicals, published by the various labor organizations, appear in the original, which is nine feet square.

SOME METHODS IN SAFETY ENGINEERING¹

1—GUARDING TRANSMISSION MACHINERY

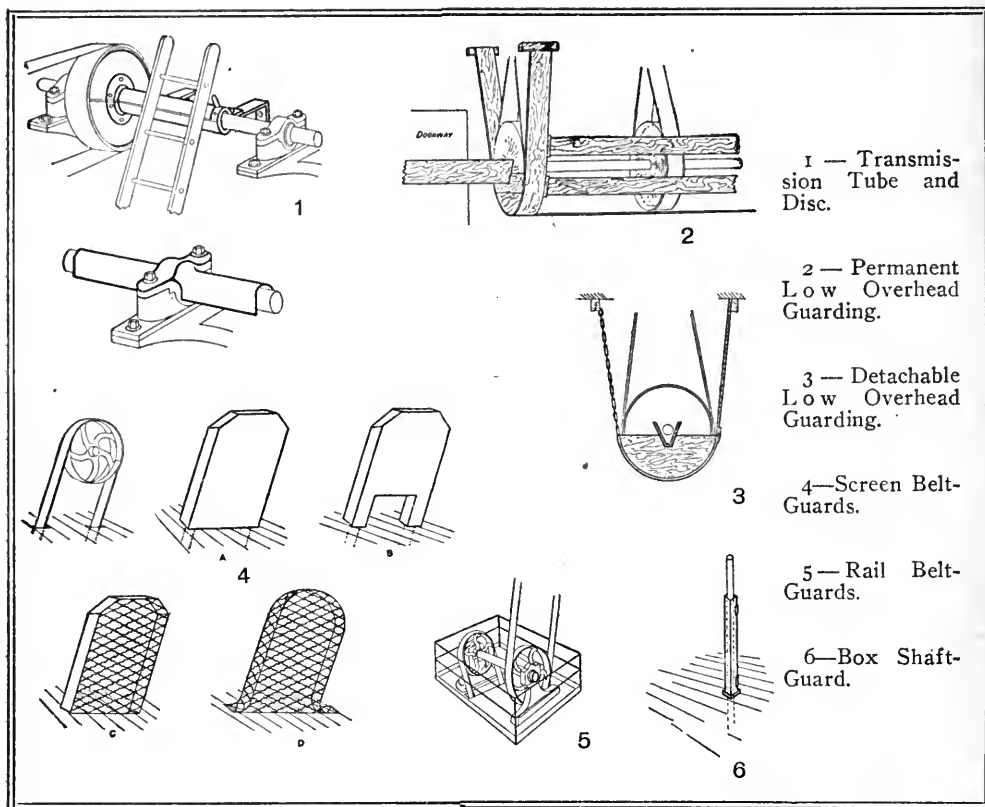
JOHN CALDER

GENERAL MANAGER REMINGTON TYPEWRITER WORKS, ILION, NEW YORK.

Though our industrial life is characterized by a steady extension of the factory system of production and an increased division of labor using mechanical aids, the accident list need not increase *pro rata*. The absence of safeguards, though not the most prolific cause of accidents in plants, closely concerns the mechanical engineer, who holds the possibilities

¹The first of three articles compiled from a paper presented by Mr. Calder before the American Society of Mechanical Engineers and printed in full in its *Journal*. The two succeeding articles deal with the dangers most frequently met with at the operating point.

largely in his own hands. In the eyes of the public and non-technical investigators it is of first importance. The safeguarding of some especially dangerous machines and processes is of course to some extent evolutionary; but some degree of finality is attainable in the simpler forms of safeguards about power-houses, transmission machinery, and dangerous details common to all machines, and most failures to prevent accidents from these are due to lack of consistency and thoroughness in applying the recognized remedies.



1 — Transmission Tube and Disc.

2 — Permanent Low Overhead Guarding.

3 — Detachable Low Overhead Guarding.

4 — Screen Belt-Guards.

5 — Rail Belt-Guards.

6 — Box Shaft-Guard.

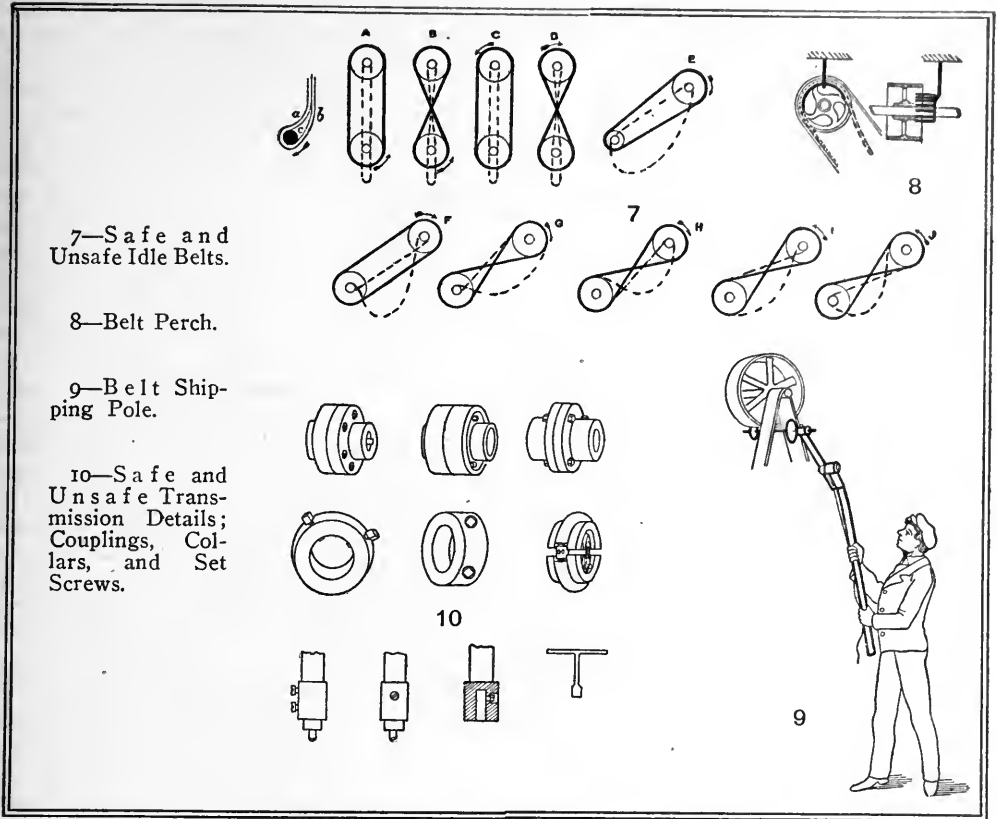
Safeguards, where at all possible, should be constructed of metal to secure durability. Reinforced steel mesh-work is preferred by the author for all but the heaviest machinery. It is superior to guards of opaque material, since it permits easy inspection without detaching the safeguard and interferes as little as possible with lighting conditions. In steel mills, foundries, and heavy work plants of various descriptions, where the wear and tear of equipment is very great, nothing but strong castings or steel plate work should be used for the majority of the guards. It is the practice of the author to have all safeguards readily distinguished by painting the body of them vermilion and the reinforced edges black. This allows executives to detect at a glance in going through the shops a displaced or defective guard, such parts being often small in area, in inconspicuous places, and liable to be overlooked.

In many cases of injuries to operatives caused by the absence of a possible safeguard, it will be found that it has been removed or rendered ineffective by the employe for lack

of supervision in such matters, or that protection has never been provided. Safeguarding absent at one machine is sometimes actually afforded elsewhere under the same roof, and the accident is due to the operation of the principle that what is permitted to be everybody's or anybody's business is in daily life nobody's business. The safety engineering of no plant should be left to the haphazard initiative of a number of individuals.

Omitting details of the guarding of prime movers, the safety of the connecting links between the power-house or the shop motors and the individual machine tools and apparatus naturally calls first for the mechanical engineer's attention. Transmission machinery, whatever its situation in relation to the floor level, has its accident risk conditioned by the necessity of any workman's having to touch or approach it, while in motion, in the course of his duties.

The extensive use of multiplied motor drives, properly screened or at a safe elevation, has done away with many transmission belts, shafts, pulleys, collars, and couplings in



7—Safe and Unsafe Idle Belts.

8—Belt Perch.

9—Belt Shipping Pole.

10—Safe and Unsafe Transmission Details; Couplings, Collars, and Set Screws.

dangerous proximity to males and females at work in all of our more modern plants. The managers and mechanical engineers of many industries, however, have still to reckon daily with the accident risks of the older type of buildings and transmission arrangements; and the latter when not safeguarded are sometimes the cause of horrible fatalities and ought to be closely scrutinized in every detail.

Metal tube and disc guards for shafting, bearings, and pulleys requiring to be approached closely while in motion are shown in Fig. 1, while forms of protection for transmission in old plants with insufficient headroom are shown in Figs 2 and 3. Seven feet clear of every moving part is considered the least height from the floor level without guarding, and even then, where a horizontal belt drives across a frequented passage at this minimum elevation, it is well to have the lower side screened close to the belt to avoid injuries caused by "whipping" when the belt breaks.

Figs. 4, 5, and 6 show guards for belts and shafting driving through floors or at floor levels. Desirable and undesirable forms, respectively, of the shaft couplings, collars, and set-screws of transmission apparatus are

shown in Fig. 10, while in Fig 7 are illustrated the safe and unsafe positions for idle belts which sometimes depend from shafts and cause numerous accidents. Fig. 7 also shows the manner in which an unshipped belt, allowed to travel on the shaft, seizes the shaft by its own friction, aided possibly at times by engendered electrification. The slack side *a* by contact with the tight side *b* is carried into the bight *c* and the shaft rolls up the two sides together, usually breaking the belt, but in some cases of very light countershafting dislodging the latter and injuring the operatives beneath.

The use of the belt perch, Fig. 8, of which there are several forms, prevents the traveling of the belt when unshipped, and accident therefrom, and obviates its unnecessary wear and its possible destruction when falling into the narrow gap between a pulley and a bearing. Fig. 9 shows one of several forms of belt replacement pole which does away with any close approach by the machine operator. Special care should be taken by the designers to see that all belt shifting and machine starting and stopping gears are positive in their action. Many accidents have occurred at machines through inefficient or defective fast and loose pulley and belt arrangements suddenly starting a tool which was under examination or adjustment.

BEGINNINGS OF CHILD LABOR LEGISLATION¹

SOPHONISBA P. BRECKINRIDGE

In the comparative study of child labor legislation made by Dr. Otey for the Federal Bureau of Labor is found an important addition to the mass of evidence already at hand pointing to the fact that the problems of child-caring confronting the community today are problems of formulating and applying new standards, not problems of meeting essentially new conditions. The industrial revolution has changed the background against which the tragedy of child neglect takes its course; the factory light throws a more lurid glare upon wan and unchildlike faces; parental ignorance and selfishness find new scenes of activity; the question is complicated by the confusion with regard to the importance of temporary prosperity of an industry depending upon the labor of children as compared with the permanent well-being of the community. The essential factors, however, remain the same as in earlier periods of industrial life; and, in this careful and thorough presentation, the most striking fact which emerges is this: that the desire of parents to use their children to their own advantage has proven well-nigh as serious an obstacle in the way of intelligent child-caring as has the employer's unwillingness to be interfered with when his profits seem to result from infant toil.

The discussion covers the following topics:

1, The Employment of Children in the Colonies, Chapter I, where, as has formerly been shown by Edith Abbott,² the use of child labor was encouraged and advocated as preventive of idleness, vagabondage, and pauperism.

2, Public Opinion and Child Labor in the Nineteenth Century, under which is described the transformation of the belief that child labor is "righteous and beneficent" into the conviction that it is unrighteous and socially harmful.

3, An Historical Sketch of Children in relation to the cotton industry;

4, A Review of Child Labor Legislation, prior to 1860, in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Vermont, New Hampshire, Maine, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and Ohio.

¹THE BEGINNINGS OF CHILD LABOR LEGISLATION IN CERTAIN STATES; A COMPARATIVE STUDY. Report on Condition of Women and Child Wage-Earners in the United States, in 19 Volumes, Vol. VI, 61st Congress, 2d Session, Senate Document No. 645. Prepared under the direction of Charles P. Neill. By Elizabeth Lewis Otey, Ph.D.

²WOMEN IN INDUSTRY, Appendix A.

5, The Child Labor Legislation in four selected Southern States, North and South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama.

An interesting fact which emerges very clearly from this discussion is that in the movement in behalf of public education was found the first protective agency for the children of the poor and of the unintelligent and selfish. The public school may not have accomplished all that was expected; but the claim it has made for all children, the objections raised by it to demands upon the time and strength of children inconsistent with its own demands, have at times been almost the only appeal uttered against child exploitation. The "first murmur against the factory system for children arose not from consideration of their health, but from the interest in education, and indeed it was to be expected that the public school movement would not omit the factory children". (page 30)

The first official reference to the subject is found in 1818 in the governor's message in Rhode Island, where the evils of child factory labor were probably the greatest. In Massachusetts the first official investigation was made in 1825, and was an investigation, not into the evils of child labor, but "into the expediency of providing by day for the education of children employed in factories." The hours of work were "generally twelve or thirteen hours each day," leaving "little opportunity for daily instruction"; and in 1836 an act was secured in that state providing that no child under fifteen should labor in any manufacturing establishment unless it had attended school at least three months in the year, which resulted in 400 children in one manufacturing town who had never been to school being entered on the school rolls (page 76).

While it is impossible to review at length the legislation in the various states, it is most interesting to notice five aspects of the movement. The first is that already referred to, namely, the conspicuous place held by education in the effort to protect working children. This is true, however, only in the northern states. By the time such legislation was regarded as necessary in the South, the right of all children to childhood rather than the right of the state to an educated citizenship had been clearly enunciated and the claim for such protection therefore firmly established on that basis. The second is the relation of the child labor movement to be the general la-

bor movement, when it becomes apparent that the effort is rather to protect a laborer who happens to be a child than a recognition of the right to childhood; the third, the connection between the movement in behalf of children and that in behalf of women; the fourth, the persistent and universal opposition on the part of the employers of child workers, among whom those who have been responsible for the conduct of the cotton industry have been conspicuous; and the fifth, the early recognition of the ever present fact of parental ignorance and greed as a hindrance in the path of the reform, especially as an obstacle to the enforcement of such legislation as has been secured. Of special interest, of course, is the discussion of the efforts recently made in the southern states to secure protective legislation. How recent the movement is in the South and how weak it has been is illustrated by the fact that at a hearing in 1905 before a committee of the North Carolina Legislature, when it was proposed to forbid the employment of boys under twelve and girls under fourteen in factories, to prohibit night work for all children under fourteen, and to require boys under fourteen to be able to read and write, retaining the sixty-six hour week for those who were allowed to work, "only the southern secretary of the National Child Labor Committee . . . spoke for the bill," and the bill was the occasion of "a storm of protest." The law of that state still provides no means of enforcing the terms of the law, accepts the written statement of the parent as to the age of the children, and allows children between thirteen and eighteen years of age to work sixty-six hours a week at night, if the interest of the industry seems to demand it. South Carolina and Georgia, which prohibit the work of children under twelve in factories (mines and textile manufacturing in South Carolina), recognize as exceptions orphans, the children of widows, or of totally disabled parents—exceptions which are shown in Volume I of these federal studies to render the whole law in many cases nugatory, because in neither state is there anything like adequate inspection.

The comparison in tabular form of the legislation in the northern states prior to 1860 and the present legislation in the four selected southern states is extremely interesting. Massachusetts in 1860 prohibited the employment of children under twelve for

more than ten hours a day in manufacturing establishments, no inspection being provided. North Carolina in 1907 prohibited the work of children under thirteen in manufacturing, but provides no inspection, and permits children over thirteen to work sixty-six hours in a week by night if desired. It is encouraging, however, that such legislation as has been secured in North Carolina and the other southern states is urged and obtained in recognition of the claims of all children to freedom from excessive toil, and while the "widowed mother" feature still prevails, it may be that the revelations of conditions prevailing in these states will suffice to secure substantial protection in terms made real by effective factory inspection. The present volume is a most valuable addition to those in which the present conditions of women and child wage-earners are set forth.

FACTS WHICH CALL FOR ACTION

MARY BROWN SUMNER

The report on the first semi-annual reinspection of all the shops in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry which was made by the Joint Board of Sanitary Control in August finds the "cloak shops far from perfect, but as good as, and indeed better than, in other industries." As the report does not separate the re-inspected from the new shops, it is impossible to judge of improved conditions in the former group. The fear expressed by many that the standard set by the board would drive the industry out of the city appears to have been unfounded, as the inspectors found 1,738 shops as against 1,243 at the time of their original inspection last February, and these shops employed 45,199 persons as against 36,941, which gives about the same average number of persons to a shop.

Of these 45,199 persons the vast majority were found to be working in loft shops and of these more than half were above the sixth floor, sixty or more feet above the sidewalk. In these and all the 1,414 loft shops investigated, without exception, the following dangerous conditions were found: floors were divided and subdivided into many sections by flimsy wooden partitions; quantities of woolen and cotton goods as well as stacks of pine packing-boxes littered the floors and other parts of the shops. These are the fire dangers common to all loft shops. In respect to other fire dangers, sixty-three out of the total number of shops had no fire-escapes; 236 were imperfectly equipped with drop-ladders; 150 had obstructed escapes; twenty-five had locked doors; twelve had unsafe stair treads. On the side of preventive measures, only 359 had doors opening out; 128 had automatic sprin-

¹See THE SURVEY, May 6, 1911.

klers; and 135 chemical extinguishers; only fifteen had fire drill. The figures for the 1,243 shops investigated in February¹ show fourteen with no fire-escapes, 101 imperfectly equipped with drop-ladders, seventy-eight with obstructed escapes, twenty-three with locked doors.

At that time but seventy had doors opening out and but one had fire drill. A comparison of the two sets of figures shows some slight apparent improvement in respect to drill, doors opening out and doors left unlocked; no improvement whatever, in some respects, indeed, larger numbers with bad conditions, in respect to the other fire dangers.

Under the heading sanitary care and comforts the report shows that though lunches were eaten in 1,171 shops, few had any provision for this practice. Forty-three had no wash-basins and 285 no receptacles for rubbish, and 568 had defects in cleanliness in the workrooms. One thousand five hundred and twenty-nine had defects in water-closets, covering lack of cleanliness, lack of proper separation between men and women, and insufficient, in some cases accommodation to meet the needs. As far as these figures can be compared with those of February, they show perhaps slightly better conditions in respect to "cleaning-up," but no better conditions where structural changes are required.

The figures in regard to illumination and ventilation in the two investigations are presented in forms that are not comparable. The August report shows 1,086 shops illuminated by gas, 294 requiring artificial light all day. Six hundred and fifty-eight shops—over one-third, that is—are heated by stoves alone. In respect to ventilation the figures of shops badly ventilated are not given, but the report says:

"The testimony of our inspectors is unanimous to the fact that the air and heat in the shops during the last days in August, when the inspections were made, are unbearable, and that there was plenty of evidence of intense suffering on the part of the workers from insufficient air and from heat. With electric power in 1,308 shops, there is really no reason why some sort of ventilating devices should not be installed by the employers if they really wish for the welfare and efficiency of the workers."

Two paragraphs in the report are illuminating as to the intention of the Joint Sanitary Board with respect to getting action in the next six months which will make a more satisfactory showing at the next inspection. After enumerating a list of fire hazards which in their belief employers and owners of buildings could readily remedy, the report declares:

"There cannot be any excuse for the above enumerated defects. These defects can, may, and must be remedied. They will be remedied if the Joint Board of Sanitary Control continues to have the support it enjoys from the employers and from the workers. . . .

"Among the 1,738 shops inspected, twenty-

one were found to be located in cellars. A list of these has been given to the union, with positive orders to remove their men from these shops, which are dangerous to health."

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION CONVENTION

The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education will hold its fifth annual meeting at Cincinnati, Ohio, November 2-4. One complete session of the convention will be devoted to consideration of the industrial training given in the schools of Cincinnati. This city has been a pioneer in the United States in developing co-operative plans. Dean Herman Schneider, of the College of Engineering, University of Cincinnati, is well known in this country as the originator, in 1906, of a part-time arrangement whereby regularly indentured apprentices in the shops of the city are enabled to take courses in the university designed to increase their effective understanding of work done in the shops. Other examples of co-operative industrial training are to be found in the high school and the continuation school maintained by the Board of Education of the city. The Ohio Mechanics Institute of Cincinnati, of which John L. Shearer is president, will open a new building before the date of the convention.

DEATH-PROOF, NOT FIRE-PROOF FACTORIES

The *Cement Age and Concrete Engineering* comes out for death-proof as opposed to fire-proof factory construction. "A furnace," says a recent editorial, "is fire-proof, and some of our most fire-proof buildings, when filled with combustible material and having large areas for a free sweep of the flame, and elevator and stairway shafts to furnish the drafts and vent, become most effective furnaces." A good design that allows of easy exit is the essential. Doors opening outward and made of an incombustible material, as well as the breaking up of large areas, that spread flame, into small areas separated by reinforced concrete partitions are suggested.

UNION LABEL CAMPAIGN IN NEW YORK

The labor unions of Greater New York have organized a local campaign to extend the union label. A central union label council has been formed, made up of representatives of all organizations having any form of label to designate their products. Under this council assembly district councils are to be organized, whose members are to carry on a systematic campaign of education among the working population of their districts. Part of the work will be done by personal appeals to individuals and part by illustrated public lectures. For the latter purpose the council asks the co-operation of any church or society willing to place a lecture hall at its disposal during the campaign, which will begin with the early fall. Peter T. Brady, 63 Park Row, is chairman of the council; Elizabeth Dulther, Women's Trade Union League, 43 East 22d street, is secretary.

CRIME AND ITS CURE

ISABEL C. BARROWS, Contributing Editor

THE CRIMINAL INSANE

OSCAR LEONARD

Though it became clear in England quite early in the eighteenth century that the insane criminal can not be placed on a par with the sane offender, special provisions for the demented criminal have been slow in coming. In fact, any article on the subject of what is being done in the way of special provisions for the insane criminal must deal rather with what is *not* being done in the various states of the union. Special provisions cost money, which must be obtained from the public. The public will not loosen the purse-strings until it is made to understand the need of such provisions. Unfortunately, in most of our states, the public is not aware of the needs of the criminal insane.

About a decade after the birth of the United States, England opened insane asylums for demented criminals. A little later Ireland and Scotland did the same. Almost a century later New York established the first institution in the United States for the criminal insane. Three years afterwards this example was followed in Canada. Ferri says that there is not one separate institution for the criminal insane in continental Europe today. In most cases the insane criminal is placed in a special ward connected with the prison. Occasionally such criminals are sent to insane asylums.

In the United States insane criminals are sometimes sent to insane asylums. Often they are sent to poor-farms! In connection with some penal institutions there are separate wards for the insane, generally known as the "dippy room." Connecticut consigns insane criminals to the state insane asylum "for such time as the court may direct." Dakota suspends judgment in case of the insane until he becomes sane. But the court has a right to commit such a criminal to the care of the sheriff if the safety of the community demands. Delaware allows the court to commit persons acquitted of crime on a plea of insanity to an almshouse or an insane asylum. The Court of General Sessions may order such a person released. Florida either commits such persons to jail, gives them to the care of friends if the latter give sufficient se-

curity, or sends them to an insane asylum. Missouri sends her demented criminals to insane asylums. For those who are deemed less dangerous and those who become slightly deranged while in prison, a "dippy room" is provided in the state penitentiary. New Hampshire commits those who plead insanity either to an asylum or to prison. New Jersey has no statute dealing with the criminal insane. In North Dakota "morbid propensity to commit prohibited acts" does not always form a defense for such acts. Where the defense of insanity is recognized the person may be sent to the state insane hospital. Wyoming disposes of insane criminals by giving them treatment "prescribed by the state board of charities."

The several manners of disposing of the insane criminal given here are quoted from the Proceedings of the National Prison Association for 1907. Certain states were singled out simply because the various methods employed in them illustrate the subject under consideration. As we have seen, the insane criminal may be sent to an ordinary insane asylum, the poor-house, the jail, placed in care of sheriffs, or assigned to "dippy rooms." Fortunately there are some states which care for the criminal insane in a modern up-to-date fashion. These states should serve as examples for their sister states.

Among the commonwealths that have special provisions for the criminal insane are New York, Massachusetts, Illinois, and Michigan. Pennsylvania and Ohio are now erecting suitable institutions for the insane criminal. New York is the pioneer, having opened its first hospital in 1859. That state has now two such hospitals. Matteawan cares for unconvicted cases sent there by courts. Dannemora looks after the convicted insane. The New York institutions are probably the most up-to-date, serving as a standard for similar institutions throughout the country. Massachusetts has made special provisions for this class of criminals since the early sixties. Michigan's institution for the criminal insane at Ionia dates back to 1883.

Dr. Robert W. Lambert, late medical superintendent of the New York State Hospital, in an article in *Penal and Reformatory Institutions*, edited by Professor Henderson, summarizes the classes of persons sent to such institutions as follows:

Persons who become insane while serving sentence.

Persons accused of crime and found insane previous to or after indictment.

Persons acquitted of crime on the ground of insanity.

Persons of previous criminal tendencies, adjudged lunatics under civil process.

Persons of homicidal tendencies resident in civil hospitals.

Persons who are adjudged lunatics while serving sentence and who are unrecovered on completion of such sentence.

Special institutions for such classes are absolutely needed in every state; for to send criminal insane to regular insane asylums is absurd, unjust, and mischievous. It is surely unjust to the non-criminal insane, as they have a right to be treated as sane respectable citizens would be. The insane asylum should not serve as a dumping ground, any more than an ordinary hospital should. It is mischievous because all kinds of sexual perversions are often part of criminal insanity. Such practices are easily passed on to those who would never know of them were it not for contact with criminal insane. Nor can the criminal insane receive the special treatment needed by them without special institutions. To send the criminal insane to the poor-farm is perhaps still worse than sending them to the ordinary insane asylum. To place them in the care of a sheriff does not solve any problem either for society or for the criminal insane.

In order to be truly helpful to the insane criminal and to do its full duty society should provide special institutions for them. These unfortunates need special care if they are to be nursed back to health and useful citizenship. If the convict becomes insane as a result of his new environment it is evident that he must be removed from prison environment and be placed in an institution. Melancholia, which according to Dr. O. R. Long (*Proceedings N. C. C. C.*, 1896, F. N.), is a rather common form of insanity among first offenders, surely can not be cured by any of antiquated methods prevalent in most of our states. Then, too, society has a certain responsibility toward these offenders. They enter the penal

institutions sane. They are imprisoned as a result of violating rules laid down by society. Society has taken it upon itself to inflict punishment. But it has no right whatsoever to drive them insane. If confining them in prisons brings on insanity, society must nurse them back to a normal state. But this can never be done by means of the "dippy room" or poor-house or sheriff's care.

Ferri in his *Criminal Sociology* favors two kinds of asylums for the criminal insane, in which discipline should differ. He believes there should be an institution for those who commit "serious and dangerous crimes, such as homicide, incendiarism, rape, and the like; and the other for slighter crimes, such as petty theft, violent language, outrages on public decency, and the like. For the latter the seclusion should be shorter than for the others."

H. M. Boies proposes in his *Science of Penology* a type of institution on "the general plan of hospitals for the insane, with prison security in addition." He says they ought to be distinct from the ordinary hospital for the insane as well as from prisons. At the head should be placed an alienist rather than an ordinary warden who perhaps owes his job to political influence.

Dr. Lamb gives the following five requisites for a successful separate institution for the class under consideration:

Buildings on the pavilion plan of hospital construction with from 10 to 15 per cent of single rooms, the balance being dormitories and day rooms.

Buildings to be separate and apart from any other institution and suitable for securing custody, and to have farm lands available for employment.

Administration to be wholly medical in its organization.

Entire cost of maintenance to be borne by the entire commonwealth and not by municipalities or counties.

The general standard of maintenance to be practically as among the civil insane of the same community, with all the liberties possible under a positive custody.

Dr. T. C. Fitzsimmons (*Proceedings N. C. C. C.* 1909, F. N.) makes some valuable suggestions with regard to the site best suited for an institution for the insane criminal. He lays stress on natural pure water, attractive scenery surrounding the institute, and porches with southern exposure.

The many states still without special institutions would do well to study carefully the

suggestions made by these thinkers. There is a great deal of pioneer work to be done by America in this respect. The Old World seems more capable than we to think and dream. We must be, and surely are, more capable of action and of carrying out such ideas and dreams as are worth while. Even as we were first to incorporate in Elmira the ideas of the modern school of criminology, so let us be in the foreground in the care of the unfortunate persons whose reason is clouded and who either do not fully comprehend what they are doing when they commit their offenses, or do so because they lack the balance necessary for perfect control of the will and of their impulses. After all, these persons are what society has made them. To society then falls the duty of caring for them adequately, scientifically and, above all, humanely. For they are part of us though they are stricken.

EARLY REFORM IN VIRGINIA

At the last meeting of the Unitarians at the Isles of Shoals, where for fourteen summers they have assembled for papers, discussion, and good fellowship, William Howell Reed was asked to give some reminiscences of his life in Richmond, Va., immediately after the war. The following is an extract from his paper:

"I remember a visit to the Virginia penitentiary with Frank B. Fay soon after the occupation of the city by our troops. Mr. Fay had at one time . . . made a study of the administration of the prison system of Massachusetts and he was interested to see how the old Virginia penitentiary was managed. . . . We were admitted and went through the dilapidated circular courtyard, with its tiers of galleries and cells surrounding it, rising story above story, all of them filled with men. There were more than 600 in all. We met the superintendent, an old man long in its service, a man apparently without a thought in his view beyond repression—fixed in his methods, bigoted in his conception of what a prison should be, an official who held a personal grip on every man in his cell. He was a keeper hard, stern, inflexible, ready to punish with the lash or other torture any infraction of the rules. The old whipping-post was there and it was used brutally. He took us about and showed us the great store-rooms, filled with lumber or rubbish, and all of them unused. This suggested to Mr. Fay their possible adaptation for shops for industries which might give employment to the men, with profit to the state; but this was inadmissible. The men could not be trusted and were to be held

down and punished until their terms expired. . . . Those engaged about the necessary work of the prison, wearing striped clothing, were cowed and broken. As if proud of his ingenuity, the keeper led the way to a room where he had worked out a new form of punishment that he had recently put into operation for the more obstinate men. It was a closet, or box, where a man might stand and be pinioned, with an arrangement above for the dropping of water upon his head, a form of torture which is said to have been used by the Inquisition.

"This capped the climax of the inspection and made a protest necessary. The state of Virginia was under martial law at this time and with General Schofield in command. We reported at headquarters what we had seen. I recall the force with which General Schofield struck the bell on his desk and called for one of his staff to whom he gave the order to take with him a file of soldiers to the penitentiary, to remove the whipping-post, and break up that box of torture; and it was done forthwith. Supervision was then given to the administration of the prison and a new superintendent was appointed and radical changes followed. . . . The selection of Mr. Wardwell as warden proved a good one. He was a good administrator, he was humane, and held enlightened ideas as to prison discipline. He cleared out the old lumber rooms, introduced a few easily installed manufacturing plants, and set the men to work. One of these great vacant rooms was reserved for a chapel and Sunday School and for occasional practice in singing. . . . New ambitions were gradually stirred in some of the prisoners, and during Mr. Wardwell's term of service great changes were wrought there.

"When the army was withdrawn and Virginia resumed her sway over her own people . . . the better prison system that had been instituted was continued."

PRISON DISCIPLINE

Madam Vera Figner, who for more than twenty years was a prisoner in the terrible Schlüsselburg fortress, has written a pamphlet about the cruelties practiced in Russian prisons. It is heart-sickening to read it. The horrors it relates are only matched in a similar pamphlet recently printed in this country depicting the barbarities practiced in some of our own prisons and convict camps. It is not strange that reading such terrible things should lead people of feeling to inveigh against any severe discipline in prison. If a kind-hearted, gentle person, whose whole soul may be filled with love, tries to talk to an ordinary prison warden on this subject, he is at once accused of "mawkish sentimentality," and the warden instead of being converted to milder methods is quite apt to wreak his

annoyance at the first chance on his prison victims.

Those who know nothing about the worst prisoners have absolutely no conception of their brutal and savage instincts. They cannot conceive of the dangers to which wardens and guards are subject in dealing with them, nor the temptations to return brutality with brutality. How gentle and sweet-tempered people would get on as keepers of prisons we shall never know, for wardens are not selected from that type. It might not be a wise experiment. At the same time it is surely wise to have strict laws governing prison discipline and making every form of "punishment" a matter of record.

A prison-shop keeper who has had thirty-four years' experience says:

"No matter how tough the convict may be he has more or less respect for the keeper who is impartial and unafraid, and a deep contempt for those who lack courage and who depend upon stool pigeons to run the shop and punish one convict on the unsupported statement of another convict."

After giving a few illustrations of his own dealings with the most violent convicts, he concludes:

"Although I was considered too severe a disciplinarian by the convicts (and some officers) I always had the best shop discipline, produced the most work with less fights and less punishments; and my reputation among the many convicts that have passed through my hands in the past thirty-four years is that of a square man who, while maintaining strict discipline, never was partial and endeavored to get them their rights under the rules; and *never was afraid*. But in these days of mawkish sentimentalism qualifications of that nature are out of harmony with the present penological conditions."

Are they? It must take tremendous courage to deal with the hardened and determined men who have committed crimes which have thrown them into prison. Those who are conducting prisons and reformatories under the graded system and the indeterminate law need quite as much courage, moral as well as physical, as any Newgate ever demanded. Strict discipline does not mean brutality. The appeal to higher motives is compatible with the exaction of obedience to prison rules and regulations. A wise business and industrial conduct of prison affairs, with a chance for the men to have some interest in what they are making or doing, is quite as likely to "produce the most work" as stringing men up by their thumbs, or lashing their backs.

For the comparatively few dangerous men who are not amenable to rational discipline a truly indeterminate sentence, or the British "preventive detention," in solitary cells, would seem to be the best treatment. Even in the state prisons, where the writer just quoted was constantly in danger, he says he was never assaulted, though often threatened. It is all a hard problem, especially for the theorist; but human nature has vast possibilities, and the brave and intelligent warden, endowed with a sense of justice, kind at heart, and determined to succeed, will work out a system of discipline that will be severe without being cruel; that will leave the prisoner better than it finds him. There are such wardens even now.

CHOOSING A PROBATION OFFICER

The civil service examination which the New York State Probation Commission, acting upon the invitation of the Syracuse Municipal Civil Service Commission, gave to candidates for the position of chief probation officer in the Syracuse Court of Special Sessions of that city is of wide significance in its form, in the sort of men who took it, and in the results.

A credit of 50 per cent was allowed for the written portion; 20 per cent for age, education, and experience; and 30 per cent for personality and character, judged by an oral interview and by outside inquiries.

Of the thirteen who took the examination a majority were college graduates, and of the five certified to the eligible list all were graduates but one—and he was a senior student. Three of the five are lawyers and one a rabbi; four have had experience in social work, three in boys' clubs, one as superintendent of a recreation center, one in a charity organization society.

Timothy J. Shea, the appointee, who stood first on the list, worked his way through Syracuse University and law school but found time to take the highest honors in oratory and to train successfully for the championship crew. He has been superintendent of the largest recreation center in Syracuse and has done boys' club work. As chief probation officer he will deal with both adult and juvenile offenders and supervise the work of a number of volunteer officers.

The questions for the written examination are worth printing in full:

1. State in your own language (a) the nature, objects and advantages of probation; (b) the classes of persons for whom probation is especially suitable.
2. What are the powers and duties of probation officers?
3. Assume that a thirteen-year-old boy, convicted of playing baseball on private grounds, is transferred by the court to

- your probationary care, after being on probation for one month under a volunteer probation officer who reported to the court that the boy failed to report to him promptly as he required, and who made other criticisms of his conduct; assume that the boy lives in a three-room apartment in a congested district; that his father, a painter who shows some signs of lead poisoning, is fretful and has lately been drinking to excess; that the father occasionally sends the boy to a neighboring saloon for beer; that the mother, who has two other children, is a good housekeeper and fond of her children; that the boy is bright in school, peddles papers, is a leader among his boy companions, but is inclined to be impudent. State what steps you would take after receiving the boy on probation, and how long you would wish to keep the boy on probation.
4. Enumerate and discuss some of the chief causes of (a) truancy; (b) petty thieving among boys; (c) public intoxication among men; (d) failure of husbands to support their families.
 5. (a) What are the purposes of the preliminary investigations made by probation officers before defendants are placed on probation or their cases are otherwise disposed of by the court? (b) Assume that in investigating the case of a young man, convicted of stealing and pawning an overcoat which belonged to a commercial traveller, you receive a report from an anonymous source that the defendant has been arrested before, and you also receive a telephone call from a well-known citizen who states that he has known him very favorably for several years; assume further, that the defendant has a comfortable home and good parents; that he had been unemployed for about one month; that he has been engaged to be married for two years; that he has indications of tuberculosis. After assuming any supplementary facts you may desire, state what inquiries you would make; and whether in your judgment the young man should be placed on probation, and if not, what disposition by the court you would consider desirable. Give the reasons for your conclusion.
 6. (a) By whom are probation officers appointed? (b) What qualifications should probation officers possess? (c) Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of using volunteer probation officers.
 7. (a) Why should probation officers keep records and make reports? (b) State the principal facts which their records and reports should show; (c) what records, accounts, statistics, and information should be kept by the chief probation officer which other probation officers are not expected to keep?
 8. Assume that a fourteen-year-old girl, living in a lodging house where her mother is employed as a cook, is convicted of stealing a mask on Hallowe'en Day; that the father, who died last year, left the mother \$1,000 insurance; that the girl is large of her age and goes a great deal with a girl sixteen years old; that she has frequent headaches, especially after reading; that she is fond of music; and that her mother declares her to be untruthful. State (a) whether in your judgment the girl should be placed on probation and the reasons for your answer; (b) if she were to be placed on probation, what sort of a person would make the best probation officer; and (c) what probationary treatment you would suggest.
 9. Assume that an unmarried foreigner, twenty-seven years of age, who has lived in the United States less than one year and who speaks very little English, is convicted of peddling without a license and being abusive to a policeman and is placed under your probationary care for not less than six months; that in his native country he was a gardener and florist; that he has been unemployed much of the time lately, and has borrowed money from one of the two fellow-countrymen with whom he lives in a single room; that a few hours after being placed on probation he strikes a boy for ridiculing his appearance. State what you would aim to accomplish, and what means you would use.
 10. Were you to be appointed chief probation officer, how would you expect to develop and strengthen the probation work in Syracuse?

JOTTINGS

PREVENTIVE DETENTION

In 1908 the English Parliament passed a law known as the Prevention of Crime Act. This was really to meet the problem of the habitual criminal, the greatest of all problems of modern crime, but it has not been very well understood. Preventive detention can follow only upon a sentence of at least three years' penal servitude. During detention prisoners are to be within locked cells or under close supervision, and hard work is to be enforced. "If there were neglect or relaxation in the supervision," says the home secretary, "it would inevitably lead to escape, or mutiny, or vice." The professional criminal will have a harder lot than heretofore. Prisoners will be in three grades—ordinary, special, and disciplinary.

After every six months passed in the ordinary grade with exemplary conduct, a prisoner who has shown zeal and industry in the work assigned to him may be awarded a certificate of industry and good conduct. Four of these certificates will entitle him to promotion to the special grade. With each certificate a pris-

oner will receive a good-conduct stripe carrying privileges or a small money payment.

If a prisoner misbehaves he may be thrust down into the disciplinary grade. Prisoners will receive gratuities for the trade at which they work, and may spend their money on small luxuries at a canteen, or may send it to their families, or may save it. Those who have got three certificates may have a garden allotment, and may sell the produce for the use of the prison at market rates. Prisoners in the ordinary and special grades will be allowed to talk at meals and in the evenings, and have "additional relaxations of a literary and social character", according to the number of their certificates.

"The whole scheme," says the *Spectator*, "leaves untouched the criminal who is most of all a charge upon one's pity—the person without a moral sense, who is not insane enough for Broadmoor, but who preys upon society the moment he is released from prison."

SWISS GUARDIAN CLASSES

Several cities in Switzerland have adopted active measures to prevent juvenile delinquency by the formation of guardian classes to look after children whose parents cannot properly watch over the little boys and girls out of school hours. One of the most efficient of these, Basel, is particularly energetic in this work, with the result that the children of that city have a reputation for good conduct and that the proportion of juvenile arrests is very small for a city of 130,000.

The guardian classes of Basel are organized by the city, which furnishes the teachers, the materials for games and employments, and a luncheon for the children. They are open at intervals from eight in the morning until six in the evening. About a hundred teachers, or directors, are employed. The object is to keep the children busy and happy outside of the regular school hours. Besides games they learn to sew, to knit, to net, to embroider, to sing, and to work with cardboard. They play out-door games and in summer swim, row, and take tramps; and in winter they skate and coast. About thirty-five children are in a class. Last year there were more than two thousand children in these classes.

In addition there is a Playground Society, which last year arranged games in which 8586 children took part, directed by 110 teachers. The city appropriates 3,000 francs (\$600) towards the expenses of these games. A third active society has evening gatherings for children, with singing, reading, magic-lantern pictures, etc. A thousand meet each evening and have a very good time together. These gatherings are not intended primarily to keep children from the street, but they have that effect. Of course kindergartens abound, more than 4,000 little ones attending them. There are evening schools for manual training with 1,600 pupils, whose zeal, application, and good conduct merit praise.

These methods are not all new, for one

society has just celebrated, in a quiet way, its twenty-fifth anniversary. That is a society for keeping the boys off the streets between five and seven in the evening. They are gathered into seven large halls, from five to seven times a week for three months in the winter. They play games and sing, but the chief attraction is that the director tells a long story to the assembly every evening. There were more than 24,000 boys who heard these stories last winter. These are things an intelligent community is doing to prevent juvenile crime, rather than cure it.

TEXAS AND HER CONVICTS

The chairman of the Board of Texas Prison Commissioners, B. E. Cabell, is responsible for the following statements in the *Dallas News*:

"At this time the state has between 600 and 700 men at Huntsville and Rusk within the walls, and about 1,100 on her own state farms. About 1,000 are on share farms, where the state supplies the labor and gets part of the crop.

"At the beginning of the year about 800 convicts were being worked on farms and railroads. Within the last thirty days the railroad contracts have expired and have not been renewed. Some of the men were moved within the walls and others sent to the farms owned by the state. The present commissioners are in thorough harmony with Governor Colquitt, who made it known that he wanted the contract and share farm system abolished as soon as practicable and that all the convicts should be worked on state account. To this end the prison commissioners gave notice to all whose contracts expired with the end of this year that the contracts would not be renewed. This will leave very few men on share farms and none on contracts at the end of this year.

"The state has about 10,000 acres of land beside the 17,000 now in cultivation. This 10,000 acres will be put in cultivation for the year 1912. It is the intention of the prison commission (and has already been done) to put the farms and farm buildings in first-class condition, to make the buildings comfortable and healthful, to have good sanitation, and wholesome conditions and all reasonable arrangements for the comfort of the convicts."

REFORM SCHOOL FOR BOYS

The State of South Carolina sends its bad boys to a reformatory established two years ago at Florence. There are at present sixty-one boys there. Of these nine have step-fathers, twelve have step-mothers, both the fathers and mothers of four are dead, eighteen have no mothers, while two never had any home or father or mother that they remember. The knowledge that the lack of parental training and care had brought so many children into crime life has brought about the passage of a new law providing that if a child is abandoned or being brought up in immoral or vicious surroundings, or without any ade-

quate care or support, it shall be the duty of the judge of probate to commit the child to the care and rearing of the rescue orphanage which was recently started under a charter from the state.

CONVICTS BUILD PRISON

The Topeka, Kan., *Capital* shows how much construction work can be done by convict labor. Lieut. Col. T. H. Slavens, the officer in charge, is building a prison of more than two and a half million dollars in value, though but \$643,000 has been appropriated for it by Congress. The convict workmen, who make the concrete blocks, lay the masonry, build the smoke-stack, etc., are under the charge of foremen from outside. It will require another year to complete it. It will have cell capacity for more than two thousand men.

CONVICTS IN THE WOODS

During the past summer Ontario has had large prison camps in various places. The *Montreal Star*, speaking of the one at Porcupine, says:

"Seventy men have been serving out their sentences in the woods of northern Ontario to the mutual advantage of themselves and the province. In their road-making, they do not compete with other labor to its disadvantage, and they make it possible for the government to open up new country at a minimum cost. The conventional features of penitentiary life, the convict garb, the enforced silence, the uniform monotony of days, are done away with and the cure of honest work in healthy surroundings is allowed to work itself out without the handicap of morbid associations. There is no mawkish sentimentality in making a man who has broken the laws work out his punishment by cutting down trees and filling in morasses on the far frontiers of the province; but there is less of indignity and more possibility of developing self-respect."

VERMONT STATE PRISON

The state of Vermont has a governor interested in prison reform, and his efforts at improving the status of prisoners has been made easier because the legislature has passed a law authorizing all sheriffs to set their prisoners to work "either inside or outside the jails." Concerning the experiment of working them outside, Morrison I. Swift says in the *Atlantic Monthly*:

"During the four years, out of 800 prisoners treated upon the new plan, only two attempted to escape, both of whom were recaptured and sentenced to long terms in the house of correction for betraying the trust reposed in them. With such a record as this the sheriff no longer feels perturbed if his entire corps of prisoners is scattered in every direction during the day, and he is perfectly assured that at night they will reappear at the jail.

"During the whole period their labor earned above \$6,000, of which a total exceeding \$2,600 was kept by themselves. As a rule the men have carefully saved their money, limiting per-

mitted purchases for themselves to send it home to those dependent on them."

REFORMATORY IS NEEDED

Commissioner F. E. Wade, of the New York State Prison Commission, reporting on the penitentiaries, says:

"A state reformatory for misdemeanants, where boys between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one can be committed on an indeterminate sentence and receive instruction in trades and letters, is the most necessary and urgent prison reform under discussion. These boys can now be committed only to penitentiaries and jails, except in the city of New York, and the penitentiary and jail associations and treatment confirm them in criminal habits."

The commissioner suggests that efforts be concentrated on:

First, securing the enactment of the bill prepared by the State Commission of Prisons providing for a state reformatory for male misdemeanants between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one.

Second, securing the enactment of the bills prepared by the State Commission of Prisons permitting the Superintendent of Prisons to market the product of penitentiaries.

Third, some organized action to induce county authorities to establish and extend sufficient industries in the penitentiaries to give employment to all the inmates.

THE PARDONING POWER

When one reads of the wholesale and indiscriminate—and undiscriminating—pardons of which several governors have recently been guilty, it is refreshing to read the words of Gov. J. F. Shafroth of Colorado, addressed to the International Good Roads Congress:

"It is my belief that there should be no pardoning power excepting under critical exigencies. The prevention of crime lies in the certainty of its punishment, and when persons convicted appreciate the extent of the pardoning power, they say, 'Oh, well, we will be pardoned out, so what's the use of being convicted?'"

"The only way in which a person convicted of an offense or crime should be allowed freedom is through good behavior and earning his or her release by hard and consistent work. Give them this work. Show them that they are human, stop their brooding, make it worth while for them to be free, and show them that the lowliest will be recognized with the highbrow offender.

"We should have federal and state laws compelling all persons convicted of offenses or crime to earn their liberty by work, and the convict should receive one-third of his earnings, not for himself alone, but for his family's support and to give him a start when he is liberated."

With the genuine indeterminate sentence, good parole laws, and good parole and probation officers, there would be no scope for the pardoning power, and the governors might be relieved of this responsibility.

SOCIAL AGENCIES

CHILDREN IN RURAL DISTRICTS

J. J. KELSO

General Superintendent of Neglected and Dependent Children for the Government of Ontario

In past years the great bulk of philanthropic effort has been confined to cities. There organization is much simpler and financial support is more readily obtained. Social conditions are evident to all, and where there is distress or poverty, relief is promptly extended. If there is vice or wrong-doing the public eye is equally certain to discover it. In the country, where people are scattered, there is little public opinion and little effective organization to relieve the individual complainant from personal responsibility. Then, too, the generously disposed usually send their gifts to popular city charities.

This means that an important social work is left undone, and too often vice flourishes and degenerate children grow up to be a burden and a menace to the community. Few people realize how serious this problem is, or what an expensive and vexatious addition this means to the dependent and criminal population.

I once made the statement in a public meeting of social workers that many tramps, vagrants, and other undesirable characters are born in the country and afterwards gravitate to the city. This did not accord with the general view, as the majority believed that nearly all criminals and vicious persons are the products of the city slum; but I still believe that a large share of unfortunate characters come from the Ishmaelite class in the country. When the neglected child of the rural district reaches the age of fourteen or fifteen he almost invariably commits some offence that brings him under the censure of the law, and then he either voluntarily or by compulsion disappears from the neighborhood, drifting to larger cities, or tramping about from place to place without home or occupation. Few people realize how many cases, both of boys and of girls, there are of this kind, because so little attention has been paid to the subject.

Without doubt the worst cases of immorality, incest, cruelty, and neglect of children

in my experience have been found in the country. In the cities and large towns there is a strong Christian sentiment and greater social activity. People are better educated in right living, and any serious lapses from the right path are quickly reported and the necessary corrective measures applied. In the rural districts there is little public sentiment of that sort, no united social activity; but, on the other hand, there is the toleration that is often inspired by fear of personal harm. Undesirable characters in the neighborhood are sometimes well known throughout a large area, but no one can be found to lay an information for fear of injury to his person, stock, or property.

The school attendance law is rarely enforced in rural districts. Not only is there lack of effort to get children to attend, but many cases occur where neglected children have been encouraged by the school teacher to stay away. Such cases have come within my experience. Children from a neglected home, if they should happen to turn up at the school untidy and verminous, do not receive a welcome. Other children taunt them, and the teacher, for the sake of the better class of children, tells them to stay at home until they are cleaned up, which practically means banishment. Neglected children frequently use bad language and so are a menace to respectable children. For these conditions the children themselves are not responsible; and yet, unfortunately, they bear all the reproach, and any incentive they might have to a better life is crushed out by the treatment they receive.

In the country it is rare that any definite steps are taken to lift them out of their evil environment. In most rural districts there is great ignorance of the law, and the village or rural constable is usually a man-of-all-work who has taken on this extra duty to add a little to his income. Clergymen and church-workers have never had opportunity to study social reform work, and are sometimes as innocent as babes as to the real evils

that exist in the world. A rural clergyman, long engaged in the ministry, wrote me concerning a notoriously bad woman in his neighborhood, bad because she was feeble-minded, saying: "I am afraid Miss—is not very respectable, for she has had four or five children, although she has never been married." Others have approached grave social dangers and moral pests in the community with the same timid and hesitating method of introduction.

On another occasion a clergyman wrote me that there was a vile resort in his district, and that all the respectable farmers would drive a mile or two out of their way to avoid seeing and hearing the evil-doing that went on there on Sundays, when the wild youth of the neighborhood would gather to carouse.

"Instead of allowing the farmers to drive around this place," I remarked, "why not call a meeting of a few of your influential men and insist on their driving through it?"

"But what can we do?" he asked in astonishment.

When it was explained that the parties could be arrested for disorderly conduct and for keeping an improper resort, etc., he eagerly agreed to have action taken; and as a result of a conference and legal advice, the place was raided, several inmates sent to public institutions or to friends in other districts, and the hovel pulled down so that it could not be used for wrong purposes again.

Among the children growing up in poor families in rural districts there are often physical defects in infants and young people that remain unattended to, and the children grow up with imperfections that could easily



NEGLECTED PEOPLE DEGENERATE.

have been prevented had there been proper medical and surgical care. Feeble-minded children also are found in these families, and when no steps are taken to place them under custodial care they are led astray at an early age, often marry some worthless degenerate, and perpetuate an undesirable class.

All these things point to the strong necessity for better organization, greater vigilance, and more practical measures in eliminating from our rural districts the ignorance, crime, and degeneracy that now exist. Many of these families need sympathetic encouragement. They have been given a bad name, are shunned by the rest of the community, the children grow up recognizing that every man's hand is against them, and so naturally develop all the badness that is expected from them.

The establishment of travelling social secretaries, who could organize social work in towns and villages, create the right kind of public sentiment, and deal radically with extreme cases, would be a step in the right direction. I have often thought that if instead of appointing constables for purely detective and punitive work we could have social up-building and preventive work as their main duty the results would be much more satisfactory. Above all, more attention should be given to education in rural districts; for if children



SIX CHILDREN LIVED HERE.

October 21, 1911.



THE TENEMENT CHILD'S COUNTRY COUSINS.

can be kept steadily under the beneficial influence of the school-room during the formative period of their lives, their prospects for future usefulness and happiness are materially increased.

There is a great lack of rational amusement and recreation in the country. Every small town or village should have a social center building and a good playground. These features, with a competent director, and with club rooms and hall for concerts, dances, etc., would exercise a healthy, pleasure-giving influence that would offset to some extent the deplorable exodus to the cities. If municipal councils and philanthropists would take up this project they would be doing the highest kind of service for the community.

Wealthy and influential city charities should exercise some oversight over the nearby rural districts. Some charities actually draw a line around the city and refuse to touch any case, no matter how urgent, that happens to be outside that line. This is a narrow and short-sighted policy, as it is really the duty and privilege of all charities receiving money from the public to take cognizance of the needs of the surrounding territory. One often hears the excuse, "We have

received our funds from the city, and what right have we to spend any of them in the county?" It is doubtless true that county and town councils have been extremely parsimonious in making grants for social or charitable work; but at least there should be constant educational work carried on until the necessary funds are secured to cover the much-needed rural work.

It would be a mistake to say that we have found the solution to these problems in Ontario, for there are many districts where much remains to be done; but it is at least true that some effort has been made to cope with the need. Our Children's Aid system, which covers the entire province, and is a uniform and co-operative plan, is in itself unique. Outside of many individual workers and correspondents there are between sixty and seventy Children's Aid Societies actively engaged in work for the protection of children, with all the social uplift that such work implies. Further, this united work centers in a head office in the Government Building at Toronto to which the people everywhere in the province are not only invited, but urged, to report any cases of child neglect, so that proper steps may be taken to bring about improvement. In addition to the many societies and committees and correspondents, there are, in various sections of the province, inspectors of Children's Aid Societies who, as representatives of the central office, are prepared at any time to go anywhere when instructed to make these special investigations. In addition to this there is a special officer, attached to the head office, who is constantly on the road enquiring into the cases that are reported to the superintendent. In this way many families are warned and encouraged to put themselves in the way of timely assistance; immoral and vicious conditions are done away with; children are removed to a new environment, when that is obviously the best thing to do; and at all places touched the agent or inspector endeavors to interest influential residents in child-protection work. Literature and letters requesting co-operation in the great work of lifting the social status of the people are sent out daily from the central office, and every possible effort is made to create new conditions of moral wholesomeness and material prosperity where there was formerly degradation, poverty, and despair.

October 21, 1911.

THE WORK WITH THE CHILDREN IN THE LIBRARIES OF GREATER NEW YORK¹

MARY W. PLUMMER

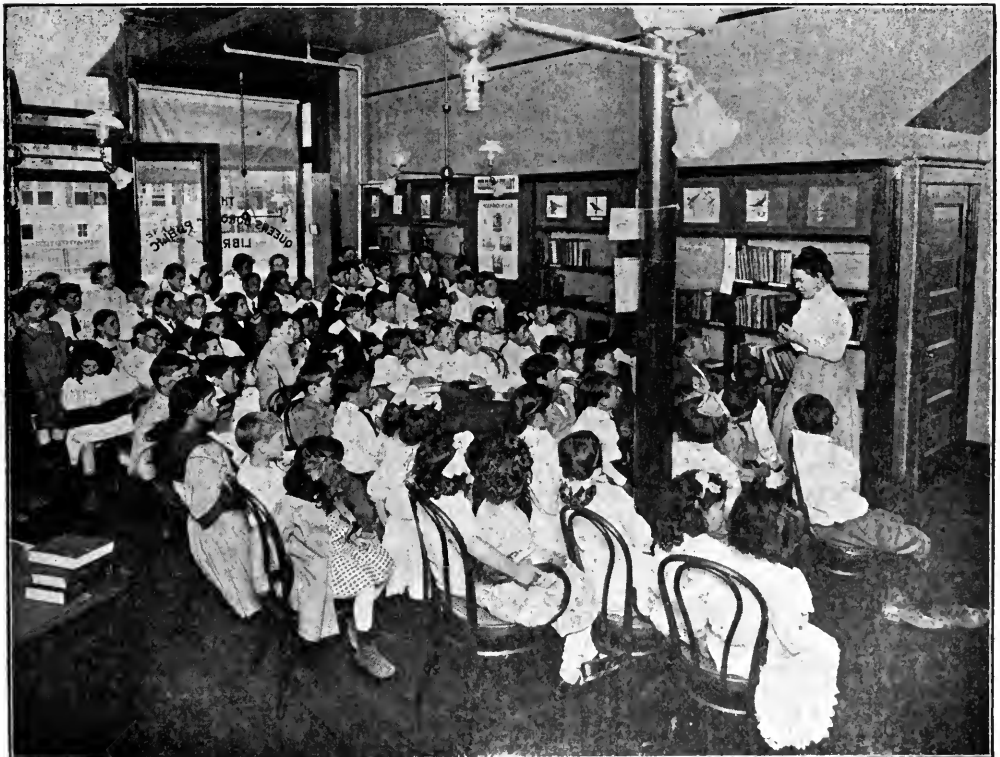
DIRECTOR PRATT INSTITUTE LIBRARY SCHOOL, BROOKLYN

Children's libraries until recently have been in the position of the man whose story is told in William Allingham's *Journal*. Having died, he presented himself before St. Peter, who was doubtless busily employed in separating the sheep from the goats, and who asked perfunctorily, "What are you, a Protestant?" "No, Your Honor." "A Catholic?" "No, Your Honor. I'm nothing at all, Your Honor." "Oh," indifferently, "then you can go where you like." Educators have glanced at libraries and decided that they were not educational institutions; social reformers have not considered them factors in social work. So they have gone where they liked.

A glance at the history of the library's work for children may not be amiss. In 1890, the

¹An abstract of a paper read before the Child Welfare Conference.

older people using the public library of Brookline, Mass., complained that there were so many children underfoot that the elders could not read in quiet. So the librarian set aside a room in the basement for the children, under the charge of the janitor. Without intention it was a scientific move, for in order to study anything you have first to segregate it from other things. The expedient was noted in professional library journals and before long Minneapolis had done the same thing. In 1894 Cambridge, Mass., and Denver, in 1895 Boston, New Haven, Omaha, Seattle, San Francisco, and in 1896 Pratt Institute of Brooklyn followed suit. The era of children's rooms and special attention to children had begun, and hardly a new library was built—even of the smallest size—that did not provide a room or a corner for "the little tots,"



A CHILDREN'S HOUR FOR STORY-TELLING.

as the more sentimentally-inclined wanted to call them.

It was thought at first that with the books open to the children all that was necessary had been done. Librarians did not realize how much they had to learn about children. That was fifteen years ago.

In the Pratt Institute children's library college boys and girls are now coming back occasionally, revisiting the scenes of their long-past youth, and those in charge like to think that when these visitors indulge in reminiscences in years to come, the children's room will bulk large in the scenes of their childhood.

The neighborhood of Pratt Institute has been one of more or less floating population, but it is on the edge of a district where people own their own homes. So the library has had a variety of children: some for whom a fine of two cents a day was prohibitive; some who used the library with more or less condescension. Each year, owing to the new children who move into the neighborhood, there has to be a course of training in the use of public property, in consideration of the rights of others, in quiet manners, in honesty and fairness, in respect for the books, in knowledge of the books.

Until 1906 the New York Public Library had an age-limit for children who might draw books, none under twelve being allowed to do so. The library, like many others, proceeded on an assumption, which it has taken long years to kill, that all children have real homes, that these homes all have books in them, and that the father and mother are intelligent, reading people who will see to the child's needs in a literary direction. If they do not, then the teacher in the public school will see to them.

Brooklyn dropped the age-limit clause in 1901, and, with the appointment of supervisors of work with children, organized work with children began there in 1903, in Manhattan, Richmond, and the Bronx in 1906, and in Queens in 1908. It meant setting aside certain assistants to form the grade of children's librarians, with the end in view of remaining in that service, as the position was not in the direct line of promotion. Trained and experienced children's librarians from the library schools and from other libraries, and general assistants who seemed likely to succeed in work with children, were drawn into the field. At present there are almost as many as there are branches, and every Carnegie branch has a separate room for children, as a matter of course.

In the districts occupied by foreigners, where thousands of small Americans-in-the-making crowd the libraries, these children's librarians are truly a civic force, visiting homes, always with some good excuse, to get the help of the parents; visiting the schools to win the assistance of the teacher; welcoming overtures of priest and rabbi to be admitted to the circle, the only password to which is genuine interest in children.

Since the opening of the children's rooms, in certain districts, at least, the needs of the children using them have more and more become evident. They wanted not only books to carry home, but in many cases some place besides home in which to read or to study their lessons. One has only to visit one or two of the tenement flats from which the majority of the children come to realize how unsuited they are to such occupations as reading or study. Small rooms, often full of noisy children, where the household duties are continually carried on, without good light or good air, frequently too hot or too cold for health or comfort, where the child is constantly interrupted and made to change his place to get out of the way of the housework—nothing but the absorbing curiosity and interest and imagination of a child could survive such trials and drawbacks. The children's department of the library provides a large reading room with plenty of daylight or clear artificial light at night, good ventilation, elbow-room at the tables except at rush times, chairs and tables of suitable size, no rigid rules for silence but a sort of vitalized silence nevertheless, and always someone ready to show how to use dictionaries, encyclopedias, indexes, and card-catalogues, so that help with studies is available. Is not this educational?

The public library has its organized connection with the public schools, naturally, in addition to unorganized work with individual teachers and children. Though the public schools have their own libraries, these are supplemented by travelling libraries in the case of Manhattan, Richmond, the Bronx, and Brooklyn, and the libraries stand ready at any time to do whatever work is demanded for or with the schools.

There are various things which libraries have to combat, but which are bound to grow less in neighborhoods where the children's library has much to do with the children. One cause of these difficulties is the ignorance of parents regarding the power of books. A book is a book to some of these simple people who are anxious for their children to read and write and raise themselves above the parental level; and if their child is engaged in reading he is necessarily acquiring knowledge and power. That there are bad books, demoralizing in one way or another, books that weaken moral fiber, these fathers and mothers do not know and cannot understand. In most of such books there is something—often an obscure something—that attracts. The children's librarian has to find out what the children like in them and seek among her books for something equally attractive with a different influence.

Another difficulty is the indifference of the educated parent—educated in the formal sense of the word. The father absorbed in business, the mother in social life, and both in sport of one kind or another, are abso-

lutely unaware, apparently, of what their children read or whether they read at all.

A growing rival of the library is the moving-picture show. Some librarians have thought to counteract this influence by having educational moving pictures at the library, with references to the books that treat of similar subjects. But the root of the difficulty seems to be deeper down than the character of the things shown.

Aside from the physical effect on the eyes and consequently on the brain, the vogue of these pictures is either symptomatic of a deep-seated defect or abnormality in the constant spectator, or it is the cause of it. For some time children's librarians have observed children—no small number—who do not read but pretend to look at pictures, and who, instead of really looking at pictures, simply turn aimlessly one leaf after another, scarcely glancing at the pages, and lay the book by to take up another to go through it in the same way. Attention seems to be attracted only to things moving—the stationary object has no chance of being regarded by these children. Concentration of attention seems a lost art. What does it mean? Is it like the rage for speed, a sort of narcotic, inhibiting mental action in part while it stimulates the nerves? What is to blame for it? The economic condition of the parent, which requires him to do work requiring no thought, to which, in fact, thought would be detrimental? The conditions of education which require children to go through a given mill and allow small time for the encouragement of individual observation and reflection?

Children's librarians think that in the right books at the right time the old ideals of industry and application, of patience with slow and steady progress, can be saved and made useful, if only the child be taken hold of and separated from the rival influences that make for submersion.

In 1910, 4,326,553 books were lent to children in the five boroughs. Consider that children come voluntarily to these libraries and choose their own books, that the collections are well selected, and you cannot fail to see what a tremendous educative and civilizing agency the public library, rightly administered, has come to be. Among these readers are the thinkers, the scholars, the men of action, the lawgivers, the publicists (men and women), the fathers and mothers and teachers of the next generation.



HEARING TALES FROM BOOKS ABOUT ANIMALS.

As many as twenty-five nationalities are reported as using some of the branch libraries; and as these children are getting from the books they borrow American history and biography, subtle suggestions of good breeding and etiquette, and a knowledge of the upper levels of life to which all in a free country have a right to aspire, it must be admitted that the children's library is a pervasive ingredient in the melting-pot. The ignorant foreigner, as we call him, often knows vaguely his country's history, yet when he comes here he finds himself despised because he cannot speak or read our language; he is tempted to regard himself, his country, and all that belongs to it as of little worth. The libraries try to check this waning of self-respect and of consciousness of worth in the children, at least, by reminding them of their race's titles to respect and admiration and by trying to prove to them that the new patriotism may include the old.

The libraries all make use of story-telling and of the picture-bulletins, for they have discovered the value of suggestion. They are gradually making their contributions to child-psychology by experimenting to gain certain ends and watching the effect. The story in itself, if well selected and well told, is a simple, inexpensive means of enjoyment with a universal and everlasting appeal, and through it the children's librarian leads to her books, which are at hand when story-tellers are not and which are without the limitations of story-telling.

As for the picture-bulletin, its uses may be informational, inspiring, or strictly suggestive. Carefully made, with due regard to artistic principles, reserved for sufficiently great subjects and great occasions, it has the virtue of

condensation, and of showing the various phases of a subject at a glance, with the clearness and the instantaneous grip on the mind of all good graphic explanation, and it, too, leads to the book; for, though the bulletin itself may not have much text, it is not a bulletin unless it contains a list of references to sources in which the reader can find more on its subject.

Co-operation with other agencies is often brought about by mutual attraction. In Brooklyn the supervisor is in close touch with several clubs of mothers, discussing with them the importance of right reading for their children at home and of the purchase of the right books as gifts. In Manhattan co-operation with the schools brings about the visits of teachers and their classes in a body to the library. Queens sends story-tellers to

at least one playground and addresses one public school mothers' club. Of the travelling libraries for children sent to various places I have already spoken.

It is not my intention to magnify the office of the children's librarian, but to magnify once more the office of the book. There is testimony from the beginning of recorded history of the importance of thoughts and ideas. "As he thinketh, so is he," said Solomon, and all the ages since have subscribed to the saying. The printed word is probably more powerful still in spreading thought and hence in making real men and women than any other agency; and it is the thought that becomes an assumption, the thought that goes into the making of the *boy* or *girl*, that is really most influential of all, for, we are told, "implicit assumptions rule the world."

MOVING PICTURES IN THE PLAYGROUNDS

E. M. BEST

ASSISTANT SUPERVISOR OF PLAYGROUNDS, WINNIPEG, MANITOBA

The value of motion-pictures for educational purposes has been frequently pointed out. Last year several cities reported that they had given moving-picture entertainments in their recreation centres, with good results. It has remained for the city of Winnipeg, however, to take the first step in using motion pictures as a medium for a definite program of popular education.

In less than twenty-five years Winnipeg has grown from a crude outpost of civilization into a splendid, modern city. Park and school sites are purchased years before they are needed. As a result of this policy the city has nearly forty splendid modern school buildings and nearly everyone of them has a full city block for a playground. Small parks are scattered all over the city and two big recreation parks are in process of making.

Three years ago, the city fathers took over the newly started playground system and provided funds sufficient to equip and maintain five playgrounds during the summer months. This year the city council unanimously voted \$12,000 for thirteen playgrounds. As the school grounds are available and are of ample size, the commission is able to devote the yearly appropriation entirely to apparatus and supervision. Each summer a definite program of games, athletics, gymnastics, folk dancing, and swimming is carried through. This year several special features were arranged, such as: an exhibition of playground activities on Civic Holiday at the new City Park; a Tooth-Brush Day, as part of a campaign on dental hygiene; an inter-playground competition or play-fest in which nearly two thousand competed; and, finally, a series of moving-picture entertainments.

These moving-picture entertainments were one of the most successful features and fully demonstrated their value as a means of reaching the people. The programs were put on out doors every night for over two weeks. Each playground was visited in turn and the children were urged to bring their parents. No admission fee was charged and the attendance was both large and enthusiastic.

The films were carefully selected and the vital points in each were clinched by the use of slides. The use of slides also made it possible to advertise the purpose and ideals of the playgrounds, and to stimulate the feelings of social ownership and civic pride. In addition to the pictures a musical program by gramophone was arranged.

One of the motion-picture exchanges made a very favorable rate for the use of the films, screen, and machine, and also supplied the operator for the series. The machine was mounted on a truck and placed about 100 feet away from the school building. A heavy stage cable connected the machine to the switch-board in the basement. The eighteen-foot screen was hung from the second story windows of the school, and in less than half an hour the performance was ready to begin.

As soon as it was dark enough, the director had the smaller children sit on the ground in a semicircle about thirty feet back from the building. In a short speech he welcomed the parents to the play-ground and made such special announcements as were necessary, and then the performance began. First there were a few slides telling about the playgrounds, such as:

"This playground is conducted by the City Playground Commission. They conduct thirteen playgrounds during July and August."

"These playgrounds are free. They aim to make strong bodies, keen minds, and good citizens."

Then came the first film, entitled, *The Man Who Learned*. This is an impressive story of the danger from a dirty dairy. The slides following were intended to convey similar lessons; as, "Cleanliness is next to Godliness, but it takes some folks a long time to get wise." The next film, *The Red Cross Seal*, dealt with the problem of tuberculosis, and was followed by slides such as, "Fresh air and sunlight are the best safeguards against disease. Keep your windows open day and night."

Then followed a comedy film called *Tam and Jock*, which told of the troubles of two young Scotch farmers when they joined the Gordon Highlanders. This film raised a perfect storm of laughter every time it was shown. After this came slides giving some playground ideals:

"Don't be a grouser—play the game."

"The school buildings and grounds belong to you. Protect your property against injury."

"Trained directors on each ground teach games, athletics, gymnastics, folk dances, and fair play in everything."

Last of all was a double film on the fly question. The first half was the well-known *Fly Pest*, which gives the life cycle of a fly and how it carries contagion. The second half was the humorous film *Swat the Fly*, giving the adventures of Mr. McSwat in his individual campaign against flies. The program closed with cheers for the ground and the singing of *God Save The King*.

The pictures were quite plain fifty yards away and not once was there a break-down of any kind. The order was excellent, and although a policeman was always present, there was no need to call upon him for service. The slides were generally spelled out by the children and frequently interpreted by them to foreign-born parents, and all of the moving pictures, both humorous and serious, were appreciated.

The expense of this plan of public education was small, and the commission was delighted with the success of the innovation. A much more extensive program is being planned for next year and no doubt many cities will follow the example of Winnipeg.



A SCHOOL-YARD CROWD.

JOTTINGS

SOCIAL CENTERS POPULAR

Harrisburg, Penn., is in the throes of a campaign for social centers. At a meeting of the Bureau of Education and Professions of the Board of Trade on September 18, a resolution was drawn asking the school board for the use of the auditorium of the Technical High School for one such center, and for the appointment of a committee to establish others. The whole city seems to be eager for the innovation. The plan is to establish in the building of the technical high school a recreation place which will be opened several evenings each week.

VILLAGE PUBLIC SPIRIT

At Croton-on-Hudson there was recently a good illustration of the way in which small places may contribute to reforms. Heretofore the district nurse in the community has drawn little financial support from the village. Fortunately several city families have moved out there, bringing with them the spirit of community of interest and of aid. So when it was necessary to raise an extra hundred dollars, instead of following the usual method of a social affair at a dollar admission, the villagers themselves were induced to give the entertainment, with tickets at twenty-five cents. The Italian and Hungarian villagers danced their national dances and sang their own songs, and the children of Americans danced old English dances. More than one hundred and fifty dollars was raised; but better than that was the spirit of village self-aid which was developed.

PERSONALS

They drop out, the old fighters, one by one, and it grows lonesome in the gap they leave, till we pull ourselves together, close up ranks, and catch our step again. John Bancroft Devins left a wide gap. He was so many-sided. His sympathies were so broad, and withal in his method he was always sane.



JOHN BANCROFT DEVINS.
Sept. 26, 1856—Aug. 26, 1911.

Our paths crossed first when we were reporters together on the *Tribune*, in the old days. He was a good man on "a story," as by and by he proved a good man at the desk, for he was faithful in all he did, unselfish ever. Already then he was busy with the little "fresh-air" whose lives he followed from the dark tenements into God's out-of-doors and back to their homes of poverty, because his interest was not merely the reporter's, but that of the lover of men. It was natural that when he went to preach it should be among his friends on the East Side. He did more than preach to them; he was their pastor and friend. I saw him at his work there, for we never parted company from the beginning. When he died we were fellow-members of the Citizens' Committee that is battling for a people's park on the seashore. He knew what that meant to the crowded tenements, and he joined as a matter of course.

"What can I do?" he wrote, and every step after that he followed with watchful interest.

On the East Side he was an organizer of the people for good works. Always he was a staunch lieutenant of Mrs. Lowell, which of itself tells where he stood and for what things. He sat in the first Small Parks Committee, and the lines it laid down we have followed since. From its meetings in the City Hall he went to his labors in the *Tribune* office for the fresh-air children. Often he went with them on their journeys and they loved the kindly man. It seemed as if nothing could tire him out. When engrossing editorial work on the *Observer* came to him, he kept his grip on his little friends. Editing, preaching, traveling in later years, he remained ever the plain,

homelike man who labored up the many flights of stairs in the East Side tenements to his "poor people" and knew their every need and want. Whether he directed the cleaning of alleys and whitewashing of tenement cellars as a means of keeping the poor from starving in the hard winter of 1893-4, or sat in some board of wealthy philanthropists who looked to him to find wise ways of helping where help was needed, he was the same sane, great-hearted man.

He was not far gone in the fifties when his work ended, and to us it seems a waste of useful years yet to come. But we know that in God's providence there is no waste. And is there anyone who in his soul really believes that John Bancroft Devins's work is ended with his earth-life? JACOB A. RIIS.

Paul Kennaday has been appointed secretary of the New York state branch of the Association for Labor Legislation. Mr. Kennaday brings unique equipment into this field of work. A lawyer by profession, he gained intimate acquaintance with tenement and labor conditions as a resident and member of the Board of Directors of Greenwich House for five years. One year after its organization, Mr. Kennaday became secretary of the Tuberculosis Committee of the New York Charity Organization Society, and in the three years following organized the framework of its campaign of education and prevention—a pioneer among the various city, state, and national associations which have come into being since. With Wilson in Boston, Hatch in Washington, Easton in Minnesota, and Wing in Chicago, Kennaday has been one of the few laymen who have mastered the technique of this medical-social propaganda, balancing and giving wider application to the work of the members of the medical profession who have thrown themselves into it. He organized a joint committee on tuberculosis with the New York Central Federated Union and carried on consistent educational work among the different trades in which there is high death rate from the white plague. In 1908 Mr. Kennaday made special studies of the progressive labor legislation and social statesmanship of the Australian commonwealths, and wrote a series of articles for the *Outlook* on these subjects.

It is therefore with a grasp of labor conditions and legislation here and abroad, acquaintance with leaders in the labor movement and with the law, and with the technique of social propaganda at his command, that Mr. Kennaday enters his new work. His predecessor was Crystal Eastman, whose signal service to the association was to act as secretary and executive officer of the New York State Employers' Liability Commission in its work of investigation and in getting out its notable reports on prevention of accidents, the control of unemployment, and workmen's compensation. A large work in popular education and legislation is now ready to the hands of

the association, rendered more urgent in some of its phases by the adverse decision of the New York State Court of Appeals with respect to the pioneer compensation law secured by the commission.

Last spring Miss Eastman was married to Wallace Benedict, of Milwaukee, and in September was admitted to the Wisconsin bar.

Charles W. Birtwell, whose acceptance of the office of executive head of the new American Federation for Sex Hygiene was reported in *THE SURVEY* last week, has for twenty-six years been a leader in the child-saving work of Boston and the United States. Graduating from Harvard in 1885, he chose philanthropic work at a time when university men were few in that profession, and went directly into the service of the Boston Children's Aid Society.

The key-note of his work was struck early in his connection with the society. In the first published reports to the directors he said:

"The pains taken have been abundantly repaid in seeing cases for which nothing or the wrong thing was likely to be done taken in hand by the very societies that were best equipped to afford the needed relief. . . . It has always been borne in mind that the sundering of family ties—the separation of a child from a father or mother, or the scattering of brothers and sisters—is a serious matter, requiring for its justification grave reasons and evident advantage."

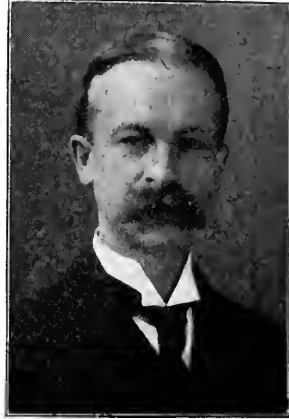
Speaking of the newly established Bureau of Information a year later, he said:

"The aim will be in each instance to suit the action to the real need, heeding the teachings of experience; still, to study the conditions with a freedom from assumptions and a directness and freshness of view as complete as if the case in hand stood absolutely alone."

"In these three passages," writes one of his New England associates, "may be found the fundamental principles of action which have characterized the work of the Boston Children's Aid Society for the last quarter of a century: the utilization of every agency which can be enlisted in the service of childhood; the unceasing emphasis upon the home as the hopeful center toward which social endeavor should be pointed; the insistence upon individual personal consideration of every problem; and in the multitudinous variety of intricate questions arising day by day, year after year, a remarkable directness and freshness of view. In going from the Children's Aid Society to take up the work of the American Federation for Sex Hygiene, Mr. Birtwell feels that he is only passing into a field which touches all along the line the one he is leaving. He carries with him into his new work the best wishes of many whom he has stimulated and inspired by his faith and fervor."

In 1891 Mr. Birtwell visited England and France to study charities and industrial education. He was one of the two editors of the *Care of Dependent, Neglected, and Wayward Children*, a report of the Second Section of the International Congress of Char-

ities, Correction, and Philanthropy which met in Chicago in 1893. In 1896-97 he was appointed a member of the Advisory Board on Public Institutions of the city of Boston. He has served upon the boards of directors of the Massachusetts Prison Association, the New England Watch and Ward Society, the



CHAS. W. BIRTWELL.

South End House and the North End Union, and has been an active member of the Massachusetts and National Conference of Charities and Correction.

The State Board of Education engaged Mr. Birtwell in 1895 to assist in an investigation of school attendance and truancy, and to draft needed legislation on truancy, truant schools, and allied subjects; the results of his work appeared in a report published in 1897, of which he was one of the two authors.

Mr. Birtwell was president of the Monday Evening Club—a club of paid officers of social organizations of Boston and vicinity—from 1893 to 1895. The club was organized at his suggestion in 1888, and he was its first secretary. Its usefulness has prompted the organization of similar clubs in many of the larger cities of the country.

From 1894 until 1904 he was executive director of what is now known as the Social Service Committee of Harvard University, formed for the purpose of guiding and stimulating student volunteer charity work. He is a lecturer at the New York School of Philanthropy, and at the Boston School for Social Workers.

At the last meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, held in Boston in June, a Section on Sex Hygiene was created for the conference a year hence in Cleveland, with Mr. Birtwell as chairman.

J. Prentice Murphy, successor to Mr. Birtwell as general secretary of the Boston Children's Aid Society, comes from Philadelphia, where he has been connected with the Children's Bureau since the winter of 1907. He has been its superintendent for the past three years. While at the University of Pennsyl-

vania, where he specialized in political science, history, economics, and sociology, he was a special investigator for the Pennsylvania Child Labor Committee, a club director in the university settlement, and an agent for the Pennsylvania Society to Protect Children from Cruelty. In the summer and fall of



J. PRENTICE MURPHY.

1907 he assisted in a special investigation of the labor of women and children in the canning factories of New York, and during part of that time was a resident and club worker at the East Side Settlement House in New York city.

In connection with his work in the Children's Bureau, Mr. Murphy organized a round table conference between the colored and white institution directors and workers which has proved a very important factor in raising methods and standards of child care in Philadelphia. He was a member of the executive committee of the Mayor's Conference for Summer Care for Mothers and Children, and also of the Milk Committee. He has been a lecturer in the Philadelphia School for the Training of Social Workers and in the Deaconesses' Training School.

No fewer than four changes in personnel have just taken place in Brooklyn settlements. Dr. Jane E. Robbins becomes headworker at Little Italy Settlement, Alice E. Robbins becomes assistant headworker of the United Neighborhood Guild, and Alice Spink becomes headworker at Friendly House with Bessie Dunlap as assistant.

Dr. Robbins is one of the pioneers of the settlement movement; it was as an early headworker of the College Settlement that she first impressed it with her personality. But it has been the distinction of her neighborhood work that she has purposefully left one field for another where new ground was to be broken and difficult situations mastered. To-day as a consequence she has spheres of friendship in the upper East Side, in Baltimore, and in Brooklyn, as well as along Rivington street. One of the foremost members of the society for the Protection of Italian Immigrants, a fluent speaker of their tongue, and a rare discoverer of the cultural values which the Latins bring to America, a summer's trip to Italy during

which she has studied certain phases of the immigration movement makes her coming to "Little Italy" like a new visit from a long-time friend. Dr. Robbins closed a three years' secretaryship of the Public Education Association to re-enter the field of neighborhood work.

The United Neighborhood Guild, of which Alice Robbins becomes assistant headworker, comprises Asacog House, Italian Settlement House, and Maxwell House. Earlier a Greenwich House resident in New York, Miss Robbins served for six years as headworker of Lawrence House, Baltimore, building up the work from small beginnings. This she relinquished to assist Mr. Woods and Mr. Kennedy of South End House in their study of American settlements, visiting the settlements of nearly all of the large cities of the country.

Miss Spink, who is a graduate of Wellesley and of the New York School of Philanthropy, has for four years been assistant headworker at Greenwich House. While there she made an extensive study of artificial flower manufacture in Greenwich village and acted as member of the local school board. Previous to her residence at Greenwich House, where she had charge of the summer work, Miss Dunlap was connected with the Doe Ye Nexte Thyngs society, which maintains a settlement house on Leroy street, New York. Mabel Foster, Bryn Mawr 1907, becomes Mrs. Simkhovitch's assistant at Greenwich House, to succeed Miss Spink.

Francis H. McLean, who was elected secretary of the new National Association of So-



FRANCIS H. McLEAN.

cities for Organizing Charity, has been identified with charity organization work since his college days. Graduating from the University of California in 1892, Mr. McLean spent several years in graduate work in Columbia and Johns Hopkins Universities, and in 1897-8 was fellow in sociology at the University of Pennsylvania. For the next two years he served

as assistant secretary of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities. In 1900 came a call to Montreal, Canada, where he organized a charity organization society, and spent two years as its general secretary. From 1902 to 1905 he filled the position of general district secretary of the Chicago Bureau of Charities and in the succeeding two years that of superintendent of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities. At the time of the San Francisco disaster in 1906, Mr. McLean was one of the experienced relief workers to respond to the emergency, and served as superintendent of the rehabilitation committee in the management of the San Francisco relief and Red Cross funds.

During the four years of his service as field secretary of the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation (in its initial year this work was carried on under Charities Publication Committee), Mr. McLean's work, widely placed as it had been, became definitely national.

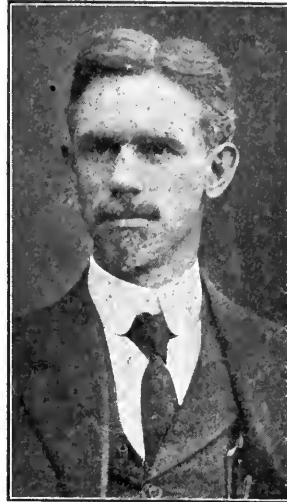
Primarily his time was spent in advising and organizing charity organization societies throughout the country; over fifty have been organized since October, 1907. Throughout a broad definition has been given to this work; he has conceived of it as educating the social sense of the community, liberating those forces which make for an equitable standard of social justice, and giving right direction and cohesiveness to humanitarian sympathies.

His plan of campaign, when a "needy city" called for aid, has never been of the one-day popular meeting, then go, type. On this head it is perhaps most illuminating to read what an associate wrote of his daily work:

"When we consider that in nearly every instance the cities which he has visited have been induced to employ a trained secretary and have often trebled their original budget at Mr. McLean's earnest solicitation, it is evident that he has been making a most substantial addition to the effectively organized social forces of this country. . . . In one place he has gone out of his way to help in establishing a juvenile court, in another he has undertaken to start a child labor committee. In short, Mr. McLean is one of the best of a new type of social surveyor, in that his view is comprehensive and that he is also quick to see beneath the surface and make full allowance for the defects in any effort that is single-minded and devoted."

Frederick S. Hall succeeds Mr. McLean as associate director of the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, with training as statistician, public official, and social worker. After his graduation from Wesleyan University (1893), and after taking his Ph. D. degree at the School of Political Science of Columbia University (1899), he spent three years in the United States Census Bureau. While there he prepared a bulletin on the localization of industries in the United States. For two years he served under Lawrence Veiller as assistant

secretary of the New York City Club. A year followed as head resident of Newark, N. J. Neighborhood House. His two years (1902-4) as secretary of the New York Child Labor Committee were complemented by three frontier years (1908-1911) as secretary of the Pennsylvania Child Labor Committee. His



FREDERICK S. HALL.

legislative work has been constructive. He has been exceptionally successful in securing the co-operation of public school authorities in his kindred work. An effective organizer, with a broad grasp of the social uses and significance of statistics, and a quick mastery of office detail, he brings distinctive equipment to his new field of work.

The division of labor between the Charity Organization Department and the National Association was outlined in *THE SURVEY* for October 14.

Maurice Willows, Mr. McLean's associate, has been identified with Y. M. C. A. work and with children's societies. During the Spanish-American War he acted as provincial secretary for the field department of the army Y. M. C. A. Later he spent two years in similar service in Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana. Going to the Birmingham Boys' Club as executive officer, he assisted in the establishment of a Children's Aid Society and a juvenile court. His six years in Birmingham have been at a time when the social forces of the south are awakening. In 1910 he was one of the organizers of the first Alabama State Conference of Charities and Correction, and its general secretary. He is vice-president of the National Conference for the Education of Backward, Truant, and Delinquent Children.

The news coming several weeks ago from Detroit, Mich., that Judge Frederick Bloman had died, fell upon an ignorant and at first unresponsive public. Who was Judge Freder-

ick Bloman? Three days later thousands knew his life story.

Frederick Bloman, thirteen years old, illiterate, red-headed, and undersized, a rescued waif and an ex-incorrigible, was judge of the Citizens' Court of the Ford Republic for boys at Detroit. Four years ago he was consorting with hoboes and begging food for them. He was a dirty, swearing, tobacco-chewing imp, with no recollection of a home or a mother, and with no respect for any living thing. Yet at his death a judge of Michigan's Supreme Court travelled one hundred miles to attend the funeral, the Probate Court of Wayne County adjourned over two days in his honor, leaders of bar and bench held a meeting to pronounce his eulogies, and men and women of distinction gathered round his bier in the nave of St. Paul's Cathedral.

Ford Republic, the superintendent of which is Homer T. Lane, is a home for wayward boys. It is greatly similar in its principles of punishment to the better known George Junior Republic. For a time after Fred Bloman was brought there the habits of his former life made him one of the most unmanageable boys in the republic. He had been taken by the police from a band of gypsies and is said to have been one of the most foul-mouthed youngsters whom the authorities had ever discovered.

His reformation while at the republic was gradual but sure. A strong sense of humor brought him ultimate popularity and after three years' residence the boys elected him judge of their Citizen's Court for a term of six months. After two re-elections he died in office.

On the bench young Bloman displayed ingenuity, tact, and ability in handling his fellow-citizens. A lad charged with "punching another in the kitchen" defended himself by saying he had punched the other, not in the kitchen, but in the stomach. Instantly the judge retorted that his stomach was his kitchen because he kept his "chuck" there. Later he declared that he would put a stop to the "punching in the kitchen" and "kicking in the basement" that had been going on recently. While trying an alleged thief, Fred once asked the accused, "Then you're willing to be known as a crook?"

The defendant made no objection and Fred ruled: "Well, you are a crook."

Later he was brought before the supreme court for applying the word crook to the accused. In defending himself Fred evolved a definition that has since become classic in the republic: "A crook is a fellow who is willing to be called a crook."

Heart-disease caused his death. In his speech in the probate court one of the attorneys said: "He was one of the most efficient aides this court ever had in its juvenile work."

W. D. L.

Emma W. Lee, for fifteen years with the Associated Charities of Boston, has been appointed assistant to Dr. Kirk, General Secretary of United Charities of Rochester.

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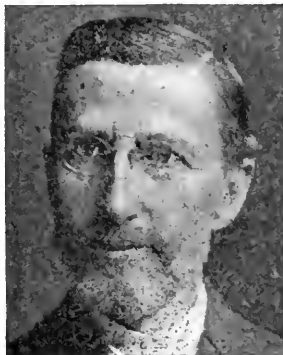
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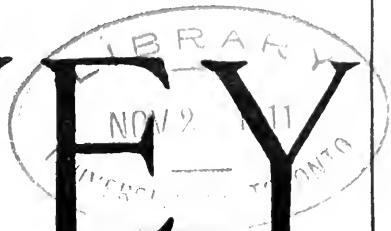
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VOLUME XXVII, No. 4

WEEK OF OCT. 28, 1911

THE SURVEY

SOCIAL CHARITABLE CIVIC



Eastman Kodak Company.

CONSERVE THE CHILD.

It would be a dreadful calamity to continue to waste and destroy the resources of the nation as until a few years ago we were wasting and destroying them, as we still in certain respects continue to waste and destroy them. But it would be an even worse calamity, because irremediable, if we wasted and destroyed the manhood and womanhood of the nation. And the only way permanently to conserve the manhood and womanhood is to conserve the childhood.

—THEODORE ROOSEVELT, CARNEGIE HALL, OCTOBER 20.

A photograph used by the Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania to illustrate its work for over 1500 children a year.

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THE PITH OF IT

The creation of a Federal Children's Bureau, the entire prohibition of family work in tenement houses, the elimination of child-workers from the canneries of New York, 6-day, 8-hour legislation applied to continuous industries—these are some of the planks in Theodore Roosevelt's legislative platform; the things he is going to work for as a citizen as put forward at a Carnegie Hall meeting in New York last week.—p. 1069.

The conservation of Yankees!—Joseph Lee puts the toast.—P. 1087.

Dust, babies, and disease—two New York experimenters think they have found the medium through which infantile paralysis spreads.—P. 1081.

Last summer the New York legislature passed bills which may put the state factory department, in staff and organization, on a level with that of England. The law called for the appointment of eight supervisory inspectors. During the dog days, with the connivance of the State Civil Service Board, the politicians all but raided the roost in a way which would have subverted the whole system. An eleventh hour fight to block the spoils is on.—P. 1083.

The women teachers in New York public schools, after a campaign lasting years, have secured "equal pay" legislation.

Postmaster General Hitchcock and the assistant attorney general who is advising him have had a second thought. On October 14 they rescinded their order barring the Chicago Vice Commission report from the mails. But they particularly limited their permission to "the remaining copies of the present edition"—the 1,800 which were actually held up. The question arises: Will they get a third thought if there should be an eighteen hundred and first copy?

It took a seven years' fight for Charles B. Stover, then a private citizen, to get Seward Park cleared and opened by the municipality. It was not till after Jacob Riis's long "battle with the slum," that the buildings at Mulberry Bend were razed and a park laid out. Stover in the early stages, and Riis in the successful fight waged all summer, have been the leading figures in the 7 years' campaign for Rock-away Beach just ended—P. 1076.

The spirit which made thousands in drenching rain parade a city's streets last spring, mourning the loss by fire of 145 factory workers, is again at work in the New York Factory Investigating Committee, now holding its hearings.—P. 1077.

The Michigan State Board of Health has authorized an investigation of industrial conditions, thus following the lead of the Illinois Occupational Diseases Commission. The plan is one in which Gov. Osborn has especially interested himself.

THE SURVEY

Edward T. Devine, Editor Graham Taylor, Associate Editor

A Journal of Constructive Philanthropy

PUBLISHED WEEKLY BY

THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

Robert W. deForest, President; Otto T. Bannard, Vice-President; J. P. Morgan, Treasurer; Edward T. Devine, General Secretary

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The question of public out-door relief—quiescent for a decade or more—came up for active discussion at the Ohio and New York state conferences of Charities and Correction.—P. 1073.

With the consolidation of three bodies committed to constructive social work among Negroes, a new epoch opens in the effective consideration of this phase of the American city problem.—P. 1080.

SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

THE INVISIBLE RELIEF FUND

Society is a growing, self supporting organism. It has within it, as between family and family, neighbor and neighbor, master and employe, endless links of sympathy and self support. Poverty is not an absolute, but a relative term. Naturally the members of one class help one another; the poor help the poor. There is thus a large invisible fund available and constantly used by those who, by their proximity to one another, know best how to help. The philanthropist is an alien to this life around him. Moved by a sense of contrast between his own lot, as he understands it, and the lot of those about him, whom he but little understands, he concludes that he should relieve them. But his gift, unless it be given in such a way as to promote this self support, instead of weakening it, is really injurious. In the first place, by his interference he puts a check on the charitable resources of another class and lessens their social energy. What he gives they do not give, though they might do so. But next, he does more harm than this. He stimulates expectation, so that by a false arithmetic his gift of a few shillings seems to those who receive it and to those who hear of it a possible source of help in any difficulty. To them it represents a large command of means; and where one has received what, though it be little, is yet, relative to wage, a large sum to be acquired without labor, many will seek more, and with that object will waste their time and be put off their work, or even be tempted to lie and cheat. So social energy is diverted from its proper use. Alms thus given weakens social ties, diminishes the natural relief funds of mutual help, and beggars a neighbor instead of benefiting him.

The new Encyclopedia Britannica in the course of its article on charity and charities sums up, in the paragraph quoted above, the conception of Dr. Chalmers on which the parochial system of St. John's, Glasgow, was founded—a system which, as the article puts it, is "consistent with the best traditions of the Scottish church"; has been "tested by experience"; and has been a main factor on the economic side in the later development of the theory of charitable relief. It is a conception which although not sufficient to account in full for the modern philanthropy is yet one of its essential elements. Let us analyze it with reference to modern urban conditions. The first and most important consideration is that it is addressed to a local neighborhood and is designed to keep alive there the natural, spontaneous springs of neighborliness and mutual assistance. The appeal is not so much to philanthropists to keep their hands off—although that is implied. The appeal is to the self respect of the poor and their neighbors not to seek or accept aid from strangers. The parish is to look out for itself, without endowments, without public relief, without private relief funds, without church alms. Reliance is to be had upon the large invisible fund to be supplied as the need arises by neighbors, relatives, employers—by those who are united to the afflicted in natural links of sympathy and support. If outsiders are asked not to interfere this is because of the frailty of human nature, the tendency to accept "wind falls," and the consequent danger of drying up these really larger but less obtrusive springs of benevolence which lie in natural personal relations. The idea is therefore positive and constructive. Its message is democratic and social. For every person to whom it says Refrain, it seeks out scores to whom it says, Be alert to give, to help your neighbor. You workingman, retail dealer, farmer, or housewife—whoever you may be that stands as nearest friend, as

next of kin or as next door neighbor to a family in which there is a sick child, to a widow who cannot quite make both ends meet—Bestir yourself and see that the one has a nurse and nourishment, that the other has shelter and food. Be ashamed that either should ever be tempted to seek aid from a philanthropist or from a charitable society, or from an overseer of the poor. It is your poor who are thus in danger of losing their natural independence, Quick! to the rescue!

The second large fact about poverty, as we find it in American cities, is that there is not enough of it to warrant discouragement. Broken into natural localized portions it is manageable. Not widespread degeneracy and inadequate resources, but remediable hardships and removable obstacles to self dependence, furnish our problem. Poverty here is an accident. We encounter it, but we refuse to accept it as inevitable. The third large fact is that here as elsewhere, as yet, in spite of a few generous Foundations and many well conceived schemes of preventive philanthropy, the main burden of what poverty exists is borne by the poor and not by the rich. If neighborly assistance were to disappear for a month it would be a far more serious thing than if all the relief agencies were to close their doors for that length of time.

What then? Is there no legitimate place for the gifts of the rich? Is there no justification for the established relief agency? Is there no need for organized charity? The munificent gifts of the rich are indeed needed and in still larger amounts, but they are needed mainly to change adverse conditions caused by the very forces, industrial, economic, and social, on which frequently their own greater incomes depend. "There is no form of philanthropic activity," as Professor Seager says in his Briefer Course in Economics, "which is more certain to benefit mankind than that designed to improve the conditions under which the mass of men work and live." Such expenditures, sensibly directed, will not dry up the springs of neighborly assistance but will increase the capacity for self help and for mutual neighborly assistance. Relief agencies are increasingly applying their resources under the guidance of the principle that relief is only an instrument—one among many, but often an indispensable instrument—in helping to self dependence.

Organized charity, as now understood and practiced by enlightened social workers in America, is directed persistently towards the conservation and development of the large invisible fund to which Dr. Chalmers refers. No doubt individuals make stupid mistakes, as doctors, teachers, judges, and bankers make mistakes in their several fields; but the idea of organized charity is right, and it is consistent with Dr. Chalmers' conception that the main reliance of society in the relief of individual distress must be upon the family, the neighbor, the ones with whom the afflicted stands already in some natural relation. Modern philanthropy calls for the expenditure of large sums, whatever sums are necessary to eliminate repression and exploitation; and realizes also that it is not large expenditure alone, but concerted social action of many kinds that is necessary to bring this about. On the other hand, it appreciates the delicacy and difficulty of the task of ministering to the needs of the poor, and sits, an eager and humble disciple at the feet of those who like St. Bernard and St. Francis, like Ozanam and Chalmers, like Edward Denison and Josephine Shaw Lowell, have caught some glimpses of the meaning of the infinite love which is charity.

THE COMMON WELFARE

CONSERVATION AND CHILDHOOD

Giving up the latter half of his address to the part which the courts in America play in the matter of social legislation, and paying vigorous respects to those "mischievous judicial decisions" which have blocked the will of the people to improve conditions, Theodore Roosevelt spoke last week at Carnegie Hall, New York. The meeting was a joint one arranged by the Civic Forum and the Child Welfare League, and in the course of his address to crowded galleries Mr. Roosevelt outlined several constructive lines of legislation to which he urged the people of New York state and the nation to address themselves. His subject was the Conservation of Womanhood and Childhood, and he put its force and meaning in these words:

We have begun to realize that we are guilty of crime against our children if we hand them over a wasted heritage. But after all, the most important type of conservation is the conservation of the manhood and womanhood of the country; and vitally important though it is to leave our children a proper heritage, the one thing of supreme importance is that we shall leave the right type of children, children of such character and living their lives under such conditions that they shall be fit to enjoy and make use of their heritage. It would be a dreadful calamity to continue to waste and destroy the resources of the nation as until a few years ago we were wasting and destroying them, as we still in certain respects continue to waste and destroy them. But it would be an even worse calamity, because irremediable, if we wasted and destroyed the manhood and womanhood of the nation. And the only way permanently to conserve the manhood and womanhood is to conserve the childhood.

First among the measures Mr. Roosevelt advocated he put the creation by Congress of a Children's Bureau in the Department of Commerce and Labor to gather, classify, and distribute for popular use in the states and territories accurate information on all subjects relating to the welfare of children. Of this he said:

During the five years the bill has been before Congress no valid argument has been presented against it. The chief reason for the failure of the bill thus far has been that it is solely in the interest of the conservation of human resources, and does not directly touch any material interest. It is therefore devoid of features which would win the advocacy of any selfish interest; and the persons who desire to continue to exploit the labor of children are naturally against it. It is a scandal to the American nation that our national government has proved so supine in doing what it can to promote the welfare of the children of the country.

Turning to New York state and especially Manhattan, Mr. Roosevelt came out flat-footedly that the state should "put a stop to manufacturing in tenements." New York leads in the amount of manufacturing carried on in tenement houses: The labor law contains no provisions to prevent the employment of children nor to restrict the working hours of minors or women in tenements. It provides merely that work on specified articles (forty-one in number) given out by manufacturers or contractors may not be carried on in a tenement living room unless the owner of the house has first obtained a license from the department of labor. To obtain such a license certain sanitary requirements must be satisfied. No one knows the actual extent of home work in New York city, as the inadequate force of inspectors of the State Labor Department cannot cover completely all the tenements where work may be carried on. The incomplete figures from the labor records show over twelve thousand tenements licensed for home work.

Mr. Roosevelt advocated a commission of inquiry. He said:

Actual experience has shown that under present conditions home work is a serious menace both to the workers and to the public. A home workshop is neither a home nor factory. The institution of the home from earliest times has surrounded itself with peculiar rights and traditions. To make it a "factory annex" is an invasion of the home which should not be tolerated. The home workshop is a factory without a closing hour.

All day the adults labor, with an occasional brief recess to look after the baby or attend to the most pressing household duties. After school and into the evening (sometimes until late) children of five years of age and upwards assist the grown-ups, in order to increase as much as possible the daily earnings. In many instances children of school age remain away from school entirely to work in the home. Home work and congestion, bad ventilation, and dark rooms go hand in hand. To permit women and little children to live and work in wretchedly lighted, badly ventilated rooms, polluted by overcrowding, both from the materials for work and from the workers, so that the air is contaminated, furnishes new recruits to the ranks of tuberculosis victims. Home work promotes truancy. School principals testify that the "system" constantly encourages the children to become "regular irregulars" in their attendance, and often chronic truants.

Since 1894 the state has attempted to control tenement-house manufacture by a system of regulation. Burdened by numerous other duties the labor department can now detail regularly for New York city only four inspectors, and periodically but twenty, to visit twelve thousand licensed tenements—known centers of home industry. In addition thousands of houses—no one knows how many—in which work may be going on without a license also need attention. Work on any one of a specified list of forty-one different articles can only be carried on legally in a licensed tenement. Present-day industry has overflowed into the houses to such an extent that over sixty other articles not mentioned in the law are now being made in tenement homes. For these no license is required, and work may go on under indescribably bad conditions, the output to find its way through channels of trade to the public. In short, the actual methods and possibilities of tenement house labor practically nullify the existing laws by rendering them impossible of enforcement.

The fact that the welfare of the workers is seriously menaced, that home life is broken up and that the public health is endangered through use of tenement-made articles makes imperative some action looking towards a remedy. Moreover, tenement house labor introduces unskilled and unsupervised work, including that of very young children, into competition with skilled labor in the shops, thus tending to reduce the proper wages of labor, and enabling unscrupulous employers to avoid the expense of shops and the necessity of submitting to supervision by encouraging piece-work in the tenement houses. Organized labor has a legitimate interest in this matter aside from the general interest. The first step should be legislative inquiry into this whole subject, such an inquiry as state Senator Wainwright's committee made concerning workmen's compensation.

The reasons for suggesting the appointment of a commission rather than the presentation of a bill are:

First, the information at present at hand,

while amply sufficient to show absolute need of immediate relief, is not as complete as is desirable for the purpose of laying a basis for the formulation of public opinion or of securing the enactment of the wisest provisions.

Second, only through the operation of such an official commission would it be possible to present to the courts, which later will be called upon to construe the provisions of any enactments, a collective body of evidence showing the reasons which moved the legislature to the adoption of the specific enactment, whatever form it may finally take. In this manner only, therefore, a wise and enforceable provision of law with regard to the evils dealt with can be assured.

Third, the Court of Appeals of this state held in the case *re Jacobs* that a statute forbidding manufacture of tobacco in tenement homes is contrary to the constitution, because not shown clearly to be a health measure. If we cannot secure, as we ought to, a flat reversal of this mischievous decision, then it would be well to obtain through a commission such convincing and comprehensive data as would exclude doubt of the immediate connection between work in tenements and injury to the health of the workers.

LEGISLATION NEEDED AS TO CONTINUOUS WORK

In equally trenchant words the speaker came out for the organization of working women; outlined the generous settlement made by mine owners and railroads after the Cherry disaster, roundly condemned the child labor permitted in western New York canneries, and the lobbying of the canners in defeating prohibitive legislation; backed up the bill for a fifty-four-hour week for women's work, which will be re-introduced next January by the State Federation of Labor; and called public attention, as the newspapers have in large part failed to do, to the effort to exempt the new supervising inspectorships in the Bureau of Factory Inspection from the civil service.

"It's mighty little use," he put it, "to have labor laws, if we let them be enforced primarily to give jobs to politicians."

To an extent, Mr. Roosevelt went outside his text to urge legislation regulating the hours of men in continuous industries. His point was that fatherhood no less than motherhood and childhood must be considered, that indeed, all three must be considered together, for the fundamental question is that of the family; and

women and children suffer if the men "are killed or crippled or labor under conditions which inevitably tend to brutalize and degrade them." He said:

The development of modern large-scale production has brought about a very rapid increase in the number of workmen employed in industries which are operated without stopping twenty-four hours every day for seven days a week. These continuous industries are new phenomena; just as factories with dangerous machinery were new phenomena. There must be new legislation, and new and enlightened methods of judicial interpretation of law, to meet the new conditions. To quote the counsel of the Factory Commission: "It has become increasingly clear that it is the duty of the state to safeguard the worker, not only against the occasional accidents, but the daily incidents of industry, not only against the accidents which are extraordinary, but against the incidents which are the ordinary occurrences of industrial life." In just the same way it has become the duty of the state to safeguard the worker against the "daily incidents" of a trade which takes the shape of inhuman toil.

With respect to this necessarily continuous seven-day work our old Sunday laws, dating back to an earlier generation, have broken down. Relief to the workers can be afforded only by increasing the labor force—one-seventh if necessary—to let part of the force off each day in the week and in that way giving every man one day of rest in seven. Legislation is needed to bring this about in this country, just as it has been brought about in France. And such legislation would be sustained by the courts unless they scuttled the logic on which the Sunday laws now on the statute books have been sustained; that is, as an exercise of the police power in protecting men from continuous toil. The supreme courts of practically every state in the union have gone on record as upholding Sunday laws, and in 1884 the United States Supreme Court expressed its approval of them "not from any right of the government to legislate for the promotion of religious observances, but from its right to protect all persons from the physical and moral debasement which come from uninterrupted labor." The priests and ministers and physicians of every mill town in America where the seven-day week governs could testify to how it undermines the comfort of their people, their happiness, and their health. At the present time, the progressive men in one big industry where it has been at its worst—steel—are tackling this seven-day schedule, and it looks as if they were going to be able to down it. The American Iron and Steel Institute has passed resolutions to that effect. So has the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, representing churches with a membership of thirty millions. It is high time we had six-day statutes and they were enforced.

In a continuous industry—whether it is a cement works or a trolley car, or a power

plant or a blast furnace, makes no difference—there are only two ways in which you can split up the twenty-four hours. There must be either two shifts of men each working twelve hours or three shifts each working eight. You can't compromise on nine or ten. You must choose between twelve or eight, and, with these two choices, surely the decision must be for the eight-hour day.

The workmen who put in the longest hours are classified by the New York State Bureau of Factory Inspection in a group labelled "sixty-three hours and over." That group includes roughly everybody above the ten-hour men—men who work anywhere from sixty-three to 119 hours per week. The report of this bureau for 1909 showed that out of 5059 workmen employed in the most important steel center in New York state, 4584 fell in this class. The majority of these men worked twelve hours a day either six or seven days a week. The same report shows that out of 12,991 workmen in paper and pulp mills in this state, 5650 worked over sixty-three hours a week. Out of 9543 employed in water, light, and power plants 2652 worked more than sixty-three hours per week. In all over 36,000 employes in the entire state worked a daily schedule of from ten to thirteen hours and over.

The effect of a twelve-hour day is paralyzing from the standpoint of the man's personal welfare, of his usefulness to his family, and of his usefulness as a citizen.

OHIO AND HER SOCIAL NEEDS

A state program was put forward by Rufus A. Longman of Cincinnati at the Ohio State conference of Charities and Correction this month in Toledo. President Longman urged additional institutions for special classes (inebriates, feeble-minded children, and the like), and the more thorough elimination of these classes from the general population, where they are a source of danger to themselves and others. The distinction of his address lay in his proposal to create a staff of visitors or parole officers for the purpose of extending the work of institutions for the insane outside of their walls in a system of after-care suggestive of the social service work which is being developed as an adjunct of general hospital administration in American cities. His recommendations included:

A law to compel fathers who fail to support their families to work on the public roads, their wages of \$1.50 per day to be applied to the support of their families; provision for special officers, somewhat in the nature of parole officers, employed by the

state, to look after the needs and make special arrangements for the after-care of the insane, subsequent to their discharge from the hospital; an institution for the treatment of inebriates; a state farm for vagrants and habitual beggars; provision for the proper care of the scores of feeble-minded children on our streets; and a law compelling every institution that cares for children to have a board of trustees.

What Mr. Longman said of the dull and troublesome boy applied in a general way in his consideration of the other classes taken up. He said:

In our physical ills, if our trouble be only one of the common ailments, we can safely entrust it to any well trained practitioner; but if our case be uncommon and the disease most threatening in its nature, we seek the most skilled specialist and pay him almost any price for his services. So in our social body we must not trust the weak, erring, and incorrigible to unskilled and untrained hands.

Social responsibility for prevention with respect to one group—the blind—was summed in a way applicable to other states by Dr. Louis Strickler, president of the Hamilton County Blind Relief Commission, Cincinnati. He said:

Twenty per cent of blindness is caused by infectious diseases. It is a matter of common observation that children, as a rule, do not contract these diseases until they start to school or until a brother or sister brings contagion home. The simplest and most effective way to prevent epidemics is school inspection, yet this is often opposed and resented by ignorant and prejudiced parents; nevertheless it ought to be regularly carried out in every school district of the state. Incompetent opticians, also, are responsible for much of the prevalent blindness; many of these opticians are men of little or no education and use only a grain of science and a ton of jugglery. . . . Syphilis is a prolific source of blindness, 25 per cent of it being attributable to this disease. The methods of controlling this disease have thus far been unavailing, but it is hoped that by education and instruction in sex hygiene, exemplified by the study of biology, knowledge can be imparted to every child without shocking its moral sensibility. . . . 14 per cent of blindness is due to accidents; and accidents are largely preventable. The use of defective materials in tools and the lack of proper guards in the machinery of factories are responsible for many accidents that issue in the loss or the impairment of eye-sight."

This, the twenty-first Ohio conference, brought six hundred and fifty delegates together, the largest number in the history of the body. In the words of a delegate, the conference drew the

scattered units of Ohio's social forces together and sent them back to their respective communities with added vital force and enthusiasm. Various current phases of social work were emphasized.

BUSINESS MEN AND CHARITIES

Edgar S. Adams, of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce, saw in the endorsement of private charities by commercial bodies

the strengthening of the endorsed charity institution; the weeding out of superfluous and unworthy claimants; the prevention of fraud under the name and guise of charity; a bar to the establishment of new institutions where not needed; the increase of interest among business men, who are the greatest supporters; and the promotion of co-operation through the charity clearing-house.

This catalog of goods is so inclusive as to bespeak, in the minds of some social workers, the need at some later conference for a discussion of the effect upon the spirit and content of social work of "the business man in charity." What will be the affect in the course of a decade, they ask, of such dominance over the humanitarian agencies of a city by a local body of merchants and manufacturers? They point to the fact that the fresh enthusiasm of the 90's over the "business man in politics" has suffered considerable abatement. Both the constructive and negative aspects of the endorsement committee of chambers of commerce, in the cities where they are doing effective work, are being watched with interest.

Albion Fellows Bacon of Evansville, Indiana, brought the Ohio delegates face to face with the need for such a widespread state campaign on housing reform as that which she has instigated in the adjoining commonwealth. "The thing that holds back the housing problem is the ignorance of those who ought to help," she argued. "What we need is more publicity. People ought to know what is going on in their midst." She applied her gospel not only to the city but to the small town. J. M. Hanson of Youngstown set the complete destruction of slum districts as the goal to work for. Edward T. De-

vine of the New York Charity Organization Society developed a social worker's program centering in the significance of the social worker, the death rate, the fatigue test, and the character test in their vital relationship to conservation movements; all of these, he declared, are in harmony with the utmost development of our resources and opportunities.

Another current phase of charitable work was brought up by Alexander Jolinson, general secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, who spoke on the Inadequacy of Relief, pointing out in the course of his address that, with the progress of the times and with the broadening application of scientific knowledge and the humanitarian sentiments, it is possible for the older leaders in charitable work to learn from the younger. His point was that material relief if doled out in niggardly fashion contributes to the making of paupers; the fear of giving unwisely, he held, should not hinder giving enough to relieve distress and to put the recipient in the way of permanent self-help.

PUBLIC OUT-DOOR RELIEF DISCUSSED

There was more extended discussion of the subject of public out-door relief—a subject which has been quiescent for a decade or more—at the New York Conference, held at Watertown, October 17-19. The proposition discussed was not to do away with such out-door relief throughout New York state, where it still exists, but to restore it in New York city, where it was abolished over thirty years ago. The chief paper was by Robert W. Heberd, secretary of the New York State Board of Charities, who contended that private out door relief was inadequate, especially in the case of widows, and that such relief was a proper function of government. Mr. Heberd said that from his experience as commissioner of charities for New York city he could hardly bring himself to recommend a return to the old system of public out-door relief, but he recommended that in suitable cases the private relief societies should have means

placed at their disposal from the public treasury under some plan whereby "the private societies would supply the machinery of distribution, rendering unnecessary the duplication effort, and keeping out all political consideration."

The discussion was opened by Frederic Almy of the Buffalo C. O. S., who declared himself opposed to any subsidies to private charities, no matter whether the money is disbursed by the charity itself or by the city on its recommendation, "because such subsidies lead to sectarian appeals, to lobbying, and to a scrambling at the public trough for patronage. These evils exist with subsidies to private institutions and would be more flagrant with the more easily abused out-door relief."

Public out-door relief exists in Buffalo, said Mr. Almy, and where it is inadequate, Charity Organization Society aid is sometimes given in the same family, but as a rule the more helpable families and more difficult families are referred to the Charity Organization Society, leaving the more chronic, unalterable ones to the city, as in London. Mr. Almy said that he is opposed to public out-door relief because it is never accompanied by an adequate staff to safeguard the relief and make it effective for good. He said that mere relief, apart from salaries, is more niggardly and inadequate for individual families with public charity than with private charity; and that public out-door relief went bare, without a plan, without a friend, and has nowhere developed the case committee, the constructive plan, and the volunteer visitor, which make charity flexible and personal. Where personality rather than control is of the essence, private charity is better than public. If private charity lacks the energy to find adequate relief it will lack the wisdom to use it.

Edward T. Devine denied that relief is a public function. He said the question is not whether private charity would like to have more money to spend, but whether public out-door relief would be beneficial. Public out-door relief would require at least a million dollars a year in New York city, and he firmly believed,

from ample experience in Berlin, in Paris, and in this country, that with it there would be more neglected poverty and distress than without it.

Mary Breed of the Albany Charity Organization Society said that her experience when in Boston was that with public out door relief politics would sometimes interfere with good constructive plans. Miss Florence Kelley spoke of the many widows whose children are now in asylums because both public and private out door relief are inadequate.

May Vida Clark, of the New York State Charities Aid, thought Mr. Heberd had hit the nail on the head in suggesting more cooperation between public and private relief, especially in small cities. Frank E. Wade of Buffalo, of the State Prison Commission, believed that the support of widows and children was a public function. He said he was optimistic enough to believe that with effort good citizens can reform public abuses.

CALL ON THE STATE FOR NEEDED ACTION

One of the strongest impressions made upon the mind of an observer at this twelfth New York State conference was the repeated insistent, and earnest call upon the state for action regarding conditions in which the conference was vitally interested and which only legislative enactment could remedy. This call was heard from the president's address at the opening session, through the papers on vagrancy, on child labor, on housing, on defective delinquents, to the report of the chairman on public institutions on the last day. Without favorable action on the part of the state, progress along the lines indicated was felt to be impossible. Dr. Max Landsberg of Rochester, president of the conference, received the progress made since 1900 in the understanding of charitable and correctional problems. He pointed out that the volume of problems, however, is constantly increasing, and that the growth in the number of offenders in institutions is out of proportion to the growth in population. To combat this danger, Dr. Landsberg recommended

the abolition of the county jail, state care of misdemeanants, a reformatory institution for boys between sixteen and twenty-one years of age who are guilty of misdemeanors, the establishment of a farm colony for vagrants, the completion of the New York Training School for Boys and of Letchworth Village, and the enlargement of the Training School for Girls at Hudson.

A plea for more liberal appropriations followed a depiction of the evil results of insufficient accommodation for the insane and for the feeble-minded, and of the beneficial results of carrying out the provisions of the permissive inebriety bill and of following an aggressive campaign for good housing and against tuberculosis. Dr. Landsberg closed his address by calling attention to the necessity of state supervision of private charities.

A memorial to William Pryor Letchworth, president of the first conference, written by Dr. Stephen Smith, was read by William R. Stewart of New York.

At the meeting of the Committee on the Care and Relief of the Poor in their Homes, Anna B. Pratt of Elmira, chairman, gave a graphic description of the evils arising from passing on wanderers from one town to another, and an account of the attempt to check this custom by use of a telegraphic code in investigation and by the cooperation of charitable societies throughout the country. The size of the tramp army, however, which she placed at 500,000, makes some other method necessary, if vagrancy is to be diminished and finally abolished. Three countries in Europe she said, have eliminated the tramp, the most remarkable remedy being the forced and free labor colonies of Switzerland. Twenty farm colonies may be needed to eliminate tramps in New York alone. Miss Pratt touched upon the evil of the half-charitable lodging-houses in connection with tramps and urged state lodging-houses.

The boy vagrant, it was pointed out, is one of the most serious phases of the tramp problem; therefore, the necessity for the school to compete successfully with the lure of the road is evident. The connection between study and the work of the world was taken up by Prof. A. D. Dean of Albany in a paper on

State Responsibility in Vocational Guidance and Vocational Education. Professor Dean indicated the threefold service of vocational guidance—personal, in relation to the child; social, in the investigation of industries with study of their relation to opportunity, health, and morals; and educational, to the community. One of the aims is to broaden the choice of work and safeguard the transition from school to work. Occupations for children are often deadening or temporary—fitting for nothing for the adult. The follow-up work with the employed children may result in compulsory part-time and continuation schools. Public opinion may be influenced toward the fixing of a higher compulsory school age based upon efficiency rather than years. Vocational guidance will help mold school life as preparation for working life and will make employment more educational. A proposed plan of the New York Department of Education is to have the school system begin to separate at the end of the sixth grade into three branches. After the elementary period, there will be a greater differentiation into (a) high school system, (b) business schools, and (c) industrial, agricultural, and home-making schools. State effort should cooperate with local effort for effective education.

Two forms of child labor in New York state, home manufacture in tenements and work in canneries were considered by the committee on this subject. Mrs. Florence Kelley, chairman, emphasized the impossibility of having effective inspection of the 1300 houses licensed for home manufacturing. Therefore the number of children working cannot be known nor the number of hours they work nor the conditions under which they work. Mrs. Kelley urged the appointment of a commission to investigate the subject of tenement house work, so that there will be a body of knowledge regarding the relation of the work to public health and to the health of children.

George A. Hall of the New York Child Labor Committee told of the evil effects on home and school life, and the danger to health through the

spread of disease. The possibility of doing work at home has increased the congestion of population and of traffic. Declaring that there are seventy-seven factories with 40,000 workers, in one block, he insisted that state regulation has proved inadequate and unsatisfactory. Prohibition of manufacture in living rooms seems the ultimate solution, he thought. In 1882, the law against the manufacture of cigars in tenements was declared unconstitutional because it was not clearly shown to be a health measure. The need now is for a mass of evidence.

The difficulties met with in the administration of the law and the need of more complete registration of births were pointed out by Pauline Goldmark of the New York Bureau of Social Research.

SEX INSTRUCTION AMONG MOTHERS

The necessity for earlier sex education and a "program for mothers," were emphasized by the Committee on Public Health, of which Dr. George W. Goler, Rochester was chairman. In outlining a program of sex education Dr. Ira S. Wile of New York stated that sex problems have two fundamental causes—temptation and will. This paper provoked the liveliest discussion of the conference. Society presents temptation, said Dr. Wile, through social evils and these evils can be remedied only by society. The will is individual. The development of the will of the child is largely within the power of the parents. The two influences at work on the character of the child are the home and companionships. Dr. Wile therefore advocated that the sex instruction be begun in the home at the time of the child's first questions, and that an intellectual morality be established. Otherwise the child will obtain piece-meal information elsewhere and the confidential relationship between mother and child will break. Dr. Wile noted three age periods—the age of mythology, of chivalry, and of civic awakening; each period needs its special kind of instruction.

That the intimate relation of the obstetrician to the prospective mother can

and should be made the means of her education in anatomy, physiology, and hygiene, was the view of Dr. Paul T. Harper, of Albany. Dr. Harper described the need of regulation of the practices of midwives.

A program for remedying the housing evils which every city has was suggested by John Ihlder of New York, showing existing conditions to public-spirited citizens, a social investigation for assembling facts, and then the passage and enforcement of proper legislation might be appropriate steps, said Mr. Ihlder, in such a program. Three features of law enforcement were declared by John J. Murphy, New York tenement house commissioner to be the education of the public, prosecutions, and the vacating of dangerous houses. To the ignorance and apathy of the public Edmund J. Butler of New York ascribed the existence of privy vaults and their attendant evils. The need for housing laws was declared to extend to second and third class cities.

A committee of the Prison Association of New York has recently been formed to study the defective delinquent and to secure legislation for their proper custodial care. Feeble-minded criminals said Dr. Charles Bernstein of Rome, do not belong in a reformatory institution for normal boys and are a hinderance to the work for the brighter boys. As present laws do not permit the transference of defective delinquents to custodial asylums; they are ultimately returned to the community, where they usually fall again into crime.

Urging that children should be kept in real homes—not make-shifts maintained on charitable pittances, with children necessarily neglected by working mothers, nor homes that menace health—Dr. Ludwig Bernstein of New York, chairman of the Committee on Children, declared that commitment and placing out should nevertheless be regulated by the age of the child, by its health, former environment, and education. In this connection the large opportunity for molding character enjoyed by the "cottage mother" was pointed out by Dr. Charles H. Johnson of Albany.

Peculiar physical, mental, and temperamental traits are necessary for efficiency in that work, he thought. Efficiency, he said, was the ability to get results.

SEASIDE PARK AND HOSPITAL SECURED

Another "Seven Years' War" is ended. Last week the New York Board of Estimate and Apportionment voted to condemn the 250-acre site on Rockaway Beach, and this will now be made into a seaside park for the city. The Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor will immediately carry into effect the purposes of the funds raised for an enlarged hospital for crippled children, the first of several health institutions planned for the tract in addition to its use as a recreation beach. It is hoped that condemnation proceedings may be completed so as to allow this work to be begun before snow flies. The board acquired also the Dreamland site of seven acres at Coney Island, and this, too, will be made into a park.

For the Rockaway Beach property \$1,225,000 will be paid, and for the Dreamland tract \$1,000,000. It was stated at the meeting of the board that these sums are only a portion of about \$5,000,000 which is to be spent by New York City in the near future for seaside parks.

The purchase of the Rockaway Beach property for a city park has been urged for seven years. In June, 1904, Charles B. Stover pointed out¹ that this was the only remaining site which the city could turn into a large ocean park. Combating the argument that the place was inaccessible to New Yorkers, he thus early staked the moral claim of the city to the wonderful beach front.

The project has been alternately revived and lost sight of for several years.² The Dreamland fire at Coney Island last summer seemed a suitable moment to revive the plan, and the Parks and Playground Association took it up. A special Committee on Seaside Parks, representing numerous civic bodies, was

¹See *Charities* for June 4, 1904.

²See *THE SURVEY* for Aug. 12, 1911.

created, with Jacob A. Riis as chairman. This committee has been laboring all summer to put the matter through, Mr. Riis putting the fire into it with which he attacked Mulberry Bend years ago.

The citizens' committee lost two of its members by death during its sessions, the Very Rev. William J. White, of Brooklyn, and the Rev. Dr. John B. Devins. In taking leave of his associates on the committee last week, Chairman Riis expressed the hope that the securing of this park and hospital will be "the beginning of a benefaction which will extend its chain of hospitals in the coming years down the whole Atlantic coast, as has already been done in France and England." He said also:

We should not forget, in the rejoicing over victory, Charles B. Stover, who years ago laid the foundation deep for the success of today, and the city officials who have been most helpful from the beginning: Borough President George A. McAneny, Comptroller William A. Prendergast, President of the Board of Aldermen John Purroy Mitchel, and Vice-president Francis P. Bent, President of the Borough of Queens Maurice E. Connolly. They all deserve the gratitude of the people.

ON FIRE AND OTHER FACTORY HAZARDS

The Factory Investigation Commission, created by act of the New York legislature last July, has held its first hearings. The commission had its origin in the need for new fire legislation which was brought out so tragically at the Washington Place factory fire last winter; but its scope includes all "existing peril to life and health of operators." The legislative members of the commission include the democratic leaders—of the two houses of Congress—Senator Robert F. Wagner, chairman, who is chairman of the commission, and Assemblyman Alfred E. Smith—also Senator Charles E. Hamilton, Assemblymen Cyrus W. Phillips, and Edward D. Jackson. The four members appointed by the governor are Mary E. Drier, of the Women's Trade Union League, Samuel Gompers, Simon Brentano, a member of the Fifth Avenue association, and Robert E. Dowling, a real estate agent. At the opening session Abram I. Elkus, attorney for the commission, outlined

the commission's aims, scope and plan of work.

The investigation of fire conditions is under the direction of H. F. J. Porter, who with three assistants will make a study of representative buildings in the factory districts of New York city, with Fourteenth street as a center. The investigation of sanitation, including occupational diseases, will be in charge of Dr. George M. Price of the Joint Board of Sanitary Control of the Cloak-makers' Union.

Dr. Price's investigations will cover the printing trades, tobacco, chemicals, four food industries (ice cream, candy, pickling, and baking), and the work of women in the manufacture of paper boxes, human hair goods, artificial flowers, and feathers. Seven inspectors will be employed, two of them physicians. One hundred bakeries will be visited at the night shift, and from twenty-five to fifty factories in each of the other trades will be covered. The inquiry will be limited to sanitation and ventilation. With Dr. Price's report on these industries will be included the result of an investigation of sanitation carried on under the direction of Pauline Goldmark of the Bureau of Social Research, a report by John B. Andrews on lead, phosphorus, and mercury poisoning in New York state, and material on sanitary conditions in the garment trades gathered by the state Department of Labor and the Joint Board of Sanitary Control of the cloak- and suit-makers' Union.

FACTS BROUGHT OUT AT PUBLIC HEARINGS

These investigations by experts and the deliberative sessions on their results will undoubtedly, as in the case of the Illinois Commission on Occupational Diseases, be the most important part of the work of the commission. Popular interest is being attracted and some interesting testimony will be offered at the public hearings. Much of the first three days' testimony was a repetition of facts already familiar through the coroner's inquest after the Washington place fire. The public officials were more clear-cut,

*See THE SURVEY, October 7, 1911.

however, and definite in their recommendations for lessening the hazard to life from fire. From the fire department former fire-chief Edward Croker and the present chief, John Kenlon, testified, the latter reporting on an investigation of fire conditions he had caused to be made in the last two months, which brought to light 1,032 violations of building code regulations, 607 violations of charter provisions in regard to extinguishers and alarms, 401 violations of fire regulations of the Department of Labor, twenty-nine of the tenement house law, and twelve of the sanitary code—altogether 2081 violations, none of which the fire department was given the power to correct. Mr. Kenlon's first recommendation was that such power be given his department, with the right to hale violators to court. As fire preventives he recommended automatic sprinklers in all manufacturing buildings without exception, fire towers for low buildings and fire walls for high, the absolute barring of wooden partitions, and the strictest possible enforcement of regulations against dirt and rubbish.

Mr. Kenlon stated that there are between two and three hundred buildings in New York at the present time whose fire conditions are like those which existed in the Asch building. In support of his statement he offered to put a list of addresses in the hands of the commission.

The recommendations of Rudolf Miller, superintendent of buildings, differed in some respects from those of Chief Kenlon. He was in agreement in urging the necessity of giving the fire department inspecting power so that it could force the remedying of violations, but he believed the best way to achieve the latter was to give the Building Department power of summarily vacating the offending building. The chief handicaps of his bureau are, he stated, the necessity of bringing suit in case the owner does not remedy a violation, the distribution of responsibility among many departments, the inadequate number of inspectors, and the lack of power to reinspect buildings except on complaint. As an illustration of the cumbersome process of enforcing the remedying defects he said that

the bureau now had 2500 fire-escape cases on hand. Many of these are on complaints sent in since the Asch fire, some, however, are cases that have hung fire for many months, some even for years. His chief structural recommendations were balanced stair ladders where outside fire-escapes are necessary, but, as infinitely preferable to such means of exit, a system of inside smoke-proof staircases proportioned to the number of persons in a building, with fire walls bisecting high buildings.

He urged the strict limitation of the number of occupants permitted in a building in the same way that we to-day regulate the weight that may be put on a given floor. He advocated a certificate of occupancy. Deputy Inspector H. L. Schnur, who represented the Department of Labor, recommended the weeding out of old and inefficient inspectors from that department, voluntary reports from high-grade establishments which would release the time of the staff to concentrate on bad and indifferent factories. Among others who testified before the commission was Leonora O'Reilly, organizer of the Women's Trade Union League, who described and showed photographs to illustrate fire and sanitary conditions in several paper-box factories she had recently visited. One of these buildings had formerly been occupied by a firm of cloak-makers, whom the Joint Board of Sanitary Contract forced to move from their dangerous quarters by the simple and effective method of the strike.

HOEY - SULLIVAN BILL BECOMES LAW

At the opening of the hearings no bill to remedy fire conditions in New York city had as yet become law. On October 19 the Hoey-Sullivan bill was signed by the governor. This bill empowers the fire commissioner to order the remedying of violations or inadequacies in means of exit and to order vacation of buildings in which imminent peril to life exists through such violation or inadequacy, though the owner is given the right to appeal against such an order to a board of survey. The bill also establishes a Bureau of Fire Prevention.

These changes are, as Fire Commissioner Joseph Johnson is quoted as saying, revolutionary in sound but worth little unless public opinion is brought to bear to secure an adequate appropriation from the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. Advocates of the reform point out that the postal forwarded to Albany by the secretary of the commission on the lack of authority in departments to correct the dangerous conditions shown by Fire Chief Kenlon's report hastened the signing of the new bill. The fact that the commissioner is to resume its sittings in New York in a few weeks may have a like effect on the appropriation.

The Commission will present a report to the legislature on February 12, and will then ask for an extension of time to carry on more intensive investigations. For, while those who are following its hearings appreciate the results thus attributed to the publicity it has given imperative needs, the responsibility of the commission itself reaches deeper into making fundamental and constructive investigations as a basis for permanent action.

CANADIAN CONFERENCE MARKS NEW ADVANCES

"Though the history of her civilization stretches back three hundred years, swaddling-clothes still wrap her social problems"—this is characterization by a delegate to the twelfth annual Canadian Conference of Charities and Correction which met this fall in Hamilton, Ont. To his mind a new, wider, more national interest in social work is manifesting itself. For the first time delegates came from the east and west of Ontario. It was a dominant note of the conference that Canada, with a population of eight millions, still largely rural, and with its industrial development just beginning, has the opportunity to avoid the blunders of countries where industry is older and city life more complex. Yet facts were brought out showing that this opportunity is being missed; that the problems are outgrowing their swaddling-clothes; that bad housing, over-crowding, high death rates from preventable diseases, deser-

tion, and non-support are appearing in Canadian cities, and that only a start has been made in effective remedial effort or preventive legislation. Institutional care has been largely developed, but agencies for prevention are few. An encouraging sign was the presence at the conference of a number of city officials, especially those connected with the police and charitable departments. There was response to the address of James F. Jackson, superintendent of charities and correction of Cleveland, O., when he said that in the cities social and economic questions come to the front and come hard. This was at a Sunday afternoon meeting given up to a discussion of the closer co-operation of the churches with charitable agencies. The point was carried further by Samuel Arnold, secretary of the Associated Charities of Toronto, Ont. The increasing perplexities of the immigration problem in Canadian cities were revealed by Edith Elwood of Evangelia settlement, Toronto, to whose mind there will be need for active neighborhood work in every city in the Dominion in the next few years.

Not only city problems but questions of law and administration dealing with the social responsibilities of the provincial governments were emphasized. The decision to hold the next conference in Montreal at the time of the Child Welfare Exhibit there was significant in this connection. Ontario has taken a position of leadership hitherto in securing cooperation among the social and charitable agencies. The mid-western Canadians have been the pioneers in their collective assault on public opinion. For the first time the conference will be held outside of Ontario, and it is hoped by this move to enlist the cooperation of the sister province of Quebec.

The discussions of feeble-mindedness and wife-desertion illustrated the active trend of opinion with respect to provincial and dominion legislation. Out of the former discussion sprang a resolution which declared that many of the inmates of Canadian jails, prisons, hospitals, houses of refuge, and charitable institutions are abnormal, and that many backward children in the public schools need

special education. The resolution, which was carried unanimously, called for the appointment of a commission of five or more persons—to represent the conference, the Ontario government, and the general public—to frame a definite plan to deal with the whole question. In the opinion of J. P. Downey, superintendent of the Hospital for Feeble-minded at Orillia, there are 6,000 feeble-minded persons in Ontario who should be cared for in institutions where the sexes could be segregated.

Staff Inspector Kennedy of the morality department of the Toronto police gave as the four chief causes of wife-desertion drink, gambling, double living, and the interference of friends. "Cures" applied by the morality department he described as one week in prison to sober and think, then supervision for a time, and weekly collections of money for the family's support. Immediate need for revision of the criminal code on this subject was pointed out by J. Howard Falk of Winnipeg. Punishment should be made adequate, he declared, the marriage tie should be recognized legally as binding the husband to provide for his wife and offspring, unless adultery has been proved against the wife, and the authorities should be enabled to follow up deserters who leave their province.

J. J. Kelso, of Toronto, broached the problem of the pensioning of mothers in its bearing on the wife desertion problem. He thought that many parents shirk their responsibility towards the family because the law too easily allows children to be placed in institutions. He held that "instead of forcing the mother to go out to work for the support of her children she should be paid to remain at home and take care of them when she showed a disposition to do so. It would not cost half so much as it does now to maintain them in orphanages and reformatories." A committee of which Mr. Kelso is chairman was appointed to consider legislation dealing with this matter.

CONSOLIDATION OF NEGRO AGENCIES

A new stage in constructive social work among negroes may result from

a re-organization of agencies affected last week. Three organizations—the Committee for Improving the Industrial Conditions of Negroes in New York, the National League for the Protection of Colored Women, and the Committee on Urban Conditions Among Negroes—have consolidated and formed the National League on Urban Conditions Among Negroes. The membership of the new league consists of equal representation from the membership of the three organizations.

The objects of the league are:

To carry on constructive and preventive social work among Negroes, for improving their social and economic conditions in urban centers; to bring about co-ordination and co-operation between existing agencies working in the interests of Negroes, and to develop other agencies where necessary; to secure and train Negro social workers; to make such studies in cities as may be required for the carrying out of the objects of the league.

The officers are:

Prof. E. R. A. Seligman, chairman; Dr. Wm. L. Bulkeley, Mrs. Wm. H. Baldwin, Jr., and Jacob W. Mack, vice-chairman; Edward E. Pratt, secretary; A. S. Frissell, treasurer; L. Hollingsworth Wood, assistant treasurer.

The executive committee consists of the officers and:

Paul D. Cravath, Prof. Felix Adler, and Frances A. Kellor, from the Committee on Urban Conditions Among Negroes; Dr. E. P. Roberts, Mrs. E. B. Leaf, and Mrs. Haley Fiske, from the National League for the Protection of Colored Women; the Rev. Wm. H. Brooks, Abraham Lefkowitz, and the Rev. S. H. Bishop, from the Committee for Improving the Industrial Conditions of Negroes in New York.

Prof. George E. Haynes, of Fisk University, Nashville, is director of the new league, and E. K. Jones is field secretary in New York. Branches of the national league are being organized in Baltimore, Memphis, St. Louis, Nashville, and Louisville, and others will be started soon. These committees will carry on work similar to that done in New York by the Committee on Urban Conditions Among Negroes which was organized largely through the efforts of Mrs. Wm. H. Baldwin, Jr. During the present year this committee had made a preliminary survey of the Harlem district, conducted the work of a Central Bureau of Negro Fresh Air Agencies,

supervised all of the fresh-air work among Negroes in New York during the last summer, and maintained a camp for colored boys at Manorville, L. I. The National League for the Protection of Colored Women, which established stations in Philadelphia, Memphis, Baltimore, New York, and Norfolk, has kept a list of reliable employment agencies, maintained amusement clubs for women, and carried on probation work. The Committee for Improving the Industrial Conditions of Negroes in New York has had as specific objects the promotion of education, the development of employment agencies for artisans, and the co-ordination of social work among the Negro districts of the city. It has been successful in securing the extension of public night schools for industrial training.

The plans of the new league include surveys of all the districts inhabited by the 70,000 Negroes of Greater New York, the organization of a chain of colored boys' clubs throughout the city, and the holding, on Dec. 4, of a city conference of Negro Social Workers,—the first ever held.

DUST, BABIES, AND DISEASE

The details of a series of experiments into the manner of the spread of infantile paralysis, conducted by Dr. Marcus Neusteadter of New York city and Dr. William C. Thro of Cornell Medical College, were described before a recent meeting of the New York Academy of Medicine. Specialists present commended the experiments as an epochal advance in the medical knowledge of the disease. Six monkeys had been used, and the results obtained were declared to indicate, first, that the disease is eminently an infantile ailment and prevails principally among the very youngest children, those who play on the floor; second, that the disease is one which occurs mostly in the dry season; third, that the character of the neighborhood and living premises in which it is found does not play a material part in its spread—that, in fact, it may occur anywhere; fourth, that children in the same family may be attacked one after the

other and that in a given house children may be attacked in different families in fairly quick succession and along the lines of neighborly communication; and, fifth, that the upper air-passages appear to be the channels of the infection.

During March the two experimenters collected the sweepings, of from three to six months' standing, from rooms where nineteen different cases of infantile paralysis had occurred. These were dried for several days, then sifted, macerated in a normal salt solution, and filtered through paper and a Berkfeld filter. This solution, after it had been kept on ice for six days, was injected under the outer lining of the monkey's brain. An injection into the spine of the monkey was made a few days later from the nasal discharges of nineteen human patients. There were no noticeable results from either injection. Similarly the second and third monkeys received injections, except that the dust extracts were from sweepings of six weeks' and two weeks' standing, respectively. The autopsies again revealed no satisfactory evidences of infantile paralysis.

The sweepings of a case of one week's standing, after being shaken constantly for six hours with one hundred cubic centimeters normal salt solution evaporated to a consistency of five-sixths, were injected into the brain of the fourth monkey. This animal gave evidences of the disease, but recovered. A fifth monkey received into its spinal canal five cubic centimeters of sterile water in which had been macerated sweepings from a room where a four-year-old child had been stricken and had been paralyzed in two days. The monkey seven days afterward showed positive evidences of the disease. Then the fourth monkey, which had given results of no value from sweepings, and a sixth animal, were injected with a culture from the fifth. Both became violently ill and showed positive signs of infantile paralysis. From these results the physicians drew conclusions pointing to the belief that room dust is a medium through which the virus of infantile paralysis spreads.

Dr. Rosenbluth, after observing 117 cases of the disease at Beth Israel and Mount Sinai hospitals, and taking pains

to learn the original diagnosis of each case, found that in 65 per cent of the cases the diagnosis had characterized the disease as of the upper air-passages, and in 35 per cent as of the intestinal tract.

EDITORIAL GRIST

MEDICAL CHARITIES IN JAPAN

ALLEN K. FAUST

The Emperor of Japan some months ago issued a very important rescript which, freely translated, reads as follows:

In consequence of present-day conditions, it is necessary to enhance our people's welfare. Economic changes are slowly taking place. At such a time the mind of man is prone to go astray. The government ought most carefully to consider this and make strenuous endeavors to advance industries and to further education, so that healthy progress may result. If there are dependent ones among our people, who for the lack of medical attention are allowed to die before they have reached their natural limit of life, such have our deepest concern and sympathy. We hope, therefore, by means of free dispensaries and free medical treatment, to open a way for their relief. To this end, we contribute from the Privy Purse an amount of money (1,500,000 yen) as a foundation. Follow out our wishes by investing it securely and applying it effectively, so that for a long time it may be the source of help to many people.

Upon the announcement of this imperial munificence a movement was at once started for soliciting additional subscriptions from Japanese men of wealth. Prime Minister Katsura invited many rich men to his home and appealed to them for contributions. An association was organized called Saiseikwai (Life-restoring Association), to devise plans for carrying out the emperor's instructions. Prince Fushimi has been appointed director-general of the association and Prime Minister Katsura is its president. The result of this work has been that about 20,000,000 yen have been subscribed, with a possibility of the final amount reaching 30,000,000 yen. The details of the plans have not yet been made public, but it has been suggested that tickets for

free medical treatment be issued to the sick among the very poor, and that special consideration be given to the sufferers from tuberculosis, syphilitic diseases, trachoma, and the like.

The strong family system of Japan has been an immense asset to the country, whether considered economically or as a means of social control. Public opinion in this connection has been so powerful that poor relatives could hardly be neglected with impunity. But the introduction of ideas from the West without corresponding social institutions and the great economic pressure under which a large part of the population is patiently living have made the former family charity totally inadequate. Those in authority are keenly conscious of this situation, and the Life-restoring Association is an opportune product of the needs of the new times. According to some Japanese papers, it is also believed that the present movement for a larger philanthropy will go far to prevent any further cropping out of anarchistic tendencies.

There is pressing need in Japan for the new philanthropy in behalf of the sick among the "submerged tenth." The country is far advanced in the science of medicine, but the beneficent influence of the healing art has not yet been socialized, has not yet permeated down to the lower strata of society.

Tuberculosis is in Japan, as everywhere, the most destructive of the enemies of society. According to the latest official statistics, published in August of this year, 133,000 persons are annually sacrificed to the tubercle bacillus. This is an average of about twenty-seven persons to every 10,000. The whole number of patients is of course many times more than the number of deaths. Up to the beginning of the present movement, practically nothing had been done, in a public way, for the relief of the dire distress caused by the great white plague. Japan is, therefore, to be congratulated upon the forward step which she has now taken. There are also good reasons to believe that the government will not allow this movement to cease until an adequate solution of the problem shall have been found.

Sendai, Japan, August 24, 1911.

LABOR LEGISLATION IN NEW YORK

PAUL KENNADAY

New York Association for Labor Legislation

Between the chief court of the state on the one hand, and the chief executive of the state on the other, Labor Legislation in New York has had about as much chance for progress in the past year as the poor camel when he found himself looking into the eye of the needle. The Court of Appeals has held fast to an interpretation of the law from which there is no escape except through the laborious process of constitutional amendment, if New York is to have even such a circumscribed Workmen's Compensation Act as that proposed by the recent Wainwright Commission. However, the people of New York were given their day in court and now their remedy is at least in sight; if still long deferred.

It remained for the governor, ably seconded by the majority of the Civil Service Commission, when every consideration of right public service called for deliberation and publicity, to put in the way of labor an obstacle well fitted, if not well devised, to halt its progress for many years to come. Practically reorganizing the Department of Labor and enlarging the inspectorial force from sixty to eighty-five men and women, providing for a division of the State into seven industrial districts over each of which was to be placed a supervising inspector with large power and incalculable opportunity for good or evil to the great mass of industrial workers of the state, the Phillips law seemed a triumph of legislation. But in the dog-days of July, up at Albany, the State Civil Service Commission quietly took the starch out of this new law. On July 25, it received a communication from the Commissioner of Labor asking to have placed in the exempt class the eight supervising inspectors whom the Wainwright Commission had specifically recommended should be under civil service control. Two days later it received and without more ado adopted the commissioner's request when submitted in a phraseology in conformity with

the rules and regulations of the commission. Then and there Messrs Kraft, Burton, and Ludvigh, under oath to enforce the law that appointment to the public service wherever practicable shall be by competitive examination, concluded upon the mere reading of this stereotyped request to put these inspectors in the exempt class, to open wide the door of political influence, and to slam fast the door of promotion in the faces of inspectors tried out in the ranks and proven worthy. Without previous notice to the public, without opportunity to be heard given to those known to be interested, without inquiry or knowledge of the facts, without argument advanced, with no single witness before it, the State Civil Service Commission recommended the exemption of these supervisors. The governor so ordered and all was ready for the office-seekers.

Then appeared an eager throng, some out-and-out Job hunters, others good and "practical" men, the kind "who know all about machinery even though they can not pass a college examination." The clamor of those so anxious to serve their fellow men at \$2,500 per year grew, and as it grew first gave the warning of what had been accomplished in the quiet of the summer days. The Consumers League, the Civil Service Reform Association, the Child Labor Committee, and such like "pestiferous fellows" took alarm, the commission upon request held another Albany hearing somewhat more heated this than that of July—charges were made and indignantly denied that the former meeting had been in effect a secret one and the curtain went down with Commissioner Williams holding the center of the stage, and declaring that upon assurance of written notification from the commission of a public hearing in the City of New York on October 31 he would postpone until after that date the appointments which the commissioners and the governor had authorized him to make.

The last act in this sorry farce takes place next week; the scene shifts to the rooms of the Municipal Civil Service Commission; all the actors crowd upon the stage, each to say his say

with the chorus watching angrily to see whether these public servants will give judgment in favor of those needing more efficient administration of the labor laws, in favor of the over-worked man, the under-aged child, the under-paid woman, —the lady or the tiger.

THE PAROLE OF LIFE' PRISONERS

GEORGE W. WICKERSHAM

Attorney General of the United States

Considerable thought and discussion has been devoted to the question whether or not the benefits of the parole law should be extended to life prisoners. The committee of the National Prison Association having this subject under consideration at its last annual meeting advocated, within limits, the extension of the parole law to life prisoners who, according to expert judgment, are safe to be at large, whose offense was born of an overmastering impulse, and whose previous record was not vicious. The statutes in some of the states make life prisoners eligible to parole when they shall actually served a long term of years; such as thirty-five years less good time allowances in Minnesota; twenty-five years in Montana, Nebraska, Ohio, and Utah; fifteen years in Louisiana and Virginia; ten years in Texas and seven years in California. Under the federal statutes, a prisoner sentenced to thirty years' imprisonment for rape; to twenty-one years' imprisonment for assault with intent to rape; one sentenced to twenty-one years' imprisonment for kidnapping or to ten years' imprisonment for manslaughter, are all alike eligible to parol. Probably no greater moral dereliction is involved in the commission of the crime of murder in the second degree, for which a life sentence is imposed, if as much, as in the crime of rape; and if the law-making power considers reformation, conditional liberation, and reinstatement to a normal position in society possible in the case of one who has been convicted of the terrible crime of rape, which may be punished

by a term of imprisonment so long as to be practically equivalent to a life term, it is difficult to say on what principle the same possibility and hope of reformation, liberation, and forgiveness should not be extended to one guilty of murder under circumstances not punishable by death. While there is life there should be hope. It may be far off, delayed, a dim, distant possibility, but it would seem that that hope should be held out as a possible attainment to the meanest wretch who is allowed to live. The justice of man should aim at the perfection of divine justice; and though finite wisdom, not knowing the hearts of men, may not always deal justly with offenders, yet it should not "Shut the gates of mercy" against the meanest of God's creatures.

TREND

That the third scientific study of elimination and retardation in our schools to be made in four years has just come from the government printing office at Washington, D. C., attests the wide interest felt today in the efficiency of our public systems of education. In adding another study to the former two the government has, as it were, "had another say." The first was a monograph by Prof. Edward L. Thorndike, of Columbia University, entitled the Elimination of Pupils from School, published as Bulletin No. 4 (1907) by the Bureau of Education. A spirited discussion of this work was succeeded by the publication by the Russell Sage Foundation of Laggards in our Schools, a study of Retardation and Elimination in City School Systems, prepared by Dr. Leonard P. Ayres. The third in the field is published as Bulletin No. 5 (1911) of the Bureau of Education, and is called Age and Grade Census of Schools and Colleges, a study of Retardation and Elimination. It is prepared by Prof. George D. Strayer, of Teachers' College, Columbia University. Prof. Thorndike used reports from twenty-three cities, Dr. Ayres from fifty-eight, and Prof. Strayer from 318. One conclusion reached by Prof. Strayer is as follows:

"The study of the problem of elimination and retardation has brought us face to face with the necessity for changing our curriculum. It is manifestly unfair to provide a rigid curriculum which leads straight to the college or the university. Our schools are beginning to take account of the facts of individual differences in interests and in abilities. We shall have to modify our curriculum still further. During the first six years we may

¹From the Attorney-General's address last week before the American Prison Congress in Omaha.

possibly be satisfied to accept a minimum of achievement from those who are less capable along the lines of traditional school work. Beyond the sixth grade we are already beginning to have a differentiation of courses of study which will enable the child who is to work in the fields of industry or commerce to secure from the school some adequate preparation for his lifework. We are beginning to have, and shall have probably in still greater measure, special schools and special classes for those who are unusually deficient either mentally or physically. It is not less significant that special classes for unusually capable children are beginning to be established. The ideal of education in a democracy will be realized when it is possible for each child to work to the maximum of his capacity and to secure during those years devoted to school activity that training which will best fit him for his life's work."

A defect in school records is pointed out by former Commissioner E. E. Brown in his letter of transmittal:

"It should be added that in our statistical studies of school attendance we shall continue to be in the twilight, though not altogether in the dark, until a practicable method can be devised for keeping a separate record throughout his school course of each individual pupil, whether he remain in one school or follow the widespread American custom of migration."

Other interesting studies have been issued this year by the Bureau of Education. Agencies For The Improvement of Teachers in Service, by Prof. William Carl Ruediger, of Teachers' College, George Washington University, is the title of bulletin No. 3. Besides a mass of material suggested by its name this monograph contains sections on Measuring Teachers' Efficiency, Participation of Teachers in the Determination of Educational Policies, etc.

Bulletins 10 and 11 of the same Bureau are, respectively, a bibliography of education for 1909-10, and a bibliography of child study for the years 1908-1909.

* * *

The *Atlantic Monthly* and *McClure's*, for October, contain matter of the keenest human interest. In *Within the Pale* a Russian Jewess (Mary Antin) begins her story of her own life. The first chapter is preliminary. It gives the environment in Russia of this people set apart for continual espionage and periodic persecution, and the race customs within the *Pale*, where fear of persecution has dulled romance, and young people are brought together for marriage without choice, to bring into the world such brave stoics, and withal idealists, as Mary Antin promises to be.

The story in *McClure's*—*Tragedies*, by Estelle Sturgis—is the story of a young girl's part in the hand-to-mouth life of a mechanic's family. "Grief," says the girl, "is a month of sobs and tears; sorrow is a dear memory buried away and taken out at times to caress and cry over; a tragedy is a hurt that leaves

a scar on the soul." The girl's tragedies are three—when she loses the last dollar that lies between the family and hunger; when the unaccountable shame of begging that goes with real poverty prevents her from asking a willing neighbor for the fruit her sick mother needs, and when she learns something about her mother's early life that revolutionizes her whole idea of her. These are the three scars in her life, told with strong and simple pathos, that "last until death, and pale and burn under strong emotion."

* * *

A hint to the N. Y. Interborough—which needs the hint sadly—comes in the report from the American consul in London of the efforts being made to purify the impure and stifling air of the "tube" by pumping daily 80,000,000 cubic feet of ozonized air through its tunnels. This, it is estimated, will give 900 cubic feet of air per person per hour, which is 600 feet in excess of the ordinary allowance per person in buildings. Plants are to be erected at each station. Only one is as yet in use. Its operation is thus described: "The air is drawn from outside through a filter screen, which removes dust and dirt and impure gases. A part of the air is then highly ozonized by being passed over highly electrified plates, the proportion of ozone in the whole being one part in 10,000,000. The air is driven by fans to the level of the bottom of the station, and two-thirds of it is distributed over the platform by ducts, with outlets at a height of seven feet above the platform. The remainder is driven into the tunnel. The size of the pumping plant is such that it can be installed in a chamber ten feet by eight feet by four feet, and there are two miles of duct work."

* * *

Convinced that the growing demand for information concerning the results of vocational school experiments calls for a new educational publication, the Manual Arts Press, Peoria, Ill., began the publication in September of a bi-monthly periodical, *Vocational Education*. The first issue contains an article on Vocational Training and its Future, by Edmund J. James, president of the University of Illinois, and other signed articles on the Cleveland industrial school and the Illinois state reformatory school. The editorial-staff is made up of experts in technical training. The editor in Chief is Charles A. Bennett, of the Bradley Polytechnic Institute, Peoria. Among those on the advisory board are Charles R. Richards, director of Cooper Union, and Meyer Bloomfield, director of the Boston Vocation Bureau. According to present plans the periodical will contain articles written not in popular style but for specialists in the subject, giving practical and suggestive data about types of vocational schools and on courses of instruction. The magazine also contains news items, book reviews, and an editorial department. The subscription price is \$1.50 a year.

* * *

The *Delineator* for November begins a delightful series of interpretations of the boy

by Carl Werner. In the Hunt for the Man in the Five-year-old, Mr. Werner, who has, says the editor's note, the originality and sweetness to remain a boy at heart through life, analyzes discursively and picturesquely those characteristics which to him mean that the end of babyhood comes at five, and with it the waning of the mother's and the beginning of the father's domination—provided through lack of time and interest the father does not lose his opportunity.

* * *

In *McClure's* for October J. Adams Puffer, director of Beacon Vocation Bureau, analyzes a later stage of the boy's development, the gang age, from ten to sixteen. The gang-boy admires the leader; so does Mr. Puffer, and for the same reasons. As result of his study of thirty-one leaders and thirty-seven easily led boys in the Lyman School, Boston, he pictures the leaders as starting in at school in grades ahead of their age and forging ahead through school at a rate even out of proportion to their original start. The characteristics of the leader are strongly hereditary but not incapable of being developed by training. Mr. Puffer holds that there is an intermediate group of boys between the actual leaders and the naturally led in whom the gang—the proper kind of gang, that is—can develop qualities of physical vigor, mental capacity, reasoning, strength of will, shrewdness, generosity, courage.

* * *

The first issue of the *Revue Internationale du Chomage*, a periodical started by the International Association against Unemployment, with Max Lazard as editor-in-chief, is devoted to the subject of unemployment insurance. The opening editorial outlines the program of the magazine, which will cover the subjects of the organizations of industry and the special elements that affect the unemployment problem in each particular branch of industry; the statistics of unemployment; the relation of population to unemployment; the movement of industries, crises, slack seasons, and other factors that produce unemployment; legislation on the subject; and preventive and palliative institutions. On these subjects the magazine will aim to bring together in available form the facts and conclusions deduced from investigation and from practical experimentation. The review is to be published quarterly by the association (L'Association Internationale pour la Lutte contre le Clomage) at 34 Rue de Babylone, Paris.

* * *

The *Universalist Leader*, a weekly publication in the religious field, made of its issue of September 23 a social service number. There are articles by Mrs. Florence Kelley, Orrin C. Cocks, Prof. Walter Rauschenbusch, Rabbi Stephen S. Wise, Rev. John Haynes Holmes, and others.

* * *

That a city of 70,000 people should publish a Who's Who in its civic work is unusual enough, but that it should find 218

names properly belonging in such a list is even more striking. Yet that is what has just been done by Hoboken, N. J. This list is one feature in a charities directory of the city published by the Robert L. Stevens Fund for Municipal Research. The directory, which is the outgrowth of a civic renaissance that has been accomplishing things recently in Hoboken, was published to "make accessible for ready reference a minimum of facts about the various churches, charitable, civic, and educational organizations in Hoboken; to serve as a means of bringing more closely into efficient cooperation those persons who are working for the welfare of Hoboken; to increase the sympathetic support of uplift work; and to help workers and donors to discover needs not yet met and fields of effort not yet filled or entered. . . ."

* * *

In a booklet of sixty pages written in a picturesque and readable style by Mrs. Raymond Robins, the Women's Trade Union League of Chicago has issued the report of its Strike Committee on the garment workers' strike, which lasted from October, 1910, to February, 1911. The detail of the long weeks of suffering, of the many disinterested efforts at settlement, and of the well-organized relief work, are familiar to readers of *THE SURVEY*. The present report covers it all and forms an invaluable reference for all interested. (Price ten cents. Women's Trade Union League, 331 South LaSalle street, Chicago.)

* * *

A useful and comprehensive handbook of its activities has been issued by the Y. W. C. A. The work of the national board is divided into eight departments, method, foreign, conventions and conferences, secretarial, publication office, field work and finance. The department of method is further divided into three committees, on student associations, city associations and association extension.

"In the three years since the national organization was formed," says the Handbook, "the membership has increased from 146,259 to 216,360; thirty-nine city, three mill village and three county associations have been organized; fifty-two new buildings representing a cost of \$3,000,000 have been erected. Thirty-five thousand dollars has been contributed for a building in Calcutta, India, and two additional summer conferences have been opened, with capacity for entertaining four thousand women and girls. The National Board is experimenting in what have been hitherto untouched fields; for example, the department store, schools of art, music and drama, Indian schools, graduate nurses, rural committees and mining towns."

* * *

The Rhode Island Bureau of Industrial Statistics has recently published its second bulletin dealing with philanthropic agencies located in the cities of the state. This bulletin, which was prepared by Carol Aronovici, director of the Rhode Island Bureau of Social Research, describes the work of all important social agen-

cies in the state and is intended as a guide for those who are or might become contributors towards the work of the various welfare agencies.

In discussing the welfare work of the cities the writer emphasizes three important points, namely: the multiplicity of relief agencies and the duplication of effort in the same territory; the difficulty encountered in securing accurate data concerning efficiency of work, service rendered, and expenditures incurred, even in cases where the city or state contributes toward the support of such agencies; and the unwaranted increase in the number of day nurseries, which makes possible the employment of women to an extent that should make them subject to public supervision and control.

* * *

The report of the New York State Insurance Department on its investigation of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company brings out the new social features of the company's work. Among these features, on the side of the policy-holders, is the distribution of literature in regard to the prevention of tuberculosis, which was begun after the study of the death claims of 1909 showed that 18 per cent of the deaths were due to this single cause. A recent development in tuberculosis work is the starting of building operations on a sanitarium at Mt. McGregor, New York, which is to be used ultimately not only for employes, but for policy-holders.

The system of visiting nurses started at the same time is now in practice throughout New York and Massachusetts, and in twenty-eight cities in other states. It is estimated that it can be extended to the whole field for not more than \$500,000.

For the company's office employes a welfare system is in existence covering cheap lunch room, library, gymnasium, savings bank, a sick fund, and a bonus system for long service.

* * *

Publication No. 13 of the American Association for Labor Legislation, which is Volume I, No. 2, of the *American Labor Legislation Review*, is a comparative analysis of laws in the various states for comfort, health, and safety in factories. This is the fourth of the series of such analyses of labor laws published by the association. The other three covered the Administration of Labor Laws (Publication No. 6), Woman's Work (No. 7), and Child Labor (No. 8).

* * *

The Vancouver special number of the *Single Tax Review* is a exposition of the workings of the experiment in land taxation, begun fifteen years ago in the Capital of British Columbia, which has now developed into a full-fledged single tax. Luther S. Dickey writes of the general development of Vancouver, and the mayor, the building inspector, and other citizens take up special aspects of the subject. The articles have copious illustrations showing the industrial development of the city.

* * *

Jacob A. Riis puts organized charity in the role of a modern St. George in the October *Scribner's*. Poverty is the dragon and in the spread of the charity organization movement throughout the country Mr. Riis finds his saint's growth to manhood. He takes New York city, however, as his theme and tells of the psychological change that has taken place since, in 1824, the secretary of state of the commonwealth recommended three methods of caring for the poor: "One to farm them out to contractors; another, to relieve them at their homes; and a third, to sell them at auction." Mr. Riis's treatment of the material is admirably calculated to rouse interest in those who hitherto have been indifferent.

COMMUNICATIONS

CONSERVATION OF YANKEES

TO THE EDITOR:

I cannot sympathize with the argument for the extermination of the Yankee put forward in *THE SURVEY*, October 7.

The writer has stated the correct principle, namely, that "One of the first problems of the conservation of the agricultural industry is the maintenance of a wholesome, happy rural population. Upon the character of the rural people—their intelligence, morality, ideals, and material well-being—more than on any other one factor depends the general welfare of the nation as a whole. A second but less important problem is the conservation and efficient utilization of natural resources."

He goes on to say that "the foreigner with his family is able to out-compete the industrious American, with a smaller family, a higher standard of living, and a stronger desire for the 'appurtenances of leisure.' The ultimate settlement of rural New England by foreign farmers—Italian, Slavic, Hebrew, perhaps Teuton—seems inevitable. Gradually they are dotting the rural districts with their farms, slipping quietly but surely into the homes vacated by native New England farmers." And he concludes that whereas the movement has up to the present time been sporadic, the time has now come when our federal and state institutions of agriculture should take the matter up and make this substitution of races go on in a more definite, systematic, and intelligent manner.

I cannot feel that the conclusion follows from the premises. The ousting of old New England stock from the land means its ousting from this planet, as city populations hardly reproduce themselves. Is that an end toward which we ought to strive? Has the old stock so proved its uselessness that we should bend our energies to hasten its extinction? Personally I cannot see anything in the history of Naples and the Sicilies, or in the long tragedy of the mixture of Jew and Slav tried out in Poland and Russia for now these two thousand years, which should lead us to feel that the substitution of these races will necessarily be an improvement.

The old stock was selected from the very best that England had to offer at that time. "God had sifted three kingdoms to find the wheat for this planting." Have the steamship companies sifted Austria, South Italy, and Russia with equal care and with as high a motive? Have those countries proved themselves better places to seek for the seed of successful democracy than Puritan England was?

For my part I cannot grow enthusiastic over proposals that we should spend money and energy for the sake of sterilizing the old Yankee stock and substituting therefor the proposed mixture of the hitherto unsuccessful members of the unsuccessful races or racial combinations of the Old World.

Boston.

JOSEPH LEE.

different from that of others, because the people who came here first came from the villages of Beirut and Mt. Lebanon. The people from Damascus, who have come more of late, are not inclined to ask aid, and seem to be of a higher type. I do not have many applications for charity for them now, because the experience has been such that the giving societies have been very slow to aid the Syrians, and the child helping societies almost invariably of late years refuse to take the children. It is quite true that the Syrians are generous to each other. I agree with Mrs. Houghton in that respect.

Boston.

C.

JOTTINGS

SYRIANS IN BOSTON

TO THE EDITOR:

I relate my very different experience with the Syrians, in reply to the points in Mrs. Houghton's articles, especially in the one of September 2.

In her first article she characterized the prejudice against the Syrians in Boston as founded on small knowledge. The feeling against the Syrians in Boston comes entirely from experience. When we first dealt with them they were treated by every charitable society exactly as other people, but we found them extremely untrustworthy and unreliable. Few employers in Boston have found them satisfactory, and they have taken great pains to cheat the charitable societies, which accounts for the feeling existing here. She speaks of our knowing only the women of the family. I have had to deal with many men, but I have found their knowledge of English very small. Those who called here have generally had to bring interpreters. We have here many married women who peddle. Some of them have left their husbands in Syria, and some of them, in the testimony of their own educated countrymen, are of immoral character. None of the people in Boston consider them remarkable linguists. They are slow and take little pains in learning, although I believe they are beginning to improve. We have also found in them a great desire for dollars, which of course is natural. They always wanted an easy place with big pay, which no one wished to give them. Many Syrians have applied to me for charity, both directly and because they asked aid of other people to whom they went as peddlers, and to whom they said they were destitute.

Most of the Syrian people worked only as peddlers when they came to Boston. It is only now that they have started some factories in which women work. The streets where the Syrians live in Boston are the dirtiest that are in my district, instead of the cleanest, as Mrs. Houghton says, and those who have visited their homes do not consider that they live well, as compared with other nationalities. Possibly my experience may be

Business and Public Welfare.—The annual meeting of the New York Academy of Political Science which is to be held at Columbia University November 10 and 11 will be devoted to the discussion of Business and the Public Welfare. The topic of the first session, which will be held on the afternoon of November 10, in conjunction with the New York Association for Labor Legislation, will be the improvement of labor legislation, which will be treated in its various aspects by P. Tecumseh Sherman, Miles Menander Dawson, and Henry R. Seager, whose speeches will be followed by discussion by many who have made a special study of this subject.

At the anniversary dinner on the evening of the same day the subject will be the relation of government to business. Judge Elbert H. Gary, and Attorney-General George W. Wickersham will be guests of honor, and the speakers will be Hon. Albert B. Cummins, John Hays Hammond, George W. Perkins, and Robert Mather, chairman of the board of directors of the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company.

The discussion on the morning of November 11 will be on social efficiency in business. Professor Irving Lisher of Yale will speak on industrial hygiene and Raynal C. Bolling, assistant solicitor of the United States Steel Company, on Occupational Standards. In the discussion which will follow these addresses, many who are at present engaged in the work of raising occupational standards in special industries will take part.

Frank Tucker, vice-president of the Provident Loan Society, will preside at the final session, which is to be on financial facilities for wage-earners. William E. Harmon and Arthur H. Ham will read papers, the former on investments on the installment plan, the latter on remedial loans. Discussion on both papers and on other aspects of these questions will follow.

Tickets and programs for the first, third, and fourth sessions of the academy may be obtained by members and their friends by application to Emma S. Lake, assistant to the president, Columbia University.

Pennsylvania Conference.—In Pittsburgh, burgh, Nov. 14-16, will be held the third annual Pennsylvania Conference of Charities and Correction. The Rev. R. M. Little, president of the conference, will address the opening session Tuesday evening. Three vital subjects will be discussed on Wednesday: Courts and the Child, Wm. D. Crocker of Williamsport, chairman; Public Health, Dr. Samuel B. Dixon, of Harrisburg, chairman; Inebriety, Irvin F. Lehman, of Pittsburgh, chairman. Orlando F. Lewis, of New York city is also among the speakers.

Thursday the topics will be: State Supervision of Charities, Prof. Carl Kelsey of Philadelphia, chairman; Prevention of Blindness and the Employment of the Adult Blind, O. H. Burritt, of Philadelphia, chairman; The Church and Social Work, Bishop Rogers Israel of Erie, chairman. General discussions will follow the main papers.

The officers of the conference this year are: president, the Rev. R. M. Little, Pittsburgh; vice-presidents, Hon. Frank D. McClain, Lancaster, Hon. Vance C. McCormick, Harrisburg, James McB. Robb, Oakdale; secretary, Miss Agnes V. Knowlton, Pittsburgh; assistant secretaries, Allen T. Burns, Pittsburgh, Mrs. Emma Spear, Morganza, Mrs. Mary J. Van Hook, Harrisburg; social secretary, Miss May L. Allen, Pittsburgh; treasurer, E. D. Solenberger, Philadelphia. The officers of the conference have secured headquarters at 528 Fulton Building, Pittsburgh.

First Troubles of An Immigrant—Wladyslaw Perkowski came to the Pittsburgh Y. M. C. A. in a taxi-cab, with the following address:

Pittsburgh, Pa., Panewna
Stait 16 habereia. 47
Franciszek Pisczatowski

The immigration secretary, H. A. McConnaughey, took the Pole, with his wooden trunk and bundle, into the building and began to study the address. What followed is described in a leaflet got out by the Industrial Department of the International Committee.

"*Panewna* was Panama and so to Panama alley they went in the drizzling rain, but found no foreigners in the alley. They consulted a German store-keeper, who looked at the address and said, '*Panewna* may be *Penn. ave.* Sure, and its street 16; so away the secretary and his charge went in that direction.

"They found 16th Street but what of *habereia 47*? Mr. McConnaughey walked the street and studied the names of the alleys: that's it *Mulberry Alley*. The policeman was now interested, but assured the secretary, there's no 47 there; the numbers don't go that high. The secretary went from door to door and with the help of a store-keeper found 47—and also Franciszek Pisczatowski. The meeting of friends long separated was joyful. They kissed and embraced, and the crowd that gathered all smiled and felt happy. The secretary returned to the building and

looked as if he had been to a wedding, although he was drenched by the rain."

Annual Meeting of New York C. O. S.—The annual meeting of the Charity Organization Society of the city of New York will be held at 8:15 Monday evening, Nov. 13, in the assembly hall of the United Charities building. The principle speaker will be Judge Julian W. Mack of Washington, D. C., formerly of Chicago, and this year president of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

The importance of local responsibility for social conditions in New York city will be the central topic of discussion. Among the speakers will be the Reverend William J. Kerby of Washington, who can speak out of his experience with the parish organization of the Roman Catholic Church; Mrs. John M. Glenn, chairman of the Committee on Co-operation and District Work of the New York society; and Miss Pauline Goldmark, of the Bureau of Social Research.

Admission to the annual meeting is by ticket, which can be procured by writing to the Charity Organization Society, 105 East 22nd street.

Economic Prizes—Prizes are again offered by Hart, Schaffner, and Marx for essays on economic subjects. Two prizes of \$1,000 and \$500 are offered to any American, and two prizes of \$300 and \$200 are offered to college undergraduates. The essays must be in by June 1, 1912. Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin, University of Chicago, is chairman of the committee of judges. Such topics as the following may be used: wage theories of American economists; agricultural education; the influences affecting the prices of agricultural products; a lumber policy for the United States; would public interests be subserved by the amendment or repeal of the so-called Sherman anti-trust law?; capital building through corporation savings; control of securities of public service corporations; a scientific basis for tariff revision.

History of Hartford Streets—A recent pamphlet published by the Municipal Art Society of Hartford, which must represent much work, suggests something which it would be well to have done in every city, though the work would seem to belong more properly to the local historical societies. This is a history of the city streets, giving the origin of their names and the dates when they were accepted. The pamphlet makes a book of nearly one hundred pages, and represents four years of work by Albert L. Washburn and Henry R. Buck, for the committee on parks and thoroughfares and playgrounds. The bulletin is designed "to give in alphabetical order the name of every street, avenue, alley, or place which is likely to be referred to in the land records of the Town of Hartford, as the front boundary of any piece of property. The origin and meaning of the name is also given, in so far as it has been possible to obtain it."

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

NOVEMBER CONFERENCES.

- 1-3 *Maine State Conference of Charities and Correction*—Augusta, Me. Secretary, Francis H. Miller, 85 Market Street, Portland, Me.
- 2-4 *Industrial Education*—National Society for Promotion of. Cincinnati, O. Secretary, J. Henry Cone, 20 W. 44th St.
- 3-12 *American Land and Irrigation Exposition*.—New York city. Corresponding officer, Gilbert McClurg, Singer Bldg., New York city.
- 9-11 *Missouri State Conference of Charities and Correction*—Kansas City, Mo. Secretary, W. T. Cross, Columbia, Mo.
- 9-12 *Minnesota State Conference of Charities and Correction*—Duluth, Minn. Secretary, Eugene T. Lies, City and County Bldg., Minneapolis, Minn.
- 10 *Legal Aid Societies*—National Convention of. Pittsburgh, Pa. Corresponding officer, W. B. Blaxter, St. Nicholas Bldg., Pittsburgh, Pa.
- 13-16 *Municipal League*—National annual meeting. Richmond, Va. Secretary, L. McK. Judkins, 12 So. 14th St., Richmond, Va.
- 14-16 *Juvenile Court Conference of Middlewestern States*—Louisville, Ky. Secretary, Bernard Flexner, Louisville, Ky.
- 15 *Conference of Denominational Committees on Social Service*—Worcester, Mass. Secretary, Rev. Margaret Barnard, Rowe, Mass.
- 16-18 *Florida State Conference of Charities and Correction*—Jacksonville, Fla. Secretary, V. R. Manning, 28 E. Bay street, Jacksonville, Fla.
- 16-18 *Infant Mortality*—Association for Study and Prevention of. Chicago, Ill. Secretary, Gertrude B. Knipp, Medical and Surgical Faculty Bldg., Baltimore, Md.
- 23-24 *South Carolina State Conference of Charities and Correction*. Columbia, S. C. President, A. T. Jamison, Colonia Hotel, Columbia, S. C.
- 27-29 *Maryland State Conference of Charities and Correction*—Baltimore, Md. General Secretary, H. Wirt Steele, 15 E. Pleasant Place, Baltimore, Md.
- LATER MEETINGS.
- International.*
- Sept. 4-13, 1912 *Chemistry, Applied*—Congress on. Washington, September 4. and New York, September 6-13. Secretary, Bernard C. Hesse, M. D., 25 Broad street, New York city.
- Sept. 23-28, 1912 *Hygiene and Demography*—Fifteenth Congress on. Washington, D. C. Secretary, Dr. John S. Sutton, Army Medical Museum, Washington, D. C.
- Sept. 1912 *Labor Legislation*—Association for. Zurich, Switzerland. Secretary, Stephen Bauer, Basel, Switzerland.
- 1915 *Prison*—Quinquennial Congress. London, England. Secretary, F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.
- 1915 *Relief*—Committee on Public and Private. London, England. Secretary, Charles S. Loch, Charity Organization Society, London.
- 1913 *Fight Against Unemployment*—The International Association for. Ghent, Belgium. American corresponding officer, J. B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York city.
- National.*
- Dec. 5-9 *Public Health*—American Association. Havana, Cuba. Secretary, William C. Woodward, M. D., District Bldg., Washington, D. C.

- Dec. 13-15 *American Civic Association*. Washington, D. C. Secretary, Richard B. Watrous, 914 Union Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.
- Dec. 27-30 *American Economic Association*—Washington, D. C. Secretary, Prof. T. N. Carver, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
- Dec. 27-30 *American Sociological Society*—Washington, D. C. Secretary, Alvan A. Tenney, Columbia University, New York city.
- Dec. 27-30 *American Political Science Association*—Buffalo and Toronto (Dec. 30). Secretary, W. W. Willoughby, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.
- Dec. 27-30 *American Historical Association*—Buffalo, N. Y. Secretary, W. G. Leland, 500 Bond Bldg., Washington, D. C.
- June, 1912 *Women's Clubs*—General Federation of. San Francisco, Cal. Corresponding Secretary, Mrs. Frank Shiek, Wheatland, Wyo.
- Sept. 1912 *Catholic Charities*—National Conference of. Washington, D. C. Secretary Rev. Dr. William J. Kerby, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.
- State and Local.*
- Jan. 25, 1912 *New York Peace Society*. Hotel Astor, New York city. Corresponding officer, William H. Short, 507 Fifth Ave., New York city.
- Jan. 1912 *Nebraska Conference of Charities and Correction*—Omaha, Neb. Secretary, Ida V. Jontz, City Hall, Omaha, Neb.
- Autumn, 1912 *Massachusetts State Conference of Charities and Correction*—Secretary, Parker B. Field, 229 Tremont street, Boston, Mass.

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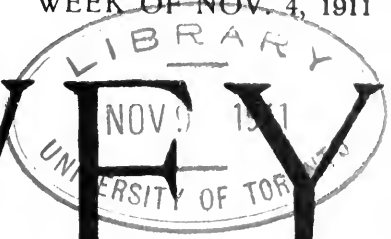
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October 28, 1911.

VOLUME XXVII, No. 5

WEEK OF NOV. 4, 1911

THE SURVEY



A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



... A BOY
WHO SAW BEYOND THE GILDED LAMPS,
A GREAT SHIP'S GANG PLANK SWING AWAY—
CROWD, SHORE, AND FAR ITALIAN HILLS
DIE WITH THE BLUE OF NAPLES' BAY.

—*The Hotel Messenger*, p. 1100.

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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

OLYMPIA LAW VS ALBANY LAW

When the Supreme Court of the State of Washington addressed itself, late in September, to the very live question of the constitutionality of a workingmen's compensation act, the particular measure before the court differed considerably from the one which had been previously passed upon by the New York Court of Appeals.

The differences, however, did not substantially affect the question of constitutionality. If the one is obnoxious to state and federal constitutions, the other is also. No attempt is made by the Washington court to reconcile its views with those of the New York court. Scant courtesy, indeed, is paid by Olympia to Albany. Chief Justice Dunbar remarks:

In the foregoing discussion we have not referred to the decision of the Court of Appeals of the state of New York . . . which holds the workingmen's compensation act of that state to be in conflict with the due process of law clause of the state constitution, and the fourteenth amendment to the constitution of the United States. The case has, however, been the subject of extended consideration in the briefs of counsel, and it is urged upon us by counsel for the auditor as conclusive of the question at bar. The act the court there had in review is dissimilar in many respects to the act before us, and is perhaps less easily defended on economic grounds. The principle embodied in the statutes is, however, the same; and it must be conceded that the case is direct authority against the position we have here taken. We shall offer no criticism of the opinion. We will only say that, notwithstanding the decision comes from the highest court of the first state of the Union, and is supported by a most persuasive argument, we have not been able to yield our consent to the views therein taken.

No criticism! Some of our correspondents unjustly accused THE SURVEY of sarcasm in its attempt to explain the disastrous character of the New York decision. And now the first state supreme court which has an opportunity to follow or to reject the Albany decision, after calmly refusing to devote so much as a single line to replying to its arguments, takes the trouble to explain that this is not because the court was unaware that such a decision has been made, but merely because they "have not been able to yield their consent to the views therein taken." If, in law, this is not criticism, we venture to suggest, not in sarcasm but in all seriousness, that judges might well prefer to be criticized. Has the full effect on the prestige of this "highest court of the first state of the Union" of such decisions as the one which the state of Washington has thus refused not only to follow but even to take seriously into account yet been realized by the bench and bar of this state? We are not generalizing from a single instance. It is scarcely a year since the Supreme Court of Kansas had occasion to analyze the relations between the factory law and the common law in regard to industrial accidents. At that time New York decisions were cited, to the effect that "human foresight is limited and masters are not called upon to guard against every possible danger . . . but only such as would occur to a reasonably prudent man as liable to happen." This opinion, says the Kansas court, "proceeds upon the same lines as if the statute did not exist." Kansas justice, speak-

ing by the mouth of Judge Burch, assumes that the purpose of the factory act is "to preclude a roving quest for the meaning of words," and to give them such an interpretation as will "protect working people from mutilation, physical deformity, pain, mental anguish, and death occasioned by the absence of practicable safeguards from the environment of their toil."

We make no sweeping charges against New York courts and do not wish to be understood as holding up those of Kansas and Washington as more learned, more humane, or more entitled to respect. We are merely contrasting two types of judicial reasoning, both of which might readily be represented in any section of the country; and no more illuminating specimens occur to us of each type than that followed respectively in New York and Washington in deciding whether workingmen's compensation acts are constitutional. We need scarcely recall the reasoning by which at Albany it was discovered that to enact a compensation law is to "subvert the fundamental idea of property," is "legislative assumption of the right to direct the channel into which the private energies of the citizen may flow," and a "legislative attempt to abridge or hamper the right of the citizen to pursue, unmolested and without unreasonable regulation, any lawful calling or avocation which he may choose."

In contrast with this "roving quest for the meaning of words," we reproduce two paragraphs from the law as it is interpreted in Olympia:

If the act in controversy has a reasonable relation to the protection of the public health, morals, safety, or welfare, it is not to be set aside because it may incidentally deprive some person of his property without fault or take the property of one person to pay the obligations of another. To be fatally defective in these respects, the regulation must be so utterly unreasonable and so extravagant in nature and purpose as capriciously to interfere with and destroy private rights.

That the statute here in question has the attribute of reasonableness, rather than that of capriciousness, seems incontrovertible. The evil it seeks to remedy is one that calls loudly for action. Accidents to workmen engaged in the industries enumerated in it are all but inevitable. It seems that no matter how carefully laws for the prevention of accident in such industries may be framed, or how rigidly they may be enforced, there is an element of human equation that enters into the problem which cannot be eliminated and which invariably causes personal injuries and consequent financial losses to workmen engaged therein. Heretofore these losses have been borne by the injured workmen themselves, by their dependents, or by the state at large. It was the belief of the Legislature that they should be borne by the industries causing them, or, perhaps more accurately, by the consumers of the products of such industries. That the principle thus sought to be put into effect is economically, sociologically, and morally sound, we think must be conceded. It is so treated by the learned counsel who have filed briefs [against the constitutionality of the law]; it is so conceded by all modern statesmen, jurists, and economic writers who have voiced their opinion on the subject; . . . Indeed, so universal is the sentiment that to assert the contrary is to turn the face against the enlightened opinion of mankind. . . . The act, therefore, having in its support these economic and moral considerations, is not unconstitutional for the reasons suggested upon this branch of the argument [i. e. the due process of law clauses].

Our prediction of last April that judges who wished to do so could reconcile a compensation act with the constitution is thus literally and with gratifying celerity fulfilled. In Olympia the fact that a proposition is sound in economics, sociology, and morals appears to create a presumption that it is sound also in law.

THE COMMON WELFARE

FROM SAFETY ON TO SANITATION

Striking in their contrast, two articles in this issue deal with safety. The community, the responsible corporation, the engineering profession, and the state—all, as Mr. Taylor brings out in his report, bore responsible relationship to the concrete dam at Austin which cracked and caved down before the rush of waters and death which swept that Pennsylvania valley. In the hey-day of neglect of the human element in steel making, those seventy-six Austin fatalities would have been but a fraction of a year's toll of sudden death in spectacular blast furnace explosions, and in the splash of hot metal, and more especially in the snuffing out of life by unsheathed gears, unrailed platforms, breaking chains—the

undramatic causes of uncounted injuries of a sort only to be guarded against by infinite pains. In Mr. Fitch's article is described the development in the past three years, on the part of the largest employing corporation in the country, of the most remarkable safety organization in the New World. He describes its concern over details, its promotion of invention to protect life and limb, its investment of large sums in me-

chanical safeguards, its enlistment of co-operative committees of foremen and workmen, its thoroughness and reach, and above all the spirit of team play best exemplified by the slogan of one of the great constituent companies, "boosting for safety."

Whoever reads Mr. Fitch's article will better be able to gauge the importance of an announcement here first given publicity. The past month the United States Steel Corporation has appointed a committee on sanitation, which will concern itself with the conservation of health in plant management and mill towns, which is made up of some of the strongest and most constructive operating men in the industry and which, it is announced, is to go at its work with the same breadth and

thoroughness of detail which have marked the safety campaign.

The appointment was made at a meeting of the presidents of the subsidiary companies of the United States Steel Corporation held on October 19. The Committee consists of

George G. Crawford, president of the Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Company, chairman;

William B. Schiller, president of the National Tube Company;

W. J. Olcott, president of the Oliver Iron Mining Company;



SAFETY.

Sign printed in a universal tongue on dangerous electrical apparatus, for men who cannot read; as used in the plants of the Illinois Steel Company.

Thomas Lynch, president of the H. C. Frick Coke Company;

R. C. Bolling, assistant general solicitor of the United Steel Corporation.

The committee will have the services of C. L. Close, who is secretary of the Committee of Safety of the Steel Corporation. The scope of the work is described as follows:

The committee will act as a clearing house for information of all kinds upon subjects relating to sanitation and will give all of the subsidiary companies advices as to what is being done by each in matters of this kind, to the end that all may have the benefits of the study and experience of each of the companies toward the solution of many problems of sanitation which are common to most of the companies.

PRISON LABOR WILL NOT DOWN

With the subject of prison labor nowhere on the program of the American Prison Association, in session last month at Omaha, Neb., a strong undercurrent of feeling asserted itself and resulted in the appointment of a committee to study the problem and report to the Baltimore meeting in 1912. The scope of the committee's investigations, and the range of its methods, were not delimited. Appointed by T. B. Patton, president of the association and general superintendent of the Pennsylvania State Reformatory at Huntingdon, Pa., the committee consists of six members:

F. H. Mills, sales agent of State Prisons of New York, chairman;

Joseph P. Byers, secretary of New Jersey State Charities Aid and Prison Reform Association, secretary;

Kate Barnard, state commissioner of Charities for Oklahoma;

Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor, Washington, D. C.;

Dr. J. T. Gilmour, warden of Central Prison, Toronto, Canada;

Albert Garvin, warden of state prison, Wethersfield, Conn.

How far the insurgent members on the committee will be able to bring forward radical and constructive recommendations remains to be seen.

This action of the association was precipitated by Miss Barnard, who broke through the traces that have kept contract labor out of active discussion in the American Prison Association, and in a

strong address, filled with an insistent appeal to religion and humanity, carried the audience with her. To come to Omaha for this purpose, Miss Barnard left a sanatorium where she has been since the National Conference of Charities and Correction in Boston last June, which she had attended following a long and exhausting winter's work. Her mission grew out of her experience two years ago in unearthing the abuses to which the Kansas prison authorities were putting Oklahoma convicts in the Kansas mines—conditions which led Oklahoma to withdraw its prisoners and Kansas to effect belated reforms. It was not till the next to the last day of the Omaha convention that Miss Barnard got the floor for this purpose; and she carried it by storm.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATION TO PROMOTE EFFICIENCY

A National Society for Promoting Efficiency is in process of promotion: made up of efficiency engineers who seek an audience beyond the bounds of the professional associations already in touch with their work, of economists who want to thresh over dynamic problems with practical men, and of manufacturers and business men who want a medium for discussing the scientific phases of management with the specialists in the different fields of engineering, accounting, and economics.

Following are the members of the organizing committee: H. F. J. Porter, industrial engineer, New York, chairman; Harrington Emerson, president Emerson Company, Efficiency Engineers; W. M. Williams, manager Universal Audit Company; Joseph French Johnson, dean New York University School of Commerce, Accounts, and Finance; W. H. Lough, secretary Alexander Hamilton Institute; John Dunlap, proprietor *Engineering Magazine*; Henry R. Towne, president Yale and Towne Manufacturing Company.

The promoters feel that the society should become "the most influential body in America working toward increased national efficiency"; and they include a very considerate practical social content in the scope of the work

planned. Their definition of purposes follows:

Modern industrial and transportation organization is largely an outgrowth of the past fifty years; the modern commercial and financial organization of business has been developed chiefly in the last twenty-five years. So rapid has been this development that it has been impossible to standardize business operations and put them on a really efficient basis. The whole movement has taken place within the life-time of those who started it, and there has been no adequate opportunity for study and control.

While it is true that these conditions have brought to the front many able executives, it is also true that, owing to the great number required, many untrained men have been thrust into positions of great responsibility. It is not surprising that this haphazard leadership has given rise to great inefficiency, to ruinous competition, to unnecessary waste, to useless and expensive conflicts between workmen and employers.

We are now beginning to realize the necessity for formulating and standardizing systems of organization and methods and principles of management. Through the activities of private firms, of universities, of publications, and of various local associations, much has been accomplished. Vastly more could be done, however, if these efforts were correlated and to some extent guided by a national society. . . . It should include executives from all lines of business, public accountants, industrial engineers, recognized experts in such fields as advertising, systematizing, selling, purchasing, sanitation, hygiene, and social service, as well as lawyers, economists, educators, legislators, and government officials. It would thus provide a common meeting ground where men interested in business efficiency, using the word business in its broadest sense, could become acquainted and exchange ideas.

LATEST WAY MARK IN CHURCH ADVANCE

The programs of the great denominational gatherings show the awakening social consciousness within the churches. On three national occasions, held in close succession, the Congregationalists have afforded the latest evidence of this advance. Their newest national organization, the Congregational Brotherhood, signalized its fourth convention at Chicago with a social emphasis the more noteworthy for being laid not only in papers especially devoted to philanthropic effort but all along the line of discussion.

It was as strong in the presentation of such subjects as the Meaning of

Membership in the Church, which was said to be "to make the teachings of Christ the practice of the world," as it was in handling the relation of the church to the problems of relief, industry, child labor, and vice. It was as marked in the appeal of Dr. Gunsaulus's sermon "for freedom, unity, and brotherhood" as in Owen R. Lovejoy's more concrete plea against child labor, strongly reinforced as the latter was by an effective child labor exhibit.

Departmental conferences vigorously threshed out such issues as Ideals of Labor, Conciliation in Labor Disputes, Community Interests, Constructive Philanthropy, and Political Responsibility. At a Sunday labor mass meeting the social interests of the convention culminated in two addresses, the first being John Mitchell's interpretation of Labor's Program for Industrial Justice. A listener writes of it:

Sane and safe, in dead earnest and yet in complete self-command, giving evidence of his great progress in self-expression and public speech, he carried his audience with him throughout his effective plea.

The second was the incisive charge of Dean Charles R. Brown of Yale Divinity School to do the will of God in the use of land and of natural resources, in the organization of industry, and in the wages and conditions of employment, in provision for home life. Taking laymen at their word to the effect that economics and politics are "their affairs and not the parson's," he said:

It is their affair, and if they will go down to their stores and their shops every day saying, "The will of God must be done here," every minister on God's green earth will gladly take his texts for the next ten years from the seventeenth chapter of John.

The Rev. Henry D. Atkinson, who a year ago was elected secretary for Labor and Social Service, was chosen secretary of the National Brotherhood and will continue also to maintain its social propaganda.

Sixty-five years ago, long before the other denominational agencies assumed a more social attitude, the American Missionary Association began its specialized work. From the beginning it devoted its work to the educa-

tional, industrial, and social uplift of the Negroes, Eskimos, mountain whites, American Indians, and lately even of the Porto Ricans and Hawaiians, in cooperation with the churches it has planted among these peoples. In its farm schools it has taught agriculture and shop work. In connection with its city schools it has established playgrounds, branches of the public library, and school lunches. In its colleges and universities it has raised up such institutions as Hampton, Tougaloo, Fiske University among the Negroes, and the Santee Normal Training School among the Indians.

The event of these Chicago meetings of the most dramatic significance was the appearance of Julius Rosenwald, the most prominent Jewish merchant of Chicago and the city's most generous giver, upon the platform of this Christian missionary association. The subject which he discussed was Race Prejudice. After declaring his belief that "nothing is being done which tends more to break down the barriers of race prejudice than the work for the Negro by this association," he uttered a ringing protest against race prejudice toward the Jew and the Negro.

SOCIAL STATESMANSHIP OF THE MISSIONARY MOVEMENT

That the broadening social vision of the churches at home has long been anticipated by their foreign missionaries abroad was again apparent in the way in which the men and the women from the foreign field presented their work to the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. Their utterances were significant as much for the omission of epithets, as for the direct references to the economic, hygienic, industrial, and political aspects of their work. "Heathen" and "pagans" seldom, if ever, were referred to. While the supremacy of the ideals and teachings of Christianity was as positively maintained as ever, the great ethnic faiths were always spoken of with respect for the truth admitted to be in them. The revolution of the Young Turks and of the Chinese patriots, with all the international complications and diplomacy

involved, were discussed as a part of the missionary propaganda. The bearings of the division of the African continent upon its people and upon the progress of the world was treated from the point of view of missionary statesmanship. Material interests, such as the building of roads and railways, the water and light supply, housing and health, food and waste, child labor and the slavery of women, the care of the insane and the sick, the enactment of law and the administration of the police, together with many specific social agencies, were regarded as factors and solutions in the problems of missions.

COORDINATING CHURCH AND SOCIAL SERVICE

Last June, at a preliminary conference held in Boston, consisting of representatives of the various denominations which are definitely organized in the interest of social service, a committee consisting of Rev. Charles S. Macfarland, Secretary of the Social Service Commission of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, the Rev. Charles Stelzle, of the Presbyterian Department of Church and Labor, the Rev. Henry A. Atkinson, secretary of the Congregational Brotherhood, the Rev. Harry F. Ward, secretary of the Methodist Federation for Social Service, and the Rev. J. Howard Melish, secretary of the Episcopal Commission, was appointed to arrange a larger conference for the purpose of coordinating and bringing into cooperation the developing work of the various denominations for social betterment. This conference will be held at the Hotel Sherman in Chicago, November 8 and 9, to be attended by two representatives from each denomination of the federal council. The program will include general reports and survey as to the state of present organization and the plans underway by each denomination, preparatory to considering the work of interdenominational cooperation. The wide program recently adopted for the activities of the Federal Council Commission will be taken up in detail. About twenty denominations will be represented, the delegates coming from all sections of the country.

EDITORIAL GRIST

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND EMPLOYMENT

BEN B. LINDSEY

Judge of the Juvenile Court, Denver

While it is frankly stated by the compilers of volume VIII¹ of the federal investigation findings on the condition of women and child wage-earners that, because of the difficulties encountered, this report is not all that was hoped for, or all that can be desired, they are nevertheless to be congratulated upon a production of real merit and value. The report demonstrates anew the necessity for a federal children's bureau such as THE SURVEY and workers for children generally have advocated.

I am not surprised at the difficulties encountered. In the present development of the juvenile court and probation system they were to be expected. Notwithstanding the good that has been accomplished, no one knows better than those who have been long identified with this work how far it still is from the satisfactory stage to which it should be possible in time to bring it.

Keen appreciation and intelligent comprehension of the work undertaken is shown in the introductory chapter; and those that follow fully justify our expectations. The individual cases of 4,839 delinquents (561 female, 4,278 male) studied by the investigators form the basis of the report. These delinquents were concerned in 8,797 offences. Of the total number, 2,767 having been at some time employed are referred to as "working" and 2,772 who were never employed are

termed "non-working" delinquents. Working children were responsible for 5,471 and non-working for 3,326 offences. The ages of the delinquents range from nine to sixteen years.

In view of the different methods of keeping records and the difficulty of gathering accurate records, the method pursued is about the only one that can be followed in any thorough investigation of this character. And even then it is impossible to be sure of some of the conclusions that such an investigation might seem to warrant.

The committee wisely selected for study a limited number of cities, presenting typical conditions, keeping in mind that such cities should be situated preferably in industrial and commercial centers, where opportunities for child labor would naturally be abundant and where education and child labor laws would be found. It is to be regretted that so excellent a corps of workers did not have opportunity to add to the list of cities selected at least one rural city—such, for example, as Lincoln, Neb. The additional interesting comparisons with industrial cities this would have made possible would have heightened the value of the report as a whole.

The cities chosen were Baltimore, Boston, Indianapolis, New York, Newark, Philadelphia, and Pittsburgh. For the study of working and non-working children no better selection could have been made. It includes practically all varieties of juvenile courts. Three cities, Baltimore, Boston, and Indianapolis, have special or separate children's courts—Baltimore and Indianapolis being the first cities to have such separate courts. Pittsburgh, Philadelphia, New York, and Newark cover about all the other kinds of children's courts, which are usually a special division of a general court of record. It does not include that sort of special court whose jurisdiction is somewhat broader, and covers every case that concerns not only the correction of children, but all adults whose offences concern the morality or person of a child. But this was immaterial to such an investigation.

The investigators at once recognized the differences in the form and methods

¹REPORT ON THE CONDITION OF WOMAN AND CHILD WAGE-EARNERS IN THE UNITED STATES. In 19 volumes. Volume VIII: JUVENILE DELINQUENCY IN ITS RELATION TO EMPLOYMENT. Prepared under the direction of the Commissioner of Labor, Washington, 1911. "The general conduct of the field work has been under the direction of Special Agent Annie E. McCord. In the preparation of her report important assistance has been given by Mary Conyngton. In the drafting of the schedule of inquiries for the investigation Dr. Henry J. Harris rendered valuable aid, while the tabular work has been carried on under the direction of Chas. E. Baldwin. The general preparation of the report, has, however, been carried on under the direction and immediate supervision of Charles H. Verrill."

of these juvenile court organizations, and the difficulty of getting even from the best-kept records the necessary facts and information for tables and conclusions. But those not actually engaged in such work seldom appreciate the difficulties involved. Much of the information called for is of questionable value and involves time and expense that the equipment of many courts makes almost impossible, unless at the sacrifice of work for the children. Again, some probation officers, who are competent and effective in getting good results with and for children, seem perfectly hopeless when it comes to getting all the data and information called for by juvenile court blanks that seem interminable in their demands for information. On the other hand, an officer good at the clerical and inquisitive work necessary for such complete "records" often proves correspondingly inefficient in really accomplishing anything for the child. The necessity for such information in some cases and the seeming absurdity of it in others makes it hard to get the average probation officer fully to appreciate its importance.

The report does clearly indicate the necessity for a more uniform system of organization, work, and method. While of course the personal work that concerns the relation of a particular probation officer to a particular delinquent must necessarily be left largely to the individual, it is true that a great improvement in the value of the facts, as well as in the general results, will be attained by more uniformity. It was never expected that this would come all at once. The marvelous thing about the juvenile court system is the rapid growth that has marked its ten years of existence. Many of the laws and practically all of the principles that have been embodied in the juvenile court system existed long before the date generally fixed as its beginning. But since it was nearly a hundred years before this nebula of idea, law, and principle, through decades of discussion and investigation, began to form into some definite system, it is asking too much to expect that, in a space of a little more than ten years, we should achieve anything like the perfection necessary for

those ultimate results and that satisfaction that is bound to come in time. It is pleasing to note that the investigators themselves—while acknowledging their own difficulties—are quite charitable with those of the courts. Indeed, the report is bound to add to rather than detract from the general appreciation and popular regard for the juvenile court system of America.

The report is pretty well confined to its main subject, Juvenile Delinquency in its Relation to Employment; and while the almost necessary side-lights, discussions, and references in other directions are as limited as possible, they are also of much interest and value. While the report frankly admits the many recognized causes of delinquency, its chief merit consists in clearly demonstrating that child labor is one of the chief causes of delinquency. It is one of the most convincing cases ever made against the child labor iniquities of this country. It conclusively demonstrates the necessity not only for more stringent child labor laws but for their better enforcement, and is itself the justification for the work done by the National Child Labor Committee. The report completely explodes the idea that the working boy and girl under sixteen years of age is freer from the dangers of delinquency than the non-working child. From this undoubtedly thorough investigation and study of 4,839 cases of delinquents (of whom 561 were girls and 4,278 were boys), we have carefully worked out for us interesting sets of tables, almost bewildering in their detail, showing 2,416 working as against 1,862 non-working delinquent boys, and 351 working as against 210 non-working delinquent girls, or a total number of 2,767 working delinquent children as against 2,072 non-working delinquent children. The ratio of working delinquents is very much larger than that of the non-working in the seven cities, varying from three to ten times that of the non-working, with the disproportion even more striking among the girls, making it perfectly clear, as one chapter concludes, "that putting children to work prematurely is not an effective method of

training them for good citizenship." Another interesting fact is that the repeaters or recidivists (those apprehended for from the second to the tenth offence) are found mostly among working children, with the proportions much larger among the younger working children between nine and fourteen years of age.

The report is unusually fair in conceding a variety of details and difficulties that might discredit its conclusions; but there is no disputing its final demonstration that working children not only contribute more in actual numbers but in an alarmingly larger proportion than do non-workers to the criminal classes. It forces upon us the idea that the virtues necessary to good citizenship are not so much inherited as acquired. It follows that we are doing hideous injustice to our children by unnecessarily subjecting them to temptations which their untrained, immature souls are not yet able to withstand.

These temptations naturally enough are greatest among the six groups of working boys who furnish the most delinquents. They are well known to juvenile court officers. These six groups are: delivery and errand boys, who furnished 491 delinquents, or 20.3 per cent; newsboys and bootblacks, 449, or 18.6 per cent; office boys, 46, or 1.9 per cent; street vendors, 66, or 2.7 per cent; telegraph messengers, 73, or 3 per cent; employes in amusement resorts, 51, or 2.1 per cent. The total of these six classes, 2,416, is more than one-half of the total number of 4,278 cases of delinquent boys investigated.

The offence most frequently occurring among the boys is of course larceny, which constitutes more than half of all the delinquency reported. Putting these immature children to work simply contradicts the supplication of the Christian's prayer, "Lead us not into temptation, but deliver us from evil." The temptation of dishonesty constantly besets the working child, much more than the non-working. The results shown are natural and to be expected. The next in order of frequency are incorrigibility and disorderly conduct, terms so indefinite as often to include larceny. Truancy appears only in 185 cases, and begging in only

seven. Every juvenile officer will appreciate the more than probable accuracy of these tables; for, with one or two exceptions of minor importance, they are confirmed by their common experiences, for which heretofore reliable tables have been rather scarce.

The tabulations concerning the parental condition of the delinquents confute another popular fallacy (which indeed was long since exploded by Jane Addams and other champions of child labor laws), that most working children are sons and daughters of widows. Only 419 boys, or 17.3 per cent of the entire number investigated, were sons of widows, and but 185, or 8.7 per cent, were orphans; while 1,318, or more than half of the entire number had both parents living.

Curiously enough, too, the tables show that proportionately the great majority of these delinquent boys, employed or unemployed, came from average good homes. Indeed, 76.2 per cent of the delinquent working boys are listed as from "fair or good homes." The results seem to prove what has often been emphasized by juvenile officers: that a good home is not as complete a guarantee of a good boy or girl as it would seem reasonable to expect. The influence of the home—while the most important and the one that counts most—is by no means the only one under which a child is placed, especially in that kind of city life which has come to this country in the past fifty years and which is to become in every particular more terrific in the next fifty years, unless there are some unexpected changes. It is furnishing in many respects a new environment, under which most of our children are to be reared. It means that we have got to make war against the street, the conditions, the environment, the causes, if we are to perform our full measure of duty to our children.

Children of native-born parents furnished 44.7 per cent of the delinquent boys as against 55.3 per cent who were the children of foreign-born parents. Considering the far greater ratio of native-born parents, this clearly indicates that there is less control over their children by foreign than by native parents.

The number of girl delinquents investigated is rather small. But even with so small a number (561) the tables offer many points of interest and value. Details as to parentage, the various kinds and character of employments, and the different degrees of danger attached to each employment in the case of girls, as in that of the boys, have been carefully and cleverly worked out. Domestic workers seem the most unfortunate when it comes to the troubles of girls. These tables seem to show that girl offenders come principally from among those of native-born parents—a tendency, curiously enough, especially marked among delinquent domestics. I doubt if this would be the result if a larger number were subjected to the same investigation. The investigators themselves were puzzled at a result so unexpected. But they point out that the number of colored girls among those investigated has much to do with the result. Colored girls are nearly all credited to native parents.

In 1905 at Hull House an International Juvenile Court Society was formed. Its

purpose would have embraced among other things just such work as this report, the necessity for it being more than apparent. But the expense was prohibitive and the organizers decided to turn to the Sage Foundation and the national government to carry out its purposes. The Sage Foundation responded generously and has issued, or is about to issue, some volumes and reports of exceptional value.¹ While the Federal Children's Bureau has not yet come to do similar and other even more important work, the aid given by the government in this report, which sheds so much light on juvenile delinquency in its relation to employment, will hasten the day when the government will enable us to know as much about the causes of the troubles and misfortunes of our children as it has done in the case of our hogs and cattle. Great credit is due the authors of this report.

¹The Russell Sage Foundation has in preparation:

THE DELINQUENT CHILD AND THE HOME. By Sophonisba P. Breckinridge and Edith Abbott.
THE DELINQUENT CHILD AND THE COURT. By Henry W. Thurston.

THE HOTEL MESSENGER

[See Cover Photograph.]

HORTENSE FLEXNER

His buttons shone, his eyes were glad;

His body, quick and over-thin,
Was tingling to an hundred calls
Of beauty, color, reckless sin.

The tireless little immigrant!

How eager up and down he ran
The great hotel's long corridors;
Too soon a young American!

Too proud of the quick slang that flew

From his gay lips in silver tone,
Of cap and buttons; all that marked
His newer country as his own.

Too joyous in the "job" he held,

And in the splendor of the scene;
Each door that opened to his tap
Was wonderland in lace and green.

And sometimes he was of the jest,

For that too knowing glance and smile
He wore like some forced flower of spring,
His sun of summer to beguile.

But once as down the hall he raced,

Past music-room and salon-row,
A melody grew on the air
And filled it like a purple glow.

It was a song of night and star,

Of shadows and the sleeping sea.
Of voyagers in countries far,
A yearning song of Italy.

And listening breathless, he forgot,

His messages, his note of joy,
Forgot all—saying that he was
A tired, sleepy little boy;

Who saw beyond the gilded lamps

A great ship's gang plank swing away—
Crowd, shore, and far Italian hills
Die with the blue of Naples' Bay.

MEMORIES

MARY BOYLE O'REILLY

The waiting commissioner,¹ attempting to look official, tried to suppress a smile. About her, somber and suggestive, lay the great silent prison, last haven of human derelicts, a huge moral hospital filled with sin and suffering. But these accustomed facts failed of their force to depress, for Delia was coming—Delia, with her brave heart and her unconquerable spirit, Delia, with the laughter and the tears of her motherland etched in wrinkles on her finely featured face. She tripped into the office blithe and appealing, with the courage of her sixty and odd years, spread a scant skirt deftly as she sat on the prisoner's stool, folded her work-worn hands politely, and flashed an indomitable smile at the younger woman. Then the soft old lips murmured the familiar phrase:

"To go out again on probation, Commissioner, if you will be so kind."

"Again, Delia! How many times does this make?"

"For fear to tell a lie, I don't know; mebbe fifteen; mebbe twenty. The first time was when I was getting old and they put the new looms in the mill."

"But Delia, *Delia!* An honest, industrious woman like you! Not a mark on your conduct card, a model of neatness, good-natured! Fifteen or twenty sentences for assault!"

"And battery," added Delia calmly, as one who desires to perfect a record.

"But why?"

The prisoner's withered hands grew restless. "It is the will of God," sighed the tired voice. "I never got arrested when the mills were running. Only when work was slack in the fall. For assault you get put away thirty days—and battery—six months."

An instant the worn face quivered piteously and the bowed shoulders sagged forward; another moment, with the subtle tact of innate gentility, Delia had turned the conversation.

"May I speak, commissioner? I want to thank you kindly for my Christmas

¹The Massachusetts Prison Commissioners are appointed by the governor of the state for terms of five years. The chairman alone receives a salary. Miss O'Reilly is a member of the board.

present. Me making that talk, you might think I was looking a gift horse in the mouth. But a lone woman don't have many Christmas presents. When the warden told me I could have what I wanted, the fact is I wanted what I wanted."

"What was that, Delia?"

"Faith, my dear, you'll smile of course, but I wanted a book on the Panama Canal. Not a picture-book—I can read print, thanks be to God—but a real book. The truth is I wanted to know if it is to be a sea-level canal with salt water or a fresh-water canal with locks; and I wanted to know where they found the rock bed for the great dam, and I wanted to know how they looked to pile a lake-ful of water on the side of the cut and have it stay there through the rains."

"Why, Delia?"

The bird-bright glance wavered and fell to the good-conduct plaid spread tautly over the thin knees. A wave of color that accused and absolved rose slowly in the withered cheeks.

"Why, Delia?" urged the other woman softly.

"God help us," murmured the unsteady lips. "You have the right to ask. It is my place to answer. It is fifty years come spring, Commissioner, I went west with my uncle and aunt. He was struck with the fever a man never gets over—the hunger for gold. My aunt being a grand cook ran an eating-house for the miners, and I waited on table. I was good to look at in those days; at least there were plenty to say so. T'was a strange life we led. Men worked like slaves and ate like lords—and the pay-dirt piled up in cellar. Then my aunt died (peace be with her) and after that my uncle decided we'd go home. Well we knew what the Great Desert was—and us with gold tied up in bags. So we took ship by Panama. That was almost a lifetime ago—almost a lifetime ago."

"How long did you stay on the isthmus?"

The sleek gray head sank lower, the nervous hands made puckers in the plaid.

"Almost two years," said Delia, catching at courage with an obvious effort. "Ah! but it was a grand life those days in the canal zone. From Colon to Rio Grande 'twas the *jeunesse dorée* of France that was there. 'Twas wines and satins and masquerades. Nobody counted the cost. Everything came from the railroad and the plans they had for digging the big ditch. All day we slept from the heat. After that it was music and bull-teasings in the star-shine. Most of the men that were there planning out the Canal Company have their names down in history—they or their forebears. Commissioner, you'll live to see that France never has a day's luck after the way she treated the Comte."

"What Count?"

"What Comte? Glory be praised! As if there was more than one comte! Faith, 'tis the Comte de Lesseps I mean, of course. 'Twas him we were waiting for till he got rid of Suez. All the others could do little till he came. 'Twas the idleness that was to blame—that and the summer never ending. And a hundred men to one white woman along the line. It was so still you could listen all night to the trains rumbling across to Colon, and the roll of the sea in the wilderness. Nobody worked down there in those days. The very bread we ate was shipped from the state. Then—then the red year came, the rains were late, and the south wind brought the fever. Those that could prayed—but the black swamp was a pit of contagion. One night we heard the rattle of land crabs and the screams of wicked-eyed parrots in the jungle. Next day the earth quaked till the dead were tossed from their graves and the poison snakes swarmed into the houses."

"And you, Delia, what were you doing?"

Shame and sincerity looked from the beautiful brown eyes.

"That was more than forty years ago, commissioner," pleaded the unsteady voice, "more than forty years ago. But 'tis your right to ask, and 'tis my place to answer. Since I must, I must. 'Tis better I say it in French. You'll observe that 'tis French-French; 'tis not Canuck. 'Twas the *jeunesse dorée* of France

that was there. Young as you are, Commissioner, I suppose you know that 'tis always one man—at least at first."

And then, quietly and very simply, Delia told. Slowly and pleadingly the strained whisper lapsed into silence.

"And then?" urged the other woman.

The prisoner's manner and voice gathered courage.

"Then I came home. 'Twas only a name, of course, for I had no one belonging to me. And I went into the mill. Those were the days when you worked up to your ankles in wet, not seeing your neighbors for the lint from the carders. It was poor comfort to think of that Garden of Eden down on the isthmus. I had only to shut my eyes to see the fan palms and the trees dripping orchids. God knows I was fair desperate when there came a mission. It was an I'tal'ian priest that preached it—but he was a good man for all that. I never had great use for those till I heard they make popes of I'tal'ians. Was there ever an Irish pope? I don't know . . ." The attempt to digress was too patent. "He said," resumed the voice, made faint by memories, "he said God sent the Angel with the flaming sword to drive me out of the canal zone. He said I must never think of the flowers again—or the birds—or anyone that was there. He said I must be thankful to work in the mill and never be laid off. He said I'd be safer in a prison than out of work in the streets. It was the truth. I'm not denying it was the truth, but little he knew!"

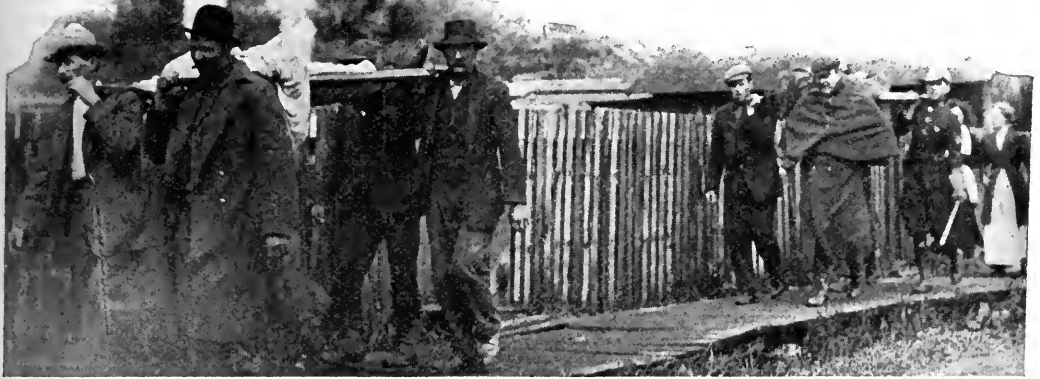
"Delia," said the younger woman gently, "you know it was very wrong."

"Yes," answered Delia, humbly. "Of course I know. I've had forty years in the mills to think it over. Time was we couldn't see a neighbor for the dust of the carders. . . Now we can't hear a friend's voice for the noise of the looms. All day alone in the weave room—home at night too tired to talk—never a cent to spend for a pleasure: that's what it means to be forty years in the mills. Sometimes in the night—now I'm too old to be harmed—I think of those days in that Garden of Eden. Faith, I know it was wrong, very wrong, but—God pity us all—it was living!"

A MAN-MADE FLOOD

SOME ISSUES IN SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY RAISED BY THE BREAKING OF THE DAM ABOVE AUSTIN

GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR



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BODY OF WILLIAM NELSON—AUSTIN'S JEREMIAH.

By a coincidence, a locomotive in the background threw up a plume of smoke and steam above the litter as the bearers carried past the corpse of the man who in season and out of season had prophesied disaster. The thing he foreboded in the end killed him and killed his wife.

"I refuse to testify."

—This blunt answer given by the mill superintendent was the sum total response of the Bayless Pulp and Paper Company at the first hearing by the coroner's jury inquiring into the cause of the death of Martha Hess, one of seventy-six people of Austin, Penn., who lost their lives when on September 30 the breaking of the Bayless company's dam dealt destruction to the town.

Once more the question was asked, "Did the borough council of Austin ever notify the Bayless company that the dam was unsafe?"

The district attorney this time reminded the witness that the inquiry was made of him in his capacity as president of the borough council.

Again the answer, "I refuse to testify."

If you had been sitting that afternoon in the Austin school-house on the hillside overlooking the narrow valley of desolation, you might have fallen to wondering if anyone cared a great deal what sort of answer was made to any question connected with the case. You might have noticed that the room contained less than half as many people as would have been present if the dead themselves had been brought to life and assembled. You could not have escaped realizing that among your thirty-odd fellow attendants upon this most important hearing following the disaster there were scarcely a dozen who had ever seen any of the seventy-six victims alive. The individuals squeezed into the rows of little school desks and seats made up a company principally of outsiders—the six jurymen, the district

attorney, the acting coroner and the witnesses who came from elsewhere in the county, the deputy attorney general from Harrisburg, and a group of newspaper men from various distant cities. Austin townspeople—friends of those whose death was here for the first time the subject of official concern—could have been numbered on the fingers of two hands.

Your eyes wandered aimlessly over the bare school-room and fixed themselves vacantly on its blackboard, filled with the scribblings of the members of the state constabulary, who had turned the building into their barracks. Half consciously you pictured in mind the throngs hurrying along the busy streets in the crowded cities. What were they thinking about it? Probably it no longer came into their minds except as they casually noticed the dwindling newspaper headlines and despatches. Perhaps they had already made the mental comment, "Only seventy-six killed—not a tenth as bad as at first reported—just another case of newspaper exaggeration." You recollected other disasters and how quickly all discussion of them disappeared from press and conversation. You perhaps felt a little tinge of personal guilt—that you were one of the million

parts of "the public" that forgot so soon. The only reason why you would remember this disaster was because you had come to the stricken town. For a week your gaze on the utter destruction round about had been definitely focused only when the man at your elbow said, "Here comes another," and your eyes followed out of sight another white-sheeted object borne on a litter.

Even the week's experience seemed to melt into the gray blackness of the slated school-room wall on which your eyes rested so unseeingly. But your momentary musings ended as your ears caught the faint sound of the switch engine and derrick grappling with the wreckage down in the valley, and you stirred yourself. The district attorney was making another effort to get some word from the dogged superintendent, who seemed only slightly relieved when his attorney came to his rescue.

"We understand," said he, "that there are threats of criminal prosecutions following the hearing, and my client declines to testify on the grounds, first, of his constitutional right to withhold testimony which might incriminate him, and second, that the best and only evidence on the point in question are the records of the town council." Knowing that



"ANOTHER."

these records in all probability had been destroyed by the flood, the man of law sat down with an air of having outwitted the inquisitor. An indefinite adjournment was ordered, the district attorney announcing that he desired an opportunity to ascertain his authority to compel testimony from the mill superintendent. The assemblage shuffled out.

Not a satisfactory beginning in placing responsibility for Austin's disaster. Was it to stop there? Would social responsibility end even if this mill superintendent and the men who employed him were forced to admit that they maintained a dam that menaced two thousand men, women, and children? Would it end even if the law put them in prison for criminal negligence? Would it end with a full performance of their duty by the people's representatives—the district attorney of Potter county, and the six men who comprise the coroner's jury? Would it end even with everything the state of Pennsylvania can do, both in carrying out sanitary and relief measures in Austin and in enacting the best legislation which science can propose to prevent similar disasters? If so, the appearance of this article in *THE SURVEY* would be meaningless; its function might be better fulfilled by sending copies to the mill superintendent, his employers, the district attorney, the coroner's jury, state officials, and the members of the legislature.

The range of social responsibilities is still wider. They circle far out from that little meeting in the Austin school-house. And their challenge is charged with an insistence before which the little tricks of a lawyer's technicalities dwarf into less than the infinitesimal. They search into the very souls of Pennsylvanians who forgot Johnstown, of all of us who make up the forgetting public. Could we all have stood on the bleak Illinois prairie that November day when the mine shaft at Cherry was sealed and the women grouped around it realized their men were dead, we would not rest content before the mining laws of every state made life more secure. Could we have all stood by the bedside of Thomas Lawlor in the Austin hospital and heard him groan out that he would stand a

hundred times the pain in his shattered limbs if it would bring back his wife and his boy, we might not forget so soon our share in the responsibility for protecting life from unsafe dams.

The question which society was really asking the mill superintendent was not merely "Who was guilty?" but "Why did this disaster happen?" and "How can we prevent another like unto it?" By an illuminating coincidence, the witness whose refusal to testify balked the coroner's jury personified in one man the organized forces of society which had failed to protect the valley. As president of the council he stood for the town, the agency through which from earliest time just such households as were crumpled by the flood's sweep have sought mutual strength; as superintendent of the mill he stood for the corporation, the newer form of associated effort through which in modern times a generation performs tasks too gigantic for its individual members. In the emergency which ensued—but not in the months of anxiety which preceded it—the community reached out its hands for succor to the larger social organism, the state. It is, therefore, opportune to review the relationship of all these factors to this disaster, with the motive not so much of placing responsibility in this case—that is for the engineers and the courts—but to help public opinion in defining and reinforcing responsibility in such ways that the preventable shall be actually prevented.

Situated in a little valley of the Alleghenies near the New York state line, the town of Austin was dependent principally on two industrial concerns, the Goodyear Lumber Company and the Bayless Pulp and Paper Company. Lumbering operations have nearly come to an end on the nearby hillsides, and it was rumored in Austin that the Goodyear company was to abandon its operations in another two years. The Bayless mill—utilizing the remaining pulp wood in the manufacture of paper—was consequently looked upon as the main dependence of the town. The washing process in the mill required much water. To secure a supply, a



ABOVE AUSTIN—THE BROKEN DAM IN THE DISTANCE.

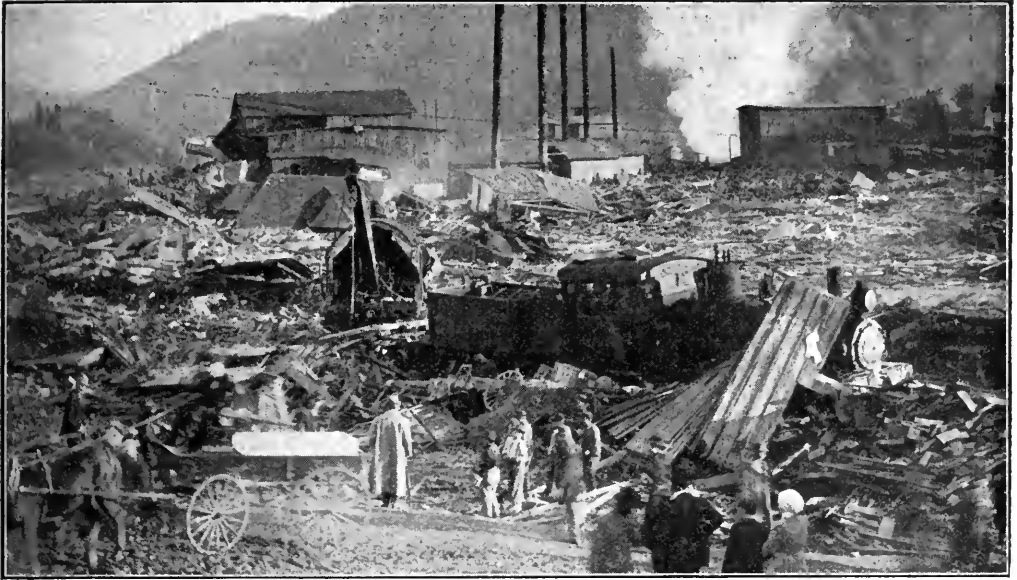
reservoir was made years ago by damming Freeman's Run, the small stream which flows through the valley and farther down joins with another to form the Sinnemahoning river. As the mill grew this reservoir became inadequate; it frequently went dry in drought times. Consequently, in the summer and autumn of 1910, the Bayless Company constructed a new dam of concrete further down stream, at a point still a mile and a half above Austin. Their mill stood midway between dam and town.

It was the failure of this new concrete dam which caused the disaster five weeks ago. The floor of the valley has a width here of from 500 to 1000 feet. On each side the hills rise sharply to a height of several hundred feet. At Austin the main valley is joined by another smaller one through which the Buffalo and Susquehanna railroad enters. The only surviving houses of the town are the ones which were scattered up this tributary valley or were located on the hillsides. The business center with most of the dwellings occupied the full width of the valley floor. While a main street crossed the valley at right angles there were few other streets paralleling it, leading to the hills on either side—the only way of escape. The population of the town, according to the 1910 census, was 2941, but the census-taker estimated that about 600 people had moved away, owing to slack work at the saw-mill, so that it is supposed there were in the town on the day of its destruction about 2300 people.

The disaster of September 30 was not the first time the dam had shown its weakness. Completed about December 1, 1909, it suddenly filled with water in the middle of the month succeeding, when a thaw and some rain melted the heavy snows. Water seeped up below the base of the dam and twenty-four hours later, on January 25, 1910, the structure cracked in several places and 200 feet of it slid forward as much as eighteen inches at the point of greatest movement, while the top bulged thirty inches.

Greatly alarmed, the people of Austin fled to the hillsides, some of them to camp out for two or three days. Household goods were taken from dwellings and stood in wagon-loads along the road leading up the tributary valley. The Bayless company shared in the anxiety—indeed, mill officers had helped to warn the town—and took prompt measures to relieve the pressure. With dynamite they blew two gaps in the rim of the dam, thus quickly lowering the water depth backed up behind it to about thirty-seven feet. Still the townspeople feared for their lives. The water pouring down the face of the dam made it difficult to open a thirty-six inch clean-out pipe which penetrated the base. This was also accomplished by dynamite, and sixteen hours later, the dam empty, the people of Austin reentered their homes with a feeling of security.

The various steps taken by the company in once more putting the dam into



WRECKAGE WHICH SURGEL AROUND THE SAW-MILL.

operation will be taken up later. Following the early fall rains, the water on the morning of September 30 last poured over the spillway for the first time since the accident eighteen months back. In the early afternoon the dam gave way. The few witnesses agree that suddenly about 150 feet from the western end a volume of water—said by one witness to have been six or eight feet in diameter—spurred through a hole. In scarcely the time it takes to tell it, a great section above this hole was forced out. That broke the dam's back and the whole structure caved out in seven large sections. The two end pieces clung to the hill slopes, the rest slid forward from fifteen to twenty-five feet, and one section swung around like a huge gate. Resistless as was the rush of waters, the wires were quicker. Messages were sent from a nearby house to the pulp mill and to the "central" at Austin, where three young women telephone op-

erators exhibited as great calmness as was shown in the whole disaster. They stuck to their posts in the path of the flood, making the call that started the alarm whistle and ringing up other places with their word of warning. Not till they saw the toppling of one of the church steeples did they rush down stairs and scramble up the hillside, which fortunately was within a few steps of their building. A moment later, the crest of the flood, with a frame house as its sledge, battered down upon the exchange building and wrecked it. If you want to know the quality of courage with

which these girls, Kathleen Lyon,¹ Lena Binkey, and Hazel Knapp, met the test, read the Chief Operator, a story by Elizabeth Stuart Phelps in *Harper's Magazine* for October, 1909.

Scarcely eleven minutes elapsed between the sudden breaking of the dam

It is reported that the telephone company has presented a gold watch and a check for \$250 to Miss Lyon and has given cash rewards to the two other operators.



A FRAME HOUSE CRASHED INTO THE TELEPHONE EXCHANGE.



SAMUEL G. DIXON.

Commissioner of health of the state of Pennsylvania, who by common consent assumed direction of the work of relief and rehabilitation.

and the rush of the breaker upon the town. Those who saw it come unite in saying that the water itself was scarcely visible—it was a wall of crashing, splintering, tossing pieces of wreckage. Thousands upon thousands of cords of pulp wood had been picked up near the pulp mill and pushed like a battering-ram against the town. The first houses were merely added to the grinding mass which was disgorged down the valley for miles.

Details of the disaster—the wild dash for safety from store and office, from dwelling and factory and polling place where a primary election was being held; the heroism of those who tried to lead dear ones to safety; the frantic hill-side searchings of parents to find children, and of husbands and wives to learn each other's fate; the futile struggle to extinguish the fires which broke out in some of the wrecked buildings; the arrival of relief; the weary search for the victims—have been sufficiently described in the daily press. Had the dam broken during the night, there can be little doubt that the number of dead would have mounted up to the figures first estimated. But whether 1500, or seventy-six, or even one, the essential

facts, so far as social responsibilities are concerned, are the same.

And, as it was, not merely roofs and store fronts, but the organized fabric of community life was shattered by the flood. The state government responded in the emergency, gathered up the reins of control, and met the immediate problems of sanitation, relief, and public order.¹

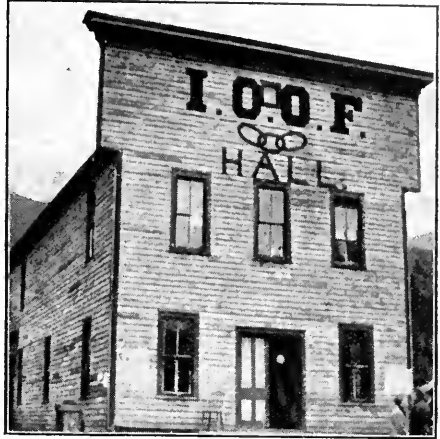
The department of health of the state of Pennsylvania, with Dr. Samuel G. Dixon at its head, lived up to its reputation for energy and effectiveness. Within two hours after the disaster Dr. E. H. Ashcraft, county health officer and representative of the department, had arrived at Austin and was caring for the injured. Of these there were fortunately but eleven, and the town hospital, which stood on one of the hill-sides, had providentially been spared. Commissioner Dixon assumed the initiative at Harrisburg—Governor Tener being in another part of the state—and sent a relief train with surgeons, sanitary engineers, physicians, nurses, and medicine. This first relief train reached Austin at half-past six o'clock on Sunday morning. The governor on Saturday evening, as soon as he heard of the disaster, communicated with Dr. Dixon, with the adjutant general of the Pennsylvania national guard, and with the commander of the state constabulary. A second relief train in charge of Major M. E. Finney, with food, clothing, and tents enough to shelter 1000 people, arrived Sunday forenoon, as did the two troops of state police. By eleven o'clock Sunday morning the situation was in charge of these divisions and a conference had been held with the burgess and town council. The two Austin men who had taken the federal census of the town in 1910 were commissioned to list rapidly all survivors and prepare a roster of those known to be dead or missing. A morgue was established in a vacant house, and as there was no coroner in Potter county an officer of the state Department of Health was put in authority.

Nurses were placed in charge of the commissary, which was opened on the ground floor of a frame building. A

¹See THE SURVEY for October 14, 1911.

lodge hall above was used as headquarters for all departments, a local committee was formed to help the nurses in their distribution of food, and as a considerable number of houses had been unoccupied owing to slackness of work at the saw-mill there was shelter enough ready at hand for all.

The largest immediate problem was that of sanitation, and this was addressed under the direction of F. Herbert Snow, sanitary engineer of the state Department of Health. The Pennsylvania Railroad had sent in 125 men and these at once started the work of recovering bodies. The water-supply was given early attention. When the pipes had been reconnected, the water was



GENERAL HEADQUARTERS.



RELIEF RATIONS.

found to be dangerous to health. Warning notices were posted throughout the entire locality, and people were urged to carry their water from one source known to be safe. Meanwhile, a "treatment plant" was hastily established to render the general supply potable by the use of chloride of lime. Two cases of scarlet fever in the town were found to be well quarantined by the local health board. Gas had been the chief fuel for cooking in Austin and a quick resumption of supply by the gas company was secured. A temporary telephone exchange was installed at the hospital by Sunday afternoon, and linemen soon brought all parts of the community into touch with headquarters.

Supplies and money began to come from many cities and towns in and out of Pennsylvania, Johnstown, which years before had gone through a more harrowing ordeal, being among those earliest heard from. Supplies were needed even more than money, for within a very few days the stores and markets for miles around had been exhausted. Shipments to the stricken town were handled free of charge by the railways.

Philanthropic agencies offered their co-operation at once. Ernest P. Bicknell, national director of the American Red Cross, arrived Sunday and found the situation so well handled by the state health authorities that Red Cross help was unnecessary. Red Cross offers of



GETTING A DAY'S PROVISIONS FROM THE COMMISSARY.



AT WORK IN THE WRECKAGE.

The Pennsylvania Railroad sent 125 men at once to Austin. The state soon mustered a force of over 1,200 men, including 450 survivors.

help were brought also by Frederick Almy and Thomas F. Cooke of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society, a Red Cross institutional member. In response to the governor's directions, the executive officer of the Pennsylvania State Board of Charities, Bromley Wharton, and an assistant went to Austin immediately. The Pennsylvania Children's Aid Society sent a special agent, H. M. Peck, to offer help in caring for dependent children.

The problem of relief was less difficult than it might have been. There were practically no children left dependent, for of the seventy-six victims but fifteen had been bread-winners. These were either single men or else their dependents had been killed with them. Over forty of the dead were women and the remainder were children. For the present, many of the survivors will remain in Austin, but a considerable number have already left the desolate place, many going to

relatives and friends. The Pennsylvania Railroad and the Buffalo and Susquehanna, which connects with it from Austin, have given free transportation to survivors vouched for by the local relief committee. Of immediate help to survivors, also, has been the employment offered 450 Austin men as part of the force of nearly 1,200 mustered by the state to remove the wreckage. This has meant ready money to many families which had been left penniless. It is likely that the hope of a large relief fund in which they may share has tended to keep survivors at Austin, for while practically all have lost employment, some have lost the accumulations of a lifetime. By far the greater part of the contributed supplies and money have come from cities and towns within Pennsylvania. The state has had no emergency fund which could be drawn upon, but the Department of Health has



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THE MOTHER OF SIX CHILDREN—ALL LOST.

Mrs. Ralph Donafierro and her children were at home when the flood broke. Her husband, an Italian shoe-maker, called to them. They had only reached the street when one little one was frightened and ran back into the house. Mother and father ran back to save it. Before they could escape, the building was overwhelmed and the entire family was killed.

been able to apply part of its appropriation to the immediate tasks undertaken.

No account of the state's efforts would be complete without mention of the police duty rendered by the constabulary under Captain J. W. Robinson. With reasonableness and unusual tact, with no officiousness, these men quietly reduced chaos into as much order as could be expected. In maintaining the necessary lines, it was not a gruff, "Get out o'there" or a surly command to stop, but a pleasant "Hey there, partner!" followed by a quiet, firm word of explanation. But they were like a steel trap for the few who attempted looting.

This handling of the situation *after the fact* has been of an order to command admiration. Had the disaster been due to an earthquake—and thus outside the bounds of human caution—such high-class salvage work would end the

story. Had it been due to the eruption of a volcano, the public could do no more than express perplexity at the stubborn blindness of vineyard folk who persist in living in the danger zone, and point out to them that their foolhardiness hazards not only their own lives but those of their wives and children. But here was a disaster in which human agency was clear. The townspeople had the same chance as the vine-growers to evade it. They had more than that. The dam was man-built, man-controlled. If they themselves were helpless to control it, they might have appealed to those who could—to the owners of the water-power, or to a larger public. More, not townspeople alone, but the company who built it, the engineers, and the state bore each a special relation to the disaster and to the human elements which, no less than the struggle of cement and

water for mastery, had gone into the rending of the dam and what followed.

Turn first to the social responsibility of the townspeople themselves. The state authorities state that no complaint from a citizen of Austin is to be found in any files at Harrisburg. Nor, according to the testimony of the clerk of the town council, did that body ever notify the Bayless company that it considered the dam unsafe. Personal talks with the members of the council brought the uniform confession that the matter was never discussed in that body.

Did the people of Austin appreciate their danger?

If so, did they do anything about it?

The panic in Austin when the dam partially failed in January 1910 shows their alarm at that time, and there is less spectacular evidence of a very definite undercurrent of fear subsequently. The pastor of the Methodist church, the Rev. E. E. Harter, recalled that every heavy storm caused anxiety.

"Many are the nights," he said, "that I have lain awake listening to the rain on the roof and thinking of what might happen if the dam gave way."

"My wife," said druggist V. R. Midlaugh, "seemed to have it on her mind all the time."

The women worried most. There is Mrs. W. E. Brady, for instance, whose husband was one of the managers of the department store. "I couldn't keep my mind off of it," she said, "and my husband and I talked it all over times without number. We wanted to get rid of our business here and leave—in fact, we were hoping to do so in another three months. Now we have only the clothes on our backs to show for our twenty-five years in Austin. I kept planning just what I would do if the dam broke, and months ago I had my son Stewart cut the wires of the fence at a point between our house and the hillside. I owe my life this day to that, for I had scarcely crawled through the opening when the flood rushed past."

No more heartrending scenes took place during all that terrible day than along this fence where numbers of people, their hands frantically clutching at

the barrier, were snatched by the roaring wave of destruction.

Even the outsiders who occasionally visited Austin perceived the danger. A railway official—who, by the way, rendered important service in the work following the disaster—happened to be in Austin last August and took a look at the dam. "That night in the hotel," he says, "I could scarcely sleep."

There was one especial prophet of disaster—Henry Nelson, who kept the grocery store on Main street. The thing he foreboded killed him and killed his wife in the end. Whenever he had a spare hour or two he was likely to hitch up his horse and drive off for another look at the great white wall above the town, even if he had done the same thing but the day before. His agitation was known to every citizen of Austin.

We are informed by a leading Pennsylvania attorney that neither the town nor the public were without adequate legal protection. He says:

The town authorities, for the protection of the town property, could have brought a bill in equity in the common pleas court, setting up the facts, and asking for such action as was necessary to protect its property rights, and any citizen of the town of Austin, or any number of them, could have combined in an action by bill in equity in the same court, praying for such relief as the facts and circumstances warranted. That is, they could have set up the danger and demanded the removal thereof, either by further structures, or, if necessary, by the destruction of the dam itself.

There was ample power, therefore, in the courts of the county to have dealt with the danger, if apprehended, and such danger had been brought to their attention by those directly involved.

The courts were open, also, to the parties in interest, through the law offices of the commonwealth, by a proceeding to abate a nuisance, treating the dam in this wise.

Why was it, then, that no collective protest was made by the people of the community? The answer is perhaps sadder than the little processions which tracked the wet ground about the morgue. It shows a predominantly American community so saturated with dependence upon an outside power from which it drew its livelihood that its very instinct for self-preservation was inhibited. Nor has it so far recovered itself, under the sting of disaster, as to express

an appreciable resentment toward those in whose power it was to do whatever might have been done to remove the danger. Two weeks after the catastrophe, not even a damage suit had been started! When a lawyer of distinction (not inexperienced in defending corporations from unwarranted claims) was told of the situation he exclaimed:

"Found: a social value for the ambulance-chaser! What Austin has needed is a trainload of contingency lawyers."

The dam which wrought their ruin had meant steady work to the wage-earners of Austin and trade to its merchants. The summer previous to its construction there were several weeks of idleness because there was not enough water for the mill. The dam remedied this; took away the menace of occasional unemployment and, in so far as it was weak and insecure, substituted the menace of annihilation. To sell goods or practice law or rent houses or have subscribers to a newspaper you must have people in your town. The people must have a means of subsistence. As lumbering lapsed, the empty houses on the hill had grown in number. The Bayless mill and its running was more and more the main dependence.

Why, many still ask, did not the town government of Austin concern itself with this vital phase of the people's safety? The members of the town council agree that it was never discussed by them officially. A member of the board of county commissioners states that that body also never considered the matter—although the dam and mill were both outside the borough limits of Aus-

tin and in their jurisdiction. Who were the town officers? F. N. Hamlin, superintendent of the Bayless mill, was president of the council. Another member of this body of seven was the master mechanic at the mill. "With Hamlin as president," remarked one of the other members, "it would have taken a pretty good man to get up on his feet and say anything about the condition of the dam." Who was the town burgess? Michael Murrin, superintendent of some outside work for the Bayless mill. Were these

men as town officers likely to make a protest about the dam to the Bayless company? The following telegram sent six days after the tragedy is sufficient commentary:

Austin, Oct. 6, 1911.
George C. Bayless,
Binghamton, N. Y.

The sentiment of Austin people with you and your company. We want the mill rebuilt and Austin rehabilitated. Can assure the hearty co-operation of our entire people to that end.

M. MURRIN,
Burgess of Austin.

To be sure, the townspeople have a natural desire to see value restored to their real estate and such other property as has escaped by the rehabilitation of the mill and the resumption of work there. And the company no less than townspeople has been struck a heavy financial blow. Yet the man whose signature is attached to the telegram admits that, when he sent it, there had been no meeting of citizens, no adoption of resolutions, that he merely "talked with a few" whom he "happened to meet."

Was it the pen of Michael Murrin, burgess of Austin, or of Michael Murrin, employe of the Bayless company, that wrote the message?



MICHAEL MURRIN,
Burgess of Austin and employe of the Bayless company.

A resident of standing tells of going with grocer Nelson on one of his drives to the dam.

"We had come to the house of Superintendent Hamlin," he says, "and Hamlin asked us where we were going.

"'Up to the dam,' we answered.

"'Seems to me you fellows are badly troubled about the dam,' said Hamlin.

"'All I've got is below it,'" retorted Nelson.

"'Do you think,' replied Hamlin, 'that we would have built the mills below it if it weren't safe? You had better quit disturbing people's minds, or it will hurt your business.'"

Not only were town officers employees at the Bayless mill, but the leading public man in Austin was the local attorney for the company. With all the depth of sympathy one must feel toward Frank E. Baldwin, one cannot escape the conviction that here was the pivotal man in the community. With his responsibilities both as attorney for the owners of the dam and as a senator from the district; with his thirty houses which he rented destroyed; with a crippled father, a blind mother, and a sister who heroically tried to lead them to safety, all among the victims, Baldwin was the man who, by position, ability and experience in public service might have been expected more than any one else to find a way to ward off the danger. Yet even he, with all that he had at stake, seems to have taken the chances that all were willing to risk.

It is seen, therefore, that the old forms through which communities from the beginning of civil history have secured self-protection, through which medieval towns built their walls, through which our American pioneers built their stockades and block-houses against the Indian, had to a degree lost identity and been absorbed by a modern social institution—an industrial corporation, which held public action in the hollow of its hand, just as the hills held the town in their cup. This is no sufficient excuse for the decadence of initiative and self-assertion on the part of Americans. But it makes us inquire how, and with how keen a sense of responsibility, the corporation and those who controlled it ful-

filled this stewardship which had encroached so far upon democracy.

We have sketched the development of the pulp mill's water supply; we can take it up from the point where the slip of January 25, 1910, gave warning to the company, even more than to the community, of the weakness of their dam two months after its completion. The dam, designed by T. Chalkley Hatton, engineer, and built by the C. J. Britnall Company of Binghamton, N. Y., was about 544 feet in length, two and one-half feet thick at the top, and thirty feet thick at the bottom, and high enough to hold a head of forty-seven feet of water to the top of the spillway, which was two and one-half feet lower than the top of the structure.¹ Its capacity was about 350,000,000 gallons. Following the slip and the subsequent dynamiting, the editors of *Engineering News*, impressed by what seemed a "most unusual method of treating a dam, particularly one just completed," sought information about it from the engineer, and in the issue of March 17, 1910, printed an article based upon Mr. Hatton's response. It is not essential to the purpose of these pages to detail the engineering facts there set forth, though in the light of what has happened this whole article affords what seems to the layman a plain prophecy of disaster. Merely a few of the facts from Mr. Hatton's response are here summarized:

During construction, the Bayless company directed that the dam be built to hold more water than called for by the original design.

The concrete was hurriedly built, some during freezing weather, and had not set so as to attain its ultimate tensile strength before subjected to maximum pressure.

The most important cause of the slipping was water getting under the dam—a condition not anticipated and against which all precautions which seemed necessary had been taken.

The outward movement of the center of the dam was due to the water getting under the foundation, softening up a stratum of clay or shale lying between two layers of rock, and permitting one layer of rock to slip forward about eighteen inches upon the lower layer.

Leakage under the dam, after its movement, showed a discharge of 600 gallons a minute.

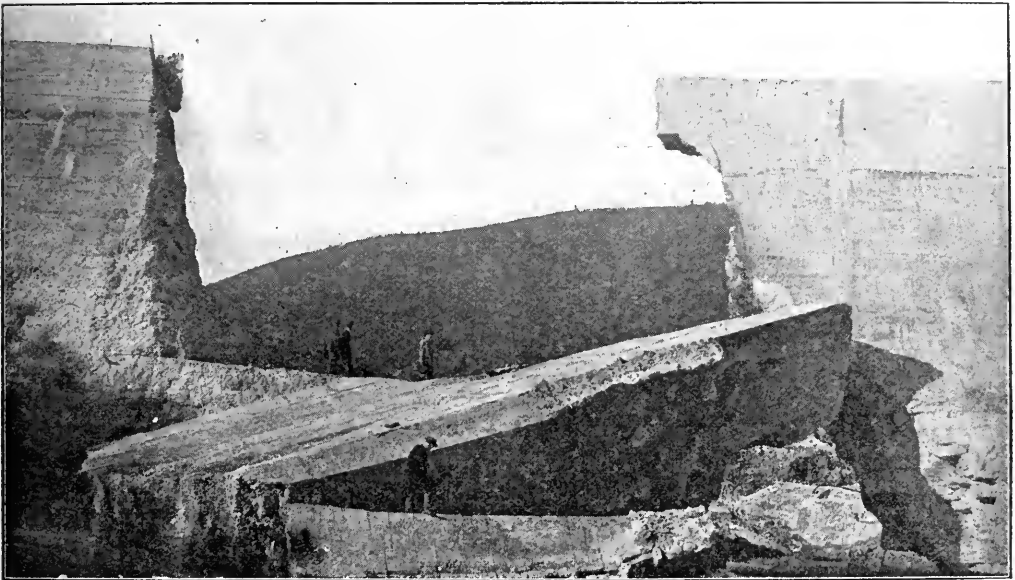
Water getting under the dam at a depth of six feet below the concrete base exerted a much greater upward pressure than was anticipated . . . and reduced the factor of safety against sliding to an unsafe limit.

¹Technical facts and description are mainly from *Engineering News*.

Following this slip, the Bayless company asked the advice of Engineer Hatton as to what repairs should be made. In preparing his recommendations, Mr. Hatton consulted Edward Wegmann, Jr., formerly chief engineer of the New York Aqueduct Commission, and now consulting engineer of the Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity of New York city, and author of a well-known treatise on dam construction. Their plan for strengthening was to build additional masonry as a reinforcement on the down-stream face of the dam and to sink a cut-off wall at the up-stream face

and *Engineering Record*, who visited Austin after the disaster of September 30, report that nothing had been done to carry out these recommendations of Messrs. Hatton and Wegmann, or to strengthen the dam in any way.

From the standpoint of safety there were apparently, in view of the explicit statements of the engineers, but two possible courses: either to carry out the recommendations or to let the dam remain empty. Neither was followed. The dam was allowed to fill, though the two gaps which had been dynamited in the top were left and thus kept the water



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THE FLOOD-GATE OF DESTRUCTION.

down to an impervious stratum, so as to prevent percolation under the dam. It is worth noting, says *Engineering News*, that Mr. Wegmann was not asked to visit the dam site and view the condition on the spot, and that he was not employed by the Bayless company but by Mr. Hatton himself. Mr. Hatton states:

The plans and recommendations were submitted in February, 1910, since which date I have had no further connection with the dam and do not know what measures were taken to reinforce it.

Representatives of two authoritative technical publications, *Engineering News*

at a level considerably lower than the top of the spillway.¹ The most extraordinary disregard of safety was still to come. Without apparently turning its hand over to strengthen the dam, the company actually set about stopping up

¹President G. F. Bayless is reported as having made some explanation to the effect that a forty-foot head of water was sufficient for the mill and that during dry weather a man had been kept at the gate to regulate the amount of water and keep it at the height that was necessary; but that his man was not stationed there at the time of the accident, as it was not thought necessary to have him remain there. *Engineering News* points out that this is obviously "the sort of explanation which does not explain," and that if safety had been at all thought of in connection with the employment of a man to regulate the height of the water, he would have been on the job in rainy and not in dry weather.



A "HOME" IN THE PATH OF THE FLOOD.

the gaps. One of them had already been filled with concrete. The wooden forms were in place and bags of cement were piled on the hillside near the other at the western end of the dam. But this work was never finished. Rain set in; and by the morning of September 30, according to testimony given at the inquest by A. C. Silvius, a state forester, the water had risen nearly to the top of the spillway.

"I saw M. C. Bailey, an employe of the Bayless company, who seems to have had the duty of inspecting the dam," said Silvius. "I told him I didn't believe the dam was safe, and asked him what he thought about it. He said he didn't know about it but guessed he would go to see Mr. Hamlin (the joint mill and town official whose refusal to testify has been brought out). I added that I thought the gate¹ of the dam ought to be opened." The name of M. C. Bailey was called at the inquest. He was absent.

Another eye-witness, H. W. Faulber, state inspector of highways, testified that early in the afternoon of September 30 he saw water spurting through

¹Just what was meant by "the gate" is not entirely clear, but it evidently referred to one of the openings heretofore mentioned by which the pressure could be relieved.

the board forms for the concrete intended to block up the remaining gap at the western end of the dam. It was now pouring over the spillway.

In other words, there were just two times in the history of the dam when it was full. On one of these occasions it slid eighteen inches at the bottom, bulged thirty inches at the top, and cracked in a dozen places. On the other, it gave way entirely, devastated a valley, destroyed the greater part of two towns, and hurled seventy-six human beings to their death. Yet the total public explanation thus far made by the operating company responsible for its erection and upkeep is summed up in the statement of its superintendent, "On advice of counsel; I refuse to testify," and in a meaningless expression of sorrow by one of the Messrs. Bayless of Binghamton, New York, beginning, "I am simply overwhelmed with surprise and grief that the town has been so afflicted."

Perhaps, after all, you or I could have let things go just as did the Bayless company. We may think ourselves public-spirited. Then read this portion of a letter which we print in simple justice. It comes, solicited by us, from a professional man in Binghamton:

Throughout the whole community these men stand well. They are exceedingly fine characters—capable, honorable, and public-spirited. Mr. George Bayless has served the city very efficiently as mayor. They are liberal in their help to some of the most worthy causes in the city, and their wives also are similarly interested. Mr. Franklin Bayless is very devoted to the work of a boys' club, an institution that means the training and uplift of lads that might otherwise become a menace to society.

I have talked with many people since the terrible disaster at Austin, and I have not yet heard one harsh or bitter word against either of these men. The general impression seems to be that they paid for the most reliable advice of experts, and that they did not even dream that the dam was unsafe. Tremendous financial interests were at stake as well as precious human lives, and we cannot bring ourselves to believe that the company would deliberately play fast and loose while such great interests were imperilled.

I am not greatly surprised that neither of them went to Austin. I saw them both for a few minutes on the day following the disaster. They were utterly prostrated. Neither of them is physically robust or rugged. They are sensitive, highly strung men—and the blow nearly killed them. I seriously doubt whether they could have travelled to Austin at that time. I happen to know that Mr. George Bayless was so utterly prostrated by the event that his condition was such as to cause his medical adviser some anxiety.

I have said some pretty severe things against greedy corporations and soulless capitalism, and I suppose I belong to the radical wing

of modern economic thought. But I must do what justice I can to the characters of these men—a matter standing altogether apart from any economic or fiscal theory.

Many of us are convinced that some error in calculation must have caused this awful disaster. I believe entirely in the integrity and conscientiousness of the Messrs. Bayless, and I think I have had exceptional means of judging.

I may also say that the Board of Directors of this company is made up of a superior type of men—men of kindliness, public spirit, and irreproachable integrity. I am quite sure that any average jury of our citizens would endorse, and perhaps emphasize, every word I have written.

Yet how far the Bayless company and its officers were responsible for the disaster, in the opinion of one of the most widely known technical authorities in this country, may be gauged by these two sentences from an editorial in the *Engineering News*:

"It is our duty to say that the occurrence is without excuse; and that if the dam had been built with proper precautions and proper regard for safety, the failure would never have occurred. . . . It was bad to build the dam on such a foundation, with no greater precautions to prevent water getting under it; but it was ten times worse to attempt to use the structure in its weakened and perilous condition after the partial failure of 1910."

According to the leading engineering journals, the responsibility of the



DEBRIS PILED AT ONE SIDE OF THE VALLEY.

company for the disaster is thus clear-cut. Yet it is to be said that the officers and directors are not technical men, with an engineer's grasp of tension and stress and the other factors in concrete construction. Whether or not they disregarded the advice of the engineer employed by them, the responsibilities of that profession do not seem exhausted when advice has been given to a non-professional board of directors, any more than in a similar case—when the life and death of many are at stake—the public responsibility of a physician is circumscribed by cautioning a man suffering from a contagious disease that he keep off the street. We have yet to see a statement convincing in its details to a layman that, through borings or other means, sufficient precautions were taken in the original construction of the dam to see that it had a solid foundation in bed rock. There has been a movement among progressive men in the engineering profession to insist that in these big structures expert geologists be called in to determine the nature of the ultimate underpinning of things. All precautions may well have been taken; if so, it should be demonstrated beyond all peradventure.

The *Engineering News* has recently stated that it has

heard intimations that Mr. Hatton desired in the original construction to carry a cut-off wall deep down through the soft rock strata so as to cut off possible percolation under the dam; but was overruled on account of the expense which would be involved.

We need further light as to whether the designing engineer at Austin—a man of good record—met the requirements of safety which the common opinion of his profession would demand, but we need to know further where, as here, life was likely to be at stake and the interests of the community needed protection, whether the ethics of the profession demand that the responsible engineer insist on those standards or quit the job. If not, then the engineers set lower standards than those sanctioned—though not always lived up to—by the older professions.

Question of professional responsibility also enters in at the point where Engi-

neer Hatton told the company that certain reinforcements were needed to make their cracked dam safe. He did not tell that to the community living in the path of the impounded reservoir at the time or in eighteen months succeeding. So long as the engineering profession permits a situation whereby no channel is open through which a responsible engineer who knows the danger in his professional capacity can conserve the safety of human beings against the ill-considered action of a board of laymen, the question of moral obligation is bound to be raised by such a catastrophe. The reporting by engineers of dangerous dams or other structures threatening to the community—much as physicians report centers of infection to boards of health—bears on the question of state regulation which will be discussed later. But even under present conditions, channels of publicity, both within and without the profession, are open.

The Austin disaster has been made the text by the Philadelphia *North American* for a vigorous arraignment of what it considers lapses in public responsibility within the profession. It reprints the verdict of the *Engineering News* after the disaster (from which quotation has already been made), that the dam had been "a veritable sword of Damocles hanging over the village below," and cites that

In 1910 The *North American* sent a staff representative to Austin. He told of the peril in which the town lay. Three months later, the *Engineering News*, in its number of March 17, 1910, gave voice to the orthodox engineering view, with dignified and well merited rebuke to the sensational newspaper reports of the threatened destruction of the town.

The words of the *Engineering News* were: "We have since learned that these reports were exaggerated."

To the mind of the Philadelphia *North American*,

There spoke the voice of the true conservative. Sensational newspapers were giving exaggerated reports of what might happen to Austin, when the only evidence they had of an impending flood was that a concrete dam 600 feet long and fifty high had been moved forward on its base eighteen inches, had bulged at the top thirty-one inches, and had cracked in several places.

We do not bring any indictment against the *Engineering News*. We merely offer it as a perfect illustration of a frame of mind, a certain kind of mind. This mind calls itself conservative.

A genuine conservative is one who conserves, who saves. The kind of conservative who sees sensationalism and exaggeration in a newspaper warning of the danger in a cracked and sliding dam is the same conservative who discerns only sensationalism or demagogery in the warnings that the old dam of privilege is split and is sliding on its foundation.

This mind sees only the vested interest in the dam and not the lives or the individual property that is below it. It does not know that true conservatism consists in building a new dam on the solid foundation of the rights of man as superior to the rights of property, and that those who demand such action are urging the only course that will prevent a social cataclysm which will cost infinitely more than the value of the vested interest, just as Austin's flood cost 100 lives and property of 100 times the value of the murderous dam.

Without discussing the lack of technical accuracy which the *Engineering News* may have noted in the daily press accounts, or the greater effectiveness which real warnings sensationally made might have if there were less "false alarm" sensationalism in the metropolitan dailies, it is worth while to examine this challenge to the engineers. The *Engineering News* included vigorous warning about the unsafe condition of the dam in its article of March, 1910, though it put it at the conclusion instead of at the forefront of it. So the matter reaches deeper? Where were the engineers of the state of Pennsylvania during the eighteen months that this dam "was a veritable sword of Damocles"? If an epidemic had menaced the health of 2300 people we should have considered it the duty of the medical profession to have pointed it out and initiated a movement speedily to end it. May not the public fairly ask that with respect to public safety the engineering profession show the same sort of spirit and activity we are beginning to expect from the medical profession with respect to public health?

From the American Society of Civil Engineers a committee, consisting of some of its most distinguished members, visited Johnstown after the disaster to that city twenty-two years ago.

They made a report. It dealt with the engineering problems shown by the demolished dam, and it doubtless has been of great value in spreading abroad a sounder technique of dam erection. But it failed entirely to deal with possible legislative measures which might have assured a more general living up to those standards. Nor is there any evidence that the engineering profession in Pennsylvania made any effort on the basis of that report to secure the enactment of any law looking toward the more adequate protection of the people of that state, though the *Engineering News* twenty-two years ago declared that the time had come for establishing state supervision, in the interest of public safety, of all public dam construction.

The weight of the influence of the engineers of Pennsylvania is easily sufficient to have forced the proper strengthening of the Austin dam had they brought that influence to bear. Certainly the public sentiment they could easily have aroused would have done so.

It is because he respects the knowledge and efficiency of the engineer—and not because of any distrust of them—that the average man feels a little like taking him to task. We covet for the public welfare the greater application of his knowledge and ability to just such situations as that which existed at Austin. The technical periodical we have so often quoted assures us that

there is no mystery in the art of dam construction and no problems in their design which competent engineers are not capable of solving with accuracy and reliability,

and then declares that

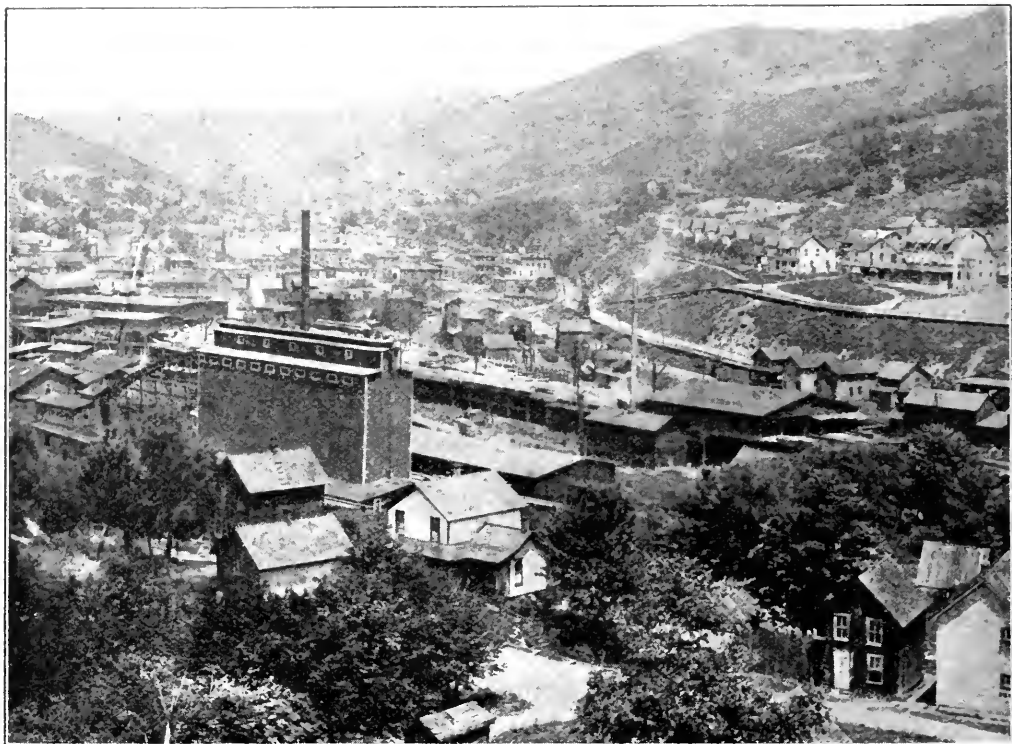
these disasters occur because too frequently those who build these structures buy just as little engineering and buy it just as cheaply as they possibly can.

This refers in part, no doubt, to the fact that after the Bayless company secured recommendations and plans for the strengthening of its dam it no longer retained the engineer and made no effort to carry out the recommendations. Our point is that if the engineering profession had led public sentiment in this very case, the company concerned might have seen a great light and utilized

all the engineering skill it could command to put its dam in a thoroughly secure condition.

This discussion of the responsibility of a great professional group to secure compulsory standards of safety in the field it practices in brings us to the ultimate responsibility of the state itself, of which the town of Austin is a minor civil division, and to which the manufacturing corporation is legally subordinate.

The promptness and efficiency shown by certain state departments in meeting the subsequent emergency is in striking contrast to the utter failure of the commonwealth to prevent the suffering it assuaged. Let us turn back twenty-two years to that dark day when a tide of destruction swept down the valley of the Conemaugh, engulfed the city of Johnstown, and carried off 2,140 lives. There also was a dam which had been suspected.



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AUSTIN BEFORE THE FLOOD.

Town government, mill company, and professional group,—in forefending against the final disaster these three social institutions were as weak barriers as the dam itself. If one were looking for a sardonic contrast it would be that at the crisis it was an outcast social institution which happened to reach out more aid than all three combined. The warning to Austin was telephoned from a house of prostitution on the hillside near the dam.

A mine owner, after causing it to be examined by his engineer—so it is reported—brought its condition to the attention of the sheriff and urged him to take action in the courts to compel the owners, the South Fork Fishing and Hunting Club, to make it safe. The sheriff instead went to the Cambria Iron (now Steel) Company for consultation. An employe of this company looked at the dam and said there was no cause for alarm. Nothing was done. It is of

interest to record that there was received at Austin a check for \$1,000 from the Cambria Steel Company of Johnstown.

Following the disaster an editorial appeared in the *Harrisburg Patriot* for June 3, 1889, which in the light of subsequent events is strikingly significant. Change a few local words in your mind as you read it and observe how peculiarly it applies to the present plight of Pennsylvania, although it is the idea of pre-

and the dam could be compelled to respect? Either somebody has blundered or somebody has had but a light regard for human life.

The fishing club which owned the Conemaugh dam is sharply criticised for its negligence in repairing the walls which confined the large body of water. It is alleged that the club had been warned that the walls leaked at several points but that it paid no attention to the warnings. If this be the fact the members of the club ought to be held to such legal accountability as may be enforced against them in the courts. No man or body of men has any right in morals or in law to engage in either business or pleasure in a way that



AUSTIN AFTER THE FLOOD.

vention rather than retribution which we would today emphasize:

Now that the shock of the dreadful news is spent people are beginning to ask, Could the terrible event have been averted? Why was the boom in a river on one side of the city of Johnstown, which was a continual menace to its safety, suffered to exist? And why was the dam of the fishing club on the other side of the city, which it was feared might at any time break and hurl destruction upon the human life below, permitted to remain? Were the authorities of Johnstown indifferent to the safety of their city, or had they no rights in the premises which the owners of the boom

threatens the lives or property of others. The causes of the Johnstown disaster should be made the subject of legislative inquiry, and if there be no law to prevent and punish such reckless indifference to the safety of human life as seems to have characterized the conduct of the owners of the Stony Creek boom and the Conemaugh dam, it is high time that such an enactment were placed upon the statute book.

The commonwealth of Pennsylvania stands convicted by her Austin disaster. Her "high time" of legislative opportunity was twenty-two years long. A

search of her legislative records reveals no semblance of constructive legislation following Johnstown. Her memory could not last even the twenty months to the next session of the legislature.

It appears to be incumbent upon no department of state government, without a specific act of the legislature giving the necessary powers, to take of itself the initiative to discover such a condition as existed at Austin. It is stated moreover on behalf of the state Water Supply Commission that its files contain no communication apprising it of the condition of the Austin dam. Had such a complaint been sent to it, the extent to which the police powers of the state could have been called into play is a question for the lawyers. The Water Supply Commission was created in 1905 to gather data concerning the water supplies of the state and

adopt such ways and means of utilizing, conserving, purifying, and distributing such water supplies in such a way that the various communities of the state shall be fairly and equitably dealt with in such distribution.

It was also directed to recommend legislation to this end. In 1907 its powers over water companies to be organized after that date were extended by requiring that applications for charters be submitted to the approval of the commission, accompanied by data concerning the stream which it proposed to use. The Bayless company was organized many years prior to the act.

But another act passed in 1907 shows how nearly the jurisdiction of the Water Supply Commission approached the dam at Austin. This act requires that no dam shall be built on a public or navigable stream or a stream previously declared to be a "public highway" without the approval by the commission of the plans and specifications. These "highway" streams, many of them used for logging purposes, were so designated by act of legislature. The records show that Freeman's Run was on March 1, 1867, declared to be a public highway up to the farm of E. O. Austin. This is the site of the present town of Austin—below the dam.

If it had actually been sought to gerry-

mander the Austin dam out of state supervision it could not have been done more neatly. Had the dam been located a mile and a half farther downstream its construction would have been subject to the approval of the water supply commission. Or, had it been built in its actual position by a company organized later than 1907 for the purpose of doing just what the dam accomplished, it would in some measure have come under the jurisdiction of the commission. The powers of the state hemmed it in, from the angles both of time and of geographical location, and chance dictated that it should fall within the little gap where these powers did not interlock.

As the department of state government whose province comes nearest to dam construction, the Water Supply Commission, after a preliminary inspection by its engineer, Farley Gannett, has announced that it will conduct a further careful examination and that it "will recommend to the governor and legislature the enactment of such legislation as will preclude the probability of such occurrences," including in its scope "dams heretofore constructed, as well as any future obstruction that may be placed in any stream." Governor Tener, immediately following his visit to Austin, declared his intention to urge inescapable state control over dams—a matter which has been urged for twenty-two years by the *Engineering News*.

Yet even with no other powers than those which now exist, the question arises in the mind of an outsider as to whether the state did all it might have done to prevent the Austin disaster. Even with mandatory powers wanting, all the force of publicity was at command. Moreover, the following statement as to the powers of the state administration to take action through the courts has been made to THE SURVEY by one of the most distinguished members of the Pennsylvania bar, himself a man who has shouldered heavy executive responsibilities:

I know of no legislation giving the governor, or any state executive department, summary jurisdiction in relation to the Austin dam, and I am inclined to think that there is no such legislation; but I cannot agree with

with the alleged statement [made by an assistant attorney general] that "no state department without specific action of the Legislature giving the necessary powers could of itself have taken the initiative of investigating a condition such as existed at Austin before the recent disaster."

People approach questions of this character with preconceived opinions, and according to their opinion they either meet or fail to meet great emergencies. President Buchanan failed to comprehend the implied powers and responsibilities belonging to a chief executive and thereby failed to meet a great emergency. President Cleveland had a truer conception on this point, and in the matter of the Chicago strike met his responsibilities and rendered a most invaluable service to his country.

The governor of the state of Pennsylvania is its chief executive, charged with the duty to see that the laws are duly obeyed and to preserve the good order and safety of the people. If he knew that it was unsafe, or if he had reason to believe it was unsafe, it was his duty to take action to protect the lives and property of the people who were endangered by its condition.

A bill in equity in the name of the commonwealth, filed by the attorney general, by the direction of the governor, would have commanded immediate attention in any court in which it was filed. Even the Supreme Court, which is very loath to take primary jurisdiction, would not have refused to move when asked to do so in such a suit.

If the condition of the dam was such as rumor says it was, the company would probably not have defended a suit; but if it had, the court would have pushed the case to an immediate hearing and by its decree saved the lives of these people.

Of course, in what I have said I am simply expressing an opinion on a suppositious case. I do not for a moment mean to suggest that it was the governor's duty to have known of the condition of this dam. That may be true or not according to the facts, concerning which I am not informed; but I do say that the governor, or any one of the executive departments, had the power to have prevented the disaster if they had known of the conditions.

The newspapers, and especially the Philadelphia *North American*, had given much prominence to the partial failure of the dam in January, 1910, and the *Engineering News* article of March 17, 1910, had also uttered a

warning which carried with it all the influence of this technical authority. Representatives of several state departments had seen the Austin dam in its unsafe condition. While none can be accused of dereliction to its specified duty, there is no reason on the other hand to think that dire consequences would have followed a little over-zealousness. There never was a situation that more thoroughly and tragically justified the application of Theodore Roosevelt's doctrine that the state and its executive departments should not limit their action to what is set down in the law as their specific duty but should act, and act with energy, in furtherance of conserving the general well-being, where such action is not specifically prohibited.

In conclusion, to gather up the first strand in our review of social agencies and social responsibility, it is a governmental institution as old perhaps as the town itself, which, in the absence of other authority, represents the state in its immediate dealing with the question of responsibility—the coroner's jury.

In the action which this body—which we saw balked at its first session—takes, we may have an inkling whether public opinion in the commonwealth will today call for more results than grew out of Johnstown.

To the state of Pennsylvania and, for that matter, to every other state, in which waters are impounded, we look for such action as will insure safety—at least from the floods which man himself makes possible. To the

engineering profession we look for leadership in such a movement. But beyond is the responsibility for aggressive citizenship of that wider circle which includes you and me—members of that public which forgot.





A SEA-GOING HOSPITAL FOR DEEP-SEA FISHERMAN

THOMAS W. SALMON, M. D.

UNITED STATES MARINE HOSPITAL SERVICE

Every August a little company of sad-faced men and women and curious summer-boarders gathers in Gloucester to take part in a ceremony such as can be witnessed nowhere else in the United States. Only in the fishing villages of St. Pierre or northern France or Newfoundland do people come together for the same purpose, for it is the annual memorial service for the deep-sea fishermen who have perished at sea during the year. Last year forty-seven names were read, fewer, it was said, than in previous years, and after children had strewed flowers upon the receding tide twelve young widows went home with the dread which dwells always in the hearts of wives of fishermen come to full realization.

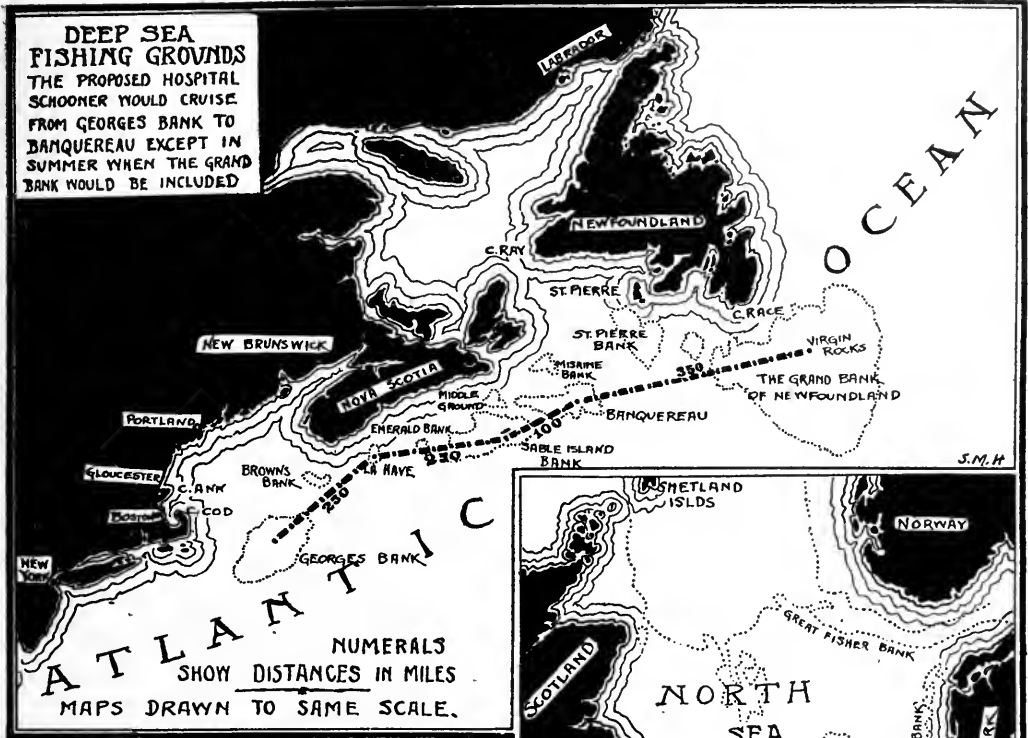
The year before there were sixty-two names, and during the last ten years the names of more than six hundred Gloucester fishermen have been read at these services. Not more than six thousand men go "out from Gloucester" to the deep-sea fisheries, and so the loss was one in ten. In time of war such a loss would fill the land with mourning; but in Gloucester it is simply counted the cost of a peaceful industry which, if we are to have sea-fish to eat, must be carried on while men have the hardihood to accept the odds.

These men lost their lives in various ways. Some went astray in their dories and fought the final battle with their ancient foe at oars' length until cold, starvation, or exhaustion decided it. Some were swept from the decks of their schooners in winter gales. Some met death with all their shipmates as

their vessels were cut down by the transatlantic liners which race across the banks.

This is the toll which the deep sea takes from those who gather her harvest. It is not all, however; for other brave men were lost whose names were not read at the services by Blynman bridge, and for whom no flowers were strewn upon the water. These fishermen died in bed in marine hospitals, attended by nurses, and provided with many comforts; yet they lost their lives through the dangerous nature of their calling just as certainly as their comrades in the dories which went astray or in the schooners which foundered on the banks. Some of them had survived the hardships of terrible days and nights adrift in dories only to sustain injury which made the end just as certain, although a little more remote. Many of them died from illnesses which the resources of modern medicine, if they can be applied in time, are quite sufficient to cure. Besides those who die, many fishermen are badly maimed through infected wounds which could be treated so successfully, were they received ashore, that only the slightest permanent defects would follow them. Fractures which have to be neglected for days and even weeks until port is reached have a very different outcome from those which are promptly cared for; and when a giant sea boards a little schooner and roars down her length, a broken bone or two is very likely to be included in the wreckage.

The lists which are read at Gloucester tell of a loss of life which is inevitable.

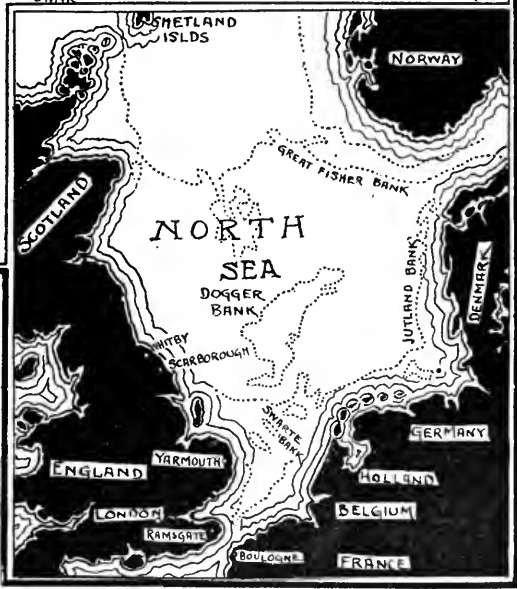


Map by Shelby M. Harrison.

WHERE THE UNITED STATES STANDS FOR NEGLECT.

Relative areas of the American deep-sea fishing grounds—where medical aid can be had today only from one hospital ship, that not an American boat but a Frenchman, and then only during the summer—and the North Sea where there are three hospital and four dispensary ships.

It may be, perhaps, that some means will be devised in the future to make deep-sea fishing in small boats a little less dangerous, but the perils of the stray dory, the winter gale, and the liner which races through fog are to the deep-sea fisherman what fire-damp is to the miner, and they make deep-sea fishing the most dangerous of all callings. It is the belief of those who have the welfare of the fisherman at heart, however, that the list of deaths and the much longer one of men disabled, which is never read at memorial services and is, indeed, known to very few, are far longer than they need be. Although the deep-sea fisherman cannot come to the hospital in time for more than a small part of the relief the hospital can afford him, there is a way of sending the hospital to the sick or injured fisherman.



In other countries where deep-sea fishing is an important industry the need for providing medical and surgical aid at sea has been recognized so long that the agencies for relief are well established institutions. Whether it is because life is held more cheaply here or simply because the need has not been made known, it is a rather surprising fact that no steps have yet been taken to do for the American fishermen what is done in England by the Royal National Mission to the Deep-Sea Fishermen, in French possessions by the *Société des Oeuvres de Mer*, and in Newfoundland and Labrador by Dr. Grenfell.

In the North Sea, where the Royal National Mission has provided medical relief for fishermen, fish are usually transferred to steam "carriers" which follow the fleets, making it possible to send them to the market fresh. "Boarding fish," as taking them to the carriers is called, is exceedingly dangerous work, and in the old days it used to result in a very heavy and needless loss of life. The Royal National Mission brought about the adoption of regulation for "boarding fish," and in this way many lives have been saved. The mis-

hospitals; but this was often inefficient, particularly, of course, in the worst cases.

Sir Frederick Treves, the great English surgeon, happened to be a director in the Royal National Mission to the Deep-Sea Fishermen, and he visited the fishing fleets to see if a hospital ship might be used to advantage. The result of his visit was that Dr. Wilfred Grenfell, then a young London surgeon, went out on one of the mission ships. Through Dr. Grenfell's instant appreciation of the needs and through the



THE STRATHCONA.

Dr. Grenfell's hospital steamer, which has lately been replaced by the auxiliary schooner *George B. Cluett*, the gift of George B. Cluett of Troy, New York.

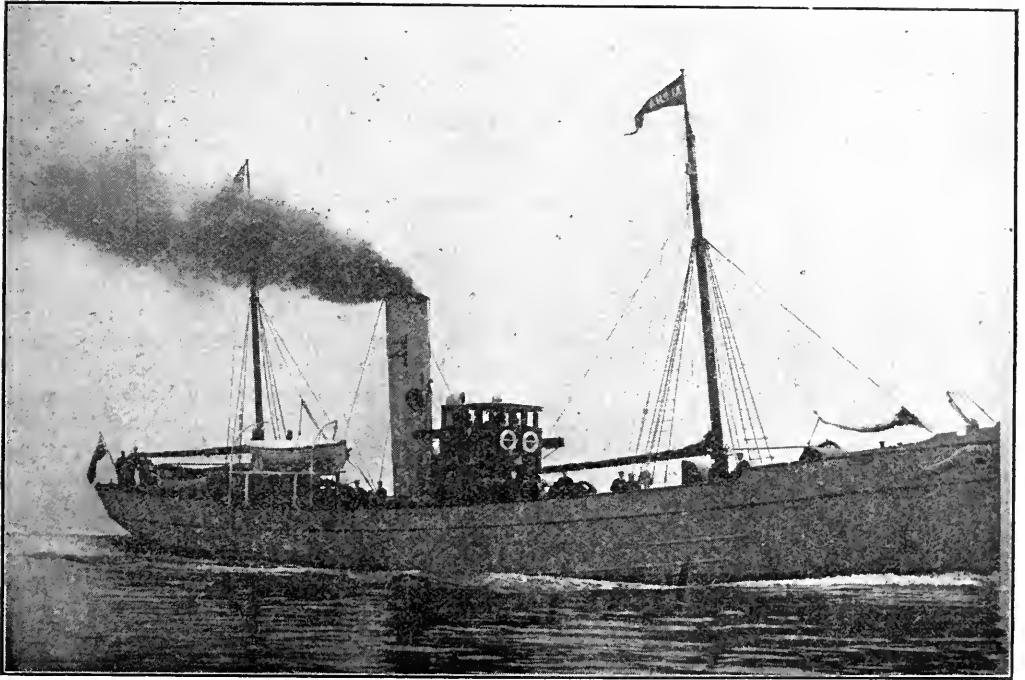
sion ships which the society has long maintained have driven the "copers" or floating grog-shops from the seas, and in many other ways they have improved the lot of British fishermen; but the fishermen will bear witness that no benefit which this society has provided can compare with the hospital ships. Before the establishment of the medical mission, rough medical and surgical assistance was rendered by the skippers of mission ships, who had been given some first-aid instruction in London

great influence of Sir Frederick Treves, the first hospital ship, the *Queen Victoria*, was secured, and the days of untreated fractures and needless deaths from acute disease were over. At the present time there are three hospital ships and four dispensary ships giving medical and surgical relief on the stormy North Sea. Last year more than twelve thousand men received treatment, and many of those who were dangerously ill were carried to hospitals ashore in comfort and safety. Instead

of a two-hundred-mile journey, every mile bringing new tortures for badly injured men, treatment is commenced at once, and fishermen who in the old days would have been reduced to the workhouse, live to walk the deck again.

Not content with accomplishing what he had set out to do in the North Sea, in 1892 Dr. Grenfell set sail for Newfoundland in a ninety-ton schooner to reproduce, under far more distressing conditions, some of the relief work which had been established by the medical mission at home. His work

the evil Newfoundland and Labrador coasts. Some have been worn out in the service, for he drives them in fair weather and foul alike, but his skill as a navigator has kept them off the sunken reefs and clear of the far more dangerous ice. Within the last few weeks a fine new auxiliary schooner has been presented to Dr. Grenfell by an American friend, and the auxiliary yawls *Yale* and *Andrew J. McCosh*, presented by American college students, show that Dr. Grenfell's work has found appreciation in this country.



THE ALPHA.

A mission hospital vessel of 275 tons, engaged in services amongst the fishing fleets of the North Sea.

among the fishermen of Newfoundland and the poor "liveyères" of Labrador, to whom he has been surgeon, master-mariner, minister, and magistrate, is pretty well-known in this country. Between the forty-foot steam launch in which he made the first trip up the Labrador coast and the hospital ship *Lord Strathcona* there have been many vessels, large and small, and they have carried the blue flag of the Royal National Mission into every harbor on

Deep-sea fishing on this side of the Atlantic is done under conditions widely different from those in the North Sea and in some respects with far greater danger to life. While in England most of the fish are brought fresh to market, a considerable number of Gloucester and Boston fishermen salt their catch. The largest fresh fish fleet is found on "The Georges" and neighboring banks, although lately fresh fish have been brought from the western banks. The

"Georges" fleet is largest in winter. In summer it is depleted by the "seiners" who cruise from Cape Canso to Hatteras for mackerel, the "halibuters" and the "haddockers" who go as far to the eastward as the coast of Greenland, and by a number of smaller vessels which engage in sword-fishing. Many vessels which have been "laid up" at Gloucester or have been used on "The Georges" during the winter are fitted out with large amounts of provisions and salt in the spring and then depart for the Grand Banks, a thousand miles away, for cod. The life of these cod-fishermen on the Grand Banks is the theme of Kipling's Captains Courageous and of many of James B. Connolly's best stories.

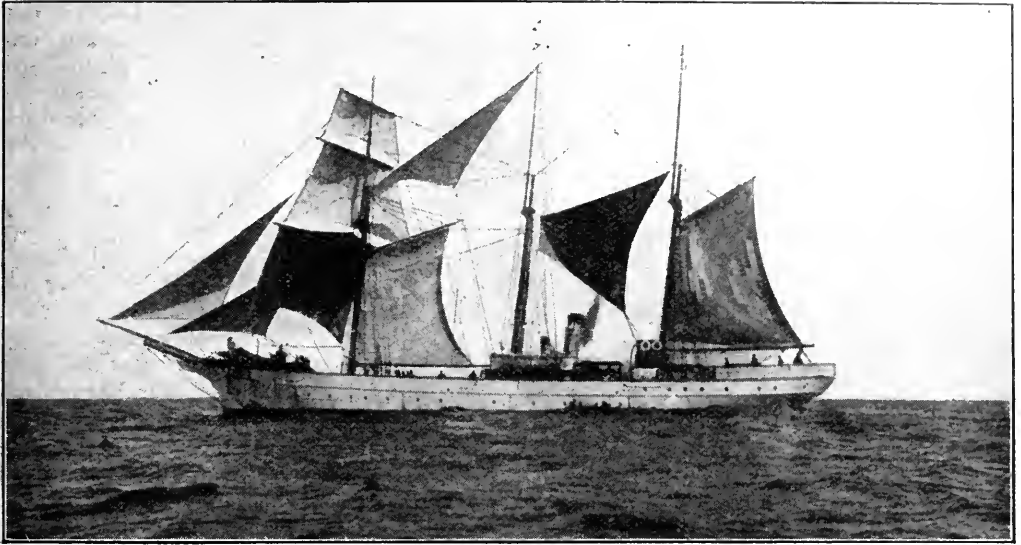
Just as all the countries which border on the North Sea take their food out of that international fish-pond, so in summer the deep-sea fisherman of many nations gather on the Grand Banks. There are graceful Gloucester schooners, with lines drawn by naval architects who have designed cup defenders; Nova Scotians with the free-board forward of vessels twice their size but running down aft to lines in keeping with their actual size; a few schooners with crews of swarthy Bravas from the Cape Verde Islands, 2,500 miles away; brigs, barks, and barkentines which have crossed the Atlantic from France; and vessels of all sizes and many rigs from Newfoundland and the French islands of Saint Pierre-Micquelon. They all gather to share in the unfailing harvest of the sea. One can regard with equanimity the price of meat when he sees tons and tons of cod taken from the cold depths, to find their way ultimately to the tables of those of slender means in this country, France, Italy, Brazil, and even more distant lands. If the Great Bank of Newfoundland were to rise out of the sea some day and bear fine crops of wheat or corn it could support only a small part of the multitude which it now feeds as it lies submerged in several hundred feet of water.

Every year, about the middle of May, the French hospital ship *St. François d'Assise*, an auxiliary vessel of about

500 tons, appears on the Grand Banks. In March she leaves Havre, goes first to Iceland, and thence to Saint Pierre off the coast of Newfoundland. With Saint Pierre as a base she cruises all summer to the neighboring banks, giving medical and surgical aid to all fishermen in need of it, without regard to the flag which flies over them. American fishermen share in this relief to a very great extent, for on some of the banks visited by the *St. François d'Assise* they outnumber the French. Last summer 627 fishing vessels were spoken by this hospital ship, and 251 fishermen were given medical or surgical aid. A flag halfmasted is the signal, and either a medical officer leaves the hospital ship and makes his professional visit on the high seas, or the patient is brought by his comrades to the hospital ship. Although the setting of sea and sky and ships is very different from the benches and little consulting rooms of the city dispensary, there is the same problem of the relief of human suffering, and there are the same medical resources of which the doctor avails himself in practice ashore. In a single day last summer, on Banquereau, thirty-three fishing vessels were hailed by the *St. François d'Assise*. In September the hospital ship goes back to France carrying with her those fishermen who have not already recovered and been returned to their vessels.

The American fisherman's only chance to obtain medical aid on Banquereau, Saint Pierre Bank, and the Grand Banks is when this hospital ship, maintained by charity and by a small grant from the French government, makes her summer visits to the fishing grounds. At other times on these banks and at all times on the banks which lie nearer home no medical aid whatever is available in time of need. The injured man must grit his teeth, and bear it, with the chance of being permanently crippled increasing every minute, and the man stricken with sudden illness must console himself with the reflection that perhaps he has one of those diseases which doctors cannot cure anyway.

There is another side of less importance than this, but which has a bearing,



THE ST. FRANCOIS D'ASSISE.

The hospital ship which crosses the Atlantic every summer to care for the men on the Grand Banks near the French Islands Saint Pierre-Micquelon. Many American fishermen have to depend upon this ship for medical aid.

too, upon the need for a hospital ship. After the owner's share has been deducted and all expenses have been met, fishermen share alike in the proceeds of each trip. It happens very often that when a week or more has been spent in securing bait, a good "berth" secured, and everything is in readiness for the real work of catching fish to begin, a man will suddenly need medical care. He usually makes light of his troubles, for it is the rarest thing for the sick or injured fishermen to be the first to suggest making for port; but soon it becomes apparent that something must be done. The schooner is headed for a Nova Scotian port or for home, the bait is thrown overboard, the good "berth" is lost, and eighteen men lose the proceeds of a trip. They do it cheerfully enough but to the married man who comes home empty-handed it means that the bill at the grocer's must go a little longer and the children wait another month for shoes.

In looking about for a remedy for these things—and surely no one will deny that the time is ripe for something to be done—the most significant fact discovered is that the deep-sea fisherman is already a beneficiary of the United States government. The United

States Marine Hospital Service was established in 1798 to care for sick and disabled American merchant seamen, and for a number of years this relief has been extended to deep-sea fishermen. In the wards of several of the United States marine hospitals, but particularly in the hospital at Boston, can be seen the results of the failure to obtain treatment in time. Many unpromising cases from the North Atlantic fishing banks are sent out again "fit for duty at sea," and much human wreckage which is tardily brought for repair is made serviceable again; but too often this is not the outcome. Dr. L. L. Williams, the surgeon in command of the United States marine hospital at Boston, has presented to the surgeon-general a plan to extend the work of the marine hospital service so as to give relief to the fisherman when it will do him the most good.

It is proposed to build a schooner of the best type of the modern fisherman, provide her with ample auxiliary power, fit her with a complete little hospital amidships and with all the equipment necessary for giving medical and surgical aid at sea, and to send her out, in charge of a commissioned officer of the service, to patrol a watery beat which

will bring her into communication at frequent intervals with the deep-sea fishermen of New England—from "The Georges" to Banquereau in winter, and to the Grand Banks in summer. Manned by a skipper and crew who have been fishermen themselves and who know the banks as the landsman knows his own back yard, it would be possible to cruise to such advantage that 90 per cent of the vessels in this wide area could be spoken in clear weather.

The hospital schooner would be at sea by far the greater part of the time, summer and winter, returning only for supplies and to bring to the hospital men who could not be cared for at sea with the best results. The officers and crew would share many of the hardships and some of the dangers of the deep-sea fishermen, but it would be a service which many would consider a high privilege to perform—to carry the resources of medicine and surgery and the solace of skilled nursing to the gale-swept North Atlantic where several thousand American fishermen, in the pursuit of their calling, are taking the risks and sustaining the casualties of actual war. To the average landsman, a bunk in the hospital of a small schooner, tossed on the bosom of a very unsettled piece of ocean, may not look attractive; but to the sick or injured fisherman, in pain which his sympathetic comrades are powerless to relieve, the coming of such a schooner would mean relief and in not a few cases life itself.

It is, of course, for Congress to say

whether this plan can be carried out or not. The conservation of our national resources is one of the topics of the hour and Congress can be called upon to conserve no resource of more value than human life. Inevitably, the calling of the deep-sea fisherman demands a greedy share of life and health from those who follow it. It has been shown that in other countries that part of the loss which is due to the lack of medical and surgical care can be very greatly reduced. If it is possible, for an initial expenditure of \$25,000 and for an annual outlay of from \$10,000 to \$12,000 a year, to keep a thoroughly efficient hospital schooner on the American banks the year around, it is difficult to think of an adequate reason for deferring such relief much longer.

Ten years ago few people outside of New England knew anything at all about Gloucester fishermen; but the stirring pictures of their life which

James B. Connolly has given us have made the dangers and the hardships which they face so cheerfully familiar to many who have never seen salt water themselves. In time of war the deep-sea fishermen have served their country in the navy as few other groups of men could do. In times of peace every winter adds to the long list of daring rescues at sea which these fishermen have to their credit. There is an opportunity, in the providing of a hospital ship, to show in what esteem the rest of us hold the lives of these brave men who hold them so lightly themselves.



THE TARTAR.

A typical Gloucester fisherman of the present type which combines seaworthiness and beauty. Vessels of this type and size rounded "the Horn" in the days of the Klondike rush and their crews would think nothing of crossing the Atlantic in winter.

PLAY AS MEDICINE

JOSEPH LEE

PRESIDENT PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

It seems to me that the laws of health are the most interesting laws there are. The process by which food and drink and air become man is the most interesting process in nature—a miracle in comparison with which everything else seems commonplace.

Imperious Caesar, dead and turn'd to clay,
Might stop a hole to keep the wind away.

But it seems to me infinitely more remarkable that clay, through an intermediate process of vegetation, can become imperious Caesar and take part in shaping the destinies of the world. Air, water, carbon, enter the human body and in a few hours or seconds become character. What just now was a piece of doughnut, morally innocent and unbiased, appears as love or hate or aspiration, partaking not only of human nature but of the form and accent of a particular personality, down to a trick of thought inherited from some remote ancestor. Or if we say the body does not actually contain character, but is only the instrument of its release, the phenomenon is hardly less remarkable. I am no physiologist, and am ignorant as to where the initiation takes place, at what stage it is that the new substance is met and welcomed, gets its credentials and its sailing papers, and is made a partaker of the mystery. The ancient tradition that the blood is the life, the blood bond the basis of vital relationship,



seems to have a physiological foundation. The blood has a great part assigned to it in the process by which matter becomes charged with soul. Each drop, when formed, apparently sets forth upon its mission possessed of much at least of the law and purpose of the individual. It knows, or learns as it goes along, the form of the body as a whole, judging with accuracy how much of repair is due to one tissue, how much to another—how much shall be accorded to the arms and legs, how much to the other members—and assigns to each its proper share. And the new tissues instantly understand the secret of the organism and their own part in it. Those constituting the body at a given time are, for their tour of duty, made custodian of the will and character of the individual, entrusted with the tradition, to carry it forward and hand it on to others in their turn.

The body is like an army in active service to which thousands of new recruits are every moment reporting for duty on the field, and in which each recruit, as he is assigned his place, knows by instant intuition all that the veterans knew of the structure of the whole and his own part in it.

The body in short is not a collection of material but a process through which material passes every moment. It is like a cloud on a mountain. The cloud hangs there stationary, maintaining nearly the same shape. But if you climb up, you will find that the wind is blowing through it, sending every particle of mist of which it is composed singing along at the rate of perhaps thirty miles an hour. What gives the cloud its existence and its shape is not a certain body of material but a law imposed on material that passes through. Man is not a mass of matter in a certain state, but a vortex, a flame, controlling matter that comes within its reach.

What can be done to make the flame burn more brightly? Partly, of course, the question is one of fuel; and one can learn every morning in the newspapers how by using special material, or even a special preparation of familiar kinds, one's vital energy and moral well-being can be enhanced. But fuel is not the only consideration. A breakfast-food philosophy is incomplete. Without food or air, it is true, the man will die. But he will die in any case unless he is in condition to impose himself on food and air and imbue them with his purposes. Insistent heralds of the obvious love to reiterate such startling truths as that Napoleon could not conquer Europe without rations. But how long it would have taken his rations to conquer Europe without Napoleon? How many valiant potatoes could have done the trick?

On what, then, depends the ability to perform this miracle of subduing outer elements to the law of life? What is the way to health? Here for each of us there is an ideal body to be lived up into; a flower, which the seed was dreaming of, not yet fulfilled. How can you go to work to realize the dream?

The first shock to notions derived

from dealing with inorganic matter is that the body grows not so much by taking in as by putting forth, that the way to accumulate strength is not by conservation but by using what you have. We are always teaching unfortunate children in our schools that if you take away two from ten you will have eight left. Whereas in all the important affairs of life when you take two from ten you are likely to get about fifteen. If you take away eight, and keep doing it, you may land up with two or three thousand, more or less.

There are people that think you can get rested by lying down. Even doctors sometimes tell you to do nothing. This might be very good advice if it were not for two things. The first is the difficulty of knowing how to go about it. What is the shape of nothing? What color is it? Where does it begin, how do you get hold of it, and exactly what is the process of its performance? The second difficulty is that the nearer you approach to doing nothing, the further you are from getting any good from it—that is to say, regarded as a complete régime. Of course there must be rest, sleep, and relaxation. But these do not build up. These are the gap between the waves and cease to be there when the waves cease. The prescription to do nothing is like the Irishman's account of how to make a gun—"Take a hole and pour iron around it." Until you pour your iron there is no hole.

So the first thing we learn is that the way of health is action. You have got to do something, to use the little strength you have, expend the income that is given you, in order to accumulate power or get well.

So we prescribe exercise, gymnastics, using the muscles, moving the arms and legs. And then we find that the exercise does no good, that going through a set of motions merely makes you tired and after a time bores you almost to extinction—in fact, it becomes a question whether life is worth living at such a cost, even if it could be so lived.

Then as you experiment you find that some motions are less boring than some others. There are combinations of move-

ment that seem to carry a certain satisfaction with them. You can jump with a chastened joy even when you are not jumping over anything. A muscle will do more, and take more interest in doing it, when it is working as a subordinate in some larger combination—particularly when the whole body is engaged.

But even making general, co-ordinated motions is still a somewhat dry pursuit. You cannot live by gesticulation even of the most satisfying sort. Pretty soon you find there is a mental element in healthful exercise. You are told that you must "enjoy yourself," "have a good time." And so you go yachting, take vacations, travel in Europe, frequent pleasure resorts. We have all of us seen the results of such attempts. Nothing in the long run seems to produce a deeper melancholy. The pursuit of pleasure is proverbially one in which the pursuer falls constantly behind.

Some people, however, have hit upon a device by which this sort of existence can be much improved. Young men, for instance, will go off into the woods with a pack and a canoe and an insufficient supply of food, get themselves lost, and then see whether they can get out again alive. In this way many successful experiments have been performed. As soon as the man is no longer seeking pleasure but trying with all his faculties to get out of the woods before he starves, he finds that there really begins to be a little fun in it.

There is evidently something in having to do the thing not for the pleasure there is in it but because for some reason or another it must be done. Subordination to a purpose you will find to be a standing requirement in the activity that gives life and health. The pursuit will not enter and build you up, will not lend its strength to you, unless you first lend your strength to it. It is not what you try to get out of a thing but what you put into it that is added to you. But it is not every kind of subordination that will make you well. Slaves are not particularly healthy, nor any people who are forced to drudge under exacting taskmasters.

Usually the best form of subordination is in conforming to the conditions of

some kind of service. Those who have had most experience, doctors as well as charity workers, agree that the thing that conduces most to health is work—work that is recognized and respected, and through which a person takes his part in the world and does his share.

Often—usually perhaps—such work is paid. But as charity workers know, being paid for it is not a necessary feature of the job that cures. A woman taking care of her family is made well by it. A child who does his lessons well in school is getting the same kind of benefit. Many child-helpers have told me that the very best thing for a boy or girl is having some definite duty to do at home which is recognized and respected. In old days the making good of the young citizen took a military form. The Roman took the *toga virilis*, the young Athenian became a "man" when he reached proficiency in the arts of war.

What is it that gives to work this healing property? It is the consciousness of making good. What happens to you when you get hold of a piece of useful work is the coming into your life of the sense of holding up your end, of being one of the team, a member in full standing, able to say: "We, the citizens of Boston, who carry on and constitute the city, think so and so."

In short, the healing power of work is in its gratification of the great play-instinct to belong—the instinct that makes the city and the state and is seen in boys' gangs and in the team. This team-instinct is the source of the necessity of making good and of the life that comes from doing so. The law of the team implies fulfillment of his part by every member, just as the law of the body makes this requirement of the lungs and the muscles and the rest. Are you the sort of stone that we can use or must you be rejected of the builders? We live according as we feel the requirement of society fulfilled in us, as the boy's life and satisfaction is in holding down third base. The initiations of college societies stand for a constant characteristic of every social whole. Birds will kill their lame comrade because their team sense will not allow them to aban-

don him, and his disability is a disability to the flock. As there is nothing that will kill faster than the consciousness of being a lame duck, a useless drag on the working members of society, so there is nothing that gives life like the sense of competency.

There is one important and very practical thing we can all do to heal the sick, through the action of this team-instinct to make good, which has so far been little recognized. Already we are doing much to get people into useful work. Industrial education, employment bureaus, associated charities, doctors, all are working to this end. The other thing we can all co-operate to do is to enlarge our conception of what constitutes useful work so as to include the service that the sick can render. Dr. James J. Putnam has written well and with authority upon this subject. The thing above all others that makes invalids, and prevents those who have once fallen behind in the race from getting well, is the fact that once put out of the running, once below the standard which enables a person to take his part in the industrial world, no other standard is provided. The invalid has no recognized duty to perform. There is nothing definite required of him, and no recognition is given to what he does.

Society like the individual has an invisible body toward which it tends. As any person so places himself as to fill out that form, he is received into it; he becomes a true member. The life of the whole passes through him and sustains him as the law of the cathedral thrills down through each detail, bursts out in the gargoyle here, restrains the pinnacle there, vibrates upward in the spire, and holds every stone in place. This invisible social body varies in its form. It exists in the minds of the people, and changes with their thought. It is the places that the public will, the people's conception, calls for, that can be filled, and in filling which a man partakes of the social life. There is a spiritual as well as a material demand and supply. Athens produced philosophers and artists because every citizen's conception of the body politic, because the real Athens of which the Parthenon and the Long Walls are but the material reflection included philoso-

phy and art. So Sparta produces soldiers, Rome administrators, Yale football-players. These fill out the unseen body, the invisible corporation that the members have projected in their hearts.

We must so extend our notions of what constitutes society that even these last, the invalids, are members of the team with a part assigned to them. We must learn to see so clearly that society's supreme duty is the soul's health of each that the neglect to attribute an honorable function, implying a moral demand, to any single member shall be abhorrent to us. We must in general feel that the invalid must and shall have his part, and in particular there is a task ahead of us in working out definitely for different classes of invalids and different individuals precisely what practical duties and responsibilities they can fulfill.

We must somehow say to the man that is down: "You are not left out; you as well as the rest have to hold up your end. Perhaps you are the one with the hardest task assigned. You are holding the line at its weakest point. You cannot contribute to material prosperity, but you can uphold the dignity of human nature where it is most imperiled."

And the part assigned to the invalid is indeed an important part. The regiment could never make a charge—there could never be a regiment at all—if those stricken down as it advances were not a part of it. It is because, whole or wounded, sick or well, alive or dead, they are a part of it, partakers of its acts, still advancing with it in their hearts, triumphing in its victory, that there can be such a thing as a regiment, an army, or a state. It is Dr. Putnam who has quoted in this connection Clough's verses:

If hopes were dupes, fears may be liars;
It may be, in yon smoke concealed,
Your comrades chase e'en now the fliers,
And, but for you, possess the field.

For while the tired waves, vainly breaking,
Seem here no painful inch to gain,
Far back, through creeks and inlets making,
Comes silent, flooding in, the main.

What real opportunities exist to be assigned in a given society depends on the opinion of its members as to the functions of that society. A man can be fully a member of a social body only if the part

which he can play is recognized. Heroic souls, it is true, can project their own society, can constitute through their own genius an ideal world and be sustained by it. But for the average sick soul, such a feat is beyond its strength. We shall have inspired invalids, and genius in homely forms, in proportion as the commonwealth we each carry in our hearts shall call for them. The creation of human personality in all its manifestations is an act of faith to which we all contribute or from which we may detract.

The vital potency of the belonging instinct is seen in many ways. It is said, for instance, that politicians never die—so potent to sustain is their function as official representatives of the community's team sense. Gladstone came very near to verifying that theory. When Balfour became a member of the House of Commons a long row of medicine bottles vanished from his shelf and have not reappeared. Methuselah I think was some sort of patriarch or political functionary.

In America the instinct is especially exuberant. Everyone you meet is either a Mason, an Odd Fellow, a Knight of some kind, a son or daughter of some great event, a pillar of a sewing circle or woman's club, or a member of the Grange, to which everyone belongs, including father. In the old days in Boston they used to have inoculation parties when young people would go down to an island in the harbor and be inoculated with the small-pox. So now we have, I believe, tuberculosis clubs; and I suppose that any health resort is more or less of a conspiracy among a lot of invalids to set up a standard of achievement attainable to themselves and lower than the impossible, and therefore discouraging one which prevails in the outside world of the robustious. The old Yankee word "jiner"—one who joins—is now descriptive of the American people as a whole.

Work itself may be made greatly more life-giving even than it is when, besides being the method whereby a man makes good as a member of society as a whole, it also affords him the sense of team play in the small immediate group with which he works. The great undeveloped

resource in this and every other country is the team sense of the workers. Socialism is utterly on the wrong track in trying to eliminate from industry the element of competition, with its satisfaction of one of the great play-instincts of mankind; it is on the right track in preaching co-operation. What we want, however, is not preaching but development of the capacity for co-operation by actual exercise. We want production by co-operative societies, participation by the workmen in the conduct of our corporations, co-operation of farmers in the buying of machinery and supplies and the sale of product, concrete participation in government by the extended application of the town meeting—in short, the utilization of the great human belonging faculty in our work as well as in our play. Team play in government and industry is the great neglected game and means of health.

As the muscle derives its health from serving in a combination with the whole body, as the body owes its health to serving the purposes of the mind, so the life and health of the whole organism depend on acting as a member of a larger whole. The team law compels each member to his place as the bodily law assigns its duty to each organ. And this law of the social whole thrills down into all the members of the individual until each feels the swing of the larger orbit and responds. No drop of blood can do its best work, can go singing on its way content and happy, unless the whole body serves the mind and the whole man is a servant to the social whole. We are, for better or worse, citizens, parts of a larger organism. Every tissue in us knows it. Our physical life depends upon our loyalty. It is true such service may bring death in battle or in the hospital, but it is also true that the absence of such service shuts out all hope of life.

But there are other kinds of play besides belonging. Olmsted, reporting his experience with the sanitary commission during the Civil War, said that systematic athletic recreation and the military bands had a great tendency to keep the soldiers well, while sending money home kept up their morale.

At the present time American athletic sports are driving out head-hunting in

the Philippines as being a more satisfying expression of the fighting impulse. Competition is one of the root instincts of mankind and the commonest element in all our games. To leave it out of the game of real life would be to make existence flat indeed. A race in which all receive the same prize—because though he did not win, little Johnnie ran his best—will not permanently appeal to any boy or man. To cut the connection between successful exertion and the result obtained is to lame the arithmetic of life and rob it of its normal satisfaction. No man will be either competent or satisfied when the element of competition is removed.

The simplest form of sport I have heard of, invented by a friend of mine when he had nervous prostration, was breathing. He told me it was the only thing that kept him alive. His invention did not consist of finding out that when your breath stops you die, but in learning that he could amuse himself by taking long breaths and letting them out very slowly with a hissing sound. This process, besides providing him an occupation, must have brought the additional satisfaction of being offensive to anyone in hearing. This is what the psychological students of play call "joy in being a cause"—and joy in being a nuisance is like unto it, and a very close second at that.

Some people I know always take Walter Scott for a cold. Some consider Trollope a more effective prescription; I believe, however, in reserving his *Barchester* and Parliamentary series for longer illnesses.

I remember that one time when I was sick a niece of mine gave me a Japanese straw badger, and she fixed him with one of his arms up in the air so as to present a cheerful and enterprising aspect. He was, I think, the first incarnation of Denry the Audacious, Mr. Bennet's late creation. I think in my case it was that badger that pulled me through, though the cure was shared by a nurse who kept me doing things so that I was always looking forward to the next stunt, and a Japanese bird of a cheerful and adequate personality hung in a Christmas wreath.

Just seeing pleasant things is a potent means of health. That is why girls make such good friendly visitors. Remember also Kipling's lighthouse man who went crazy because the steamers made streaks in his water. When he got on board a ship where the lines ran all kinds of ways, he began to feel better at once. When you have been in a city, where everything goes at right angles, you can feel the vital currents leap up again when you go out and see rounded tree-tops and sloping hills. The seashore is good if you do not take too much. But most people, I think, would die of it if they could not get where there was something besides gray colors and horizontal lines. Traveling would really be as good for us as it is supposed to be if you did not have to die first—that is, cut off all your other means of life in order to indulge in it.

I remember associated charity cases in which the cure was wrought by taking the patient out into the country, or even on a walk along Washington street to see the shops. Perhaps in the Washington street case there was also the element of the football tactics required in order to win through that thoroughfare.

Next to the play of the eyes there is the play of the hand. Man is a creature of the hand. He was built back from it as a river is said to grow backwards from its mouth. It was from the beginning of his career as man his point of issue, the business end of him, what the jaws are to the wolf, the claws to the cat. As he first grew up from it, he can be restored through reverting to its use. Man is primarily a manipulator. Perhaps man and manual mean for practical purposes the same. His mind and temperament are built on manipulation and are tuned to it. In a few years from now you will find in every hospital manual occupation provided, fitted to the strength and talents of the different patients.

I believe the greatest neglected source of health is in the rhythmic instinct. Its first and simplest expression, and its completest for most people, is in dancing. The mistake we usually make is to suppose that dancing is for young people only. The right age to learn to dance is

the age you happen to be; but the best age for the use of the accomplishment is from about fifty on. The instinct is as strong in the later as in the earlier part of life, and the need of using it is greater in proportion as we tend to become stiff in the joints both of our body and mind. I think the National Conference of Charities should have its folk dances as well as its baseball. You know the last part of the story of the grasshopper and the ant—which has unfortunately been omitted from all editions heretofore—is that the grasshopper took the ant's advice, danced through the winter, and came out in better shape than the ant, who had been sitting all the time over a stove. Then there is music, the dancing of the mind, which has restored many, from the age of Saul down to the present.

The most important play is play of the mind. All play is play of the soul—the active projection of the man himself as a force in the universe of action. But man is a thinking animal. It is that little head of his that has won out against claw and horn and tooth. And it is the exercise of the mind that sounds the glad sources of his strength and shows him as the gladiator he is.

The mental element is in all play, but most in art and science, and these are the best play of man and the most health-giving. We keep our children now too many hours in school and too many hours doing nothing while there. But school, rightly conducted, is as important to health as outdoor play. And in later years the mental kind of play becomes increasingly valuable. The lawyer is on the average healthier than the prize-fighter, and a man can live longer on music than he can on golf.

Back of this whole treatment, the secret of every cure through play, is the truth that the way to win life is by living it; the way for anyone to extend his personality is by acting out the personality he has. Here, next the human body, actually absorbed into it or ready to be absorbed, are cells and other molecules sitting round waiting to see what kind of sport you have to offer them. Is your invitation worth accepting, is the kind of game they see going on

there one that is worth their while to join? Can you get up such an excitement, such a rush and concourse of those who have already joined, that the on-looker is swept along in the contagion, compelled irresistibly to take a part? The game of health is like getting up a dance or a picnic. You must go in with a vim and a whoop if you want others to join with you. It is the big fire that spreads. Or it is like the method adopted by Mark Twain's Tom Sawyer when he had to whitewash the fence. You remember that he did his whitewashing with such gusto and artistic appreciation of his job, that the other boys, instead of pitying him, actually parted with their treasures—even to a dead rat with a string to swing it by that one of them was so happy as to possess—to buy a chance to do his work for him. Now Tom Sawyer is the sort of microbe you must have in your system in order to attract the rest. And it is you yourself—the actual you that deliberates and acts—who by the zest and interest of the work you assign to them can give to those already enlisted this triumphant and enticing character.

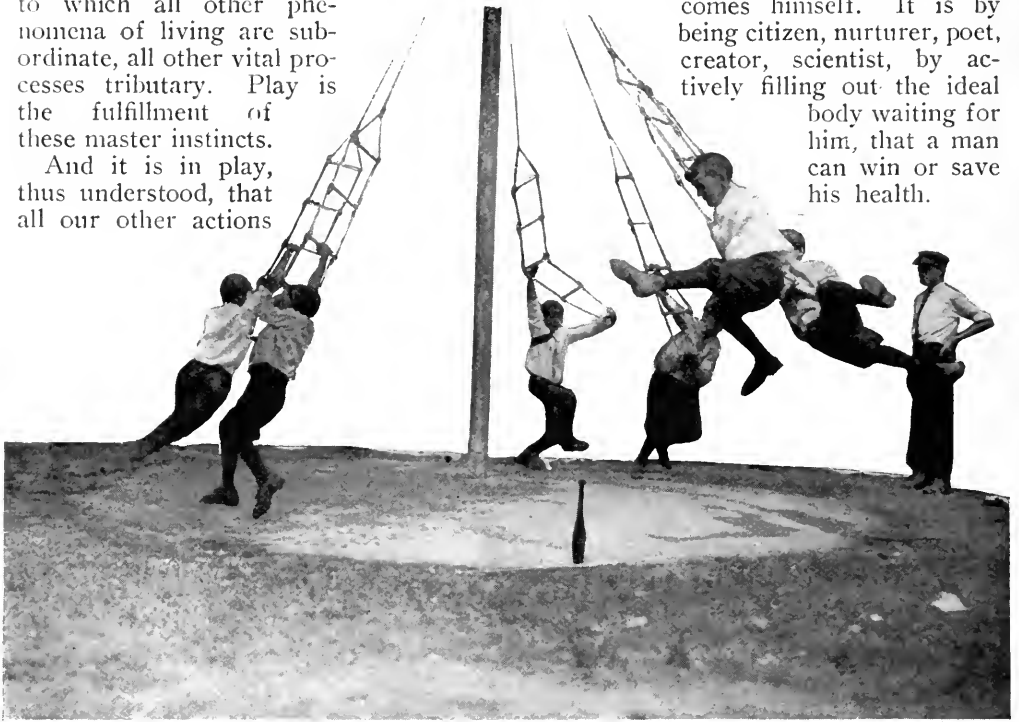
Of course I have not undertaken to cover the entire ground of play and show the use of every kind as medicine. I have merely indicated some of the chief veins that may be worked. It is not every kind of dance that is given to a human being to perform. My own list of the play-instincts which are the constituting purposes of man is: creation, rhythm, hunting, fighting, nurture, curiosity, team play. Of hunting, fighting, and nurture, not spoken of above, it may be briefly said that we all know the therapeutic value of the chasing games and of going fishing, of the games of contest and of a good scrap; while having some living thing to take care of, if it is only a dog or a geranium, is the best, and fortunately the best understood, prescription for keeping almost any woman alive and well.

This list is doubtless incomplete. I give it as a contribution to the notion we ought to be forming of the general outline of that spiritual body which it is given to man to attain. Upon the rec-

ognition that there is such a spiritual body and the successful exploration of its form the future of all social, educational, and medical work mainly depends. There are certain words written in our hearts that are the master words, that contain the possibilities of life for us. These are the ultimates, the things in which our actual life consists, to which all other phenomena of living are subordinate, all other vital processes tributary. Play is the fulfillment of these master instincts.

And it is in play, thus understood, that all our other actions

find their cause and justification. We use the expression "full play" for a thing that is acting as nature meant it to. The emotions play, the fountain plays, meaning the thing fulfills its function in the world. And so of man. Play is the word that best covers the things which he as man was wound up to do, in the doing of which he finds his soul, becomes himself. It is by being citizen, nurturer, poet, creator, scientist, by actively filling out the ideal body waiting for him, that a man can win or save his health.



JEWISH IMMIGRANTS AS TOBACCO-GROWERS AND DAIRYMEN

ALEXANDER E. CANCE

EXPERT IN CHARGE OF THE REPORT OF THE UNITED STATES IMMIGRATION COMMISSION ON RECENT IMMIGRANTS IN AGRICULTURE

Ellington, Conn., is a characteristic and picturesque old New England town, lying just east of the Connecticut valley about twenty miles northeast of Hartford, with which it has easy communication both by trolley and by steam trains over the New York, New Haven, and Hartford railroad. The western part of the town, which retains the char-

acteristic features of the valley agriculture, is a beautiful farming area, devoted principally to tobacco cultivation.

The town, of course, was settled a great many years ago, and until rather recent years the entire population was of New England stock. The old, substantially built houses, large barns and outbuildings, and fine yards with their

rows of great elms and maples give evidence of thrift and prosperity. Few rural towns in the state present a more favorable appearance than Ellington.¹

The Ellington settlement of Jews consisted in 1909 of sixteen farm families of Russian Jews operating fourteen farms in Ellington, four farms and families in Vernon township, and about the same number in East Windsor town-

ship. At present the total number of Jewish farm families is twenty-one, all of them engaged in dairying or tobacco-growing or both.

The Jews have settled in this community since 1904. They are nearly all of the better class of Russian Jews, practically all of them men who were independent proprietors at home and who were able to bring with them from \$2,000 to \$10,000 for investment in land and equipment. Taken by and large they represent the best type of Jewish farmers investigated for the immigration commission. Their investments both in land and improvements, in capital equipment and in labor expenditure per farm are greater, their returns larger, and their general farming efficiency more advanced than in most other Jewish colonies. A hasty visit to the community in the fall of 1911 found



A JEWISH FARMSTEAD.

A fine old New England farm home. The buildings and surroundings are substantial, spacious, picturesque; but few of the Jewish farmers do much to preserve the beauty of these fine homes.

the colony prospering. In two years there had been added a few new members, a number of new buildings—tobacco barns and silos—some additional stock, new machinery, and a great deal of confident assurance in the possibilities of agriculture in New England.

It has become customary to deride the agricultural pretensions of the Jew, to dismiss them with the remark that

inherently the Jews are inferior farmers, and that Jewish farm colonies cannot succeed unless assisted by some industrial or manufacturing enterprise. And on the whole it can be shown that financially assisted settlements, stimulated by philanthropists and established on raw land not immediately productive, with very little equipment and no reserve capital, have failed sooner or later—usually sooner—in instances distressingly numerous.

The successful founding of the Ellington community and its continued prosperity may be ascribed to several causes. In the first place, the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society has greatly assisted the newcomers, not so much by actual loans as by practical advice both in the purchase of farms and in farm practice. In fact, several farms were chosen and the price and terms of purchase determined upon through the instrumentality of the society. Owing to this timely assistance few men paid too dearly for their land or made serious cultural mistakes at the outset.

¹The material facts used in this paper, which is the third in a series by Alexander E. Cance on agricultural immigrant groups in the United States, were gathered by the author while investigating immigrant communities in New England for the United States Immigration Commission. Previous articles were: *Piedmontese on the Mississippi*, September 2, 1911; *Slav Farmers on the "Abandoned Farm" Area of Connecticut*, October 7, 1911. Price for each issue, 25 cents.



THE HOME OF A RECENT PURCHASER.

The owner began as a farm laborer and with his earnings and some assistance from the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society purchased a few acres of land, mostly wooded, with a small house and barn on it.



A TYPICAL FARMSTEAD OF THE SECOND GROUP.

When purchased these buildings were run down and dilapidated. The land has been improved but the buildings remain unrepaired. The silo has been built within two years.



A NEWLY BUILT TOBACCO BARN.

Note the peculiar open-ventilation structure. Three good horses on a riding plow is usual. The Jewish farmers operate modern machines and implements.

Then the land, although in several instances somewhat run down, is easily made productive. It is well situated both physically and with respect to markets. Comparatively large, smooth, open fields of fairly fertile soil, capable of yielding a fine quality of tobacco or excellent grass, assured the industrious settlers a cash income from the beginning.

The character of the men is perhaps more important than the quality of the soil. The first arrivals were farmers of experience and intelligence, who came from more difficult farming sections of Connecticut. One went into dairying, selling his milk at retail in Rockville; he has been very successful from the first. The other purchased an old farm of 140 acres that had been practically abandoned for years, and although tillable had become foul with weeds and wire-grass. He raised tobacco and produced milk for the Hartford market. In 1909 he was cultivating seventy acres of land and producing, in gross value, \$4,000 worth of dairy and vegetable products annually; his labor and fertilizer bill for 1908 was \$1,125. Many of the others are men of business acumen and capacity for managing labor and capital—refugees from Russia who left responsible positions in business, agriculture, or trade because of persecution. Very few homeless, penniless Jews have sought to purchase land in the vicinity. The most casual observer driving along the roads on which their farms are situated, and noting the great tobacco sheds, dairy houses, modern equipment, and herds of cows, is impressed with the fact that they have put money into agriculture as a productive investment; they are commercial farmers and look for no mere subsistence only; they expect handsome returns.

For these reasons the Russian Jew in Ellington in most respects compares very favorably with his German-Swiss or American neighbors. Since 1890 about twenty-five families of German-Swiss have purchased farms from native New Englanders and engaged in dairying and tobacco-growing. On the same road, within a distance of two

miles, some six or more Jews have bought out well-to-do owners, who sold the farms on which they had lived, raised good crops, and made improvements for a life-time. They sold to Jews and Swiss because their children had left them and the labor problem had become so acute that it was difficult to keep up the farm and make a living on it.

The improvements in the way of large houses, good barns, adequate fences, extensive yards, and fine tree-bordered roads and grounds are excellent. This group is situated on a very well kept, main-travelled road. They vary in size from eighty to 265 acres, about two-thirds tillable land in mowing, cultivated crops, and tame pasture and about one-third in woodland, wild pasture, and meadow. Most of this land possesses a fertile soil—a light clay or fine, sandy loam—in contour rolling and well drained, much of it adapted to tobacco, and held at \$60 to \$70 an acre. The Jewish farms are sandwiched in between German-Swiss and native New England farm homes of the very best type. One of the farmers on this road sold from his place produce—tobacco, rye, milk, and live stock—amounting in value to nearly \$7,000 in 1908; his expenditures for labor amounted to \$1,500. In 1910 he sold nearly \$6,000 worth of tobacco, besides milk from a herd of twenty or more cows, potatoes, and other products; his expenditures for labor and fertilizer, which he buys in carload lots, are increasing every year.

A second group of Jewish farms is located about one mile back from the first at the base of a sandy, gravelly ridge, in a neighborhood more isolated. Here eight years ago were half a dozen or more semi-abandoned farms, once well-tilled, but for several years permitted to fall into decay. On each of them a few acres out of a possible sixty or seventy were cultivated in potatoes, corn, or rye, and a few cows or hogs were kept, but there was little or no farming for profit, and the section seemed to be rapidly declining. The land is rough, the soil stony and in part composed of coarse sand. The farms were purchased cheaply, since the

soil was less fertile, the buildings in poor repair, and much of the land was growing up to brush and briars. Some purchases were made for \$15 an acre, most of them for \$25 to \$40, in tracts of 100 to 150 acres. Aside from the comparatively small acreage of woodland, nearly all the land is capable of cultivation.

In this vicinity Russian Jews picked up with avidity practically all the farms on the market; and although all the houses and barns do not give one that impression, probably greater progress in restoration and improvement has been made on some of these farms than on any in the neighborhood within the past few years.

Considering both groups of settlers, the farms of the Jews do not differ in acreage from the general average of the town, and the types of agriculture pursued are very similar to those followed by the German or the native American husbandman. The Swiss holdings average perhaps a little less per farm, but every bit of available land on a Swiss farm is in cultivation.

The two crops of universal commercial interest are tobacco and Irish potatoes. Every man whose soil is at all adapted to it raises tobacco, but there are no large growers—the maximum tobacco area per farm is twenty to twenty-five acres, the average six to ten; the yield ranges from 1400 to 2000 pounds per acre. It does not appear that the Jews produce less pounds per acre or that on the whole the quality of the cured leaf is inferior to the average in the vicinity.

Tobacco requires careful cultivation and close attention from planting to shipment. Perhaps no crop is more susceptible to meteorological changes or subject to attack by more diseases or pests. Excessive heat, frost, drought, over-abundance of moisture, wind, hail, a myriad of insects and diseases, and, finally, the fickle fancy of the consumer,—all seem in league against the grower. Unfamiliar with tobacco cultivation, the Jews have met these difficulties and obstacles with varying degrees of success. They employ the most modern machinery and equipment, invest in



A NEW ENGLAND SCHOOL-HOUSE.

A district school in the Jewish and German Swiss neighborhood. The Jews do not find educational facilities to their satisfaction in the rural districts.

ample tobacco barns of the usual type—hundreds of feet of barns have been built since 1904—apply high-grade fertilizers, and make large expenditures of labor. In short, they seem to have adopted the best methods in vogue in the vicinity, but to have introduced no innovations.

Potatoes as a money crop are not a main reliance. The soil is favorable, but in general tobacco is more profitable; and although potatoes are harvested after the tobacco is housed, during the period of cultivation tobacco and potatoes are really competing crops.

Most of the other crops—corn, oats, hay, stover, and ensilage—are accompaniments of the dairy industry into which both Jews and Swiss have entered rather extensively. Their herds range from five to twenty-five cows, some of them good milkers, but few well-bred; most of the herds exhibit traces of several different breeds of dairy and beef cattle. The product sold is milk, which is disposed of, either at wholesale or retail, in Rockville or Hartford, or as butter-fat to one of the two local creameries. It is questionable whether the dairy industry is profitable even under the very favorable marketing conditions which exist; but the dairy income runs from \$200 to \$1,500 per farm, annually, in addition to the large quantity of milk, cream, and butter consumed by the family.



A HERD ON ONE OF THE FARMS.

Dairying is an important sub-industry, but the cows are usually "scrubs" or grades. A herd may be made up of several different breeds of cattle. The landscape shows the gently rolling topography of the district.

The investment in horses, tools, implements, vehicles, and farm machines is larger and the equipment more modern and complete than on many American farms. It has been difficult and increasingly expensive to obtain sufficient farm laborers; hence, where the improved area is large enough, the substitution of machinery for manual labor has been going on for some time. But at best a great deal of human labor is required in dairying and tobacco-growing—a situation which the Jews have been able to meet by employing fellow-countrymen who have recently arrived. One or two of these incipient farm laborers have later purchased small, unimproved farms in the neighborhood.

The average Jewish farmer does not pay as much attention to repairs on fences or buildings, to the care and housing of tools, to painting his buildings, trimming his trees, gathering up trash and litter, in fine, to keeping up appearances and improvements, as his American or German-Swiss neighbor. Very often one can pick out the farmstead of a Jew by the disorder, unkempt appearance, and general dilapidation of the premises. This is partly due to a lack of aesthetic pride in his surround-

ings, in part to the rather recent occupation of the farms by the Jews. Prosperity assured, it is likely that the examples of careful neighbors will lead to improvement in this regard later on. It is unfortunate that this neglect of his premises detracts much from the thrifty aspect and market value of several Jewish farms and gives one an unfavorable impression, not always deserved, of Hebrew agriculture. In the midst of general prosperity and neighbors who take pride in the appearance of their farm houses the Jewish farmstead is at times unfavorably conspicuous. One who has visited many foreign communities, however, is impressed with the superiority of the Ellington farms in this regard.

Marketing conditions are unusually favorable; Rockville, two miles away, furnishes an adequate local market for perishable products; transportation facilities are excellent; shipping stations are located within two miles of nearly every farmer and the wagon roads are usually in good condition. The tobacco market has for years been unsatisfactory, but it is not shown that the Gentile grower suffers less than the Jew.

One of the very few distinctively

Jewish organizations, formed for economic assistance and protection, is a co-operative society known as the Connecticut Jewish Farmers' Association. Its existence grew out of the need for some organization to bring the farmers into touch with each other, and out of the attitude of some of the Jewish farmers toward the grange. Apparently the local grange, though willing to admit certain Jews to membership, was unwilling to admit all the Yiddish farmers, who wanted to join as a body, if at all. Some of the Jews felt they were *personae non gratae* with the grangers and in 1908 formed an organization of their own. Twenty-one Jewish farmers are members.

Thus far little co-operative selling has been done, but some purchases of fertilizer and spraying material have been profitably made. The greatest benefits that accrue are social. Both men and women are members; meetings are held weekly in winter and semi-monthly in summer, and do much to promote social good-fellowship and class consciousness among the members. An arbitration committee of five members, empowered to settle, out of court, disputes between members, has within it the possibility of doing much to prevent bad feeling and save costs of litigation. The members seem to think this a very important feature.

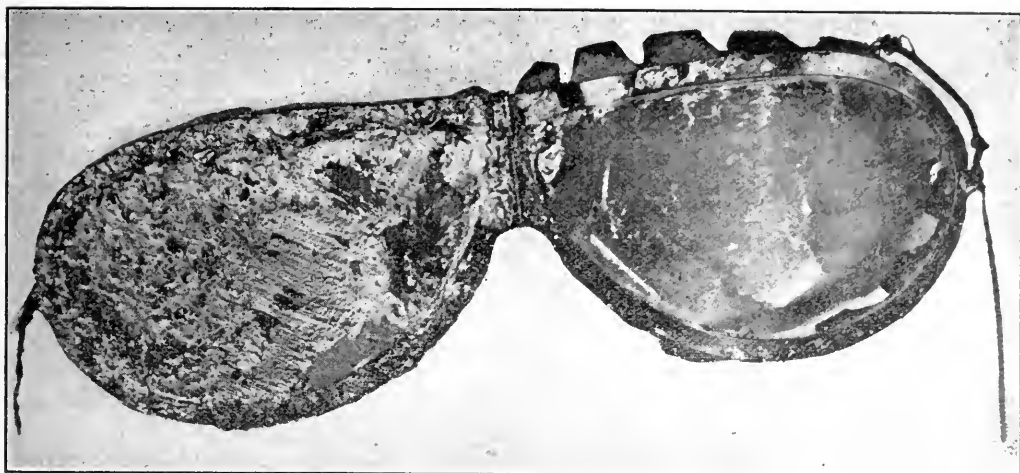
The standard of living is comparatively high in the greater number of families. They lived well at home and are living well here. Most of the men and a large part of the women understand and speak English. The younger people, whether born in the United States or abroad, have all learned to speak our language. The fact that there is no Jewish synagogue, school, or other institution (except the farmers' society), and that there is no real "colony" or segregated settlement of Jews in the strict sense, has aided greatly in breaking down racial traditions and customs and hastening Americanization.

It is characteristic that all seem eager to give their children the best education possible, and one of the most common complaints is the lack of adequate school facilities. The public schools near Ellington are as good as the aver-

age and have satisfied rural Connecticut for years. But they do not satisfy the Hebrew farmer. Some take their children into Rockville every morning; others contemplate sending their sons and daughters to the Hartford high school. The instruction in the district schools is not very satisfactory and, of course, does not extend beyond the eighth grade. Some Americans laugh at the educational pretensions of the Hebrews, but there is no prejudice manifested against the children in school, nearly every one of whom seems to give a good account of himself. There are practically no illiterates among those interviewed, and some are very well educated.

Morally they stand in good report among the members of the community. No crimes have been committed and few civil suits have arisen. In fine, most of them are honest, industrious, law-abiding people, who intend to become citizens and permanent residents of the town. They wish to become Americans, to educate their children in American ways for American positions of profit and honor. They revere the old traditions, but they desire to step out of the "foreign" class as soon as possible.

Opportunity to attain these things is afforded in Ellington in greater degree than in many places. Here are found a fertile soil, good marketing facilities, large possibilities for the educated practical farmer. There is no real segregation by race. Nearly every Jew has a neighbor on some side who is a non-Jew. There have been no intermarriages, but the religious restraints are much less strong than in many localities, and in many respects Jew and Gentile meet on the same social footing. Prejudice, once very much in evidence, is dying out and the Hebrew farmer is making himself respected. In Ellington he is a farmer, not a summer-boarder agriculturalist, nor a combined Jewish peddler, cattle trader, and "moss back." The settlement is still in its infancy, but the impression gained by even a few days' contact with these men is decidedly hopeful and favorable in almost every respect.



ONE BLIND MAN THE LESS.

Goggles encrusted with babbit metal. If the employe had not worn the goggles, he would undoubtedly have lost both eyes. As it was, he escaped with a slight burn on the face.

THE HUMAN SIDE OF LARGE OUTPUTS

STEEL AND STEEL WORKERS IN SIX AMERICAN STATES

II

ILLINOIS: BOOSTING FOR SAFETY

SAFETY PHOTOGRAPHS: COURTESY UNITED STATES STEEL CORPORATION

JOHN A. FITCH

MEMBER STAFF (1907-8) PITTSBURGH SURVEY

The first steel rail made in America was rolled at the works of the North Chicago Rolling Mill Company. Outstripped for a generation thereafter in steel output as it had been in iron, Chicago is today forging to the front as one of the greatest steel producing centers in America. On the north is the American Steel and Wire Company's mill at Waukegan; in South Chicago are the plants of several minor concerns, besides the immense works of the Illinois Steel Company; at the southwest is Joliet with plants of importance; on the south shore of Lake Michigan is Indiana Harbor, with a plant of the Inland Steel Company, an independent, and, finally, Gary itself. The supremacy in steel will not pass from Pittsburgh to Chicago tomorrow, nor the day after; but no one can blink the fact that already this section is producing an enormous tonnage. Not less than 30,000 men are

employed in the reduction of ore and in making, working, and fabricating steel.

A good many reasons have been given for the stride forward taken in the past ten years by the lower Lake Michigan steel district. One is the nearness to the Minnesota ore fields. Another is the Illinois coal mines. Neither of these seem adequate, for ore can be transported with almost equal cheapness anywhere on the Great Lakes, and there is no coal so adapted to coking as that from the Connellsville district, near Pittsburgh. The real reason would seem to be the development of the West, where new railroads are being built, cities are growing, sky-scrapers going up. There is need of a mid-western manufacturing and distributing point commensurate with the demand for steel, and the Chicago plants have grown in answer to that need, just as there is pros-

pect today of the development of Duluth as a manufacturing and distributing point still further to the north and west.

In Chicago the biggest and most important manufacturer of steel is the Illinois Steel Company. And it is not only the biggest in Chicago, but the biggest in the West. With plants at Milwaukee, Joliet, Chicago, and Gary, it employs in normal times about 25,000 men. It was the Illinois Steel Company that built the Gary steel plant, with its own men, and now that it is built, the Illinois Steel Company is operating it.¹

The South Works of the Illinois Steel Company employed 6,000 men in 1900—before it was taken over by the U. S. Steel Corporation. Today, when the plant is on full time, it employs 10,000 to 11,000. Since 1900 three blast furnaces have been added to the eight then in blast, a second open-hearth department with fourteen furnaces has been constructed, more than doubling the capacity for open-hearth steel. There have been added two blooming mills, two structural mills, and a universal plate mill.

It is a great plant, extending for two miles along the shore of the lake—one of the greatest plants in the world. But many South Chicago people think that it might have been very much larger. The town and plant at Gary would never have been built, they declare, if South Chicago had been rightfully treated.

"The big plant would have been built here instead of at Gary", a bluff old South Chicago citizen explained to me, "if it hadn't been for a damn little cuss of a public works commissioner, under a Democratic mayor we had, named Dunne. . . . This fellow was a Socialist and he thought he was bigger than the people of Chicago."

The Commissioner in question was Joseph Medill Patterson, formerly one of the editors of the *Chicago Tribune*, a successful playwright, and author of several well known books. His offense consisted in trying to enforce the law. It seems that the South

Chicago plant, being surrounded on three sides by property not owned by the company, could expand only in one direction—into the lake. So for many years slag was dumped into the lake for filling, and new land slowly made. There was no legal sanction for such appropriation of the lake bottom and when, during Mayor Dunne's administration, the company wished to start new construction, Commissioner Patterson refused a permit and started suit to recover the land already built upon beyond the old shore line. This stopped expansion for a time and the Gary plant was started afterward. But one has only to look at the Gary plant, extending two or three miles along the lake, and in from the shore for a mile, to realize how impossible it would have been to build so great an industrial establishment at South Chicago on made land.

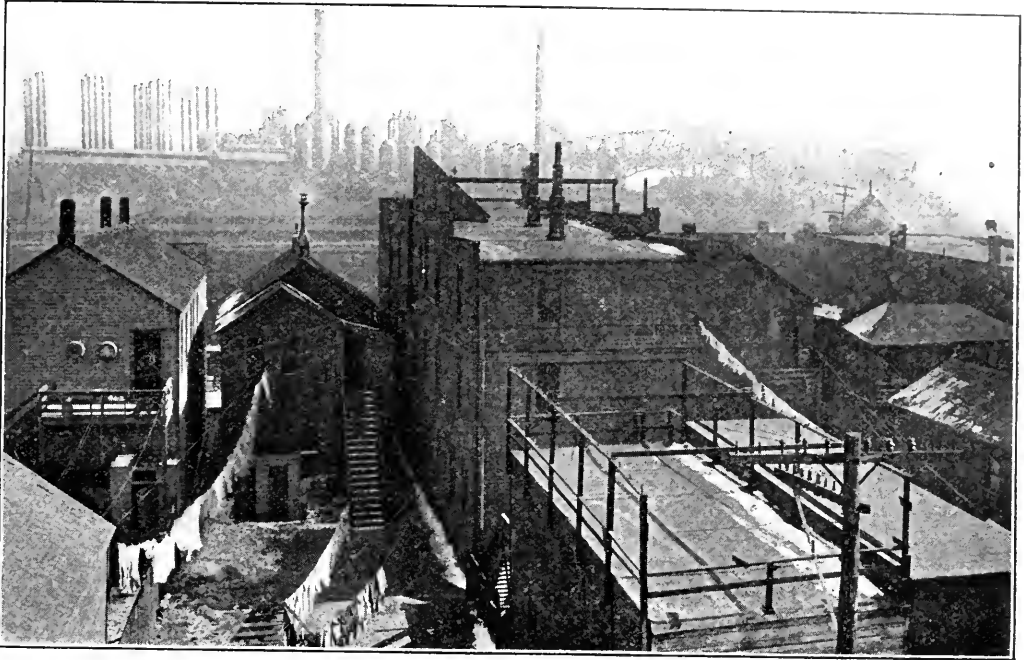
There is no need to record again the tremendous engineering feats necessary to the creation of the Gary plant in 1906 and after. The story has been told often enough of how the tracks of a half-dozen railroads were picked up and flung a few miles to the south, of how a river was moved, how hills and trees were eliminated and a harbor was dredged fit to accommodate the great ore boats, and finally how a city was built, paved and sewered and lighted, where there had been the day before but a waste of sand dunes.

There were 6,000 men in the plant when I visited it last winter. I would not have guessed that there were a third of that number, the plant and the machinery are so big and overpowering. The enormous ore unloaders, skeleton-like, uncanny, where two men do the work that fifty used to do; the blast furnaces, among the biggest in the country, so automatic that the labor force is 25 per cent less than the average for blast furnaces; the spaciousness of the great sheds with their high roofs—all tend to give impressiveness to the plant.

To this plant has been gathered an army of men. Skilled and unskilled they have come, native and alien, Teuton, Celt, and Slav. English-speaking men and men who speak in strange tongues; men

¹The Indiana Steel Company is the company that owns the Gary plant—on paper—and the Illinois Steel Company is the lessee. But both companies occupy the same offices in Chicago and have the same officers.

THE CIVIC PROBLEM OF THE PEOPLE WHO LIVE IN SOUTH CHICAGO.
THE STEEL PLANT IS A CLOSE SECOND TO GARY : WHAT ABOUT REHABILITATING THE TOWN?
THERE ARE ATTRACTIVE SECTIONS, BUT THERE ARE ALSO SOME OF THE WORST CONGESTED DISTRICTS
IN ALL CHICAGO.



Looking East Toward the Illinois Steel Plant Over Roofs of the Immigrant Quarter.



who have fed furnaces in Pittsburgh, who have pulled levers at Lackawanna, who have riveted cars at Johnstown, pulled scrap from the shears at Pueblo, or bossed negro gangs in Birmingham. And men have come, too, from farms and hamlets of Bohemia and Hungary, Servia and Montenegro, come to a new world to new work, to machines and wonders of which they never before had dreamed—to new opportunity.

Thus a new plant and a new community has been formed, without tradition, without old scores, with no past, only a future. There was here no Irish turbulence at the blast furnaces; there were no stubborn Welch puddlers to reckon with. The stolid Slavs are taking care of the giant stacks and the puddling furnaces are no more.

Gary is probably destined to be greater in the annals of steel making than South Chicago, because the construction engineers had before them the mistakes of years in other plants. What South Chicago has found was wrong and has had to patch up, Gary has avoided through construction. The straight hauls at Gary, the iron ore starting at one end of the plant and the finished material coming out at the other, the lack of congestion, the broad gauge tracks instead of the "dinkeys", the powerful engines, the enormous cranes—all are suggestive of economy and speed.

"If", said an official of the plant, "we do not make steel more cheaply here at Gary than anywhere else in America, the building of the plant will not have been justified."

Gary's five-year story is a thrilling one. South Chicago's advance has been less exciting because, like Rome, it was not built in a day. Steel was first made at the South Works in 1882 and the growth since then has been steady and non-spectacular. Yet without the leaps and bounds in growth which have challenged the attention of the world at Gary, the South Chicago plant has developed until amazing deeds are matters of daily occurrence. From eleven blast furnaces 4500 tons of iron are tapped every twenty-four hours, more than 400 tons to each furnace. The Bessemer and

open-hearth departments together produce 240 tons of steel every hour, while the rail mill turns out every day forty miles of eighty-pound rails, enough for twenty miles of track. It is not in Pittsburgh alone that big things are done.

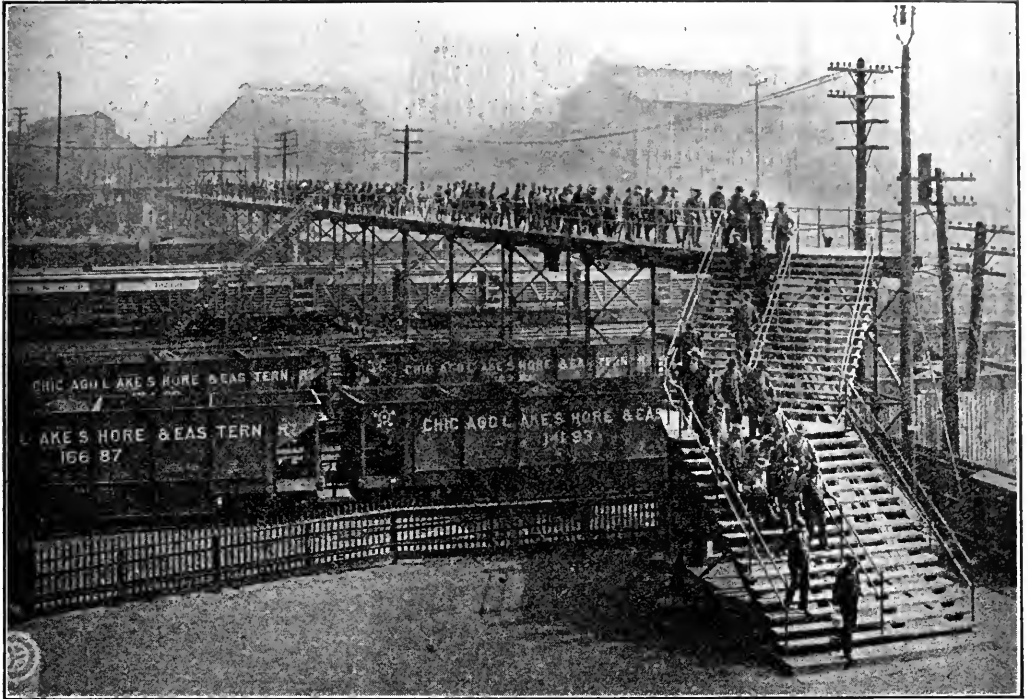
The growth of a great plant, the sudden springing into being of another, and the mechanical efficiency of both are very impressive. But of greater significance is the force that gives effectiveness to both plant and machine—managerial efficiency. A group of men of unusual capacity for organization and leadership are directing the development and operation of these remarkable plants, and this is more important than any machinery, however automatic and useful.

It is this leadership and the efficiency of compact organization that is the great thing about the Illinois Steel Company, for it has to its credit an achievement more important than the installing of new engines or beating the tonnage record of the world or building a city overnight. It has to its credit a record of human conservation. It has not made its plants absolutely safe. There will always be danger in making steel. But it is playing a leading part in putting a stop to that mad waste of life and limb that four years back made the steel industry a hell.

The Illinois Steel Company had had a Safety Department at its South Works for a good many years prior to 1908. For a good many years men had reported on unsafe conditions and recommended improvements. But nevertheless for many years the accident and death roll of the plant was a shocking revelation of the feebleness of human economy in plant operation. In 1906, forty-six men lost their lives in the South Chicago mill. To quote William Hard:¹

Twelve of them were killed in the neighborhood of blast furnaces. One was hurled out of life by a stick of dynamite. Three of them were electrocuted. Three of them were killed by falls from high places. Four of them were struck on their heads by falling objects. Four of them were burned to death by hot metal in the Bessemer converter department. Three of them were crushed to death.

¹Making Steel and Killing Men. *Everybody's Magazine*, November, 1907.



SAFETY BEGINS AT THE MILL.

Viaduct over railway yards at 89th street gate, South Works. The viaduct makes it unnecessary for the men to risk their lives on the congested tracks.

One was suffocated by the gas from a gas producer. One of them was thrown from an ore bridge by a high wind. One of them was hit by a red-hot rail. One of them was scorched to death by slag. And ten of them were killed by railroad cars or by railroad locomotives.

Hard published his article in November, 1907. The next spring a new policy was inaugurated by the Illinois Company. A closer organization was effected and all of the plants brought into harmony in an effective, determined campaign for safety. In 1910 fourteen men instead of forty-six lost their lives at the South Works. In this new campaign a spirit of enthusiasm, effective and unique, was set on foot. A Central Committee of Safety was formed, consisting today of the safety inspector and the assistant general superintendent from each plant, an official from the statistical department who acts as secretary, and a representative of the legal department in charge of personal injury matters. The general attorney of the company acts as chairman of the committee.

In each plant two classes of safety committees were formed, workmen's committees and permanent committees. Each of the larger plants is divided into three or four divisions and in each division three workmen are appointed to serve two months and look out for the safety of the division. They spend one day each two weeks looking for dangerous places and talking with the men in order to get suggestions as to safety. The permanent committees are made up of groups of foremen. There is a permanent committee for each department which inspects the department once each month to see that safety devices have been installed and to investigate accidents.

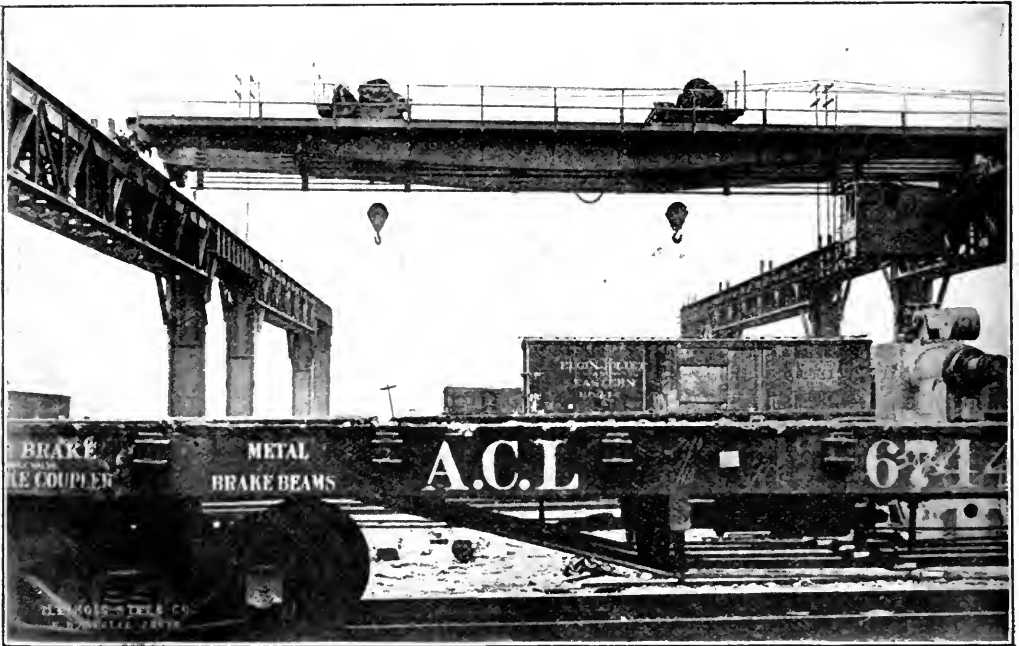
The scope and effectiveness of the work of this safety organization is notable. The inspections are far more searching than the factory inspection work of any of our state governments. The workmen's committees are followed up by the permanent committees and both by the chief inspector, and his work in

turn is checked by the chairman and secretary of the Central Safety Committee. Special workmen's committees are appointed now and then to inspect other plants for new ideas, and in each department skilled experts, not members of the committee, make inspections from time to time.

The central committee is working out standard safety devices and rules and no new machinery is installed unless approved by the safety experts. No blue print is allowed to leave the drafting

foremen, and men, of resistance to unsafe methods. It is a new spirit and one destined to accomplish incalculable good. By ingenious methods the spirit is fostered and made to grow. The slogan is "Boost for Safety", and everybody boosts. It is a contagious thing. One of the safety men said to me, "Why, I can't pass an obstruction on the sidewalk any more. I've got to stop and throw it off."

This new, organized, and resourceful attack upon the danger zones of produc-



OVERHEAD TRAVELLING CRANE.

All overhead cranes are provided with railed walks on both bridges the entire length of the crane. Each crane is also equipped with guards extending out from the truck wheels, the purpose being to warn a person working on a scaffold, and resting his hand on the rail of the approach of the crane.

room until it has been checked for safety. Foremen are examined from time to time on their knowledge of safety rules and a foreman who persistently fails to familiarize himself with them is discharged or transferred.

With Chairman Campbell of the Central Safety Committee of the Illinois company I went through the South Chicago and Gary plants, and I was everywhere impressed with the spirit that prevails among superintendents,

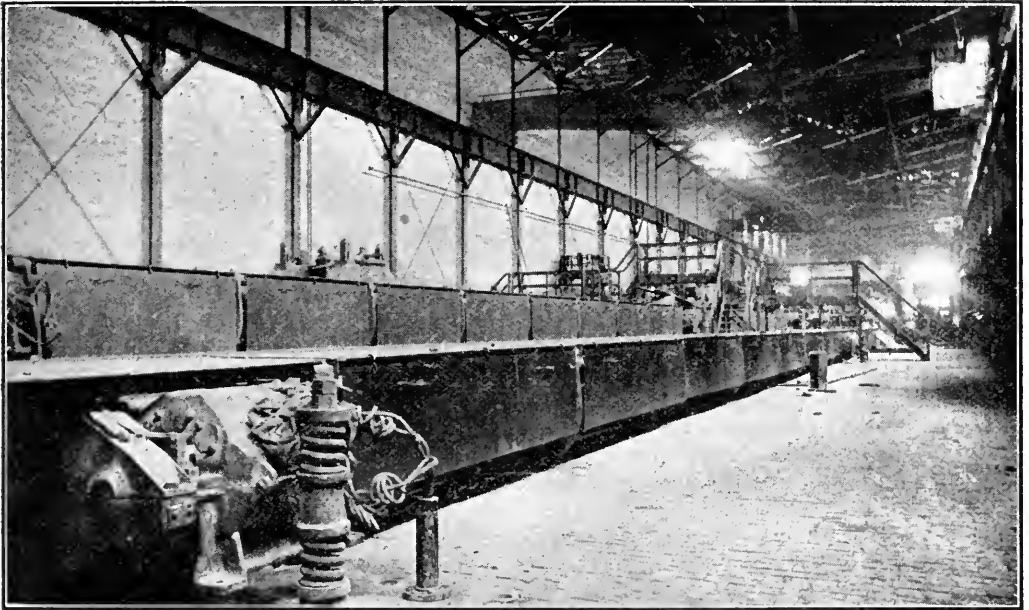
tion is not unique with the Illinois Steel Company. Similar work is done by the other subsidiary companies of the United States Steel Corporation. With the formation of a Central Safety Committee in April, 1908, made up of safety men from these different managements, a concerted movement was inaugurated which has been carried a stage further the past year in the transfer of the safety expert of the National Tube Company to headquarters, to carry on

clearing-house methods between the different offices. Apart from this general interchange, each company, however, develops its safety work along individual lines; and it is the team-play of its central committee that gives distinction to the work of the Illinois company.

Workmen are encouraged to make suggestions, and some of the most valuable ideas come from them. Safety inventions are paid for. At South Chicago when I visited the plant a man in the pattern shop had just perfected a

splash by the goggles he wore. The metal-encrusted goggles were immediately photographed and the photograph placed on the bulletin-boards as an example to the workmen.

I attended a meeting of the Central Safety Committee and in it I think I discovered the secret of the remarkable work that has been accomplished—and that is going on—that has reduced the number of fatalities in the South Chicago plant from forty-six in 1906 to fourteen in 1910. At first I thought it was because

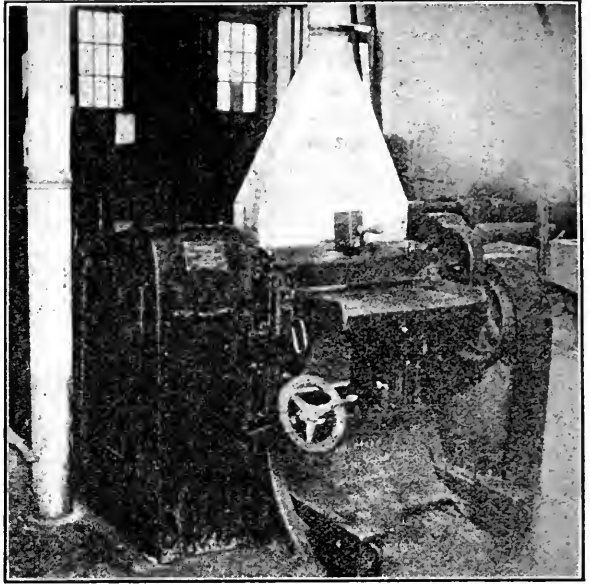
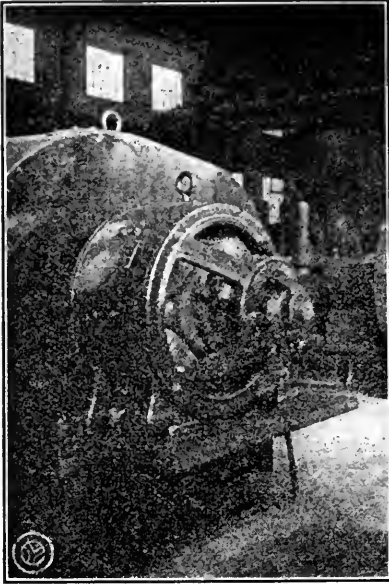


HINGED PLATE COVERS OVER DRIVE SHAFTING AND GEARS ON ROLLER TABLE.

circular-saw guard which was the pride of the shop. Another had made an improved belt-shifter. And the thing that impressed me was that these inventions were commended as highly as if they had been designed to boost out-put instead of safety.

Bulletin-boards are scattered through the mills and every two weeks the departments that get into the "booster class"—those that have kept the accident rate down to a minimum—are posted. The boards are used in various ways to inculcate habits of caution. The day before I visited the South Chicago plant a man's eyes had been saved from a metal

the chief safety inspectors are not operating men, and have no responsibility as to output. But in the committee I found the superintendents—the operating men—as eager for safety as were the inspectors. Perhaps it is thought that spending money for safety will save money for the company in the long run. I think it will. But that was not what the safety committee talked about that morning. A man in one of the plants had had the end of a finger taken off by a piece of moving machinery that had a hole in it just the size of his finger. He had put his finger into that hole. The discussion brought out the fact that the same hole



GEAR PROTECTION ON ROLL LATHES.

GUARDED BUZZ PLANER IN PATTERN SHOP.

was to be found on similar machines in all the plants. The committee decided that these holes must be covered or filled. Another man had slipped and fallen as he walked, inside the plant, to his work. It was found that ashes had been sprinkled in slippery places, but it was ordered that this be done more carefully.

From accidents the committee turned to a consideration of recommendations on safety devices, from foreman's committees and from workmen's committees. None of these were revolutionary. They were detailed, accompanied by designs, and involved simple changes in method or the installation of minor safety devices. They were all considered, some were passed upon, and others were put over until the next meeting. It was not apparent to me that all of this deliberation would work the financial advancement of the company. There was something in that meeting that can be explained only on the ground of humanitarianism. It impressed me strongly and gave me more faith in my fellow-men.

All this spells achievement of a high order. The quiet growth of a plant thirty years old, the building of a new one, the devising of a new scheme for saving men's lives, the building of a city—it is all a story of things done, things that

only strong men can do. And such achievement inevitably brings two other factors into play, responsibility and opportunity. Of the former I shall say little, for it is self-evident. The latter is too tremendous for full discussion, but I can sketch in the barest outline some of the things that are comprehended today in the unparalleled opportunity now open to the Illinois Steel Company.

The most obvious opportunity, three years ago, was to set a new standard for safety. Now an even larger opportunity is beginning to present itself. Some of the members of the safety committee have begun to think that if humanity and business alike dictate that men's lives and limbs ought to be protected against the danger of accident, by the same token men's bodies should be protected against disease.

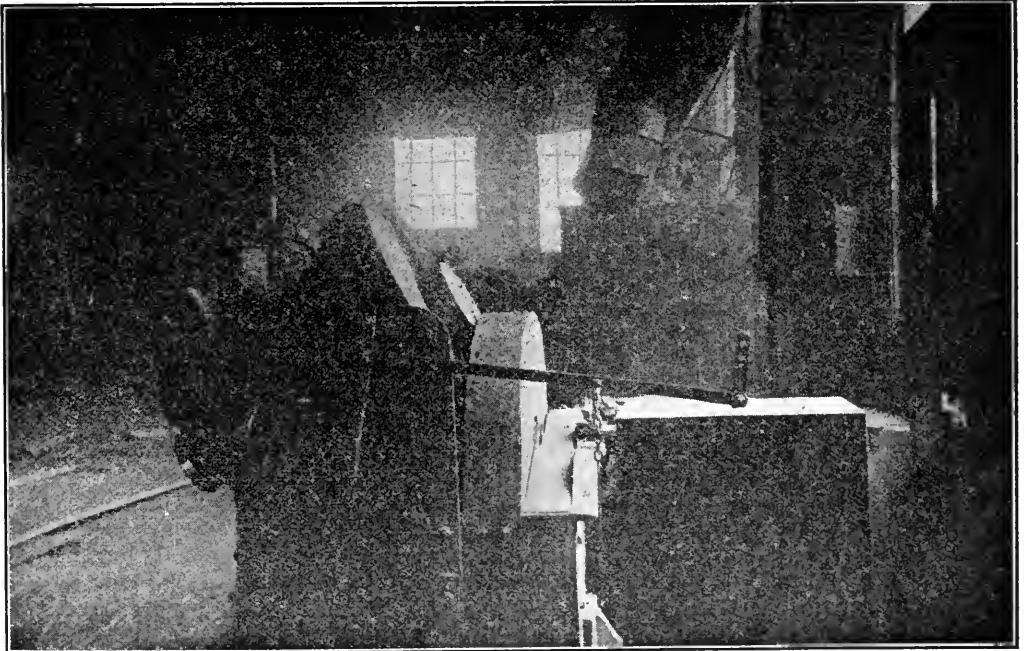
That phase of disease most closely akin to the accident problem is infection; and nowhere else, as in the absolute and prompt control which the hospital corps of these larger plants have over the treatment of flesh wounds, major and minor, is there such an opportunity for the reduction of infection to a minimum. This is a field in which the Carnegie Steel Company has made notable advances among its scattered plants in the

Pittsburgh district, where a larger administrative problem is of course involved. There is a hospital at South Chicago where the injured men are cared for. It is an old one and while it does effective service it does not represent the best that could be desired. But at Gary, where the Illinois company could build everything new, there is one of the finest hospitals in the United States. It is a plant such as few cities in America have supplied for themselves.

The Central Safety Committee had as a topic for discussion at a recent meeting the question of a sanitary water supply and sanitary drinking-cups. At present drinking-water is brought into the mills in ordinary wooden pails and poured into barrels. A cake of ice is kept in each barrel, and when a man wants a drink he takes the cover off and dips up the water with a tin cup. The next man uses the same tin cup, although venereal disease is known to be prevalent among certain classes in the mills. The Chicago company could well afford to follow the example of the National Tube Company, which is installing in its plants a circulatory, ammonia-cooled water

system, with fountain drinking cups. For many years the steel companies have had gas washers connected with their blast furnaces to remove dust from the gas before it enters the stoves. This sanitary drinking-water system will afford equal protection to men.

After this the safety committee might spend some very profitable meetings discussing heat. At South Chicago there are tubes delivering cool air to men in some of the hottest positions. At Gary high roofs have done much to improve ventilation. But it has not yet become possible to make steel without subjecting men to great heat. Workmen go with open pores, and clothes wet through with sweat, out from the mills into the cold winter air. Such a radical change in temperature, day after day, is extremely dangerous, and rheumatism and bronchial and pulmonary diseases are common in steel mill communities. Shower baths and a change of clothing before leaving the mill would help to prepare the men for the shock of contact with the cold air. At Gary showers were installed at the open-hearth furnaces, but the men did not use them, so



BEVEL SHEAR GUARDS.

they were taken out. South Chicago had the same experience at the open-hearth furnaces, but the showers in the Bessemer department have been and are used by the men. There may be a significance in the fact that the Bessemer men have an eight-hour day, while the open-hearth men work twelve hours. Perhaps the latter feel that so little of the day is left when the end of a turn comes that they want to get out as fast as possible and get a grip on the time that remains and is their own. Be that as it may, the National Tube Company has not been deterred from installing shower baths by the fact that the men do not use them as might be hoped. Showers have been installed in many departments in their plant at McKeesport, and are eventually to be installed in all departments in all plants. An official of that company remarked to me: "It is not our fault if the men don't use the baths, but it is our fault if the baths are not there to be used, and if they are there, the men will learn after a while to use them." The Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Company at Birmingham is also installing baths in all departments.

The report made by the Illinois Commission on Occupational Diseases last January contained a section on carbon-monoxide poisoning. The reports state that on one day, October 15, 1910, twenty-eight men were overcome by carbon-monoxide gas in one blast furnace plant. This was conceded to be an unusually large number, but the fact was ascertained that among 900 men employed in the blast furnaces studied there have been in the last four years thirteen fatal cases of gassing, and that there have been averages of sixty-five severe cases and two hundred and sixteen mild cases each year. These were the cases actually found. The report adds that the "real number occurring would be much higher, since mild cases are never recorded and are often forgotten." In addition to these occurrences at the blast furnaces, it was found that other danger points are the boiler houses, gas engines, and the open-hearth furnaces.

One immediate and direct danger was found to be connected with gassing—that of falling from a height, or into molten

metal, when overcome. The report says, on page 93, "Of twenty-two men actually gassed and immediately rescued, three showed notable burns and three showed bruises, demonstrating that they were deeply and rapidly narcotized. We cite the case of one worker who was burned almost to a crisp before being taken out, and of another who fell to his death twenty-five feet below. Many other illustrations like these could be given."

The Illinois Steel Company was commended by the commission for the care it has taken to prevent as much as possible the escape of this gas. But as yet no method has been found of preventing all escape, and so accidents occur. One case was found at South Chicago of an employe of the gas cleaning house who was overcome while sitting in a chair.

But the commission was more concerned with the steady recurrence of mild cases than with the tragic consequences of the severe ones. Men who constantly breathe a little carbon monoxide gas, who are occasionally overcome, removed to the outer air, and recover and return to work may well engage the attention of experts. Two hundred and forty such men were critically examined by the commission and some startlingly significant facts were discovered. An excess of red blood corpuscles was found in every case. The layman would be inclined to consider this a favorable condition, but the commission was not prepared to say that it is so.¹ They desired opportunity for further study. But other factors of great significance were found. The men exposed to this gas were submitted to a strength test, and two numerically equal bodies of workmen not exposed were submitted to the same test.

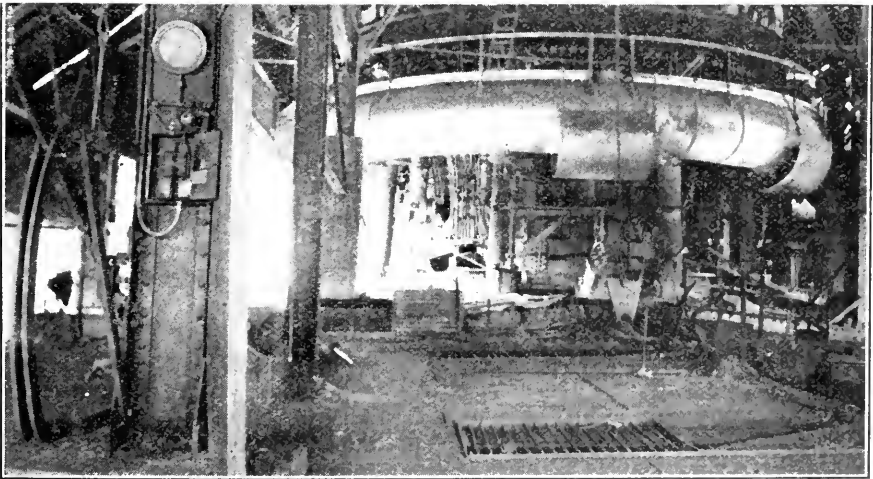
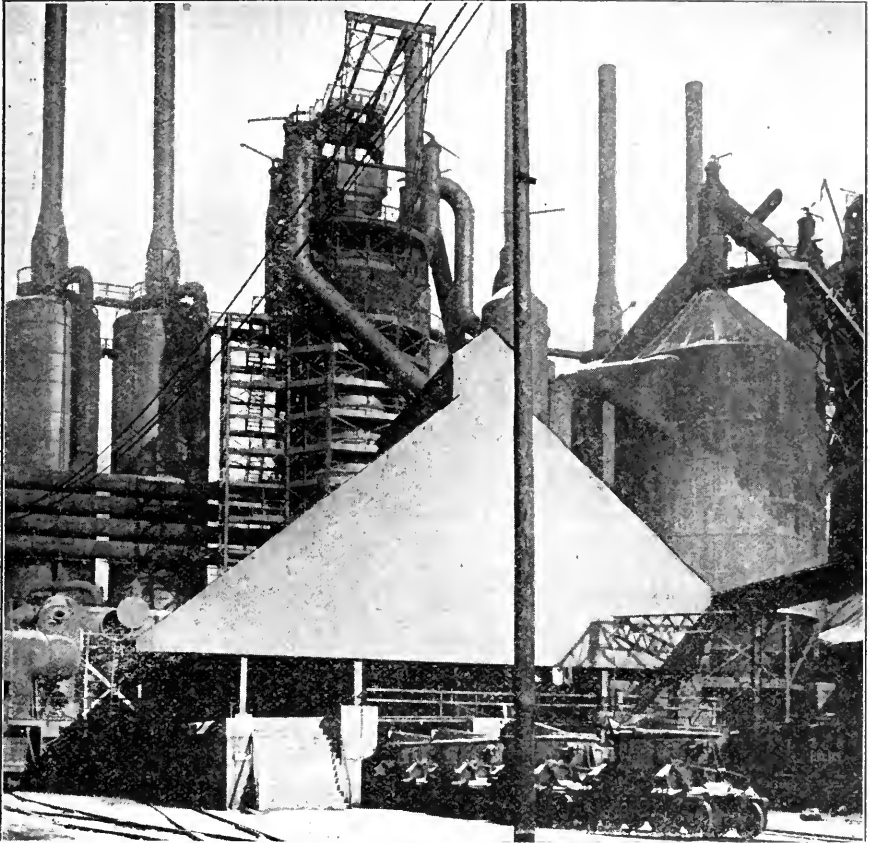
In every case the former were found to be *deficient in muscular power*.²

¹There is not unanimity in the medical profession on this point, but a member of the commission stated that a theory now held is that an excess of red corpuscles may indicate a pathological condition.

²The average tests ran as follows for men of ages from twenty to forty years: for those exposed, 117.13; for the two groups not exposed, 136.11 and 134.43, respectively; for men over forty the tests for the three groups were respectively 94.30, 127.25, and 113.01. In other words, a man of thirty exposed to carbon monoxide gas is no better man, and possibly not as good, as one fifty years old not so exposed.

THE BLAST FURNACE.

USED TO MEAN CONSTANT DANGER OF VIOLENT DEATH; 12 HOURS' WORK A DAY; 7 DAYS' WORK A WEEK; THE 24-HOUR TURN EVERY FORTNIGHT. NOW IT MEANS SAFETY (COMPARED WITH THE OLD CONDITIONS, THOUGH IT WILL ALWAYS BE HAZARDOUS); THE WORKING WEEK HAS BEEN CUT DOWN TO 6 DAYS; BUT THE 12-HOUR LAW REMAINS THE IRON LAW FOR FURNACE WORKERS.



Upper picture shows a thin-shelled, water-cooled blast furnace; the lower picture, bosh and cast house at base of the stack. The stairs and platforms shown are to facilitate safe inspection of the furnace and water-cooling apparatus. All furnace stoves and furnaces are connected by walks provided with hand railings. Each cast house is equipped with stairs or runways leading away from the furnace, so that in case of a break-out the men can quickly leave the danger zone. All elevated floors are railed, and the cast houses are roofed with steel plate to protect the men from material blown out of the top of the furnace. Where ladles are loaded under the floor of the cast house, the casting holes are guarded by grates.



SOLID BLOCK OF SALOONS ON THE "STRAND," NEAR THE MAIN GATE OF THE MILL,
SOUTH CHICAGO.

Whether twelve-hour men have the strength or time or imagination to go further and higher for their refreshment and recreation is a question on which there is not much room for but one answer.

The commission also found that "the majority of the men examined were below the average, mentally, but 97 per cent of them stated that they used alcoholic liquors, while 70 per cent admitted using alcohol in excessive quantities;¹ consequently it becomes very difficult to make deductions as to the exact part played by C O. Since it is a well known fact, however, that prolonged exposure to carbon monoxide may produce a profound impression on the nervous system, we may regard it as by no means improbable that a part of the sluggish mentality observed among the steel workers may be due to frequent exposure to the gas."

The investigators felt less positive about the muscular deficiency noted. It might be due to the gas, but it might also be due to the alcoholism noted above, to venereal disease, of which a surprising amount was discovered, or to unhygienic living. The investigators were medical experts, not social workers. It was their work to find out physical, not social causes. So a question at once presents itself that the commission did not dwell

upon. The men not exposed to gas upon whom strength tests were made were said to be in good hygienic condition—in a better condition, apparently, than those exposed to the gas. Why was this the case? Do blast-furnace workers indulge in more vice and more liquor than others? If so, a condition exists even more serious than gas poisoning. It may not be wholly irrelevant to mention that blast-furnace men—the two hundred and forty examined by the commission—were *men who worked twelve hours a day, seven days a week.*

If such a remark is not irrelevant, may we not direct the attention of the safety committee to hours of labor in general? Hours of labor in the mills of the Illinois Steel Company are just about the same as in other mills. At South Chicago the Bessemer department and rail mill No. 1 are operated on the three-turn system, and so the men have an eight-hour day. At Gary there are no eight-hour jobs. In both plants molders, machinists, pattern-makers, and yard laborers have a ten-hour day. All other departments work twelve hours, and these include a majority of the employees.

¹Italics are the present writer's.

There are some peculiar things and possibly a few mitigating circumstances about the hours of labor in the mills of the Illinois Steel Company. Rail mill No. 1 at South Chicago runs on the three-shift plan. Rail mill No. 2 in the same plant operates with two shifts. But rail mill No. 2 makes only light rails. The Gary rail mill, however, is operated in twelve-hour shifts and it makes heavy rails just as rail mill No. 1 at South Chicago does. This peculiarity is also to be noted in other plants of the Steel Corporation. The Edgar Thomson plant at Braddock, Penn., works its men who make rails twelve hours a day, while the blooming mill rollers have eight hours.

The plate and structural mills at South Chicago are also run on the two-shift plan, but here enters a mitigating circumstance. There are "spell hands" provided in these mills, and all of the men holding the more arduous positions are, the management states, periodically relieved. In fact, there are practically two men for each position, each working thirty minutes and resting thirty minutes alternately through the day. Thus each man actually works only six hours a day, although he is on duty for twelve hours. There are a good many reasons why it is socially bad for a man to remain on duty twelve hours a day, whether working all the time or not. He may not have his nose to the grindstone every minute, but his free time is not leisure, nor spent amid surroundings where he can find engagement and refreshment in it. He is no more off duty than a football player waiting for the referee's whistle before resuming play. The same energy and splendid co-operation that have reduced serious accidents 50 per cent could, I am sure, find a way to avoid keeping men on the job twelve hours to do six hours' work.

With respect to Sunday work there is already an intelligent and progressive policy afoot. The Welfare Committee of the American Iron and Steel Institute has recommended a plan for giving one day of rest in seven to all employes in the continuous seven-day departments. I have recently received word that this plan has recently been adopted by the Illinois

Steel Company for a tentative trial. To grasp the importance of this change, I will describe conditions as they were in February, 1911. The eleven blast furnaces at South Chicago and the eight at Gary were operated just like all other blast furnaces in America, twenty-four hours a day, for seven days a week. It took about 1700 men to operate these furnaces, and most of them worked twelve hours a day and seven days a week. There was some Sunday work in open-hearth furnaces, though it was less than is general among the independent companies. In addition, not less than 600 miscellaneous workmen were required on Sundays for repair work, gas tending, firing boilers, and guarding property in the two big plants. That made a total of over 2300 who had either a considerable amount of work every Sunday or regular seven-day work who are now, if I am rightly informed, to be relieved.

I cannot believe that a company possessing the wisdom and sense of responsibility manifest in this action will permanently be willing either to favor or apologize for a twelve-hour day. Yet that, so far as I could gather, is the position of the operating officials of the Illinois Steel Company. For the evils of a twelve-hour day are even greater than the evils of seven-day labor. There is no industry where emergencies do not sometimes arise requiring over-time work. In the steel mills such emergencies often come in rush times and the ten-hour machinists, electricians, repair men, and laborers become twelve-hour men. In such cases also six-day workmen become for long periods of time seven-day men. And sometimes these emergencies occur even in periods of depression. I met a steel worker on the street of a Pennsylvania mill town last winter, at a time when the mills had been for months largely idle, and congratulated him on his opportunity to rest.

"Rest"! he yelled at me, "I haven't had a Sunday in five months!" He was a repair man. But if overtime oppresses the ten-hour man, what of the workman whose regular hours are twelve in number? Already overworked, an emergency requiring overtime means incredible hardship.

One who had observed carefully social conditions in South Chicago said of the steel workers, "Their day is twelve hours long and complete exhaustion is the inevitable condition." A South Chicago physician told me that the men are overworked and do not get rested from day to day;¹ that the result is an excessive alcoholism and premature breakdown; and yet, as nearly as I could judge, there is less drive in South Chicago than in Pittsburgh.

But whether a man is actually overworked or not, a twelve-hour day takes from a community and from the home the time that both have a right to demand from the citizen; and the result is a man handicapped with respect to his duties to everyone, including himself.

Night schools in South Chicago boom when the mills are idle, and go to pieces with the return of prosperity. The average man cannot hold down a twelve-hour job and then spend two hours in study at night. The testimony of night school teachers is that a man cannot be held long after he gets a job in the mills. Library facilities are poor in South Chicago. The Illinois Steel Company has not yet developed a Carnegie, but there are at least two branches of the Chicago Public Library near the mills, and a settlement in the vicinity has a library from which books may be drawn. But steel workers do not use the books. Many a man gets up at half-past four in the morning in order to be at the mill at six. Such a man goes early to bed even though he has a spell hand, and there is little time for reading.

The libraries are not the only sufferers from the twelve-hour day. I met a young married man in South Chicago who had a home indicating taste and refined judgment. He wanted to go down-town to theatres and concerts once in a while. He wanted a chance to hear something good sometimes; the nickel theatres near his home did not interest him. But he could satisfy his appetite for good things in music and the drama only by an investment of something of more consequence than the price of seats. He works twelve

hours a day—a schedule, he told me, "that just allows me time to eat and sleep—no more." This is what he said of it:

If I want to go to the theatre, here is what I am up against. It is just one hour and seventeen minutes from the time I leave the plant at night that the Illinois Central theater train leaves South Chicago. It takes me fifteen minutes to get home on the car, after I catch one; but I often have to wait ten to twenty minutes. Then I've got to wash, change my clothes, and shave; and after that there isn't enough time left to eat a good supper if I'm going to catch that train. It is twelve o'clock midnight or later when we get back home, and I've got to get up again at four-thirty in the morning if I'm going to get to work on time. So you can guess how much I go to the theatre.

In the last ten years the membership in the English-speaking churches of South Chicago has declined, although the number of English-speaking men in the mills has, in the same period, slightly increased. During the same period the vitality of the churches has at best remained stationary. In some respects it has declined. Ten years ago there was one institutional church maintained in South Chicago. Now there is not even one. A large majority of the pastors of these churches gave as the reason for the lethargy in their churches the twelve-hour day and the seven-day week. The testimony was general that such conditions "demoralize our work among the laboring people, for when they have the time or opportunity to participate in religious activities they are so nearly worn out that most of them prefer to remain at home and rest."

To the credit of the pastors of these churches it should be said that they sent a committee to General Manager Field, of the South Works, about two years ago, to protest against Sunday work. Mr. Field referred them to men higher in authority, and they went to President Buffington. As a result of their conference the latter is reported to have written to Judge Gary. Undoubtedly this movement of the ministers in South Chicago had an influence in bringing out the now famous order of the Steel Corporation in May, 1910, calling for cessation of unnecessary Sunday work.

Health, hours of labor, Sunday work—these are avenues of opportunity open to

¹The statements of other South Chicago physicians differed from this judgment.

the Illinois Steel Company. Some of them they have already recognized. But, as intimated above, there is more than an opportunity here; there is heavy responsibility, and there is no one but the company upon whom this responsibility can lie. The workmen themselves are denied any opportunity to share it, and the public has not yet demanded the right to interfere—indeed, it has scarcely interested itself in any way in the behalf of the workers who cannot speak for themselves. The public generally does its work on the other side. When South Chicago citizens thought that new construction had gone to Gary because Public Works Commissioner Patterson enforced the law and would not let the steel company build out into the lake, they went to Springfield 200 strong—business men, lawyers, doctors, and ministers—and lobbied for two weeks for a bill permitting the company for a merely nominal remuneration to fill in along the lake front and make new land. The measure was passed and the delegation of loyal citizens returned to South Chicago rejoicing. The Illinois Steel Company has a legal department that is perfectly capable of presenting arguments before a legislative committee, or, if pressure of legal business prevents, they have ample means for employing additional counsel to defend their interests. In spite of that, these 200 faithful boosters spent their time and their money in the interests of the steel company. It is to be hoped that the company was grateful.

But here is an odd thing. Through all the history of the South Chicago plant no delegation of citizens has ever gone to Springfield to secure legislation for a rest-day for the workers. After twenty-nine years, while ministers have sometimes petitioned the company and business men have stood idle, waiting for voluntary action, the company is at last granting a rest day. Nor in 1906, when forty-six men were killed in the steel plant, did South Chicago citizens leave their business to demand safety or compensation laws. They waited again for voluntary action, and it came—twenty-six years after the first steel was blown at the South Works. Nor have the citizens of South Chicago ever lobbied at Spring-

field for an abolition of the twelve-hour day, for better housing regulation, improved sanitary conditions, or for any other thing that is vitally connected with the welfare of the 10,000 steel workers who live within their borders. They have waited thirty years for these things and are still waiting. But when it was the interests of the company that seemed to be at stake, they waited only until the legislature met again, and then they literally stormed it—until they got what they wanted.

But it is the steel company that we are considering, not the citizens of South Chicago. The development of safety engineering by the company is a magnificent piece of work. In this departure it does not stand alone, though it has been a pioneer within the corporation. The work of accident prevention, the hospital system, and the plan of paying a fixed compensation to injured men all together constitute a policy within the United States Steel Corporation that is admirable.

But will the Illinois Steel Company stop here? A pioneer in safety work, the way is open to it as pioneer in the work for industrial health. The report of the Illinois Commission on Industrial Diseases showed that certain forms of disease no less than accidents constitute a just charge upon industry. And this was a report that just barely crossed the borders of the field of which it treated. It is so new a field here in America that no one knows how far it extends. It is thought by many that when this field shall have been fully explored it will prove to contain greater need for human conservation than ever did the industrial accident field.

If the Illinois Steel Company has reserves of courage and determination it will explore this field. It will find out the effects on the physical system of long hours of steady work, and it will study the question of vice and alcoholism among men who are kept on duty twelve hours a day, and who do not work all of those hours. It will find out more about gas poisoning, and it will consider the effect of heat on heart action. And if the Illinois Steel Company does all this, there will follow a new movement

for health that will be comparable to the safety movement and will be perhaps even farther reaching.

Ten years ago last summer there was a blast furnace explosion at South Chicago. It killed one man and severely injured several. But the Chicago newspapers were unable to print the facts just as they were because the steel company would not let them. Not only were the reporters barred from the mill yard, but the police and fire departments were kept outside! Finally, the general manager gave in to the extent of letting one police captain and one fire captain into the plant and to let himself be interviewed by the newspaper men. Even then he refused to disclose the names of the men injured.

"You may say that they were not badly hurt", he said, "We will take good care of them."

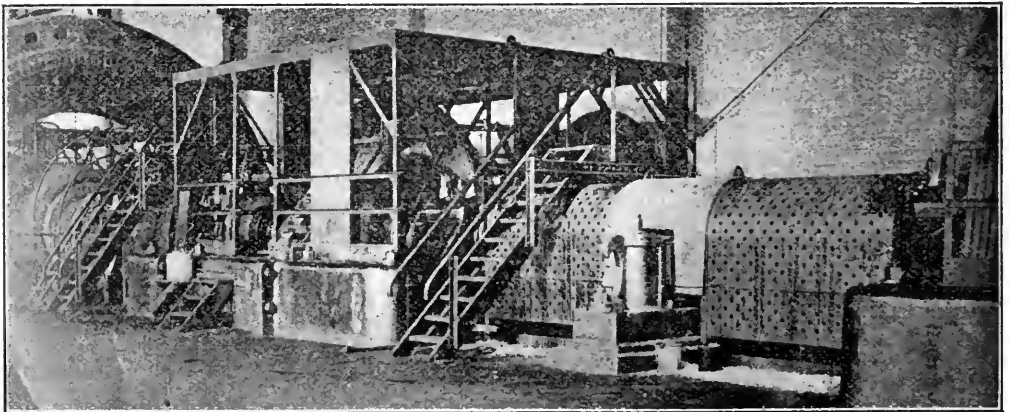
Last winter there was a not altogether dissimilar accident at South Chicago in which one man was killed and several were injured. But this time there was no secrecy, no attempt at concealment, no refusal of information. The names and addresses of all the men hurt were in the papers next day, together with the story of the accident. What the public was given to understand ten years ago to be none of its business it now

Chicago Record-Herald, July 2, 1901.

considers very emphatically a part of its business; and steel managers recognize that claim. Equally radical has been the change in attitude towards the accidents themselves, their preventability and toward the social and economic issues involved. It has been a change as great as the changes that have swept processes out of existence; as have lifted, and stretched, and revolutionized the great plants themselves.

No company ever had such a chance to make a new record, not in output and costs alone, but in human well-being, as the Illinois Steel Company has at Gary. New plant, new crews, new managers, no heritage of distrust, no remembrances of petty tyrannies, no dark history of strikes or of violence—it is an opportunity of a century. There have been mistakes, but that opportunity is still, most of it, there.

In only lesser degree is this opportunity true at the rehabilitated South Chicago Works. And in the cheerful optimism of the very name under which the campaign against death and injury is waged—the "safety-boosting"—we have a presage of what its logical sequence may mean if the conservation of the health of steel workers makes headway in the next ten years comparable to the change of front as to accidents in the last ten.



AN ELECTRICALLY OPERATED MILL MOTOR ROOM.

Showing guards over the driving shafts, which can be lifted off when necessary. Note also the guards over the driving gears.

MOVEMENTS ABROAD EM- PHASIZING THE DIRECTION OF PROGRESS AT HOME

GRAHAM TAYLOR

There is a strangely prevalent movement of the people abroad. One is made conscious of it in every land, less by its organized, overt expression than by the set of the tide in the undercurrents which are everywhere felt. It reminds one of the impressions of Arthur Young as he went about France just before the Revolution, making the agricultural observations which he so naïvely describes in his Travels. While the prevalent discontent does not thrust itself so spasmodically or violently upon the traveler's consciousness, it is far more general throughout the whole working world. Half consciously concerted, it is only in small part organized, either nationally or internationally. Constructive in its purpose and plan for legislative method, it is only dimly conscious of the rapidly growing power with which it hopes to compel compliance with its ideals or to overcome, and if necessary to destroy, opposition to its progress. It seems to be all the more a resistless movement of life because it lacks commanding leadership. Like a silently rising tide it is checked by one barrier only to break through and overflow others. If one set of its councillors is thwarted and discarded, others rise from the ranks with new policies but essentially the same old purpose. Although less bent upon destruction than the revolutionists at the end of the eighteenth century, though less committed to definite programs than those in the middle of the nineteenth century, this social and industrial evolution of democracy in the twentieth century is all the more determined in its purpose to raise the standard of living and all the more set in its direction toward uniting all workers in each industry as a first step toward uniting the working world. Its network of more or less affiliated trade unions, labor federations, social-democratic organizations, and

parliamentary parties is far stronger and more permanent for effective effort to win national and international supremacy.

America is no longer isolated by the oceans which surround our continent. Our people no longer live apart. The United States has wakened to its world-consciousness. Although fortunately removed from continuous part in the international complications of the Old World, which are the perpetual nightmare of European peoples, the American people have irrevocably entered into relationships with all the world which will grow closer every year. By our immigrations from every land we are inextricably interwoven with the peoples of all the earth. Our ideals and purposes are being conceived and formulated into policies and legislation by growing majorities of those who brought with them across the seas, or inherited from their parents' fatherlands, the hopes and fears of the Old World that are only intensified by migration to the New. Progress here cannot diverge very widely from the direction of progress there. But upon the broader levels of our opportunity and with the greater intensity of our life the pace of the people's movement in America is sure to be far more rapid and its power far more irresistible than in any country of the world.

Movements abroad, therefore, not only indicate, but emphasize, the direction which progressive movements at home must take in order both to avoid failure and achieve success.

COST OF LIVING AND RATE OF WAGES

The first of these movements is the effort to adjust the rate of wages to the cost of living, in order to meet the demand of the rising standard of life. The rise in the stand-



A "LOAD" OF HAY AND GRASS.

ard of life is due both to education and religion. Religion has all along been emphasizing the ideals of life. The values with which it has estimated the worth of the soul are infinite. It has even weighed the life of God over against the life of man, and taught that the saving of the soul was worth the death of the Son of God. The Cross on which he died has been held heaven-high over the head of every man, who has thereby learned, by revelation of God, what everyone of woman born was made and meant to be. Education has deepened the apprehension and raised the appreciation of this religious teaching. It has not only quickened the aspiration to attain the higher ideal of the human life, but has also aroused the discontent with conditions of life lower than the better standards within sight and reach. The masses of men and women have, moreover, been edu-

cated to produce more by machinery than they ever did by hand, and have learned how to organize for the purpose of getting a larger share of their product.

With this movement of the mass, a great London weekly declares, "new life has entered the great masses of unskilled laborers." After religion thus strikes the earth under the feet of the common man, and when education makes every man count one in his own sight if not in others', the mass of common men rises as one man to demand: "If this is the kind of man the church reveals me to be and the school teaches me that I am, then give me the living of such a man, or at least the chance to earn it."

Responsive to this demand for a higher standard of life, which is at least compatible with the ideals inculcated by religion and education, great efforts are being put forth, both by co-operative voluntary agencies and by governmental action, to supplement wages insufficient to meet the emergencies of life, and to raise the rate of wages more nearly to cover the cost of living. By industrial insurance, which is more and more superseding the benefit schemes of trade unions and employers, and by old age pensions, to which the British government has nobly and bravely led the way, the first steps are being taken to abolish pauperism, if not poverty. Still further than this has British legislation led in establishing a minimum wage scale, beginning with chain-making, clothing manufacture, and two or three other of the lowest paid and "sweated" industries.

OVER-WORK OF WOMEN

Thus the world is called upon to protest against employment at less than a living wage. For in all the world whole classes of men, women, and little children are being crowded down below the life line, beneath which no nation can afford to have its people fall. Especially needful is this minimum wage law to protect not only the livelihood, but the health, life, and efficiency of women and youth in industry. All over the world the work of women increases in variety without lessening in burdensomeness. As of old they are still spinners and weavers, home-makers and house-keepers, child-bearers

and rearers of families. Now, as at the dawn of history, they are the agriculturalists of the Old World. The peasant woman of southern Europe rises long before dawn to feed the family and leave the house and children in safety. She goes with the men to work in the distant field. She drives the donkey, loads and unloads the heavy packs or carts. Before or after the day's work, she staggers under the weight of heavy water-jars, wine-casks, immense bundles of grain and grass, or saplings used in the vineyard. Returning home late in the evening from her full "man's job," this house-mother prepares the evening meal, puts the children to bed, and ends her eighteen-hour day by doing the family washing. In her earliest youth her back was bent under some of these burdens. In premature old age she spins and weaves or twists the twine for the fishing nets until sight fails and muscles stiffen. Then, at the end, like the old men, she too is often forced to beg on the highway, or end her days in the poor-house. The mill girls of Amalfi, of whom Longfellow sang in minor key, are still to be seen

Toiling up from stair to stair.

Those of them who have grown gray and wizened in bending over the piles of rags in the paper mills, and those whose girlish forms bend under the heavy burdens which they bear up and down the "stairway, not a street," toil on through their long days and shortened lives for twenty cents a day or less.

To the northward as well as the southward women sweep and sprinkle the public streets, tend street railway switches, load and unload coal and gravel from railway cars, are even porters and freight handlers, work on railway construction trains and in dining-car kitchens, are bar maids and beer-garden waitresses. And their wages are little, if any, more than half as much as men receive for the same work. Multitudes of women receive only from twenty to forty cents a day, and men from forty to seventy-five cents, even for work which requires skill.

LOW PAY AND HIGH PRICES

The British Government Board of Trade reports the average wages of all



"THE WEIGHT OF HEAVY WATER JARS."

workers employed in the metal, engineering, and ship-building trades to be twenty-seven shillings (\$6.85) a week, less than one-third of all the workers being employed on full time. The same authority reported the wages of 134,000 railway employes to be \$5 a week or less, of 107,000 to be between \$5 and \$7.50, and of 78,000 to be over \$7.50. Meanwhile, during the last thirty years, wages have risen only 6 per cent and the cost of living is officially reported to have increased 17 per cent.

This is the underlying economic cause of industrial discontent. The response which the British public promptly makes to the emphasis laid by the great transport workers' strike upon this impossible situation anticipated the report of the royal commission appointed to investigate the grievances of the strikers and to recommend remedies for them. Al-



WOMAN STREET CLEANER, MUNICH.

ready the government announces the establishment of an industrial council, composed of influential employers and employes, for the purpose of preventing and settling disputes injurious to the public welfare. Supplementing this government action, influential men in business, professional, and public life have signed and published a pronouncement declaring industrial conditions to be "thoroughly unsatisfactory," and recommending a general resort to co-partnership, which is declared to be applicable in some form to nearly every industry. "A co-partnership," it is affirmed, "assumes a standard wage before there can be talk of any profit to divide, and a standard wage assumes an organization to maintain." The right of collective bargaining is thus claimed for both employes and employers. Trade unionism is recognized as necessary for the meeting of capital and labor on equal terms. Co-

partnership companies are said to control more than one-half the capital invested by companies in England. The employes of the three London gas companies have acquired \$3,000,000 of their capital.

The direction of progress toward industrial peace and prosperity, as indicated both by the losses and gains of the nations in the Old World, is clear. It certainly does not tend toward stubborn struggles of endurance, the losses, tragedies, and perils of which surely need not be suffered in the New World, with the bitter experience of the Old World in full sight. Wise will we be in our day and generation if by just and conciliatory measures and relationships we try to adjust the rate of wages to the cost of living. Surely an intelligent people will find some other way of making this adjustment than by the brute force of strike and lockout, with all their perils to peace and progress.

BETTER HOUSING AND TOWN PLANNING

From the bad and better housing of the people abroad, and in the impressive movements for planning towns and cities the better to meet the needs and promote the welfare of their citizens, America may well take timely warning and suggestion. The miserable shelter for family life provided for the working poor in country, town, and city almost everywhere abroad presses upon one's sight and into one's heart. All through the sunniest open-air lands of the South whole families are crowded into single apartments, totally dark and unventilated, except for the single opening through the doorway. On the ground level these apartments look like caves in the rocks. They are the cooler for this, undoubtedly, in the heat of the day, but dangerously close and unsanitary when shut up at night or in the rainy winter season. Outdoor life through so many hours of the day, and so many days of the year, is the only reason why these cluttered, unhomelike, dreary dwellings of the poor are not more speedily their tombs. For such they come to be when cholera springs out of the dirt in the dark, or when tuberculosis is imported from America

by the returning emigrants. It is at least some compensation for the earthquake at Messina to find the neat little homes—built with American lumber and money—for single families, and bearing on one corner the street names, "Via Roosevelt" and "Via Bicknell."

In Germany, in the large cities, the housing problem is even more serious. Of 2,000,000 or more persons living within the inner limits of Berlin, over 700,000 are reported to be housed in single rooms. Of these fully 500,000 share these single rooms with from three to twelve or even more others. The greatest problem of the German capital is to provide houses for 1,000,000 wage-earners, upon whom the industries and commerce depend. If salaried business people with incomes of \$4,000 or \$5,000 cannot own their homes within the city limits, what hope have wage-earners of even renting adequate apartments? The real estate of Berlin, on which over 2,000,000 live, is owned by only 1 per cent of the population. Building sites are so costly that only five-story dwellings, accommodating as many families or single lodgers as can be crowded into them, yield sufficient income to warrant investment, even in the suburbs. The poorest paid workers, who receive less than \$300 a year, pay nearly one-third of all their earnings for rent. Those earning between \$600 and \$700 pay less than one-quarter of their incomes in rent. But persons earning from \$4,000 to \$5,000 pay only 10 per cent of their incomes, while those receiving from \$8,000 to \$12,000 pay only 5 per cent for their better apartments. This means hopeless poverty for the poor. And yet the destructive disproportion between rent and income increases with the years.

It is not surprising when immigrants who have lived under such conditions come to America that they at first do here as they did in the old country. They crowd our tenement districts and houses because almost all of them, whether they come from city or country, have lived in stone buildings built three or four stories high, to shelter several families in scant space. They do not object to dark basement rooms or to going high up-stairs, because they have always done so. They still keep their windows closed at night as they have always done to shut out the malaria which they fear will come in with the night air. Here, as there, it takes time and patience on their part and ours to get them to understand and make adjustments to the new conditions under our very different climate and sanitary regulations. But the influence of even a short residence in America is greater than we or they realize at first. Upon their return to their native villages they are inclined to build smaller, detached houses for the separate use of single families, and to provide windows to let in the light and air. These one-family houses are so little known in Italy that they are called "*Americano*" by the natives. It will take a far longer time than the life-time of the first generation for the Italian peasants to endure the loneliness of our isolated farm-houses in America. In Italy even the field hands live in hamlets, vil-



TWISTING TWINE FOR FISHING-NETS.

lages, or towns, under conditions far more like those of our cities than any of our farming households or communities furnish. Unless they are enabled to live together in little centers built for farm laborers, Italian families will rarely come to or stay upon our large and widely separated farms. They object less to the distance between these village homes and their work in the fields than they would to living their family life apart from the community life, as almost all have always been accustomed to do.

With these bad housing conditions, however, European peoples have begun to struggle valiantly and effectively. Building associations restricted to a low rate of profit on investments are providing attractive, comfortable dwellings at very cheap rental to thousands of wage-earners. In the buildings of one such association in Frankfort about five thousand persons are well housed. The houses are artistically designed. They are built around a large open space, a part of which is a park for common use, while other parts are cultivated by the occupants of the apartments as vegetable and flower gardens. Laundries are provided for common use, and rooms for nursery and kindergarten purposes. In a separate building these dwellers have a *Verein-Haus*, or social center, for their own use, containing club and class rooms and an assembly hall. It is like a social settlement for the block or group of apartment buildings owned

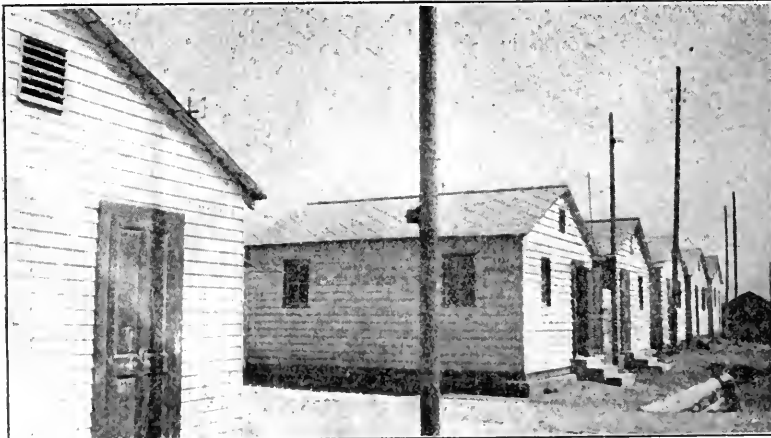
and managed by this association. Instead of permanent "residents," volunteers come in from elsewhere to help the people use their public rooms for larger pleasure and profit. Thus, one group helps with the day nursery, another with the kindergarten, and individuals come in the evenings to provide entertainment and to lead classes.

Apartments of two rooms and a pantry, with a gas cooking-stove and a kitchen garden, rent for \$6 a month, three rooms for \$7. Gas is furnished by a slot meter, at two cents for three hours' light or heat from a single burner.

Town and city councils are building new and improved houses in the places of old and unsanitary tenements, which are bought to be demolished and thus replaced. Garden city enterprises have, as articles in *THE SURVEY* have recently detailed, made great strides in England, where the co-partnership housing associations are so successful. Bourneville, Hampstead, Letchworth, and the more paternal scheme at Port Sunlight all show how housing reform has appealed to the good sense of the English people.

Town planning, so well exemplified in these garden suburbs and cities, is developing a new profession for men skilled in landscape gardening, the building arts, and in interpreting and meeting social needs. They are in demand not only for the construction of new towns, but more often for the reconstruction of old ones. They are introducing a new

engineering. They furnish an accurate survey of the town as it actually is, and show where and how it can be better adapted to the present and future needs and inspirations of its citizens. As this new kind of a city comes into being, it is found to be not less but all the better adapted to trade and in-



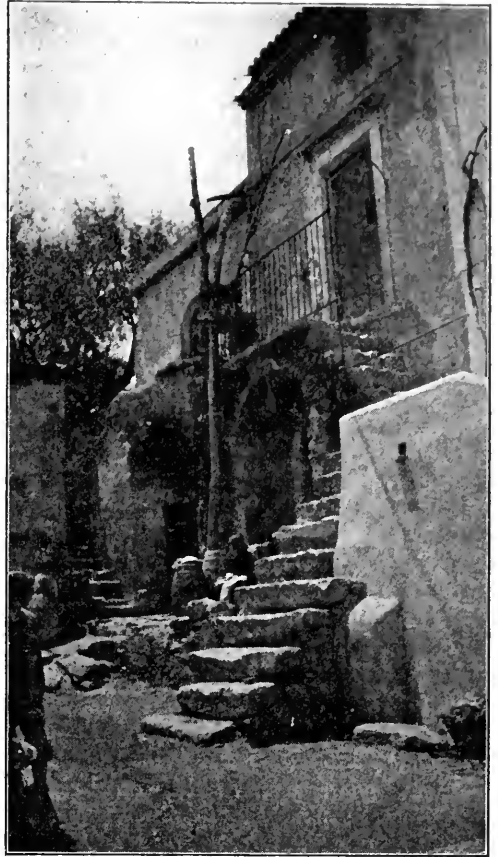
THE NEW MESSINA—CORNER OF "VIA ROOSEVELT" AND "VIA BICKNELL."

dustry for being planned to meet all the greater needs of its population. The town planning exhibits which were held at Düsseldorf and Berlin not only demonstrated the fact that a large number of European cities are being made over to meet new needs and greater possibilities, but also stimulated many others to desire and initiate plans for their betterment. Conspicuous among the towns of Germany which have led this movement is Düsseldorf. Although its officials are more capable of drafting plans of their own than those of any other German municipality, they preferred to promote the movement for town planning by offering prizes for the best competitive plans. Their specifications imposed on the competitors are in themselves worthy to constitute the basis for a far-sighted, far-reaching design to provide for the future growth, efficiency, and social development of their city.

Far more readily and less expensively can town planning be promoted and carried through in our new land, among our half-grown cities, and with our freer land tenures and laws. Housing and health interests, business efficiency and recreation facilities, manufacturing advantages and residential reservations may all better be provided for in advance by one comprehensive plan. The time may come when, by contrast with these scientifically and artistically planned cities, those that have been allowed to grow up in a fortuitous and desultory way will seem as irrational as a building which gives evidence of having been put up piece-meal without any discoverable design or adaption to any purpose.

EXTENSION OF SUFFRAGE AMERICA'S SAFETY

Another point at which the direction of American progress is emphasized both by repressive and revolutionary movements abroad is the wide and yet increasing extension of the suffrage. The streets of Brussels witnessed a popular demonstration that has the making of history in it. At the call of the socialist party—in which, however, others joined—over 60,000 men from the larger and smaller places throughout Belgium took a day off last August, without



DARK UNVENTILATED HOUSES IN THE
SUNNIEST LAND.

wages, and paid their own way to the capital of their country in order to voice their protest against the unjust inequality of the suffrage. It was more than a protest. It was the patriotic proclamation of Belgium's one great hope of national evolution without revolution. On the banners carried in this great procession, which required over four hours for its rank and file, marching ten abreast, to pass a given point, were these figures:

993,070 citizens have	1 vote each....	993,070
395,866 citizens have	2 votes each....	791,732
308,683 citizens have	3 votes each....	926,049

Thus a majority of 724,711 votes were cast by 188,521 fewer than half the voters!

This is the "pièce de résistance" of the whole situation in Belgium and wherever else it obtains. It closes the door to hope for the better conditions which the majority demand. It begets the des-

peration always sure to follow the "hope deferred which makes the heart sick." Farther-sighted than our fears over the complications of our extended suffrage is the courage of our forefathers and of all their sons who are loyal to democracy. For, however difficult, and even dangerous, may be the stress and strain upon our institutions to live up to our standard of manhood suffrage, and now to face the clear possibility of woman suffrage also, the lack of that greatest of all safety-valves would be very likely to be a still greater danger in view of the world movement toward social democracy, which is sure to have the most rapid and intense development here in America. But if this be the direction of our progress which is emphasized by the ominous events and portents abroad, it involves a far more direct and prevalent effort to train our people for citizenship than we have yet made. Crises in the nations of the Old World are trumpet calls to us in the New to use our schools and settlements, our churches and public libraries, our recreation centers and industrial organizations, our fraternities and social fellowships, to train our own youth and our foreign-born fellow-citizens for American citizenship, and to strengthen and hasten all the forces available to assimilate them into the body politic.

RELIGION FOR DEMOCRACY

Last, but by no means least, even

greater than all other conditions of progress, emphasized both at home and abroad, is the absolute necessity of applying the sanctions, the ideals, the sacrificial spirit, and the patient passion of religion to the problems of democracy. One of the keenest critical analyses of modern society thus impressively sums up its conclusions:

Nothing but a church will do. All the other schemes of democracy have come to naught for want of that. The lecture platform is no substitute for Sinai. Democracy is a religion or nothing, with its doctrine, its forms, its ritual, its ceremonies, its government as a church—above all, it organized sacrifice of the altar, the sacrifice of self. Democracy must get rid of the natural man, of each for himself, and have a new birth into the spiritual man, the ideal self of each for all. Without religion, how is man, the essentially religious animal, to face the most tremendous of all problems, social justice?

Such is the challenge with which the movements of life confront religion. All too long delaying, if not too late to lead, churches of the Old World and the New are at last responding in varied efforts to apply their common faith to the social conditions and movements of the common life. It remains to be seen whether the evolution of social democracy is to have the advantage of an affirmative, constructive, considerate leadership such as only the religious motive can supply, or whether, like the revolutions which have come to naught, it will develop crass materialism and a class-conscious selfishness which will be its own undoing.



THE "VEREIN-HAUS" IN CONNECTION WITH MODEL TENEMENTS,
FRANKFORT.

NOV 15 1911

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VOLUME XXVII, No. 6

WEEK OF NOV. 11, 1911



THE SURVEY

SOCIAL CHARITABLE CIVIC

THE COW: THE CITY
AND THE STRAIGHT
AND NARROW PATH

This fall has witnessed a pure milk crusade in St. Louis. The City Club headed a campaign of publicity in which other organizations joined; over thirty cases for violating the milk ordinance were docketed in the first month; an improved ordinance has been drafted.

Cartoon by Minor, St. Louis Post-Dispatch.



THIS ISSUE TEN CENTS-A COPY : TWO DOLLARS-A-YEAR
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THE PITH OF IT

A Philadelphia "Charities Building" is in the making.—P. 1180.

Coming only to play their allotted parts in the program, Governor Woodrow Wilson of New Jersey, Governor Stubbs of Kansas, the regents of the University of Wisconsin, and others of like prominence found the Social Center Conference at Madison such an engrossing undertaking that their trains pulled out with them in the heat of round table discussions. An American social service association was launched, and William Allen White and other newspaper men got together to map out their part in the work.—P. 1169.

Business expansion and big civic plans are under way in the Northwest; now comes a mustering of forces to work out a social program in advance of the revolutionary change which the opening of the Panama canal, and the landing of Mediterranean immigrants on the wharves of Seattle, will usher in in 1915.—P. 1178, P. 1181.

Judge DeCourcy of the Superior Court of Massachusetts, at the Omaha Prison Conference, riddled the "meaningless verbiage and circumlocution" which not only encumber much criminal procedure, and insult the English language, but result in liberating men guilty of the most grave crimes. Read, if you will, of the "dangerous and deadly weapon, to wit, a club, then and there of the length of four feet, of the breadth of two inches, and of the weight of ten pounds" which was insufficient to drive common sense into the reasoning of the supreme bench of Missouri.—P. 1172.

On the other hand, the secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, quoting from the vigorous dissenting opinion of Chief Justice Clark of North Carolina, shows in a case just decided how the tradition of the law o'ertopped "the other side" when the life of a little child and a railroad corporation—its employer—were in the balance.—P. 1181.

Mine owners, state mine inspectors, and engineers from Washington, Colorado, Alabama, and all the nearer fields attended the safety demonstration carried out last week at Pittsburgh by the Federal Bureau of Mines. A descriptive article will be published in *THE SURVEY* for Nov. 2.

Can an orphan choose its grandparents? Dr. Goddard's recent protest against the indiscriminate placing-out of defective children provokes a sheaf of replies.—P. 1187.

"What is the use of adopting resolutions condemning the sale of our products in resorts and dives?" asked the president of the Houston Brewing Company at the International Brewers' Congress in Chicago. "What's the use when it is well known that most of them in the large cities are in some way owned or controlled by the brewers?"—P. 1175.

THE SURVEY

Edward T. Devine, Editor Graham Taylor, Associate Editor

A Journal of Constructive Philanthropy
PUBLISHED WEEKLY BY

**THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY
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Robert W. deForest, President; Otto T. Bannard, Vice-President; J. P. Morgan, Treasurer; Edward T. Devine, General Secretary

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The juvenile republic movement crystalizes into a national association.—P. 1174.

G. Stanley Hall describes this age as "a veritable renaissance in respect to the subject of sex."—P. 1177.

New York is nearing the two-hundred-million-dollar mark in its annual expenditures. How the social work of the municipality fares in the budget for 1912.—P. 1184.

Militant Unitarians believe that in the final plank adopted by the National Conference of Unitarian Churches they have taken a position in advance of the social declarations put forward by any other religious body.—P. 1176.

Florida holds a first Conference of Charities and the Wisconsin body of the same name is revived after seventeen years.—P. 1179.

THE COMMON WELFARE

MADISON MEETING ON SOCIAL SERVICE

Madison, Wis., was the meeting place, October 25-28, of the first National Conference on Civic and Social Center Development in America. It was a conference to be remembered. From New York to California, from Texas to North Dakota, delegates came representing city clubs, boards of education, welfare committees, churches, universities, and various associations for civic and social betterment. A new spirit of enthusiasm, a new hope for the future, a fresh and eager interest in the interchange of ideas and experiences seemed to fill the air. Before an audience which filled the large gymnasium, E. J. Ward read the greeting sent to the conference by Edwin Markham, author of the *Man With the Hoe*:

We men of earth have here the stuff
Of Paradise. We have enough!
We need no other things to build
The stairs into the Unfulfilled—
No other ivory for the doors,
No other marble for the floors,
No other cedar for the beam
And dome of man's immortal dream.

Here on the paths of every day—
Here on the common human way
Is all the busy gods would take
To build a heaven, to mould and make
New Edens. Ours the stuff sublime
To build eternity in time!

During the three days of a varied program this underlying thought was repeated: that here on earth we have both the tools and the workmen with which to build a New Democracy.

With the cooperation of all the educational forces of the state and nation, we may be sure that the day will finally dawn when the ideal condition shall come, when each child shall be broadly educated to the extent of his powers and at the same time educated for his vocation, and this without reference to condition of birth,

said President Van Hise of the University of Wisconsin in his address of welcome.

"This movement is a recovery of the constructive and creative instinct of the American people," said Governor Wilson of New Jersey, the principal speaker of the opening meeting.

We can not have liberty where men are not seeking common ends by common means. Community means a people united by their common interests. Men are at present so disconnected that the tides of life will not flow. To release the common forces, to unite the feelings and clarify the comprehensions of men, this is the use of the civic center.

Prof. Forbes of Rochester:

The movement for the wider use of school buildings is built upon the underlying assumption of democracy that the spirit of goodwill is in the average man, and that this spirit may become dominant.

William Allen White, proprietor of the *Kansas City Star*, reached the climax of his speech, entitled, *What's the Matter with America*, when he said:

It was the Town Hall that defeated Cornwallis and it is the Town Hall that will defeat those standing in the way of democracy today.

How to make the school building a true center of civic and social betterment was discussed under an almost bewildering number of heads: the school house as a center of all forms of wholesome recreation, as a local health office, as a branch public library, as an employment station, as an art gallery, and even as a branch legislative reference bureau. There were talks upon the social center and the rural communities; talks upon the significant beginnings, many of them for the first time coming to light; and for the benefit of those who want the concrete expression of a philosophy, there was a statistical sur-

vey of the whole civic and social center movement, showing that seven state universities have adopted the propagandism of social centers as a recognized part of their extension programs, and over one hundred cities in the United States are now using their public school buildings to promote the civic and social welfare of the community.

Before the close of the conference, which will be reviewed in a later issue, a national organization was formed, to be called the Social Center Association of America. The second conference will be held at the University of Kansas. Some of those in attendance returned from the meeting voicing the belief that the "new association may be the means of unifying the forces at present working for the New Democracy."

PENOLOGY'S NEW VIEW OF BODY AND SOUL

Speaking on What makes the Common Welfare, Prof. Franklin H. Giddings, of Columbia University, recently declared that the thing to be striven for—more pressing than to supplant ignorance with education, or poverty with comfort—is to supplant a low moral practice with a high one. Conduct in this country, said Professor Giddings, has noticeably degenerated within the last fifteen years. The prevention of crime, petty and gross, he regarded as today the first duty of the country's citizenship. Such a preachment has of course a much wider social application than the range of topics concerned before the specific national body convened in the treatment of the criminal; yet the point of view found application in more than one session of the American Prison Association at its meeting in Omaha last month; and along with it came the insistence that the first step in the establishment of a higher moral practice is to discover the physical and psychological causes of crime. Not a new prerequisite,—yet when Dr. William Healy, director of the Juvenile Psychopathic Institute, Chicago, asked where in all America a thorough official study is being made of how well we are succeed-

ing in suppressing crime, there was no answer. He declared that the "crime situation" can be improved "only through accurate studies and treatment of the problems of causation of crime in the individual himself." The court may be confronted with a boy suffering from nervous conditions which are the result of an old fracture of the skull, and which, together with eye-strain, render him irritable and intolerant of noises, and cause him to run away and to take part in theft; or with a victim of vicious heredity and impotent will, for whom the only result of the "short term" is a wider acquaintance with criminals; or with a normal lad who, suddenly discovering that his family has been lying to him about his parentage, in his bitterness accuses all men of being liars, and definitely elects to be an enemy of society for life. Whatever be the nature of the case, said Dr. Healy, it will inevitably remain true that, despite theories and systems, a careful study of individual delinquents will be necessary before you can ever know what is best to be done:

In all common sense the action taken should not be swayed on the one hand by the existence of a definite retributive system nor on the other hand by a sentimentalism which connotes coddling The new Hungarian law with its intimate study for a week or two by several qualified persons before determination of the measures to be pursued with the young offender is a splendid start on the right road.

The most vital points of vantage for checking a criminal career are generally overlooked by police and court methods. How should we know about the possibilities of individuals without hours of investigation and observation? The over-worked judge usually knows little of what the individual needs in the way of discipline, and not much about the treatment which he is officially prescribing. Our general system is simply that of wholesaling punitive measures, with a singular lack of adjustment of ends to needs.

Coming to the effect which investigation has upon the delinquent himself, and speaking of the work of the Chicago institute, Dr. Healy said:

We find that, if a young delinquent is approached with rational inquiry, in nearly every case he will respond with a totally different attitude from that assumed towards the police

or the court, and not only he, but his family, will usually regard him as a problem to be solved, and will give information that should not be neglected if a common-sense adjustment of the case is undertaken. Many a fellow with quite a career wakes up for the first time to self-consciousness and self-help from the moment that a thorough-going inquiry is started.

Declaring that the actual or potential recidivist is the delinquent in whom society should be most interested, Dr. Healy asked:

What is the recidivist mentally and physically? What is his career under the present system of handling crime? How well could his career have been predicted if one had studied him early and what measures could have been undertaken to check it? What can be done by physical up-building, by introducing definite mental interests, by a short term of punishment, by a long separation from former environment; is permanent segregation necessary; is there any likelihood of success outside of an institution? These are the scientific and common-sense points towards a knowledge of which intensive study must be directed.

But whatever studies are undertaken it must never be forgotten that crime is conduct and that conduct is an attribute of mind. Whatever may be the influences which shape mentality, whether they be environmental, hereditary, physical, or what not, it still remains that, when directly considered, conduct, and therefore crime, is a psychological matter.

EYE-STRAIN AND CRIME

Dr. Healy's contentions as to the importance of physiological factors in criminality were reinforced by Dr. William M. Richards, of New York, whose experience has included service in hospitals and as health officer. Underneath every crime, said Dr. Richards, is some kind of incompetence, and underneath incompetence is some kind of physical defect, either inherited or acquired. By this he did not hold that physical defect is the only cause of incompetence and crime, but that it is the chief cause, and it is the foundation upon which incompetency and crime are based. Said he:

The incompetent is born with bad eyes which make him unable to do near work without suffering; is born with a club foot which hinders physical activity, or with some blood disease which interferes with mental processes. These are examples of congenital defects. He injures his nose, which eventually causes catarrhal deafness, or he acquires

tuberculosis of the lungs, spine, hips, or lymph glands (scrofula), or lateral curvature of the spine. This last often comes from as simple a thing as writing at school on a desk the top of which is horizontal instead of being inclined at an angle of thirty degrees, which would enable him to see the point of his writing instrument without turning his head on one side. Again, through the continuous standing posture necessitated by some occupations, such as those of policemen, clerks, street car motormen, and conductors, the individual acquires falling arches of the feet (flat foot), by many erroneously called rheumatism of the feet and legs. The influence of these afflictions is wide-spread and causes incompetence in various ways.

The following passage on eye-strain is typical of Dr. Richards's interpretation of the relation between defect and delinquency:

In the De Witt Clinton High School in New York is a class of thirty-seven defectives who failed in every subject. They were put in charge of the physical culture instructor who reported to the principal that they were "a lot of crooks, thieves, and gamblers." The most cursory examination showed that the sight of these defective boys averaged less than half as good as that of a class of normal boys in the next room. Does it require any special gift of prophecy to foretell that in the course of the next ten or fifteen years almost all of these boys will go the usual route of crime, reformatory, and prison? The American Association for the Conservation of Vision tried to obtain \$150 for two months' salary for a young doctor who wished to fit these and similar boys with glasses. It was unable to obtain this money. If we multiply \$150 a thousand times, we will get a conservative estimate of what those boys will cost the community before they die in penal institutions. How much cheaper it would have been to supply them with glasses! Defective eyesight and its consequent discomfort in school leads to truancy. Every criminologist knows that the majority of criminals were truants when children. This is the way it works. Being idle, they fall in with idle people who form the only society available during working hours—and we all know who finds "mischief for idle hands." Idle people must live, and if they have none to support them, they soon drift into crime. The truant learns through them to indulge in petty larceny or pocket-picking, which eventually results in arrest. This frightens him and he tries to reform, only to find, as he found in school, that he dislikes near work, or that it causes some kind of discomfort. He craves amusement, good clothes, and good food—just what we all work for—and the price of these is always money. He is tempted and again stoops to crime. The reformatory is his next residence, and it is as good a place for this purpose as it can be made, considering

the disadvantages under which it labors, one of the most serious of which is the fact that confirmed criminals are frequently sent there, and the boys learn from them what they do not already know about successful methods of crime.

To show the prevalence of the defects cited Dr. Richards referred to tests made at Elmira Reformatory, which indicated that 56 per cent of the boys suffered from serious impairment of eyesight, and at the Rahway, N. J., Reformatory, where more thorough examinations found 83 per cent needing glasses.

LEGAL HAIR-SPLITTING IS BEYOND PALE OF SCIENCE

These pleas for enlightened inquiry into past life and physical constitution as the first act of the law toward offenders were no less emphatic than the arguments for a more enlightened criminal procedure as the second act. Prefacing his report as chairman of the Committee on Criminal Law Reform with statistics from which he drew the conclusion that gross crime in this country is less punished now than formerly, and less than in other countries, Judge Charles A. DeCourcy, of the Superior Court of Massachusetts, declared for reforms in technical pleading and trial procedure—the latter including jury trials, the technical rules governing evidence and instructions of the court, the granting of new trials, and needless delay. In illustrating abuses in pleading, he pointed out that the purpose of an indictment, information, or complaint is to enable the accused to know what the offence is with which he is charged, and to enable the court to enter such judgment as will prevent a second prosecution for the same offence. This ought to be done, he held, in simple and concise language. How it is done in many jurisdictions he illustrated by the following indictment for murder in a Missouri case [State vs. Woodward, 191 Mo., 167 (1905)]:

That G. W. and C. W., late of the county of P and state of Missouri, on the 16th day of January, 1904, at the county of P and state of Missouri, did then and there, in and upon the body of one E. P., then and there being unlawfully, wilfully, feloniously, premeditatedly, on purpose, and of malice afore-

thought, make an assault, and with a dangerous and deadly weapon, to wit, a club, which said club was then and there of the length of four feet, of the breadth of two inches, and of the weight of ten pounds, and which said club the said G. W. and C. W., then and there in hands had and held, the said G. W. and C. W. did then and there unlawfully, wilfully, feloniously, premeditatedly, on purpose, and of their malice aforethought, strike and beat him, the said E. P., at and upon the right side of the head of him, the said E. P., with the club aforesaid, and inflicting on and giving to him, the said E. P., in and upon the right side of the head of him, the said E. P., one mortal wound, which said mortal wound was of the length of four inches and of the breadth of two inches, of which said mortal wound the said E. P. from said 16th of January, 1904, the year aforesaid, in the county aforesaid, until the 18th day of January, in the year aforesaid, in the county aforesaid, did languish and, languishing, did live, on which said 18th day of January, in the year aforesaid, the said E. P., in the county and state aforesaid, of the mortal wound aforesaid, died; and so L. L. C., prosecuting attorney, upon his official oath as aforesaid, doth say that the said G. W. and C. W., him the said E. P., in the manner and by the means aforesaid, wilfully, unlawfully, feloniously, premeditatedly, on purpose, and of malice aforethought, did kill and murder, against the peace and dignity of the state.

To Judge DeCourcy's mind, if there were no other objection to this meaningless verbiage and circumlocution than that it is an insult to the English language, it ought to be abolished. But the objections, he urged, are far more serious. Informalities in the form of such absurd indictments, and variances between their allegations and the proof offered, result daily in liberating men who are guilty of the most grave crimes. In the case cited, although the jury found the accused guilty of murder on evidence fully proving the case, the Supreme Court set aside the verdict on the ground that the indictment did not clearly show whether the mortal wound was inflicted with the club! And the same court, in a recent case [State vs. Campbell, 210 Mo., 202] set aside a verdict in a rape case because the indictment recited "against the peace and dignity of state," omitting the word "the"! In Alabama a conviction for stealing hides was recently set aside because the indictment failed to state whether they were mule, cow, goat, or sheep hides (State vs. West). Indict-

ments were dismissed because father was spelled "farther" (in South Carolina); because the letter "i" was omitted in spelling malice (in Alabama); and where the indictment spelled "brest" (in North Carolina). Texas furnishes a large collection of cases that suggest the ancient doctrine of Hale's Pleas of the Crown, "Murervit instead of murdravit vitiates an indictment for murder."

Whatever justification there was for such technical pleading in the days of the savage penal laws of the long ago, there is absolutely none, held Judge de Courcy, for their survival in the twentieth century. Public opinion, acting upon legislatures and courts, has already secured the reform of simplified pleading in England, in the federal courts, and in the more progressive state courts. To-day, he urged, public opinion must be directed to obtain like improvement in legally backward states, where exaggerated adherence to mere form and consequent sacrifice of substantial justice are giving to our country as a whole a reputation for lawlessness.

Setting forth that the need for reform is equally glaring in other branches of procedure—selection of juries, reversals based on errors not affecting the merits, the granting of new trials, etc.—Judge De Courcy finally gave as the belief of the committee

that the time has come for seriously considering a modification of the unrestricted constitutional guaranty against incriminating testimony by one accused of crime—a rule enacted when a defendant was not allowed to be a witness in his own behalf. These constitutional immunities are invoked to-day in favor of crimes involving complicated corporate and financial transactions, with the result that in the popular opinion the machinery of justice has broken down. In all criminal cases power should be given to a committing magistrate to examine a defendant and demand an explanation of the circumstances which have created suspicion against him; and his failure to explain or to take the witness stand should be made a legitimate subject of comment by the state's attorney in his argument to the jury.

THE NEED FOR ADEQUATE PENOLOGICAL STATISTICS

Imprisonment, or release on probation, the two forms of treatment which in the practice of several American states are equally open to the state once the

ordeal of criminal procedure is over and the offender convicted, were taken up from many angles. Prof. Franklin H. Briggs, superintendent of the State Agricultural School at Industry, N. Y., and chairman of the Committee on Prevention and Probation, declared that prevention transcends probation just as prophylaxis transcends medication. The construction of prisons, recreation, religion and disease in prisons, payments to families of prisoners, discipline, the prison physician, pardons—these and other factors received discussion. The action taken by the association at the instigation of Kate Barnard, commissioner of charities of Oklahoma, in creating a committee to go into the subject of prison labor was, as pointed out in THE SURVEY for last week, the most dramatic event of the Omaha meeting. Bearing upon all these phases of work and accumulating experience was the need brought out for more adequate penological statistics. Hastily reviewing the almost farcical want of such statistics in this country—a want which struck sharply the foreign delegates to the International Prison Congress a year ago—and attributing this lack in the United States in part to that division of governmental powers which places the treatment of crime in the hands of the separate states, Eugene Smith, president of the Prison Association of New York, and chairman of the special Committee on Statistics of Crime, outlined the value of criminal statistics.

It is a matter of supreme importance to know whether, and how far, the tenderness of the modern law toward children serves to rescue them from a life of crime—to know whether the clemency of the law toward adults by suspension of sentence and probation promotes their rehabilitation, and to know to what class of offenders this clemency may properly be extended. These vital questions can receive final answer only by following the subsequent career of the offenders to whom these methods are applied and thus gaining data for statistical tabulation.

There should be established in each state a permanent board or bureau of criminal statistics, as an independent body or as a department of the office of the attorney general or secretary of state. This bureau should prescribe the forms in which the records of all criminal courts, police boards, and prisons shall be kept and should specify the items regarding which entries shall be made. The forms pre-

scribed by it should be uniform as to all institutions of the same class to which they respectively apply. The bureau should issue general instructions governing the collection and verification of the facts to be stated in the record; it should also inspect and supervise the records and enforce compliance with its requirements. Such a bureau might secure a collection of reliable statistical matter, uniform in quality throughout the state. Indiana is now, it is believed, the only state in the Union where such a bureau exists.

But even this result is not enough. Records uniform for each state only would not be available for comparison or for the purposes of a national census. It is not chimerical to believe that through the dominating influence of the Federal Census Bureau tactfully exerted on such state bureaus, a uniform system of statistical records relating to crime could ultimately be established throughout the United States.

AMERICAN REFORMS DEMANDED BY WORLD-WIDE STANDARDS

Prof. Charles R. Henderson of Chicago, the American member of the International Prison Commission, reviewed the resolutions passed a year ago at the quinquennial meeting of the International Prison Congress in Washington. He summarized as follows some of the urgent demands which the discussion at Washington has forced anew upon public attention in the United States:

1. The supreme purpose of prisons and preventive measures is to protect and promote social welfare, including, so far as possible, the real interest of the offender.

2. The treatment of the convict must be more thorough, prolonged, and determined than it has been, or can be, under the system of fixed sentences.

3. The administration of the treatment must never be arbitrary nor in contradiction to the modern constitutional division of responsibility between the legislature, courts, and administration.

4. A state central board, with judicial powers somewhat analogous to those of juvenile courts, should be invested with the authority to administer the parole system. It should be constituted in accordance with the principles approved by the International Prison Congress at Washington.

5. The different methods of dealing with youth, morally enfeebled and perverted adults, improvable younger offenders, and habitual or dangerous criminals should be given a permanent legal basis; and state institutions should be provided for affording treatment adapted to the character of each group, with large opportunity for individual treatment.

6. That such treatment may be guided by thorough knowledge of the character of the offenders, persons of training should be employed by the state to assist the administration in the observation and study of the life histories of convicts; and a scientific record should be kept of the conduct of paroled persons to show the actual results secured.

7. The parole system should be made effective by provision for an adequate number of competent and trained parole officers.

8. The probation system should be developed and administered so as to avoid, as far as possible, prison treatment for non-criminal offenders.

9. All institutions for dealing with offenders, and especially county jails, should be brought under central state control. Jails should become places solely for detention awaiting trials, and all persons convicted of crime should be transferred at once to state institutions established in convenient districts in large states.

10. State and municipal organization of agencies should afford protection and watch-care for unmarried mothers, illegitimate infants, and all children in moral peril. (Resolutions of fourth section of the Washington Congress.)

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR REPUBLICS

To unify and give greater effectiveness to the junior republic movement, and to aid existing republics in their work, the National Association of Junior Republics has effected a permanent organization by incorporating under the laws of New York. Semi-annual meetings will be held, one in the spring at Freeville, N. Y., the other in the fall at one of the other republics. A national Board of Directors composed of thirty persons was elected.

These things were done October 16 at Annapolis Junction, at a meeting attended by delegates from the George Junior Republic, Freeville, N. Y.; the Litchfield Republic, Litchfield, Conn.; the National Republic, Annapolis Junction; the New Jersey Republic, Flemington, N. J.; the California Republic; the Carter Republic, Readington, Pa.; and the George Junior Republic, Grove City, Pa.

It was on July 10, 1895, that William R. George, originator of the movement, got off the train at Freeville, N. Y. with a band of over 100 boys and girls brought from the eastside of Manhattan. He had hoped to begin his experiment of

reforming wayward youths by life in a miniature republic patterned after the United States of America on the Fourth, but delay was experienced in starting.

From an object of jest and incredulity among many penologists, the junior republic idea—being in essence the application of self-government to the problem of reform and development—has thus in sixteen years grown to the proportions of a nationally organized and accepted movement. It has even spread to England, where the announcement was recently made that the money, the land, and the superintendent for a junior republic there had been secured.

The visitor to one of these republics, knowing that life there is ordered, industrially, economically, politically, by the boys and girls just as adult citizens make up and carry on the larger republic, is surprised to learn that the highest ambition of a citizen is not to become president but to be judge of the Citizens' Court. He learns that not only are there all the other usual offices—president, secretary of state, of the treasury, etc.—but that there is a town meeting, a jail, a court house, and he sees in operation a complete system of court procedure, running through affidavits, search warrants, warrants for arrest, bail bonds, and all the other papers that delight the juvenile pleader. He sees shops in which industry thrives; he makes purchases with the exclusive coin of the realm, and he sees sanitary conditions and standards of weights and measures with the stamp of boyhood sanction upon them.

THE BREWERS AT CHICAGO

The ability and ingenuity shown in successive issues of the Brewers' Year Book warranted the expectation that the second International Brewers' Congress and Brewery Exposition would display the same qualities. This promise was amply lived up to in the remarkable exhibits which filled all the space in the great Coliseum in Chicago. The most significant of them, from the public point of view, were the effective devices, processes, and machinery for filtering and purifying beverages, and for cleansing

and sterilizing the bottles and kegs in which they are transported. The supply of clear and clean beer thus made possible seems to have put the product of unsanitary breweries out of the market. The manufacture of "cloudy" beer is said to have been rendered unprofitable. It was pointed out that imported beer, containing so little alcohol as to require acid preservatives, cannot compete with the home product which is thus more carefully manufactured. Those who are contending for pure milk points to these results to show both the possibility and practicability of making the production of pure milk also profitable, under uniform legal regulations.

The proceedings of the brewers' congress consisted in large part of discussions which were of more interest to the constituent trades than to the public, although some of them appealed to scientific interests with an ingenuity which savored of special pleading. On the whole, however, social workers in attendance felt that it was a dignified and impressive display of a vast industry which did not ignore the social and moral evils involved in it and even openly faced the demands for their correction by the trade itself. A resolution submitted by the section of the congress devoted to sociology and physiology, and adopted by a unanimous vote, declared: "That public drinking places which are the haunts of vice are dangerous and should be eliminated."

In urging its passage the president of the Houston Brewing Company of Texas said it simply told a truth of which they were all aware. "There can be no doubt," he remarked, "that the sale of beer or any other liquor in resorts and dives should be stopped." He claimed that the brewers in Texas are gaining their fight against total prohibition because they have severed their connections with such resorts. Then he asked with even greater frankness:

What is the use of adopting resolutions condemning the sale of our products in these resorts, when it is well known that most of them in the large cities are in some way owned or controlled by the brewers? If the brewer does not own the license, he owns the

building, or is in some other way responsible for the place.

The speaker warned his associates that public sentiment has reached the place where this thing will not be tolerated. Some of you think that the fight against the prohibition wave has been won. This is no wave, I tell you, and the fight has just begun. The owning of these places and the protection of them by the brewing interests is the thing which gives us the black eye. The anti-liquor forces take this fact and make capital of it, as they justly should. The hope of the brewing interests is to be found in the elevating of the saloons. This cannot be done by resolutions, but must be done by the brewer severing his connection with places of ill repute.

The facts upon which this remarkable speech was based were gathered by the speaker himself in the large cities of the United States. It was heard in silence and was followed immediately by a unanimous vote for the resolution quoted above.

Among other minutes adopted were the following:

Resolved, that the characters of persons licensed to conduct a retail liquor business should be subjected to careful scrutiny, and only those whose records are clean and above reproach should be permitted to engage in this business.

Still more contrary, in the minds of those who have studied the activities of the liquor interests from the outside, to the actual attitude of the brewers and the whole trade in the political arena is the following resolution concerning the legal control and restriction of the traffic:

That any urban community, large or small, should have the right, properly controlled by the state, to limit the number, or by a vote of a really substantial majority of its citizens to prohibit entirely, the establishment of public drinking places in its midst; provided, however, that where public drinking places have been already established their owners shall be compensated for the loss entailed upon them by such limitation or prohibition.

UNITARIANS ADOPT AN ADVANCED PLATFORM

The National Conference of Unitarian Churches, in session last week at Washington, D. C., adopted resolutions which the militant leaders in the conference feel take a position in advance of the declarations put forward by any other religious body. The resolutions

were prepared and introduced by the Unitarian Fellowship for Social Justice, and adopted unanimously. They follow:

The National Conference of Unitarian and Other Christian Churches stands and believes that the individual churches must stand and work:

For equal rights and complete justice for all men in all stations of life.

For the right of all men to self-maintenance, a right ever to be wisely safeguarded against encroachments of every kind.

For the right of the workers to some protection against the hardships resulting from swift industrial changes.

For the principles of conciliation and arbitration in industrial dissensions and the full consideration of the rights of the public at times of disagreement or industrial warfare.

For the protection of the workers from dangerous machinery, occupational disease, and mining disasters.

For the abolition of child labor and the protection of children from exploitation in industry and from work that is degrading, dwarfing, and morally unwholesome.

For such regulation of the conditions of toil and hours of labor for women as shall safeguard the physical and moral health of the community.

For the suppression of the "sweating system."

For the gradual and reasonable reduction of the hours of labor to the lowest practicable point, and for that degree of leisure for all which is a condition of the highest human life. For a release from employment one day in seven and a wage based not on a seven-day week but on a six-day week.

For a living wage as a minimum in every industry, and for the highest wage that each industry can afford.

For the most equitable division of the products of industry that can ultimately be devised.

For suitable provision for the old age of workers and for those incapacitated by injury in industry.

For the control of the natural resources of the earth in the interests of all the people.

For the gaining of wealth according to the highest ethical standards and the holding of wealth as a social trust.

For the discouragement of the immoderate desire of wealth; and the exaltation of man as the end and standard of industrial activity.

For the abolition of poverty.

For proper housing; for the proper care of dependents and criminals; for pure food and drugs; for wholesome recreation; and for international peace.

For such safeguarding and extension of the institutions of democratic government as will permit and insure the maintenance of the rights of all against encroachment from the special interests of the few.

SPECIALISTS ON SEX HYGIENE AND HABITS

The first quarterly meeting for the season 1911-12 of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis was held in October in conjunction with the New York Association of Biology Teachers. The subject under discussion was the teaching of sex in school and college. G. Stanley Hall, president of Clark University, whose treatise on adolescence was epoch-making in the field of child study, read the opening paper. He described this age as a veritable renaissance in respect to the subject of sex, the almost universal recognition that the subject ought to be taught to the young being based on a better knowledge than ever before of sex psychology, of the prevalence of sex error, and of the extent of sexual diseases. He urged that the teaching of sex hygiene should begin at the earliest possible moment, as keeping a child between six and twelve years of age in ignorance often leads either to sexual perversion or to sex shock. Children of this age are alert on the subject and much can be done by judicious suggestions. That the tactless teacher is worse than no teacher at all was the common agreement of Dr. Hall and many of the other speakers, but they were of the opinion that to leave all such teaching till the high school was reached was to leave it till too late. In secondary as well as in high schools bad sex habits are widely prevalent, frequently without the knowledge of the teachers. This fact was further brought out by the Rev. Josiah Strong, in his report of an investigation of schools carried on by the American Institute of Social Service.

In the high school, Dr. Hall held, teaching should be systematic and should be related to biology, supplemented by psychology, physiology, and special teaching on sex diseases. Probably the greater part of this teaching should be given through leaflets. Dr. Hall urged, as one of the first steps in this movement to safeguard youth, the formation of a committee of experts on the subject, drawn from physicians, social workers, and representatives of the churches, to bring about the publication of literature

suitable for school use. The discussion of this point was fresh evidence of the opportuneness of the organization of the American Federation for Sex Hygiene announced in *THE SURVEY* last month. The need for such literature was illustrated later in the discussion by the statement of Benjamin Gruenberg of the Commercial High School, Brooklyn, that the high schools are flooded with leaflets by quacks, filled with misinformation, and designed to terrify young men into thinking they are diseased and into buying patent medicines.

The third stage of sex teaching should be, Dr. Hall believed, in the college, and this is, in his opinion, the hardest of the three, because of the "know-it-all" attitude of the college student. The percentage of college students having venereal disease, he said, is very high. In no single respect do colleges differ from each other so greatly as in the question of sex morality, some being high, some very low in the scale, and this, as in the lower schools—often without the knowledge of their faculties. The center of college teaching on questions of sex should be the biology course, but this by itself is not enough. Healthful athletics should be used to develop the normally puny body of the college student and to give him physical stimuli other than sex instinct. But the most important part of the teaching of college boys should be to fill their minds with ambition to do good work, as the attitude that considers the bare passing mark the mark for a "gentleman" is a signal of precocious senescence, which is, in most cases, accompanied by sexual perversion. Social, even more than religious, interests—because the former especially imply a sense of responsibility for the condition of fellow men—and the development of conscience, in contradistinction to the old threadbare idea of "honor," should be the final influences that should develop sex responsibility in the college student.

In the discussion that followed Dr. Hall's address Dr. Gruenberg dwelt on this developing of the sense of honor as the essential element in sex education. He alone among the speakers said that a most important, perhaps the chief, ap-

peal to this honor should be made by arousing horror and pity for the condition of the prostitute.

Prof. W. A. Bigelow of Teachers' College, Abbie Sage of the Washington Irving High School, Frederick Holtz, president of the New York Association of Biology Teachers, and J. E. Peabody told of their practical experience in teaching sex hygiene to young students through biology. Dr. Ira Wile narrated his experience in teaching mothers, whose education in the matter is, he held, the prime essential, because after all infinitely more can be done for the child's education in the home than in the school.

SEATTLE AND THE NORTHWEST

With true western disregard for distances, delegates from four states assembled in Seattle October 17-21, as the first Northwestern Conference of Charities and Correction. And with characteristic western disregard of new wine for old bottles, they did at the very outset what insurgent members of various eastern city, state, and national organizations have talked about, but never accomplished—changed the name of their organization. It is now the Social Service Conference of the Pacific Northwest. This conference will cover Idaho, Montana, Oregon, Washington, and the Province of British Columbia. Each of these sections will have its own district secretary. The spirit of prevention and up-and-doingness with which these new commonwealths, some of which have been leaders in the radical political reforms of the day, are being urged to address themselves to the range of social problems now first attracting organized attention in their towns and cities, was shown at the outset of the conference, for the three topics discussed at the opening meeting were

Provision for the Social Future.

Forestalling the Slums.

Forestalling Criminals and Degenerates.

How serious a responsibility for social statesmanship rests upon the leaders in this group of states is interpreted on another page by Francis H. McLean,

secretary of the National Association for Organizing Charity, who is on a tour of the Pacific states as his first field work under that new propagandist body.

Conference week was made the occasion for the annual meeting of the Seattle Charity Organization Society, which in its annual report brought out the immediate conditions which the philanthropic agencies of the city are facing. One problem characteristic of the growing western city is that of homeless men. Chicago, St. Louis, Omaha, Denver—each have known it in acute forms. The vagrancy problem, the natural outgrowth of this shifting body of men seeking work and opportunity, is growing in Seattle.

A variety of causes, says the report, have fed this growth: the city's position as a sea-port; its proximity to Alaska; the annual closing down of the logging camps; the shutting of the lumber mills; the return of men from railroad construction camps. A "homeless-man committee" has been formed by the society and progress has been made toward securing a municipal lodging house, co-operation by the city council with other city and state governments to secure uniform city and state vagrancy laws, and the establishment of a state farm colony. The number of applications for help handled annually by the Seattle society has grown in five years from 469 to 2220. In earlier years homeless men constituted a fourth of these; the past year nearly three-fourths, or 1616, were homeless men. Eighty-six of these applied on the day of their arrival in the city. Of the 1011 who were recorded, only 189 had lived in Seattle over six months. In former years the majority of male applicants were sick, crippled, old. Today the able-bodied man predominates. Of 820 applicants whose age and physical condition were recorded last year, 525 were sound in body and 698 were under thirty-five years of age. Eighty-eight were between fifteen and twenty, and 265 between twenty and twenty-five. The United States was given as fatherland by 503, England by 111, Germany by sixty-six, Canada by forty-five, Scotland by forty-three, Sweden by forty, and Ireland by fifteen.

FLORIDA'S FIRST STATE CONFERENCE

Up from the South comes new evidence of strengthening interest in social movements,—Florida will hold her first State Conference of Charities and Correction in Jacksonville, November 16-19. Thus one more is added to the growing list of southern states whose social workers gather annually in conference; yet the number of those who have no such meetings is still large. Of nineteen states which held state conferences in 1900, four were southern—Delaware, Maryland, Missouri, and Virginia; the conferences of the last two were new in that year. Maryland revived her conference in 1907 after seven years of inactivity. Alabama held her first conference in 1909. Kentucky has a conference, and Texas held her first state meeting last spring. South Carolina will hold a conference this year at Columbia, November 23-24.

Clippings from newspapers throughout Florida indicate the efforts making to enlist public interest. Marcus C. Fagg, state superintendent of the Children's Home Society, is chairman of the executive committee, and V. R. Manning, general secretary of the Associated Charities of Jacksonville, is secretary. The issues to be discussed are live ones in the south. One is the drafting of a child labor bill and the appointment of a steering committee to see it through the next legislature. State provision for mental and physical defectives is another.

The Maryland conference at Baltimore, November 27-29, will be held in three sections: health and sanitation, state, county, and municipal work; children, families, and neighborhoods.

WISCONSIN CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES REVIVED

Not a first conference, but the first conference in seventeen years, brought the social workers of Wisconsin together last month in Milwaukee. The last meeting of the State Conference of Charities and Correction had been in 1894; for while the body lapsed, Wisconsin had been among the first states to organize such a gathering, and one of the leaders of the older generation, the late Andrew E. Elmore, was, to use Dr.

Wines's phrase, the "father" of the present national body of the same name. The movement for such another mustering of the social forces of the state was crystallized by the Institute of Municipal and Social Service held in Milwaukee last year.

There was conscious effort to confine the three day's program to subjects requiring immediate attention in Wisconsin. Thus the treatment of law-breakers occupied large attention. Orlando F. Lewis, secretary of the Prison Association of New York, recommended the establishment of a farm colony for tramps and vagrants, and the formation of a prison association to inspect correctional institutions, visit prisoners, reinforce the hands of progressive prison officials, and aid discharged prisoners. The need for a larger force of efficient parole officers was put by G. W. Bowron, superintendent of Green Bay State Reformatory.

That Wisconsin has no place for women offenders except county jails, houses of correction, and the state prison was pointed out by Katherine L. Van Wyck, general secretary of the Central Council of Philanthropies of Milwaukee. There is one industrial school for girls under eighteen. Many of the more than 1,000 girls who have been arrested in the state since January 1, 1911, were allowed to go free, said Mrs. Van Wyck, because of the inadequacy of reformative agencies.

Similarly there was discussion of the needs of the state in respect to its institutions for defectives. At two joint sessions with the Wisconsin Anti-Tuberculosis Association the same general point of view: What are the needs of the state today?—came to the front.

RIISING MORAL TONE OF LABOR BODIES

Reporting, from within, the recent convention of the Illinois State Federation of Labor, a keen observer and critical friend of trade unionism, himself a loyal unionist, publicly affirms:

What appeared to me to be the most significant thing was the decided improvement in the moral tone of the convention.

He admits that

There are a few who will sneer at this

statement, but the number is much smaller than it would have been ten years ago had a similar statement been made then. . . . Extremely sensitive men may still feel hurt by the plain, bald statement of fact that as the labor movement in America is growing in numbers it is also growing in decency and respect for itself.

But as he thinks no progress is made by concealing the truth or drawing the veil over unsightly spots, he proceeds to make confessions which compliment the present at the expense of the past. Not long ago, he makes bold to affirm,

delegates attended these conventions to have a good time, or, what was equally bad, to play cheap partisan politics. Resentment and reaction followed disgraceful scenes which resulted after one of the conventions a few years ago adjourned to visit a brewery. A change in the rules was then made doing away with all entertainments during the business hours. One reason for the low level of previous conventions is alleged to have been the seating of petty appointive office-holders as delegates to such an extent that the real representatives of labor were conspicuous by their absence. At the last convention not a single political appointee of that kind was seated. When the business dragged, as it inevitably does in such a large and varying body of men, delegates from the floor vigorously protested that "the men at home have too little money to keep their representatives here unless they are on the job every minute that the convention is in session."

A visitor from a great fraternity convention which was in session at the same time and place was so impressed with the dignity and ability with which the business and discussions were conducted that he drew the somewhat invidious comparison, "This is a real convention, compared with the kindergarten play which we are conducting."

The demands for remedial legislation made by the Illinois federation at this convention were more radical and insistent than ever. They aimed indeed at two somewhat distant ends, but recognized this fact in avowedly starting long campaigns of agitation and education. One is directed toward securing uniformity of legislation by getting the labor federations of the middle western states to agree upon uniform demands. The other is to unite them in an effort to enact a minimum wage law. The resolution with which the convention went on rec-

ord for the first time in declaring this policy was based upon the facts and figures cited in the report of the Chicago Vice Commission to prove that low wages paid to women workers is a prolific source of vice and prostitution.

Radical as were these recommendations along constructive lines, the tone of the convention was conservative with respect to certain beligerent proposals. Attacks upon the new Illinois compensation act were met by a discussion of the law which suggested the need for studying the subject further before demanding additional legislation. A resolution advising the call of a general strike of all the employes on the Illinois Central Railway to support the striking shopmen was unfavorably reported by the business committee, and a substitute motion was passed by an overwhelming majority to the effect that the convention could only extend such moral and financial support to the men now on strike as the constitution of the federation allowed.

CHARITIES CENTER FOR PHILADELPHIA

The managers of seven social service agencies in Philadelphia have given substantial evidence of their belief in close cooperation as against commodious offices by moving into rather crowded quarters in order to be together. No United Charities building has yet been given them, but the power of an idea has led the Society for Organizing Charity, the Children's Aid Society, the Seybert Institution for Children, and the Children's Bureau to move into quarters immediately adjoining the home of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children—on South Fifteenth street—to cut communicating doors through four adjoining dwellings, to establish a reception office in common, and to provide quarters also for the Training School for Social Work and for the registration bureau which indexes the work of social agencies.

With this demonstration of team play before the public, the movement for a charities office building, with ample conveniences and space for many more agencies, is likely to gain new impetus.

EDITORIAL GRIST

RED STAINS ON TWO STATE SEALS

OWEN R. LOVEJOY

Two children—only a few years out of babyhood—are dead because the child labor laws of the two American states where they were killed are criminally weak and inadequate.

One was a boy, the other a girl. The boy was killed four years ago, at Rocky Mount, N. C.; but the Supreme Court of the state has just decided by a vote of three to two how it happened. This child, eleven years old, was employed by the Atlantic Coast Line Railroad as messenger for the train dispatcher, and his duty compelled him frequently to cross the yards occupied by about twenty railroad tracks. On Sunday morning, April 28, he was found dead on one of the tracks, with his leg cut off. No one was present to witness the tragedy, and no word ever came from the lips of the child to complain against his lot.

The family sued the company for damages, but the company contended that there was no evidence of their negligence, and that even if the employment of the child was evidence of negligence, there was no evidence that he was on duty at the time of his death.

In the lower court the case was dismissed by the judge, and it was appealed by the family to the supreme court. In the opinion of the majority of the supreme court it is stated that although the law of North Carolina forbids the employment of any child under twelve years of age "in any factory or manufacturing establishment" the railroad company was neither a factory nor a manufacturing establishment; that the question as to whether there was any violation of the child labor law was not pertinent to the case; and that the recovery of damages could not be permitted, as the court was not at liberty to

include employments not within the letter or spirit of the law!

The learned judges evidently felt the pressure of their human interest, for they state that "we may have pity and be inclined to heed the sob of the child in its helplessness, but we must support the law as we understand it." The court points to the fact that no witness swore that the child was killed on the day mentioned, although this was evidently the case; that no witness swore that a train killed the child, although they accepted that as proven; that no witness appeared to show that the child was on duty for the defendant at the time of his death.

Doubtless this is good law so long as legal precedents stand higher than the common knowledge of mankind in the opinion of judges; but we are encouraged to believe that as the sense of social responsibility develops, an increasing number of these eminent interpreters of the law will voice the principles expressed by Chief Justice Walter Clark of North Carolina, who with Justice Hoke vigorously dissented from the quibbles of the bench in this case. Said he in part:

The intestate was a child, small for his age, which was less than twelve years, and had not taken off knee pants. He was employed at South Rocky Mount to carry messages across a yard filled with eighteen or twenty tracks, with engines and trains moving backwards and forwards every few minutes. Such duty would have taxed the discretion and judgment of a much maturer person. The defendant did not attempt to show that he had given the child any caution or instructions whatever.

The Chief Justice acknowledges that there was no eye-witness to prove that the child was killed by a passing train, but says:

The little child being found dead with his leg cut off among constantly shifting trains creates as strong a presumption that his leg was cut off by one of these trains as when a soldier is found dead on a battlefield with a bullet through his head, that he was killed by the enemy.

To the contention of the railroad company that no evidence was adduced to prove that the boy was on duty, Justice Clark replies that the very nature of his work as an assistant to a train dispatcher

is conclusive that it was carried on every day. There is no evidence whatever that these messages were not required to be sent on Sunday as well as on other days.

He continued:

If for any reason he was not at work at that spot on that day it was the duty of the defense to show it, and it could readily have done so, if such was the fact. It did not attempt to make such proof.....

By the avarice of the defendant [the little sufferer] was sent to his death by exposure to an accumulation of perils greater to him in his unguarded and unwarned innocence than that which met the charging column of brave men on Cemetery Ridge. Many soldiers lived through the war. The child was killed on the fourth day of his service.

Without presuming to judge between these learned jurists, we venture that many American citizens will heartily thank Chief Justice Clark for uttering from the supreme bench of North Carolina the same principles in the same striking manner in which any fair-minded citizen would unofficially utter them in the same circumstances.

The second case is that of a little girl, Martha Frazier, who died last week in Utica, Miss. This has not yet come before the courts and perhaps will not. We understand that she was employed by her own parents as a lion tamer in a travelling circus. She was twelve years of age, and had attained some distinction in her ability to put lions and other wild animals through their interesting exhibition. On Saturday, October 21, as the performance was closing, she attempted to make the largest male lion roll on his back and put his feet together. She gave the signal, but the lion did not respond. She prodded him with a stick, whereupon the beast sprang directly upon her, and tore her body until he was shot dead by an employe and "a big Mississippi farmer." Pleading that she might return to her work "before the other lions get bad," she was taken by her father to the sanitarium in Jackson, Miss., where she died the following day.

The little girl loved her work, as the little railroad messenger loved his. Their very dangers appealed to the childish mind. But the stain of murder cannot

be effaced from the seals of North Carolina and Mississippi except by speedy and comprehensive legislation which shall close the doors of such "industrial opportunity" against these little ones. In the case of Martha Frazier, the stain of blood reaches farther than the bounds of Mississippi, and brings further evidence of our thrifty American enterprise which delights in conducting an interstate commerce in children. For the home of Martha Frazier was in Pennsylvania. It was only by chance that her blood was spilled in Mississippi and not in her native state, for there also work on the vaudeville stage, or in a menagerie, or in a large number of other occupations with the consent of the parents is beyond the scope of the child labor law. The little body of Martha Frazier might have been thrown to the lions in Pennsylvania as well as in Mississippi, without the violation of any law.

OPPORTUNITY AND THE NORTHWEST

FRANCIS H. McLEAN

General Secretary National Association of Societies for Organizing Charity

TO THE GREAT PACIFIC NORTHWEST:—The opportunity is here to put your house in order, and to forestall as far as possible the added social problems which will come with the opening of the Panama canal.

—Such was the great message which the Northwestern Conference of Charities and Correction, held in Seattle, October 19-21, gave to the states of Oregon, Washington, Idaho, Montana, and to British Columbia. The idea of a sectional conference in place of state conferences was first suggested by L. H. Wier, field secretary of the Playground and Recreation Association of America. It seemed worth trying. And while the publicity campaign was necessarily small, on account of the limited time allowed for preparation, there was quite a fair representation, though not a large one, from the states mentioned and from British Columbia. At the conclusion of the conference it was decided to name the

organization the Social Service Conference of the Pacific Northwest, and to meet next year.

The timeliness of the message was emphasized again and again. When the Panama canal is opened in 1915, this great northwest will begin to receive steamer-loads of immigrants direct from European ports. Upon the industrial side, men in every business are already figuring just what the stupendous results are going to be in their particular fields. It means a tremendous increase in manufacturing, and increasing markets in the orient and along the Atlantic coast. In fact, the forthcoming transformation of the whole coast may not be otherwise described than as signifying complete revolution, industrially and socially.

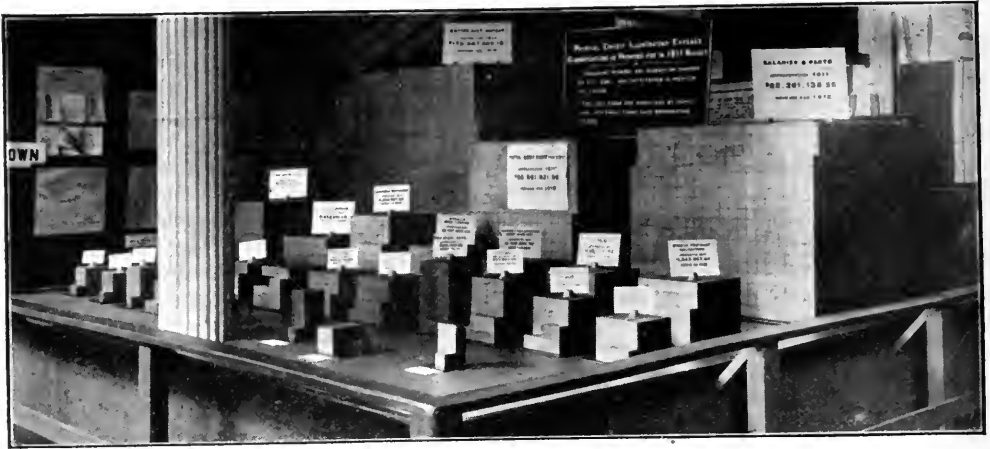
On the other hand, the Pacific Northwest is not doing the social tasks it has on hand now. There have been some pretty good developments here and there in recreation, in work for children, in conserving public health, in the field of child labor; but taking the sum total of this there is no doubt that from the care of the neglected family in its home to every single one of the so-called preventive fields, and through to the institutional care and the advanced treatment of types of deficiency, the great tasks are still ahead. If the Panama canal were opened to-morrow, the problems of these sturdy north-western cities, in their glorious environment, would in a few years resemble those of the most neglected Atlantic seaboard cities. There are notable exceptions, of course; but taking the section in the large, this is true. Even when good and conscientious work is being done it is not being adequately supported.

During the conference it was the writer's privilege, with others, to confer with over a hundred business men of Seattle, at a lunch at the Rainier Club, and to learn just how the appeal would be received to add to their great civic plans, which are the marvel of other cities, the gravely important social work. The acceptance was hearty and spontaneous, and it opens up a most promis-

ing development; for the north-western conference feels that Seattle is the strategic point. Why? Because it is the largest city. Also because, while its citizens are cleaning house, they want the very best advice and counsel, and in order to get the most of it and get it in time, they are already girding on their armor to bring the National Conference of Charities and Correction to Seattle in 1913, two years before the opening of the canal. But those who are now interested require the support of the business men of Seattle as a whole in advance of the conference; and with the right kind of leadership during the next two years the interest already aroused should be fanned into the flame of conviction.

It would seem as if this were the great opportunity of a generation, with all the hindsight of other cities now available for the Northwest. Recognizing no universal panaceas, carrying out a program of strengthening the curative agencies and giving them and other agencies the opportunity to work together in the preparation of community programs, diminishing the unfortunate excess of individualism in the social field by definitely working through associative bodies such as central councils—these are the general principles upon which the Pacific Northwest will come to the social workers of the whole country for their very best thought in the development of a practical scheme of action before the canal opens. It would seem as if the desire of Seattle to have the national conference were based upon the possibilities of a great opportunity.

A visit paid later to Portland, Ore., as the guest of the Associated Charities and other organizations, revealed again a slowly dawning desire to be thorough, to be comprehensive, to forestall, to work together through a federated body, and a deeply stirring enmity against the individualism in the social field which has permitted everyone to do as he pleased. In other words, the Pacific Northwest is slowly awakening to its opportunities, which are greater than have ever been afforded any other part of the country within a score of years.



TAKING ACCOUNT OF STOCK.

These cubes, displayed at the Budget Exhibit, showed what New York paid for different services.

NEARING THE \$200,000 CITY

JAMES P. HEATON

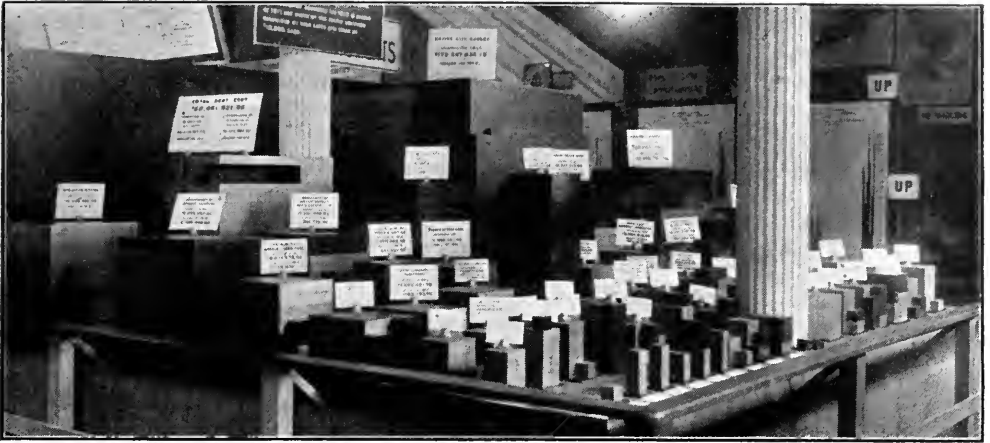
New York faces with some apprehension an increase of about twelve cents on the hundred in the tax rate for 1912. After weeks of consideration the Board of Estimate and Apportionment has passed the appropriations for next year and the throes of the annual budget campaign are nearly over. The sum mounts up to \$189,210,950.33, which means a tax rate of about \$1.85 per \$100 on property assessed at perhaps 90 per cent of its marketable value.

The aldermen, subject to the veto of the mayor, can reduce the budget, but they cannot increase appropriations, and with one exception probably no change will be made. That change will not be in the interest of economy or effective public service, but against it. The city fathers in 1910 voted down using \$135,000 for investigating the departments of Education, Health, and Charities. The majority leader of the board has already given out that the aldermen this year will cut out a similar item of \$200,000 to pay the expenses of the committee of the Board of Estimate now investigating the Board of Education, the Department of Charities, and the standardization of grades and salaries in all branches of the city service. The mayor

has expressly reserved the right to act in accordance with his best judgment in case the Board of Aldermen makes any reductions. Last year he did not veto the cuts of the aldermen.

That the city government plays the most important part in plans for social betterment may be little imagined by most people, but it is increasingly recognized by organizations interested in special phases of social work, which are constantly urging the city to assume new obligations. So long as there are unsupervised cases of tuberculosis in the tenements; dark, windowless, interior bedrooms; sick and helpless patients in city institutions who are subjected to the mercies of incompetent employes; babies needlessly sacrificed through lack of proper care: so long social workers cannot watch with equanimity the passing of a budget which does not amply meet the requirements for a successful fight against these ancient evils. Even on economic grounds the human waste transcends the outlay demanded of the tax-payers to control it.

Last year nation-wide attention was attracted by the administration (and by that is meant the controlling group in the semi-executive, semi-legislative Board of Estimate and Apportionment) when it inaugurated in the municipal budget exhibit a policy of refreshing official frankness regarding expenditures. Profiting by its experience,



WHAT TAXES GO FOR.

The cubes in this picture represented the different departmental appropriations for 1910.

the administration did not this year attempt the impossible. That the budget was bound to grow, unless the growing needs of the departments were disregarded, was recognized; but the increase of nearly \$15,250,000, under which the city winces, as against an increase of approximately \$11,000,000 the year before, is not in large part due to this policy of constructive expansion on the part of the mayor and his colleagues, which on the whole has won approval. Rather more than \$8,000,000 of this increment represents what New York city is to pay as its share of the revived direct state tax and the cost of "equal pay" in the schools. At almost the last moment Governor Dix signed the measure for which women teachers have so long struggled; and undoubtedly it is this feature of the budget which will attract the most attention throughout the country. Another million of the increase is due to debt service, which now amounts to over \$51,750,000. For a second time \$10,000,000 has been set aside to make good accumulated deficiencies in taxes. Much of the remainder of the \$15,250,000 represents mandatory increases in salaries for policemen and firemen and for newly created officials.

Some of the causes which make the budget larger than it need be have been pointed out year after year. The issue of special revenue bonds is a question that needs more attention. Unforeseen

needs will always arise, but it is poor policy to set aside in the budget purely nominal sums for snow removal. The cost of this service cannot be foreseen, but it is at least possible to fix a sum below which it is unlikely to fall, so that special revenue bonds would have to be issued for the excess over this amount only. New York has continued also to lose money by borrowing to meet current bills, because taxes are collected nearly a year after the city spends them. Hereafter this will be partially corrected by the new law for semi-annual payment of taxes.

Although the budget exhibit was attended by about 1,000,000 people, the general interest in the budget itself was probably not as great as a year ago. Less than twenty-five citizens were present at the first of the two public hearings and at this meeting almost the only discussion directly on the budget itself was devoted to a protest by real estate interests against any increase for the Tenement House Department. At the second hearing, which was on the tentative budget, the interest was largely centered upon the plea made by citizens for seventy-one municipal infant milk stations. This was almost the only subject that received adequate attention in the newspapers, which did not at all conspicuously even announce the hearings. There is some excuse for the failure of citizens to attend. A number of im-

portant departmental estimates did not appear in the City Record until October 27, the very day set for the hearing on the tentative budget—only five days before the budget was to be adopted and actually after the date of the hearing on the departmental estimates. At the time this is written the newspapers have not yet printed a tabulated statement showing the appropriations made to each department, and some of the departments do not yet know exactly what has been finally allotted to them.

Aside from the provision for equal salaries for men and women teachers, the most important phase of the appropriation for the Department of Education is the fact that it was adopted largely in accordance with the advice of the committee investigating the school system. The schools received an increase of rather more than \$1,000,000 for purposes other than the equalization of salaries. To meet the increase in general enrollment and to reduce the size of classes provision is made for some 500 new teachers. Increased provision is made for ungraded classes and for special classes for anaemics, blind, deaf, and crippled children, and for vocational schools. There is, however, to be no increase in the work of the vacation school system.

The Department of Health, with an appropriation of nearly \$3,175,000, receives an increase of a little over \$340,000. A considerable part of this is for equipping and maintaining fifty-five municipal milk stations. The commissioner of health asked for seventy-three and it was demonstrated by studies showing the radius of influence of milk stations that at least seventy-one were needed to provide one within reasonable walking distance of all the mothers in the poorer districts. Since the budget was passed the city has assumed charge of twenty-two of the depots of the New York Milk Committee. With the fifteen it already had the municipality is now conducting thirty-seven stations. At the twenty-two fully equipped stations presented by the New York Milk Committee rent-free until January 1, there are now no nurses in charge. This lack must detract considerably from the ef-

fectiveness of the work, so that it is surprising that the Department of Health has not yet accepted the offer of the nurses who worked at these stations till November 1 to serve temporarily free of compensation till other arrangements can be made.

At the last moment, after the governor had signed the bill increasing the pay of women teachers, the board of estimate in an effort to keep total city expenses below \$190,000,000 cut the budget of the Department of Health by \$194,000. Among the branches of the work which suffered in consequence were the Department of Child Hygiene, the plans for the extension of the Otisville Sanatorium, and the plans for research work. Borough President McAneny in voting for the budget announced, that he did not approve of these reductions.

The Department of Charities received an increase so small that the plan urged for several years of raising the pay of all hospital helpers to a minimum of at least \$20 a month cannot be carried out. At present many receive but \$15 or even less, and during the past year the department has reduced the pay of many employes receiving less than \$20 a month. As illustration of the wasteful effect of such enforced economies in municipal service, it is to be noted that this department has hired, it is reported, 8,853 individuals to keep 1,150 places filled. The average man therefore served but two months. Often hospital helpers do the work of nurses and are paid, making due allowance for maintenance, \$300 a year less than street-sweepers! The beggarly pay of the lower grade of the hospital service has been a recognized disgrace to New York for years and a cause of neglect to its patients.

The Department of Corrections, Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, and Charitable Institutions received small increases. The Tenement House Department, charged though it is with the supervision of 103,000 tenements which house 3,500,000 people, has again been singled out for a decrease, and despite its creditable showing. In the last two years 44,000 living rooms without windows

have been made light. Parks and hospitals are useless if the homes of the people are left subject to the greed of landlords or the ignorance of tenants. The commissioner has never been able with his insufficient staff to make the monthly inspection of tenement houses a requirement of law.

Among the needs, recognized by social workers, that have not yet been met are a municipal year-book, a well organized municipal library, and a permanent museum of municipal problems and methods. Perhaps the social service departments were fortunate to receive as generous treatment as they did, but it is questionable whether, after the estimates for these branches of service had been cut to the very bone, it was wise to reduce them still further in an effort to make up the sum added to the school budget by the equal salary measure. It was such vital service as that planned in child hygiene and in the extension of the meagre hospital equipment for consumptives which were sacrificed in this eleventh-hour pruning. The needs of the city in the way of health, charities, and education have not been adequately met. The departments will be able to carry on their present work, but almost all their constructive plans are held up for twelve months.

COMMUNICATIONS

"WANTED: A CHILD TO ADOPT"

STERILIZE THE UNFIT

TO THE EDITOR:

I have read with great interest in your issue of October 14 the valuable article by Henry H. Goddard, entitled *Wanted: a Child to Adopt*. Mr. Goddard deals with a very vital question, and his picture of threatened dangers to communities through intermarriage with persons who were adopted as children from institutions is not overdrawn.

Undoubtedly there are children occasionally to be found for adoption in institutions whose birth and lineage would be unshadowed by any taint, but common sense, as well as the testimony of those who have had the widest experience, show us that such cases are exceedingly rare. As Mr. Goddard so ably

points out, children who are held for adoption in institutions, and elsewhere as well, are almost without exception derived from inefficient, if not from diseased, feeble-minded, or criminal stock, and to place them unguarded in our American homes is to run the risk of their marrying later some unsuspecting member of the better class among whom they live, and breeding children who will inherit the degenerate traits of their ancestry. Of course, it will be urged that the lineage of any child, as far as it is known, should be fully made known to any family wishing to adopt that child; but all warning might prove useless, after a lapse of years, to the younger generation, and this precaution would in the long run undoubtedly be altogether inadequate to prevent the evil.

The suggestion that such a class of children be colonized at the state's expense if need be leads to the question as to the future development of such a colony; intermarriage among its members would of course take place, but what conditions would develop, physically and morally, in the course of a few generations bred from such ancestry? Imagination recoils from the picture.

Dr. Woods Hutchinson in his brilliant article, *Human Misfits*, in the October *Everybody's*, seems to me to strike the right note and to suggest the only radical cure for this great evil of degeneracy. To quote from him:

"Broadly considered, these individuals ought never to have been allowed to happen—but having happened, what then? Isolation, and such humane restraint as will protect society from their anti-social acts, is of course obvious, but society owes a still further duty to itself and to future generations. It would be a little short of criminal, from a biological point of view, to permit even the remotest possibility of their causing other failures like themselves to appear in the next generation. Those of them whose defects are so gross as to require their constant confinement are of course by that fact prevented from reproducing their kind; but the other and larger class, who are under favorable circumstances partly or completely self-supporting, cannot be so dealt with. For these, the only effective and intelligent treatment is sterilization."

How great would be the boon to the present generation, and how incalculable the benefit to all future generations, if all children in the class above referred to could be by this simple means so treated that reproduction would be impossible! The science of eugenics is in its infancy; but in it surely lies a great hope for the future of our race, if only we heed its warning and guiding voice. Already several states have passed laws requiring a certain class of criminals to undergo vasectomy, and other states, it is to be earnestly hoped, will soon follow their enlightened example. A simple operation of this sort would be doubtless even more easily performed in childhood than in adult life, and if

ever an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure, it would seem to be so in this case.

MARY A. FARRINGTON.

West Roxbury, Mass.

MAJORITY NOT DEGENERATE

TO THE EDITOR:

By calling attention through his article, *Wanted: A Child to Adopt*, in *THE SURVEY* for October 14, to the need for a thorough investigation and recording of the antecedents of dependent children, Dr. Henry H. Goddard has performed a distinct service to child-helping work. His recommendation is in line with the present practice of the best agencies. Those who are foremost in the work employ trained investigators who make a complete inquiry into the personal and family history of each child for whom care is sought. Defectives are sifted out and given institution care, so that only the sound and hopeful cases are left for placing out. The practice, wherever it exists, of placing out children of doubtful mentality or of known deficiency cannot be too strongly condemned. By emphasizing the danger of this, Dr. Goddard has earned the thanks of all who are striving for the best ideals in child-saving.

There is a portion of the article that is regretted by friends of home-finding, however. I refer to the first part, where the impression is given that a large proportion, the greater number, in fact, of placed-out children are by heredity degenerates. This view overlooks the numerous children who come into the dependent class through some one of the many factors grouped as social mal-adjustment. But on this point the home-finding societies can speak for themselves. I wish merely to cite as bearing on the question the data gathered by the Children's Village of the Seybert Institution in regard to the mentality and heredity of the children whom it has cared for.

The work of this institution is to provide temporary care and training for dependent children of Philadelphia, preparatory to placing them in family homes. Children are received from the Juvenile Court, through the Children's Aid Society, the Society to Protect Children from Cruelty, and other organizations. No child is received if some other agency is open to it. Hence the village population largely represents the left-overs, whose cases present some other feature than mere temporary care, such as training, physical up-building, or observation of mentality. The best class of dependent children, those who are attractive and immediately placeable, are not received.

How, then, does this rather ill-favored group of dependent children appear when studied as to degeneracy? The most complete data we have is in regard to those who have entered since January 1, 1910, when the Binet tests, championed in this country by the Vineland Training School, were adopted. There are 134 children who have been examined in this way.

Of these, five tested above normal, eighty exactly at normal, twenty-four backward one year, twelve backward two years, eight backward three years, four backward four years, and one backward six years. Now the surprising thing about these results when reduced to percentages is that they tally almost exactly with the results secured by the Vineland research department in its examination of 2000 public school children with the Binet tests. They found that 15 per cent of the public school children tested from two to three years backward. At Meadowbrook the percentage this group makes is 14.9. Children who test only one year backward are considered as practically normal. The percentage of feeble-minded among the public school children (those who test from four to six or seven years backward) was 3; the similar group at the children's village formed 2.6 per cent. The agreement with the showing made by an ordinary public school system is, to say the least, remarkable.

Now as to the mentality of the members of this group who were placed out. There were twenty-two of the 134 who were thus disposed of. One of these was above normal, eighteen were normal, and three were backward one year. Hence all were normal children if judged by the standard set forth by Dr. Goddard in the article, in the *Training School* for January, 1911, entitled, *Two Thousand Normal Children Tested by the Binet Scale*.

What light is thrown on the heredity of these children by our records? The family history of eighty-four out of the 134 is negative as to feeble-mindedness or anything associated with it. Six, or 4.4 per cent, have feeble-mindedness at some point or other in the family, near or remote. Twelve show a family history of insanity. One had a syphilitic inheritance. These are the only cases which showed any of the proved concomitants of feeble-mindedness. In three cases it was impossible to find out anything about the family history. In twenty-eight cases drunkenness was a marked feature of the life of one or both parents. This is considered by the Vineland department as a frequent concomitant of feeble-mindedness, but has not yet become generally recognized as such. Certainly drunkenness cannot be considered a transmissible neurosis in all these cases. However, if we admit drunkenness as a taint, there remain 62 per cent, the larger part, of these children who cannot be classed as degenerates. If we exclude all or part of the cases where drunkenness figures from the hereditary degenerates, the percentage of those with sound inheritance becomes much larger.

The impression gained from the figures just quoted as to the mental equipment of these children is further reinforced by a canvass of their school records while here. The school system is so arranged that a child can be promoted in three, six, or nine months, in fact, just about as fast as he can do the work, except for the limitation made by the adjustment of the school work to terms. The grades in so

far as they differ at all are considered more difficult than the similarly named grades in the public schools. Of the 134 children, seventy-two of school age were here six months or more. Their rate of progress was as follows: making a grade in three months, four; in six months, twenty-seven; in nine months, seventeen; in twelve months, sixteen; in fifteen months, six; no progress, two. I have no figures from public schools where the "lock-step" or the rigid insistence on one year to one grade has been abolished with which to compare these, but certainly the rate of progress given here does not indicate a degenerate group.

I recognize that the figures quoted above do not represent enough cases to be conclusive. I offer them now simply as showing a tendency. We will have to accumulate data for thousands of cases before we can consider anything as established. But the tendency is especially striking from its appearing in a group representing the worse rather than the better cases. It would seem to corroborate the view of heredity adopted by Dr. Patten, in his *New Basis of Civilization*, that the factors which affect the germ cells are comparatively few, and that improvement of social conditions will reclaim the greater part of human wreckage.

OSCAR M. SULLIVAN,
Supervisor Care and Education,
Children's Village of the
Seybert Institution.

Meadowbrook, Pa.

MENTAL AVERAGE HIGH

TO THE EDITOR:

The article by Dr. Goddard in *THE SURVEY* of October 14 attracted and amused me—first because I have charge of the placing-out of children, secondly because of the purely academic nature of the discussion and the evident unfamiliarity with the conditions generally obtaining. Taking up the various points as they appear in the article, we will grant for the present that the bulk of the children for whom homes are to be found come from more or less profligate, non-intelligent, and non-self-respecting parentage.

The gift of a calf by a farmer subject to the conditions given is inapplicable to the subject under consideration. Not one farmer in fifty keeps pedigreed stock that would be contaminated by mingling with a "grade" stranger (that might turn out to be more profitable, as frequently happens, than anyone of his blooded cattle) and, I'm sure, not one farmer in, let's say, ten would turn down a chance to add to his herd a healthy, vigorous calf on the conditions given. It should be remembered that at least 75 per cent of the milk daily marketed for public use comes from grade cattle and not from pedigreed stock. It is a well known fact among breeders that a pedigreed individual, to equal or surpass sire or dam, must be developed by an intelligent system of feeding, care, and manipulation. And the broad-minded breeder will also tell you that the same care, feeding, and manipulation given

from early in life will improve "scrub" stock marvelously beyond its forbears—but this fact is not given wide publicity, as it "hurts the business." So it is among the patrons of the placing-out departments of most homes. Forty-nine out of fifty are bragging of what they have *ascended* from—their development—rather than from what they are descended, and are willing to take a chance on feeding and other care turning out a fairly profitable member of the "herd" from a youngster who might under neglect and other circumstances be a more worthless "beast" than its progenitors. Also, 75 per cent of the world's work is done by that ascending class of people rather than by the pedigreed stock; judging from frequent newspaper articles the offspring of the latter class, in the case of both man and beast, is raised with the sole object of bringing the highest price at the "fancy stock auction"!

The "stock" which this home in common with others (outside of institutions for feeble-minded) offers freely to the public comes from ancestry mostly defective in *one* point only and with many good points apart from that; and our mangy, feeble-minded, diseased candidates for public favor are cared for in the colonies as advocated by Dr. Goddard. Then too, this home at least—and probably most placing-out agencies show the same ratio—has at present only two children (out of forty-seven under supervision) in homes where there are other children not yet of legal age of maturity, so that the possibility of marriage of our children with degenerates is more or less of a "bogey." It is true that "disease and mental deficiency and possibly crime are transmitted from parents to children," etc., but it is also true that they are *not* transmitted in just as many instances. If we are to believe our scientists in degeneracy, not five out of every one hundred of our population is free from all the "stigmata of degeneracy," all the rest showing one or more of the signs. Dr. Goddard could probably point to several in his own personality (all men of genius have them in more or less marked degree), and as with them, so it is and, just as long as love and not "science" rules people's lives, will be largely with the adopted child: we will be willing to put up with such defects as are not too serious, if only they can give us in return comfort, joy, inspiration, or even profit. And in many cases the supposed defect and taint has been found to be non-existent.

Speaking from several years of practical experience and observation, while it is true that a small percentage of homeless and neglected children come under the classification of feeble-minded, I think I am safe in saying that a major percentage will average as high mentally or otherwise, *under equally favorable environment*, as so-called "normal" children, and a small percentage will show some little genius along one or more lines. It must be remembered that most of the cases coming under Dr. Goddard's inspection in institutions for feeble-minded are the deeply ingrained and extreme cases and not at all comparable

to the usual destitute child. Nothing could manifest this more clearly than the usual quick response of the latter to the improved conditions, noticed by all placing-out agents—a characteristic noticeably lacking in the actually feeble-minded, to the best of my recollection of several years in work in institutions for feeble-minded. Unfortunately scientific knowledge is far from universal in extent and there are many factors unknown to it working beneficially in the mental life of the race which offset and dispel asserted evils, even as our "bacteria bogie" led us to find years ago. And, to speak briefly, as most of the feeble-mindedness began back in the forbears through long continued, strenuous practice of abnormal habits or exceedingly unfavorable environment, just so the adoption and long-continued practice of opposite habits and of favorable environment helps to eliminate, not merely hold in abeyance, those same characteristics.

I might also add that the progressive homes—I do not know about the agencies—do give as full particulars as are known regarding every child, except names, advise as to the desirability of selected children for that particular family, and keep in touch with them for years.

ERNEST WYKES,

Superintendent Home for the Friendless.

Lockport, N. Y.

WOMAN AND LABOR

TO THE EDITOR:

In my opinion your reviewer, in your issue of September 9, has been far too easy on Olive Schreiner's *Woman and Labor*. This appears to be, indeed, the general attitude toward the book, which may be accounted for in part by the fact that it proceeds with such a rush of vehement utterance that the reader, unless very wary, cannot hold fast and collect himself in the midst of the flood of words, and in part because it favors a good cause.

The excuse made by Mrs. Schreiner and accepted by your reviewer for presenting an obviously one-sided view of woman's relation to labor—that she is reviving only one phase of an originally comprehensive work on *Woman* which had been destroyed—is inadequate, for once occupied with the one phase chosen for revival, she treats it not at all as a part but as the whole.

She lays it down as a general proposition that the development of our modern industrial system has on the one hand been progressively restricting the field of woman's activity by taking work out of the home into the factory, and on the other hand has been making it more and more possible to maintain the now idle woman in a dependent condition as a "parasite." This process has already affected vast masses of women and may in time threaten the entire body, she thinks, and the consequence of this parasitism, according to her views, is not only degeneracy of the individual but decay of the race; and it is an uneasy sense of this danger to the race which

gives the motive to the woman's labor movement, in contrast to the man's labor movement, which is carried on for the sake of increased material prosperity.

Nothing could be more misleading. In the vivid series of pictures with which Mrs. Schreiner illustrates her thesis, she shows only those readjustments of labor by which work is taken from the hands of women in the home. She utterly fails to give the companion picture of the woman following the work out of the home to the factory. She forgets, or perhaps never knew, that the introduction of machinery sometimes actually displaces male labor by female labor, and that certain inventions, as for example the typewriter, have automatically opened the gates of opportunity to more thousands of women than the "conscious resistance" of leisure-class women to tens.

She does not note that even on the level of comparative prosperity (reached by a comparatively small proportion of the community after all) which permits the maintenance of a dependent class of women, a rising standard of living makes it increasingly difficult for the male support of the family to meet the demands on him. At once a strictly economic motive to further exertion is brought into play, felt by the women of the family as well as by the men.

As a matter of plain fact, the mass of women who are to-day striving for wider economic opportunity are not doing so in order to relieve themselves of superfluous energy or through any fantastic notions about "the race," but with the much more sensible and creditable motive of securing, through labor, the means of sustaining themselves and those dependent upon them, in accordance, as nearly as they can manage it, with the standard of decent living established by their community.

This book is, indeed, so vague in statement—for we are not even told in any definite way just what the author means by "parasitism"—and so contradictory, that one cannot be certain of formulating, without fear of refutation from some one or other of her pages, the substance of her doctrine.

But I think the emphasis of treatment shows that the above is a fair presentation of her main idea, and that this idea is a mistaken one. The book is evidently based on exceedingly narrow personal observation, on misunderstood and misapplied economic generalization, and on biological assumptions which it is not fitting for the layman to make.

Why should your reviewer excuse the shortcomings of this book on the ground that the original work was burned up twelve years ago, so that naturally the present work is a little out of date! The matter presented was out of date even at that time; and, in any case, what has Mrs. Schreiner been doing in the last twelve years that she could not learn a little something of modern industrial history?

KATE HOLLADAY CLAGHORN,
Tenement House Department,
City of New York.

New York.

VICE AND WAGES

TO THE EDITOR:

My attention was attracted by the reference in *THE SURVEY* to a lack of any statistics that would show the proportion of department-store workers living at home, this question being discussed in the letter of Joseph D. Holmes criticising the report of the Chicago Vice Commission.

Mr. Holmes states that no statistics are given in that report and adds that perhaps none are to be had, and the commission, according to the editor, acknowledges its lack of statistics. I think the commission must have overlooked the report published by the Census on Women at Work, also the recent report by the Bureau of Labor on Wage-Earning Women in Stores and Factories.

The census report compiles data, taken from the 1900 census schedules, for the women employed in various occupations in twenty-seven of the principal cities of the United States. This tabulation included 65,186 women over fifteen years of age or, using the census phrase, "sixteen years of age and over," who were employed as saleswomen, and of this number 60,062 were single women. Of the single women, 51,693, or 86.1 per cent, were living at home, as was indicated by the fact that they were related to the head of the household in which they lived. This comes pretty near giving a direct answer to the specific question which Mr. Holmes raises, and it indicates that his guess of from 80 to 85 per cent was a very good guess, erring slightly on the side of conservatism.

Of the 51,693 single women returned as living at home, 30,096 were living with father; that is, in a household the head of which was the father of the girl or woman at work; 13,380 with mother; and 7,432 with some other relative.

The census report, moreover, throws some light on the question of the extent to which these women and girls are dependent upon their own earnings for support, for it classifies them with respect to the number of other breadwinners in the family in which they live. Thus it appears that of the 51,693 single women employed as saleswomen and living at home, 13,261 lived in a family in which there was one other breadwinner; 15,605 where there were two other breadwinners; and 20,280 where there were more than two other breadwinners; while 2,547 lived at home in families in which there were no other breadwinners.

It appears, therefore, that about 82 per cent of the single women and girls employed as saleswomen were not entirely dependent upon their own earnings. On the other hand, 2,547, or 4.2 per cent of the total number, apparently had to support not only themselves, but perhaps others dependent upon them, while 8,369, or 13.9 per cent of the total number, were returned as boarding (including perhaps some who lived with their employers) and, presumably, had to support themselves at least from their own earnings.

In the census report this tabulation is presented separately by occupations for each of the twenty-seven selected cities, and the workers at the same time are classified by general nativity into four main classes: namely, native white of native parents, native white born of foreign parents, foreign-born white, and the Negro.

In the city of Chicago the number of single women working as saleswomen was reported as 6,593, and of that number 5,643, or 85.6 per cent, were living at home and 5,399, or 81.9 per cent, in families in which there were other breadwinners.

In Manhattan and Bronx boroughs, New York, the total is 13,208, of whom 11,367, or 86.1 per cent, lived at home, and 10,834, or 82 per cent, in homes where there were other breadwinners.

In Brooklyn borough, New York, were 6,029 saleswomen who were single, 5,471, or 90.7 per cent, of whom lived at home, and 5,192, or 86.1 per cent, with other breadwinners.

Similar comparisons may be made upon the basis of these statistics for other cities for several classes of the population and different occupations. This report may, I think, be commended to the attention of all persons who may have occasion to study the relationship between the wages of women, the cost of living, and the social evil. Copies of the report may be secured upon application to the director of the census, or to the writer.

JOSEPH A. HILL,
Chief Statistician Bureau of the Census,
Department of Commerce and Labor.

Washington, D. C.

BACK TO SOURCES

TO THE EDITOR:

I believe in all the protective and social laws we have passed and are projecting. Housing reforms, child labor laws, compulsory education, injury indemnity, shorter hours for women and minors, and pensions—these are drastic remedies for dread diseases. Our industrial and social system infects and the body politic must disinfect. But is not something else needed? There are causes for all ills, few of them are providential or unavoidable. We had cholera up to the sixties and yellow fever into the eighties. We got rid of both by closing the wells and privies, making sewers and controlling water supply, cleaning the streets and alleys, and airing the tenements. We removed the causes and the thing was done. City congestion and poverty are made up of the stream from the country—domestic and foreign. The cities and the factories are growing fabulously, the farms are in many parts vacant, in no old state are they keeping pace with the total. There are causes for this migration, curable causes. Turn the energy that now goes into relief in the cities or one half of it, into the country to educate for rural life, to organize socially, to introduce cooperative business, and the conditions which now turn the face of the young town-

ward can be changed, country life made attractive as of old, and the migration stopped. There would still be some dependents, but there need be no unemployed, no congestion, no unfit housing. Labor would be at a premium, wages and conditions better. Persuade manufacturers to locate in country towns and make garden cities for factory, homes, and recreation.

I have done both and know them to be workable. With their large planning, charity organizations confess that their work has been only relief and not cure. They should devise plans to tackle the causes at their sources.

St. Louis, Mo.

N. O. NELSON.

JOTTINGS

Philadelphia Child Welfare Conference-Exhibit.—A Philadelphia Child Welfare Planning Conference is announced for November 20 to 20, together with a two-weeks' exhibit of city and private work for children to be displayed at the city hall. Like the Municipal Planning Conference of last spring, the responsibility for it rests on the municipality. The various committees include about two hundred names, Mrs. Frederic Schoff, president of the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations, being chairman of the executive committee, and the other members being Dr. J. S. Neff, Jacob Gimbel, F. W. Forbes, Mary S. Garrett, Dr. Robert N. Willson, Mrs. George K. Johnson, Mrs. William T. Carter. "This conference-exhibit," writes Mrs. Schoff, "is Philadelphia's study on child welfare; a summing up of what is done, what is lacking, and what may be done to give to every Philadelphia child the best opportunity for physical, mental, and moral development, the municipality itself taking the initiative. Every home, every school, every church, every citizen, every organization, whether of men or women, is asked to cooperate, for the city that wisely cares for its children is the city that will have the greatest future. The rights of the children when regarded and considered will show a decrease of infant mortality, decrease of juvenile crime, decrease of adult criminality, decrease of prisons and hospitals and of asylums."

Austin Dam Disaster.—Prodded perhaps by Governor Tener, the coroner's jury which is charged with investigating the flood at Austin has resumed its hearings.

Labor Committee of United States Steel Corporation.—The stockholders' committee, appointed to investigate labor conditions, as a result of Charles M. Cabot's motion at the annual meeting of the United States Steel Corporation, has been announced by Judge Gary. Stuyvesant Fish, formerly president of the Illinois Central Railroad is chairman, the other members being T. DeWitt Cuyler of Philadelphia, a director of the Atchison, Pennsylvania, and New Haven railroads; Darius

Miller, president of the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy; Charles L. Taylor, formerly secretary of the Carnegie Steel Co. and chairman of the Carnegie Hero Fund Commission; and Charles A. Painter, banker, of Pittsburgh. See THE SURVEY for July 22.—P. 591.

National Municipal League at Richmond.—With its attention directed to a legion of the problems of city government, the National Municipal League will hold its annual meeting November 13-16 in Richmond, Va., under the presidency of William Dudley Foulke. His annual address on Effective Municipal Government will set forth the results of a study made by him last summer of the actual administration of government in a typical German city. At the morning session of November 14 a statement on City Government by Commission will be read as prepared by a committee consisting of Richard S. Childs, New York, secretary of the Short Ballot Organization, Prof. William B. Munro, assistant professor of Government at Harvard, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, editor *City Government by Commission*, secretary of the League, Prof. Charles A. Beard, Columbia University, and editor of the Digest of Short Ballot Charters, and Dr. Ernest S. Bradford, of Washington, D. C.

This topic looms large on the program. In the afternoon of the fourteenth municipal civil service reform will be discussed by Charles J. Bonaparte, Baltimore, former attorney-general of the United States. Other subjects slated for discussion are The German Imperial Unearned Increment Tax; Housing, Health, and Morals; Civic Surveys, Civic Education, etc.

HELP WANTED

Executive Secretary

An Executive Secretary wanted at The National Farm School. Applicant must have experience in organizing and in propaganda work.

Address, stating salary expected, Dr. Jos. Krauskopf, Pres., 4715 Pulaski Ave., Philadelphia, Pa.

SITUATIONS WANTED

COLLEGE graduate with highest references and experience in social work would like to tutor or read to woman interested in social movements. Two dollars per hour. Answer Tutor, Survey.

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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

THE DESERTION OF THE STREET CLEANERS

With the incidents and merits of the controversy between Commissioner Edwards and the street cleaners of New York city we shall have occasion to deal later. At this writing the outcome is not clearly discernible. In one aspect, however, it furnishes already a most impressive object lesson and the lesson should be taken to heart. That lesson is that the public service should not be subject, in fact must not be subjected, to strikes, lockouts, and other vicissitudes of the industrial warfare. For the army of street cleaners to throw up their jobs simultaneously in order to enforce their demands should be regarded not as a strike but as desertion, and desertion on the field of battle in the face of the enemy. No one who has walked through the slime of the unswept streets and seen and smelt the uncollected and disintegrating garbage will question the fundamental importance of the street cleaning service and the elementary necessity of keeping it in continuous operation.

The right to strike is not lightly to be denied; but society's right to self-preservation is paramount. That any community should tolerate the possibility of such a wholesale desertion after even a single experience with it is unthinkable. Heretofore we have not taken measures to prevent such a catastrophe, because heretofore policemen, firemen, health inspectors, and street cleaners have not been in the habit of trying to influence their wages, their hours of labor, or the conditions of their employment by such drastic means. Now that we know the danger we must take suitable precautions against it.

We do not suggest that these particular offenders against the public health and order should be dealt with summarily as if they had violated a statute. To twist the law of conspiracy to meet the case would be impracticable and unfair. This particular situation has had to be handled as an unforeseen emergency, and of the methods by which it was handled in its earlier stages perhaps the less said the better. What should be done, however, is to enact a law making it a misdemeanor to strike in any branch of the public service and providing suitable penalties. Such a law might extend also to quasi-public corporations such as railways, express companies, water companies, telegraph and telephone companies. Strikes and lockouts may remain for a time the last resort for settling strictly private disputes, although a little more civilization will surely send them entirely to the scrap-heap of discarded barbarities. In the public service certainly and probably in the public service corporations also the time has already come for decisive action. Under modern conditions the daily food supply is dependent upon uninterrupted railway service, as the public health is immediately dependent upon the uninterrupted cleaning of the streets, and the public safety upon the fidelity of the police force. Such a general railway strike as those which have occurred recently in France, England, and Ireland may take place here at any time, and adequate measures should be taken in advance against

the paralysis of trade and industry, of the primary functions of the life of the community, which such a calamity involves. France called the railway strikers as reservists to the colors. England appointed a parliamentary commission to make a quick investigation, and the government let it be known that by its own direct intervention if necessary the railway service would be kept in operation. These methods are not open to us, and, although in an extreme emergency some device might be found, it is surely more rational to profit by the experience of others and by our own experiences before we are brought to extremities.

The denial of the right to strike implies of course the creation of some adequate means of sifting the grievances and demands of those who are engaged in the public service. If the legislature does not itself desire to fix wages and the conditions of employment some impartial tribunal could be established for the purpose. If men are not allowed to strike they must have their chance to make their appeal elsewhere and their just demands must be met. The machinery for meeting them must be such as commands public confidence and democratic support. An impartial inquiry by some body not amenable to the employer and on the other hand not open to undue influence from the side of the employes must take the place of the trial of strength. After all, how unsatisfactory and inconclusive the strike has shown itself to be as a means of settling disputes! It is scarcely more logical or equitable than the mediaeval trial by water and fire. The result depends often upon many incidental circumstances with which the merits of the case have no connection. Useful in default of something better, even indispensable, in the early stages of a labor movement, the strike is surely not an ideal arbiter, at least between the state and its own employes. When security of employment has once been established, and wages are determined, as they may be at least roughly, with some reference to the cost of living and of maintaining the prevailing standard of life, the strike loses its justification and becomes unnecessary. When we suggest that, in the public service at least, desertion should be definitely forbidden, we recognize that the status of the employe must be additionally safeguarded in these respects. The state under such circumstances deliberately assumes responsibility for the conditions of employment and must provide adequate mechanism for discharging that responsibility fairly and justly.

Let us begin by making strikes in the municipal service both impossible and unnecessary.

THE COMMON WELFARE

TWENTY-FIVE MILLIONS CARNEGIE'S LATEST GIFT

The Carnegie Corporation of New York, chartered last June by the state legislature, and organized on November 10, has been given \$25,000,000 by its founder. It is intended that the business of founding and aiding libraries and educational institutions, which has been carried on by Mr. Carnegie as an individual for many years, will be turned over at an early date and carried on by the corporation. The purposes of the latter, as stated in the act passed by the New York legislature June 9 last, are as follows:

Section 1. Andrew Carnegie, Elihu Root, Henry S. Pritchett, William N. Frew, Robert S. Woodward, Charles L. Taylor, Robert A. Franks, James Bertram, and their successors are hereby constituted a body corporate by the name of the Carnegie Corporation of New York, for the purpose of receiving and maintaining a fund or funds and applying the income thereof to promote the advancement and diffusion of knowledge among the people of the United States, by aiding technical schools, institutions of higher learning, libraries, scientific research, hero funds, useful publications, and by such other agencies and means as shall from time to time be found appropriate therefor.

Five of the incorporators named are the heads of the various great philanthropic trusts hitherto established by Mr. Carnegie, Mr. Root being president of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Dr. Pritchett president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Mr. Frew president of the board of trustees of the Carnegie Institute of Pittsburgh, Mr. Woodward president of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, and Mr. Taylor president of the Carnegie Hero Fund Commission. Mr. Franks is president of the Home Trust Company and Mr. Carnegie's business representative, and Mr. Bertram is Mr. Carnegie's private secretary. The new corporation, therefore, becomes a ganglion of philanthropic funds with resources directly and in-

directly at its command probably larger than those of any other benevolent institution in the world. Its definite organization has followed promptly upon Mr. Carnegie's return from Europe October 20 last. The incorporators met at Mr. Carnegie's house on November 10, accepted the charter, adopted the constitution and by-laws, and elected the following officers:

President, Andrew Carnegie;
Vice-president, Elihu Root;
Treasurer, Robert A. Franks;
Secretary, James Bertram.

Mr. Carnegie transferred to the corporation \$25,000,000 par value first mortgage gold bonds of the United States Steel Corporation.

Mr. Carnegie will be seventy-seven years old on November 25, so that sixty-three years after he began work as a bobbin boy in a textile mill and ten years after his retirement from the American steel industry he rounds into a whole his scheme of philanthropic foundations and endows them jointly with an emperor's ransom. This latest gift, it is estimated, raises Mr. Carnegie's benefactions above the \$200,000,000 mark.

10-HOUR LAW BEFORE OHIO'S SUPREME BENCH

Louis D. Brandeis, "New England's attorney for the people," has been invited by the state of Ohio to defend the Woman's Ten-Hour Law before the Ohio Supreme Court. It was Mr. Brandeis who successfully defended the Oregon Ten-Hour Law before the Supreme Court of the United States. With the assistance of Josephine Goldmark he submitted a brief which brought the scientific and economic experience of the world before the Supreme bench of Illinois in a similar case and led it to reverse its decision of the 90's. Now the Ohio Supreme Court is to pass upon a kindred law enacted at the last session of the legislature.

Ohio well protects working children

and girls by prohibiting their employment after seven o'clock in the evening and by limiting their hours to eight a day. Ohio safe-guards young girls up to eighteen years, a higher standard than prevails, for instance, in New York and Illinois. But on the other hand, up to this year, although more than twenty states had some kind of protective legislation against the over-work of adult women, Ohio had no such law. Along with California, Washington, Missouri, and Wisconsin, the Ohio legislature of 1911, in response to public opinion, took action to come abreast of the progressive industrial commonwealths.

The Ohio law provides that women may not be employed more than ten hours in one day, nor more than fifty-four hours in the week, in such places of employment as factories, work-shops, restaurants, dress-making establishments, and telephone or telegraph offices. The law has a flaw from the social workers' standpoint in following the Michigan statute which exempts canneries from the restriction of hours.

During the past three years the Supreme Courts of the United States and of Illinois, Michigan, Louisiana, Virginia, and Missouri have decided that state legislature may safe guard the health of women by limiting their hours of labor. Similar cases are pending in California and Washington. The Ohio case was heard last month by Judge Dillon of the Court of Common Pleas of Franklin county, who held the law constitutional. The state Supreme Court has granted the application for leave to carry this test case from the county court of Common Pleas direct to the Supreme bench, in appearing for the state before which Attorney General Hogan has enlisted Mr. Brandeis's cooperation.

HERE'S TO THE HOMES OF ALL HOOSIERDOM

Indiana has the first State Housing Association. The prime mover in its organization is Albion Fellows Bacon of Evansville, a director of the National Housing Association and the author of the Indiana housing law of 1909. Linton A. Cox, of Indianapolis, is presi-

dent, C. S. Grout treasurer, and Mrs. Bacon secretary. These were the leaders in the campaign before the Indiana legislature last year for a more advanced statute which would have put Indiana at the top of the list of states. They lost by one vote after a rousing legislative battle, one of those defeats which in the long run sometimes prove better than victories, for it attracted popular notice, and the methods used by the law's opponents excited general indignation. The result has been a widespread interest, not only in Indiana, but also in the neighboring states of Ohio and Illinois, where Mrs. Bacon has been in great demand as a speaker at conventions, conferences, and chautauquas.

The purpose of the association is to educate the state on improved housing, to improve the present housing law, and to secure enforcement. The state body is modelled upon the National Housing Association, the chief difference being that the state organization will have a local chairman in each city, who will have charge of local membership, publicity, investigations, etc. The slogan of the new organization is "The Homes of Indiana" and to judge by the newspaper headlines, the slogan has reached them.

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON HYGIENE AND DEMOGRAPHY

In response to the invitation of the United States government, twenty-one foreign countries and twenty-nine states have given notice to date that they will be represented at the International Congress of Hygiene and Demography which is to be held at Washington, September 23-28, 1912. The object of the congress is to extend the knowledge and improve the practice in hygiene, public health, and vital statistics in the countries which participate.

The work of the congress will include an exhibition, together with a series of scientific meetings in which leading specialists from all over the world, including representatives of our state and city health authorities, will take part. Eight sessions will be devoted to hygiene, including microbiology, parasitology, diabetics, and physiology; hygiene of in-

fancy, of childhood, and of the school; industrial and occupational hygiene; the control of infectious diseases; state and municipal hygiene; hygiene of traffic and transportation; military, naval, and tropical hygiene. The final session will be devoted to demography.

Provisional programs for all three sessions have been worked out. In preparing an exhibit showing recent progress and the present status of the public health movement, some twenty state committees, as well as representatives of foreign countries, are co-operating with the organization committee of the congress.

The president of the congress is Dr. Henry P. Walcott, president of the Massachusetts Board of Health. Dr. John S. Fulton, of Baltimore, is general secretary, and Dr. J. W. Schereschewsky of the United States Public Health Service is in charge of the exhibit. The president of the United States is honorary president. The committee on organization comprises sixty-eight names of experts on medical and social matters in all parts of the country. The secretary's address is Army Medical Museum, Washington, D. C. The membership fee is \$5.

"HEALTH DAY" AND A "HEALTH HARANGUE"

To help in "making Boston school children the healthiest in the world" the Boston School Committee, under the direction of Dr. Thomas F. Harrington, the director of hygiene, conducted its annual "Health Day" in October. In the lower grades the school nurses gave talks on the care of the teeth, school luncheons, cleanliness, and posture. In the elementary and high school classes a circular letter was read, which, as a health preachment for school purposes, may prove suggestive to other cities:

Sitting and standing in a natural, free, straight-back position exercises the back muscles and give the spine strength and stability. This means good circulation, good breathing, and healthy nerve-supply to the whole body. The games and plays in the early grades, as well as the setting-up drill and apparatus work in the high schools, have all been selected and planned to develop a firm arch, a straight spine, and a good chest capacity.

The examples of the benefit of cleanliness are no less striking than those of proper posture. The whole germ theory of disease rests almost wholly upon whether or not the germ of a particular disease can find elements of uncleanness with which to unite for its growth and development. Dirt on the teeth results in decay. Dirt on the skin results in skin eruptions and skin clogging. Dirt in the form of waste products means disease if not removed regularly.

Fresh air is needed for the system during the sleeping hours as well as during the waking hours. Air that has once been breathed is not fit to be breathed again. We should live in the open air, and if possible sleep in the open air, so as to get the fullest supply of pure air.

Sunshine kills many of the germs of disease, and if we live in the sunshine the body takes up this power of the sun's rays and stores it up to fight disease. Our blood becomes pale when we are deprived of sunshine, because it loses the force which the sun gives to the body. The loss of this force makes us easy prey for the germs of disease. Games, plays, athletics, and exercises in the open air and in the sunshine have been made a part of the school work because they offer the best means for an abundance of fresh air and sunshine.

The moral health is also dependent upon cleanliness and sunshine. The girl or boy whose mind is unclean, whether from evil associations, evil practices, unclean books, speech, or amusements, who does not live in the open sunshine of confidence with himself and with his parents, will sooner or later fall a victim to disease more serious than any physical ills. The boy who saps his life during the growing period by cigarette smoking, by excessive indulgence in athletics, or by a life devoid of recreation, is destroying an armor against attacks from disease which he must sooner or later meet.

Sunshine, both in nature and of the person, means joy and happiness. It is the best tonic we possess. Every person can possess it in abundance; with it all work is a pleasure; without it no labor is satisfying. The boy and the girl who grasp these lessons and make them the rule of life will lay a foundation for moral and physical health which will guarantee a degree of efficiency in later life far in excess of any estimation of success measured by any other terms.

THREE PHASES OF PITTSBURGH

Three new community enterprises have been launched this fall in Pittsburgh—a campaign for the conservation of child life, an economic survey, and a movement for boosting the district industrially.

The campaign for the conservation of child life includes a definite program,

frequent conferences, and the inspiration of visiting speakers. Through these the Associated Charities and the 120 bodies with which it is affiliated hope to concentrate attention for a year on the needs of Pittsburgh boys and girls in such manner as will lift the community's provision for them to a new level.

The plan, as announced through Secretary Charles F. Weller, has struck a popular chord both with Pittsburgh newspapers and among the religious workers of the city. Delegates from the constituent organizations will hold the first of the series of conferences on November 13, taking as their subject Juvenile Delinquency: Its Causes and their Possible Removal. Topics assigned for succeeding conferences are:

Progress and problems in the institutional care and training of dependent children.

Plans for the placing of dependent children, and the graduation of institutional children into normal family life.

Schooling and its proper relations to the after-life of the pupils.

Housing and home conditions; improvements needed.

Charity problems: including "school pensions" for the children of widows, compulsory support by neglectful fathers, adequate feeding, and the prevention of pauperization.

Working children: including newsboys, messengers, and bootblacks; their needs.

Health problems: including tuberculosis, the prevention of infant mortality, and the promotion of efficiency.

Moral problems: including sex hygiene, the work of churches, boys' clubs, settlements, and the "Boy Scout" movement.

Play, amusements, and recreation; dangers and needs.

Americanization of foreign-born families.

INDUSTRIAL PROMOTION

The Pittsburgh Industrial Development Commission was launched by the Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce in September. An extensive program has been adopted on the lines suggested by the title of the commission and a campaign inaugurated for a \$250,000 fund wherewith to conduct a three years' effort "for the advertisement and exploitation of Pittsburgh's resources." Members of the commission are H. P. Bope, president; F. F. Nicola, vice-president; W. H. Donner, treasurer; D. P. Black, Morris Baer, James C. Chaplin, W. C. Cof-

fin, Robert Finney, Robert Garland, James F. Keenan, A. M. Schoyer, and J. M. Schoonmaker. The group is representative of enormous business enterprise in steel, railroads, and real estate. Mr. Bope, the president, is identified with the Carnegie Steel Company; Mr. Coffin with Jones and Laughlin, the leading independents; Messrs. Nicola and Black with real estate interests, and Mr. Finney and Colonel Schoonmaker with railroads serving the district. For manager the commission has secured W. A. Donkin, who was formerly connected with the Philadelphia company which furnishes street car service, electric light, and natural gas to Pittsburgh. E. P. Douglas, the secretary, has been with the First National Bank for a number of years.

The main purpose of the commission is indicated in the first plank of its platform. It pledges itself to "business organization, using practically the same methods in securing industries for this district that an aggressive merchant or manufacturer would use in expanding his business." While none of the members of the new commission have been prominent in the aggressive struggles for municipal reform recently waged in Pittsburgh, two planks of the platform suggest the possibility of broadening out the work of the commission toward civic improvement as differentiated from commercial success. They are: "Increase the housing facilities so that labor may live well at a moderate cost," and "Increase our present means of recreation for labor, thus making Pittsburgh more attractive for health, pleasure, and convenience than other cities."

The Economic Survey is an enterprise of the city administration, made possible by an appropriation of \$5,000 by Pittsburgh's new council of nine men. Mayor Magee has appointed as director Professor J. T. Holdsworth, of the University of Pittsburgh and formerly of the University of Pennsylvania. One of his first lines of inquiry bears on the present movement to "boom" Pittsburgh industrially. He will assemble data relative to freight rates and collect other information for use in the campaign for diversified industries. How

far the scope of Dr. Holdsworth's investigations will include such phases of the general economic problem as housing, recreation facilities, and the cost of living with its prime factors—rents and food prices—has not been definitely announced.

EDITORIAL GRIST

RESPONSIBILITY OF THE SMALL INVESTOR

CHARLES M. CABOT
Boston

The small investor in a large corporation is apt to criticise the management of the corporation just as the average citizen in a large city curses the incompetent government of his city. He does not seem to realize that in each case a share of the responsibility is his. There is to-day a widespread belief that serious evils obtain in the management of the combinations of capital known as corporations and, when large and powerful enough, as trusts. As there is seldom so large a volume of smoke without some fire, it is safe to assume that there is some ground for this belief, and that the feeling of the public is to some extent justified by the facts. But, admitting the evils, who is to blame? There can be no doubt that the people who for the past few years have been to blame for all the scandals that have shocked the community have been the presidents and directors of the various corporations that have undergone investigation whether by the government or by the much abused muck-rakers. This is natural, for the president and directors of a corporation are most directly concerned with its policies and its management.

But while it is natural that the blame shall fall on these men, is it fair and just? Look at the political field. Is it not true that most of the evils which we see in municipal government are traceable to the fact that the average citizen has taken so little interest in the government of his city, and has been content except on election day to leave it in the hands of the office-holders and the "ma-

chines"? The result has been that instead of "government of the people, for the people, and by the people" it would be more nearly true to say that we have had government of the people, for the bosses, and by the machines. The first sign that the people had begun to realize this situation was the organization of reform movements variously known as citizens' parties, independent voters' leagues, good government clubs, etc. But it was seen that the old party machines still held a tremendous advantage in their grasp of the political machinery, and the present strong movement towards direct popular government is the outcome. Whether this movement will not defeat its own object, good government, by running to extremes, it is of course too early to say. But the tendency is a healthy one. To insure good government the people must have an important part in determining important policies. If, on the other hand, too many questions are put before them, they are likely to lose interest.

The management of large combinations of capital presents the same difficulties and is susceptible of improvement along similar lines. It would be impossible to induce men of the necessary ability to serve as directors of our great corporations if they felt that each step they took was subject to hasty criticism and revision by stock-holders. On the other hand, knowledge of the facts by stock-holders and intelligent criticism based upon those facts would, I believe, be welcomed by many directors who today bear the whole responsibility for the policies of their corporations. Such a relation would imply an active and intelligent interest in their own business on the part of the stock-holders, and a cordial willingness on the part of the management to let the facts be known. Neither of these conditions exist today and it is no simple matter to bring them about. But as surely as the success of democratic government depends on the loyalty of the individual citizen to his duties to the community, just so surely, I believe, will the continued existence of great combinations of capital in anything like their present form depend in a large degree on the realization and

assumption by investors small and large of the responsibility that they owe to the community, to their employes, and to one another.

THE KEystone OF THE ARCH

JOHN COLLIER

The Social Center Conference at Madison looked two ways—toward the problem of the public school and toward the problem of American democracy. To the writer, this conference opened up the most fascinating, inspiring vista that he has encountered among the movements of our day.

The conference met to consider certain questions that are pressing for answer the country over. These questions, viewed from the public school standpoint, are three:

1. Must the public school, in avoiding the sectarian religious element on the one hand, and the partisan political element on the other, forever sacrifice ethical teaching and civic influence?

2. The public school is weighed on by an ever-increasing demand, imperfectly met, for technical education, business education, rhetorical education, intellectual drill of every sort. How can the school find time or strength to care for the social and emotional development of the child, which are basic to everything?

3. Once the family and the church helped to fire and guide the child's emotional nature, but the family and church are dwindling parts of the child's total conscious environment. American life is making a veritable assault on the unity of the family. The school has most largely contributed to this very process. What shall be the future? Shall the school continue to perfect itself as a *substitute* for the family? How can the school be made to become an enlarged family environment, united with the family life and the neighborhood life?

At the Madison conference the social center was put forward as a deliberate answer to these questions. If the social center theory is correct, two results are destined to come, one immediate and one remote:

1. The school will continue during

regular school hours to do its more technical, special, and standardized work for the child. Into the regular school hours will be compressed everything which requires the compulsory attendance law to enforce—everything that will not be spontaneously sought, if opportunity be given, after the regular school hours. After school hours the school will be used just as thoroughly, just as systematically, to provide those things which, if properly conducted, will be spontaneously pursued by the child and by the family group. Citizenship, ethics, social good-will, the many-sided education that comes through play, and aesthetics, will be largely given after school hours.

2. Such a development of the school will exert a profound reaction on the regular school curriculum. To develop in the mind of the adult public a criterion for educational efficiency; and to prove the value of spontaneous interest in making possible the hitherto impossible in education: what greater contribution could be made to educational science? The social center will make this contribution.

Another thought was added to these by the social center conference. It was the thought of progressive democracy as applied to the wider use of the school plant. If centralization, redeemed by co-operation, is necessary in the conduct of the regular school, just as clearly must local initiative, organized in self-governing ways, be the basis for the wider use of the school. At the conference there was almost an over-insistence on the importance of free discussion, but this insistence was justified by the conception of self-government within the center. For self-government, and fruitful local initiative, can be secured only where free discussion is allowed.

It seemed to the writer that the social center conference was working very close to that point in the arch of American institutions where the school, and scholarship, and science, on the one side, and public action, the family life, and the vast, vague emotional life of the people, on the other side, are destined to be joined and made one. The social center may prove to be the keystone in the completed arch of American life.

CIVICS

ARCHITECTURAL METHODS FOR FIRE PREVENTION¹

CHRISTOPHER CLARKE

Massachusetts State Firemen's Association

Notwithstanding the enormous expenditures for fire-proof materials in the construction of so-called fire-proof buildings, little or no provision has been made to prevent flames and smoke from reaching the upper stories of the buildings. Through this failure, in many instances, the lives of the inmates have been surrendered, with no hope or possibility of rescue, and the buildings so seriously damaged as practically to require rebuilding above the foundation.

Can buildings be so constructed and altered as to make them safe for life and property?

I am confident that such a thing can be accomplished by simple and effective methods, that will when adopted make what will in fact be a compartment building, which shall have fire-proof division walls, and fire-steps of some sort at every story or stairway landing, so as effectively to prevent the flames and smoke from spreading beyond the story in which the fire begins.

The changes of construction which I consider necessary to be made for protection of life and property are:

First. Every building to be erected in the future should, so far as possible, be divided into separate compartments, either by permanent fire-proof walls, doors, or fire-steps of wood covered with metals, so arranged as to be instantly closed by automatic or other means (already in use) to shut off the fire and smoke from going beyond the story in which the fire originates.

Second. The adoption of fire-proof stairways, enclosed in fire-proof compartments, or towers, according to the architecture or demands of the building, should be made obligatory in all new buildings and as far as possible in all buildings where fire-escapes are demanded, so as to secure a certain means of escape from each story to the ground, independent of the ordinary stairways that are

many times instantly blocked by fire and smoke. This danger was demonstrated at the Park Avenue Hotel fire in New York, a fire-proof structure in which twenty-two persons lost their lives for want of this protection, the fire starting at the foot of the elevator.

Third. The use of fire-proof shutters and the standard insurance fire-proof doors should be enforced in all buildings where very inflammable goods, such as oil or raw materials, are stored. These when burning constitute a great danger and are often the cause of a general conflagration, resulting in the destruction of an immense amount of property. Under the present method of building, such fires often cannot be controlled by the best departments of the country and no year passes that does not record the deaths of many firemen, sacrificed in fighting fires in these unsafe buildings. Had the Hearst Building, in Baltimore, been provided with the fire-proof shutters and fire-stops that I advise in this article, the fire would never have spread to any other building, but would soon have been under control, and the immense loss by the conflagration would, in my opinion, have been prevented.

Fourth. The use of metal or fire-proof roofs should in some way be made more general, especially in wooden and high buildings. The danger to surrounding property from burning buildings (high or low) that have shingle or wooden roofs is very great. It is well-known that live cinders and fire-brands are carried by the wind miles from a burning building, starting new fires that may destroy an enormous amount of property. In many instances a large district in a city, covering hundreds of acres, has been burned over through this cause. The present mode of construction in all our cities and towns is very largely responsible for a yearly fire loss of over two hundred and fifty million dollars. It is well known that a fire seldom spreads to an adjoining building when the building on fire has a metal roof with no openings in it, and when the windows are protected by fire-proof shutters of the underwriters' standard type, of wood covered with metal, or the new

¹This article is the substance of an address delivered by Mr. Clarke before a convention of fire engineers in New York over four years ago. The specific recommendations he made, their identity with many of the plans now under discussion, and the obvious fact that if carried out in law and enforcement they would have gone a very long way toward preventing the terrible fires of the past year, are a commentary on the lethargy of public opinion. They are also a challenge to the organizations and officials who are committed to

the promotion of new and effective standards not to let the present public interest die down until New York and every American city is safe; and that safety is attested in lower fire insurance rates.

It was back in 1885 that Mr. Clarke invented the tower fire-escape referred to in this text.

"At eighty-four," he writes, "I am still fighting for better protection of life and property in this country, which I commenced twenty-five years ago."

invention of fire-proof and wired glass, a most admirable protection, especially from exposure to fire from adjoining buildings.

All elevators, ash chutes, and dumb-waiters should be built in brick or fire-proof inclosures, with fire-proof doors at each entrance to the elevator, and with fire-proof self-closing elevator traps for all manufacturing buildings. No passenger elevator should ever be allowed to be built except in a fire-proof enclosure, as the elevator shaft acts as an air-shaft instantly to conduct the flames and smoke to the top of the structure, often rendering escape from the upper stories impossible. There should be no exception made as to elevators in buildings where people work or lodge above the second story.

One of the most important means of saving life and property from destruction by fire or panic is the new compartment tower, by which the inmates of the building have an entrance at every floor to a series of separate incombustible tower stairways, independent of each other, in one tower reaching to the ground. The ordinary stairways of the building, being open, may instantly be enveloped in flames and smoke. Over one hundred fire-escape towers have already been built in the city of Philadelphia, and there is no possible doubt that this means of escape is the most reliable one in use, and is imperatively demanded by the increased height and size of buildings now in use throughout the country.

The towers are also an instant means by which the firemen may reach any story of the building, and the standpipes for water placed in the tower and protected from freezing can instantly be utilized to put out the fire. The sprinkler system can also be protected in the same tower or compartment. Any law adopted should include requirements for the use of the above-described tower or compartment stairways protection. This would result in an enormous saving of life and property in the future.

Balcony and ladder escapes are without question under many conditions dangerous to the last degree; for when the fire breaks out under or near them, or they are covered with ice, they cannot be used safely or at all, and have thus made possible the death of many thousands of persons. The tower or compartment escapes when required can be embodied in new constructions so as to reduce their cost very much, and at the same time beautify the architecture of the building. They can also

be utilized for ordinary purposes, and thus save a large special outlay. They can also be attached to all old brick constructions at very little cost.

Another effective aid in the prevention of the spread of fire in buildings where the ordinary lath and plaster partitions are or have been used is to fill in the space between the base or mop-board of every story and ceiling of the upper stories with six inches or more of plaster, concrete, mineral wool, or any other fire-proof material, so as to prevent fire or smoke from running up through. These partitions are generally open to the top of the building, and it is impossible for the firemen to reach the enclosed fire, for the lath and plastered partition protect it from contact with the water. The cost of this safeguard is very small and will alone save an enormous amount of property from destruction.

These open partitions are now found in the majority of our hotels, stores, and dwelling-houses, new and old, and were the cause of the rapid destruction and great loss of life in the Windsor Hotel fire in New York, the whole house being instantly in flames. Requirement of this fire-stop protection, therefore, should be embodied in any state law or city ordinance that may be adopted in the future.

One of the best and newest fire-proof partitions is made of plaster blocks, upon which different kinds of plaster finish are used. These blocks are made two or three inches thick, take up less floor-space than the lath and plaster partitions, and are fire- and vermin-proof and durable. They are now very much used in the better class of buildings, and make an economical fire-stop division wall that is far safer than any kind of lath and plaster partition now in use.

Openings for skylights should not be allowed on any floors above the second story, if possible to avoid their use there, but if indispensable and adopted, they should have fire-proof closures at each floor, to prevent the fire and smoke from being instantly carried upward through the open spaces from story to story. If the fire has been smouldering for some time before it breaks out into the cooler air spaces or upper rooms where large stocks of inflammable goods or material are stored, the latter are instantly set on fire by the superheated air and flames, and an explosion may take place by which walls sixteen or twenty inches in thickness may be shattered or thrown

down and firemen and fire-apparatus destroyed.

The explosion reported to have caused the conflagration in the Hearst Building in Baltimore was undoubtedly responsible for that disaster, and I have in my own experience seen the heaviest brick walls in a fine new construction destroyed as instantly as if dynamite or powder had been used.

In stores, high side windows with fire-proof inside or outside shutters or wired-glass windows will answer a very good purpose, to show goods and still protect the building from fire from adjoining buildings. The immense stocks of highly inflammable goods in all department-stores without the above-described protections, when crowded with customers, are nearly as great a menace to life as the unprotected theater. These great department-stores should be divided and sub-divided into compartments; each department should be protected with fire-proof movable closures or fire-proof division walls, and should always have enclosed fire-proof towers or enclosed stairways connecting each story to a ground or subway exit.

The adoption of additional protection, not by any means so thorough as the methods I have described above, has enabled the Manufacturers' Mutual Insurance companies in Massachusetts to give a very low rate on manufacturers' buildings and storehouses. The adoption of the changes I have suggested will be a splendid investment, beyond doubt secure

safe buildings, and reduce the cost of insurance largely. It was stated in the last International Convention of Fire Chiefs and Engineers, in the city of New York, which the late Edward Atkinson and myself addressed on this subject, that there were no proper protective building laws in any state or city in this country. This is absolutely true, and is proved by the fact of a fire loss fast advancing to two hundred and fifty million dollars yearly.

The summing up of this appeal for better protection is this: There is no question whatever that the protections named can be adapted to new and old buildings at a cost which is not excessive, nor beyond the means of any builder, corporation, or persons interested in real estate investment; and the sum saved in money by reduced rates for future insurance will certainly pay for all the additional cost of these protections many times over in the life of the building.

In Berlin, with a population of nearly two millions, there are over thirty-three thousand buildings, constructed on this general compartment (government) plan, with the result that no such thing as a great conflagration can possibly take place. The same is true of Paris and other continental cities. There should, therefore, be no doubt or delay on the part of the legislatures and cities of this country in passing laws and city ordinances that will procure better protection from future losses of life and property by fire.

REGULATING CITY BUILDING

JENS JENSEN

Chairman City Planning Committee of the Chicago City Club

Americans are continually criticised for their lack of conservatism, for their temporary enthusiasms which sweep the country like prairie winds and leave no permanent effect. When we regard professional efforts as they are being directed along so-called new lines of activity, this criticism seems to be not without justification. Just now, city planning is rapidly rising on the wave of popular enthusiasm. It has taken our cities by storm. A new profession has come into life. Plans are rapidly being made, and the zealous public, gazing upon their depiction of gayly colored parks, wide boulevards, and ornate bridges, is fired with the desire to make all American cities

such pleasing pictures as the clever draughtsman has represented on paper. But it is too much to assume that our cities can be transformed as quickly as the paper receives the ink of the enthusiastic designer, nor is it to be expected that the lines so cleverly laid down by the rule can be as readily cut through the physical complexities of a great city. Our laws do not give arbitrary power as do those of some European cities, and on account of this the immediate effects of our planning must fail. To cut a broad street through the city is one thing, to have the sides of it lined with buildings of harmonious façade is another, and on this last depends a satisfactory work-

ing out of the plan; but where is the law to provide for this?

On the face of it, this idea of city planning is a fine thing—broad boulevards, ornate arches, formal promenades, all give one a feeling of excitement, as of being dressed in one's best clothes for some festive occasion. But right here is one of the most salient evils of such a city. It is too often a show city; it is at once the city of palaces and of box-like houses where humanity is packed together like cattle in railroad cars. To build civic centers and magnificent boulevards, leaving the greatest part of the city in filth and squalor, is to tell an untruth, to put on a false front, which vitiates the whole atmosphere of the town. The formal show environment reacts upon the people: the spirit of being on parade, of striving always for superficialities, makes of them a city of spendthrifts desirous of a gay life. As a consequence, immorality, strife, and discontent grow. The formal show city is distinctly imperialistic. It is undemocratic and its tendencies are destructive to the morals of its people. The more formality in design the less democracy in its feeling and tendency.

A show city is supposed to have a commercial value and, indeed, such a city will attract crowds to view its splendors and spend their money; but like the show itself, it needs constant variation or it becomes tiresome and loses its drawing qualities—it must have a new dress every so often, in order to entertain its crowds of visitors. But is the American city to be a commercial proposition with no other interest in its own people? Or is it to be a city of ideal homes, with a healthful expression of its business life? The American home is the foundation upon which the world's greatest democracy rests. It is the unit, of which the city is made up, and in it should center the whole force of city planning, in order to foster the highest ideals in its people, and to be an expression of the best in mankind. A city should first of all, then, be home-like. May not this be secured by a system of regulation?

Such regulation of the city might be in the hands of a new department, a department of civics, consisting of the best talent in art and science which the community possesses. Such a department might be made up of an engineer, an architect, a good business man, a sculptor, a landscape architect—the number depending upon the particular conditions of the individual city, and the vocations of the mem-

bers to be a far less important consideration in determining membership than their public spirit. The members should be appointed for a period of not less than six years, one member retiring every year, and their removal from office should be subject to judicial inquiry. This department would guide, advise, adjust, and pass upon all matters pertaining to the building of our cities and their extension through the purchase of land, new subdivisions, or the annexation of suburbs. Every expression of city development would be directed along the best possible lines by men fitted to consider not only artistic but utilitarian stand-points as well. It would pass upon transportation facilities, depot and freight yard terminals, harbor and river development, markets, lighting, and bridges. Designs for all municipal buildings, building sites, and public works of art would be submitted to it for approval. It would give advice in regard to the location and design of churches, clubs, hospitals, and depots, encouraging centers where an association of buildings is possible. Through conference with the civic board of control, each new public building erected would be constructed with a view to improving the city as a whole. No additional funds would be necessary to effect this; the buildings would cost no more than under the old scheme, but they would be located and planned with the help of the best authorities, not only with the special requirements of the buildings but with the good of the entire city under consideration. The services of the department of civics would be at the disposal of the public and semi-public corporations, and it would offer to promoters suggestions concerning prospective factories both as to situation and design, thus improving not only the sanitary conditions of the factory and its environs, but making it an interesting note in the city as well. It would prevent tenement housing through law or honest taxation, and promote cleanliness and health throughout our urban life. The department of civics would determine the width of streets and sidewalks with the future development of the city in view. A practical suggestion on this question of street widening might not be amiss at this point. It can be accomplished gradually by establishing a new curb line as a street changes from a residence to a business district, thus avoiding the great cost involved in condemning and moving expensive business buildings. Guided by the most competent of its citizens the city

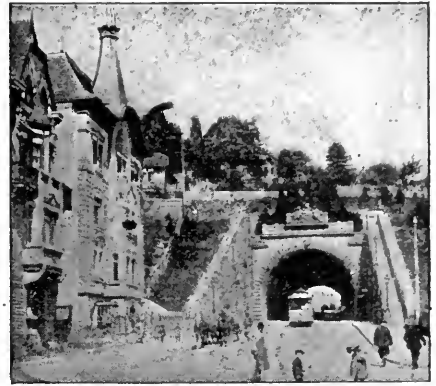
would improve step by step, day by day, in a sane and natural manner, rather than in the spasmodic spurts which result from business booms.

One of the most important duties of the board of civic control would be to develop the school as a neighborhood center, to unite home life with that of the school, to make the school a place of interest for both young and old. It is here that the boy and girl receive some of their most lasting impressions; the school is the point about which their early associations cluster; there is no reason why it should not continue to be a center of culture and healthful recreation throughout their lives, and remain as a pleasant spot to which they may return when old. Here recreation which left to itself is liable to take vicious forms could be made an uplifting influence. By providing halls for music, lectures, dancing, and the production of plays, higher tastes could be cultivated. If the same authority which provides schools for the children is giving the father and mother an enjoyable evening full of color and music, it follows that the parents will be more interested in what their children are doing. Their whole field of interests is going to be bettered and at the same time united with that of their children.

The playground also would be established as a part of this neighborhood center. It belongs to the school and should not be conducted as a separate institution. Each gains from an association with the other. The playground gives the school building a setting which it too often lacks, and forms a kind of outdoor gymnasium. The activities of the playground on the other hand can be much more economically and effectively housed and directed in the school building than in a separate field house. Are not the functions of the playground more closely related to the school than to the park, with which it is generally associated?

Public and semi-public buildings such as churches, settlements, and club halls should form a part of the neighborhood center. They would here secure breadth and beauty of surroundings, add their quota of interest to the center, and serve the people to far greater advantage than when situated in a less accessible spot. These centers of enlightenment must be developed if our cities are to produce a people who will become a real factor in the progress of the world.

Another relation which should be established in the improved city is a union of home and workshop. Separation of factory and home means a greater breach between capital and labor, an opportunity for militant defense in time of strike which causes a defiant spirit. It means as well greater congestion in our streets and reduced vitality for the workman. Travel for long distances on crowded cars tires him out, and makes him indifferent to healthful pleasure during his free hours. He has not enough strength left for the much needed outing with his family. Wholesome

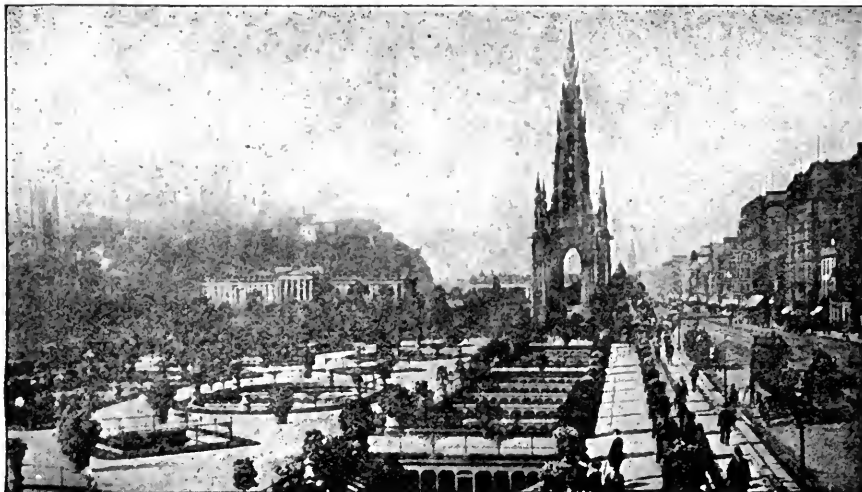


A TUNNEL ENTRANCE, STUTTGART.

pleasure of this sort is essential to a right development of mind and body in the making of fit citizens for the republic. The union of factory and home means first of all better relations between employer and employe, it means more sanitary factory surroundings and more healthful interiors, together with greater effort for good design in the buildings. The factory as a building should become an important consideration in the city landscape, instead of giving rise to the smoky, unsightly communities that exist in so many instances. If properly located and designed there is no reason why it should not become a picturesque part of the city. Here again a center may be formed. Several factories may locate together about a square with its public fountain and parkway. The square affords a setting for the factory buildings and gives so much more light and healthful air to the employes. With the improved factory surroundings the task of uniting home and factory becomes comparatively simple. The factor which is able to effect this union is electricity; through it we may return to the same conditions, though on a larger and more improved scale, which existed between workmen and shop before machinery was invented. Next to the school center in importance to the modern city, artistically and socially, stands the factory center. Other centers to be developed are the depot center, the market center, etc.

To further every movement that stands for a better city—to make our cities more livable, home-like, places for all our people, especially for those who through the force of circumstances must endure the city the year around—proper regulation guided by high ideals and common sense ought to be effective.

The melting pot is still boiling, American character still in making. We may plan cities for the future; but how many of these plans will be accepted by the Americans to come is a question. We can not say to future generations, "Build thus and so"; but by careful regulation we can build our present-day cities in the spirit of sound and wholesome democracy which is the best foundation for the future.



PRINCESS STREET IN EDINBURGH.
A European example of a public garden over a railroad.

CIVIC IMPROVEMENT

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON, Contributing Editor

TEN MINUTES FROM A PARK

The recent decision of the Supreme Court of Washington that a contested election, held May 3, 1910, was valid, gives the park commissioners of Spokane a million dollars for park sites, playgrounds, and improvements. One-quarter of the sum is to be used for playgrounds. The amount is so large for a city the size of Spokane as to make one credit the big promise of the commissioners that soon there will be no home in that whole city situated more than a ten-minutes' walk from a park or a playground.

MUNICIPAL REFERENCE LIBRARIES

St. Louis has joined the list of cities that have established municipal reference libraries in the city hall. The other cities are Baltimore, Kansas City, Milwaukee, and Minneapolis—municipalities that are not only recognized as leaders, but that are so well distributed as to give to the movement a very helpful start. Even more, however, than in the case of the usual public library, the effectiveness of these archives will depend upon the men who have charge of them rather than upon the collections they contain. For that reason it is important that location in the city hall should not be permitted to mean political management. That there is great confidence in the St. Louis experiment is indicated by the fact that the Civic League has turned over to the library its entire collection of pamphlets and scrap-books.

GOOD PARK ARGUMENTS

Probably one could count on his fingers, perhaps on the fingers of one hand, the cities as large as Columbus, O., which have not park commissions. But Columbus, one of the cities, has been seriously considering the advisability of securing one. In an editorial discussion of the matter in a local paper, a useful argument was neatly put. After noting that some of the opposition came from those "who seemed to feel that because Columbus cannot have all the things it needs to meet the requirements of the greater city, it should have none", the writer remarked that this would be a proper "attitude for a humorist to take", and then said: "The way—and the only way—to provide Columbus with the improvements that are necessary is to begin, to provide one, and then proceed to another. Nobody gets at one and the same time all the things he wants or needs. The acquisition is gradual and proceeds as rapidly as circumstances will allow; but one success is an incentive to the effort that makes another."

In this connection the Memphis Park Commission gives some interesting statistics in its report, quoting the following contribution of an abstract company: "From information gathered from conveyances of land, a record of which we have in this office, we find that on November 14, 1901, the date of the warranty deed from Overton Lea to the city of Memphis of the land known as Overton Park, the abutting property was worth \$70,200, and that it is now worth \$735,000. Before For-

rest Park was developed the abutting property was worth \$112,670; that it is now worth \$381,100. That the value of lands fronting the Parkway, from Trezevant avenue to Riverside Park, in 1903 was about \$279,000 and is now \$837,000." As the commission remarks, these figures suggest that park investments are very good from a financial point of view, to say nothing of their returns in health and pleasure.

PRIZES FOR LOCAL VIEWS

For two years the Civic Federation of Newton, Mass., has given prizes for the best photographs of representative views of the city's more attractive features. The pictures will be kept permanently, probably in the Newton Public Library, and it is expected that gradually an adequate and comprehensive collection, which will greatly increase in value as time goes on, will be gathered. This year's competition closed November 15, and the pictures have been placed on exhibition. The following are the prizes offered: "Parks, streets, trees, rivers, lakes, and nature in general: first prize, \$25; second prize, \$15; third prize, \$10. Public buildings, institutions, memorials, bridges, historical houses, and architectural features: first prize \$25; second prize, \$15; third prize, \$10."

A HINT FOR OLD-HOME WEEK

It has long been a custom in the Amo part of China, says a news note in *Municipal Journal*, for returning townsmen who have become wealthy during their absence abroad to present some work of public improvement to their fellow citizens. In accordance with this habit one Chinaman, who has recently returned from the Philippines, has arranged for the construction of a bridge of reinforced concrete, at a cost of \$42,000 (Mexican), as a gift to his native village.

CITY PLANNING IN LOS ANGELES

The City Planning Committee of Los Angeles has submitted to the mayor its first annual report. In accordance with the suggestion of a city planner who was retained to make a study of the city a few years ago, it recommends that the hill which now forms the site of the normal school should be acquired. Upon this noble site it urges that the public library, the art gallery, and an auditorium be erected. To make practicable this ambitious enterprise, which is so rich in promise for the city, the committee suggests a popular bond issue for the acquirement of the land, the bonds to be in \$10 amounts, or possibly even less, and subject to redemption by the city at par at any time. It is recommended that all civic bodies be asked to cooperate in making the bond issue a success. Alternative projects are the gift of the land to the city by public-spirited citizens, or the formation of a holding company, to acquire and keep the site until the city is ready to buy it. The committee strongly endorses the garden cities established in Europe, and expresses the hope that private enterprise will develop such industrial centers around Los

Angeles, retaining for their planning experts who are able to embody the best thought in their development. It advocates neighborhood social centers, the more artistic subdivision of residence property, and the establishment of a municipal beach on the ocean front.

A SIGNIFICANT COINCIDENCE

Here are two news items which happen to arrive together. Their juxtaposition is so interesting in its significance of the widespread character of the civic improvement effort that they are given without further comment.—The Women's Co-operative Civic League of Baraboo, Wis., has been formed for the purpose of making Baraboo more beautiful. Its first work will be the improvement of the cemeteries and of the street that leads to them. In a Texas town the school-boys have organized into weed-cutting companies, each with its officers. To each group a certain section of the town was assigned for a three-day assault. Every weed was driven from the streets and alleys. The companies, however, were continued, and there was talk of a state organization.

AN AMERICAN MUNICIPAL FOREST

San Diego, Calif., is said to be the first American city to take up scientific forestry as a municipal enterprise. It has, however, an exceptional opportunity. The city owns 7,000 acres of land that has heretofore lain waste, as a heritage from the time when it was a Mexican pueblo. This tract is now set aside for growing eucalypti, and last spring forty thousand seedlings were planted. Eucalyptus is very valuable and takes the place of many of the more familiar hardwoods that are becoming so expensive; it grows with truly tropical rapidity; it will stand an enormous amount of cutting, and seems to thrive under it; and a grove once well started apparently will last forever. In San Diego the more optimistic tax-payers are looking forward to a time when the forest will relieve them of all taxes and perhaps even pay them for being citizens of San Diego!

PLAYGROUNDS NOT OUTGROWN

The Playground Commission of Cambridge, Mass., in making a plea for a generous playground appropriation, puts thus forcibly the argument for recreation grounds: "When the children grow old enough to work, the need of facilities for exercise and recreation does not cease. At the age of most rapid physical development we allow our children to be shut up all day in shops and factories. It is all the more necessary that we should take care to give them a chance for healthful vigorous exercise, properly supervised and directed, out of hours, in the evenings and on Saturday afternoon, if we cannot do it on Sunday. The health, bodily and mental, of the parents of the next generation should not be neglected at the most critical time. Nor should the older men and women be left without a chance to share in the benefits of the playgrounds. They are able to share the joy and the profit of out-of-door exercise."

HEALTH



A VACATION IN THE COUNTRY.

Special summer work at the summer home for crippled children at Southampton, Long Island, maintained by the Post Graduate Hospital, New York.

CARE OF CRIPPLED CHILDREN

DOUGLAS C. McMURTRIE

New York

Shall crippled children continue to be neglected children? That question has had a reasonably adequate negative answer in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Chicago, and St. Paul. In many of the other cities of the country, however, it has had no answer, and the result is a pitiful lack of care and education for children thus handicapped. Excepting hospitals there are no institutions west of St. Paul and south of Baltimore furnishing anything approaching comprehensive care of crippled children; and other than medical or surgical attention is even more sporadic and inadequate.

The needs of crippled children are several. First and most important is physical care. This in many instances solves the problem completely through an entire cure, thus restoring the patient to the class of normal children. In almost all cases it greatly reduces the deformity of the child and renders the difficulties less acute. Other needs, broadly, are social and moral. To meet these, there is demanded education, moral training, and the other means leading to general development, or modified to fit the individual case, and calculated to make the child's position and attitude as normal as possible.

Practically all of the present-day work for cripples can be classified under two heads; one is the residential or institutional system, by which they are cared for in separate homes away from their families, and the other the non-residential system, which provides care during the day-time only, the children still living with their families. The choice of system depends on the individual case. Where the child's physical condition demands constant attention, a resident home with full medical and surgical equipment is very naturally the more desirable. But in cases where the child's physical deformity is more or less chronic or permanent and the surgical care required is infrequent and not extensive, very excellent results are attained by the non-residential system, by which children are given their physical care at the clinics, their education in day schools, their more intimate care at home, and at the same time are not separated from their families.

The residential or "home" system is by far the older. The first institution of this type in the world was established in Munich in 1832, and the first in the United States in 1863. Other homes were founded soon after, and the number has been growing ever since,

until there are at present in this country quite a few institutions of this type. The first homes were mainly asylums of shelter. They have been improved, however, until the modern institution, often handsome and homelike, is provided with full facilities for general and special care and education.

Like most philanthropic efforts the first care for cripples was undertaken at private initiative and expense. In 1897, however, the state of Minnesota recognized its duty to its crippled children and founded an excellent work for them. Minnesota's example was soon followed by New York and Massachusetts.

The ideal institution will, of course, be planned primarily for the needs of the children. The first, as already stated, is physical. Crippled children can do more at physical exercise than is generally supposed. The Massachusetts Hospital School in Canton, for instance, has a base ball team which wins a majority of its games with near-by teams which are made up of boys of the same age but physically normal. Of course, many must be restrained on advice of their physician, but others, if encouraged, can attain great dexterity—so much as to surprise the average visitor. Corrective gymnastics have a distinct orthopedic value when given under proper direction, and the necessary apparatus will be found at several of the more modern homes. Since so many of the children suffer from tubercular joints, much time should be spent in the open air and the building plan should have this in view.

The manner of meeting other needs is open to more question. Practically all agree, how-

ever, that the child should be given a good primary education. The first thought is too often to abbreviate the schooling of cripples because they are not as strong as normal pupils, but it has been found very generally that the greater individual attention on the part of the teacher, which is necessitated by the varying conditions of the children, more than makes up for the retardation due to impaired strength or shorter hours. Furthermore, the paucity of interests for these children and the consequent enhancement of interest in and application to school work weakens the lure of the street and other activities of childhood; the average crippled child has been compelled to spend so many days out of school, away from other children, that lessons seem to him much more attractive than to the normal child. Contrary to the popular conception the crippled child is as capable mentally as his normal brother; and, as in the case of normal children, the best practice has shown the absolute necessity of separating from mentally normal crippled children any feeble-minded cases. This is often disregarded.

The social considerations are important, and provision for them depends largely on the human sympathy and breadth of vision of those in charge. It must be remembered that the average crippled child comes to an institution broken in spirit and discouraged. All his life he has felt that he is a useless member of the community—that he is hopelessly handicapped. The truth of this has seemingly been demonstrated to him, for every day he has realized that he could not do the



WHERE THE SCHOOL PRIVILEGE IS SPECIALLY APPRECIATED.
A class for crippled children in one of the public schools of New York city.



SPECIAL SCHOOL EQUIPMENT.

Type of adjustable chairs and desks used in non-resident work.

things that his brothers and sisters were doing. His inactivities alone engender hopelessness. Manifestly the first duty of those endeavoring to help him will be to correct this idea. The awakening of ambition is a prerequisite to efficient and continued effort. The eventual aim is to render the cripple self-supporting, thus enabling him to take his place as an independent member of society. To this end some form of industrial training has been found valuable.

For girls the problem is comparatively easy, the solution in almost all cases being needlework of some kind, ranging from plain sewing to embroidery. One institution has made a specialty of feather-stitching and the students have become so proficient that they do almost all the work in this line in their city. The proceeds render the class self-supporting. The endeavor should be to turn out at a reasonable profit a product which will hold its own in commercial competition.

In the case of the boys the problem of industrial training presents more complications, perhaps, because so many fields are open to male endeavor, but the following trades have been taught with success: printing, typesetting, making jewelry by hand, electrical repairing, switch-board operating, telegraphy, basket- and rug-making, carpentry, shoe-making and repairing, wood-turning. I suggest, as an untried trade which seems to offer great promise, watch-making and repairing. The work would seem excellently adapted to cripples, and I am informed that there is a considerable scarcity of competent operatives in this line.

Incidentally, since the children who receive treatment in such homes come largely from poor surroundings, to which they will later return, it is well not to have the discrepancies in comforts, not to say luxuries, too great. While nothing should be spared to make the physical and educational care the best, anything verging on extravagance should be avoided.

Passing to the non-residential plan, we find that after its successful trial in England the idea spread remarkably, and in 1894 the Boston Industrial School for Crippled and Deformed Children, the pioneer institution of the kind in this country, was founded. It was followed by the establishment in New York city by the Children's Aid Society of a series of special classes for crippled children. Later the auxiliary to the Avenue B School developed into the Association for the Aid of Crippled Children. Largely through the influence of this association a significant advance was made in 1906 when the New York City Board of Education opened a special class for crippled children in one of the public schools. To this class the association agreed to transport the children. Many of these special classes are now maintained by the Board of Education, three private organizations co-operating to furnish the transportation and supplementary care. Chicago made special provision for crippled children at the Spalding and Fallon Schools, transportation being furnished by the Board of Education.

The pedagogical considerations are not essentially different from those discussed for the residential system, except that the class period in the New York city classes is four hours instead of the five which are given the normal pupils. The additional individual attention made possible by limitation of the classes to twenty enables the crippled children to make the regular rate of progress.

When a crippled child first begins to attend one of these classes, it is generally after a long period of neglect. Often the mother is very poor and can do little; in many cases she does not know what to do; and in other cases the child may have come to seem an unmitigated burden. The social needs—which, by the way, can not be met by the schools, but must depend on private agencies—are hardly less acute than the educational, and they are usually met in one of two ways: either by bluntly furnishing the requisite ar-

ticles, or by sending nurses or other trained visitors into the home, securing the confidence of the family, and working from this as a starting point. The latter is obviously the better.

Having set right the attitude toward the child, the nurses show the mother the details of care—bathing, dressing, adjustment of braces, and feeding. They also stand ready to give instruction in the best and most economical principles of home-keeping, and seek to become the friends and valued advisers of the families. They aim to do the best with the facilities at hand, but where it is absolutely impossible for the family to provide necessities the organization furnishes them—through the medium of the parents if possible. This is to preserve normal family relations and to prevent the estrangement which may follow when a child begins to look to outsiders for elements of daily existence which should come from his own family. Where the family can be enlisted in a new and good care of its own, there is accomplished a permanent result of the greatest value.

As to management, other things being equal, public support is desirable. It puts the expense where it belongs and leaves private philanthropy free to exert its efforts in other

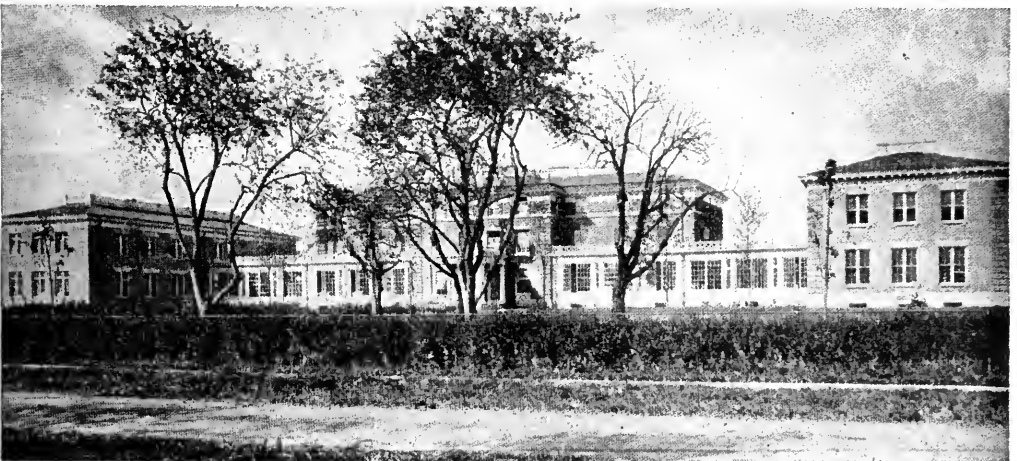


ON THE WAY TO SCHOOL.

Omnibus of the Association for the Aid of Crippled Children transporting children to day classes in New York city public schools.

directions; it places the work on a more permanent basis, relatively independent of changes in management and not so subject to decreases in an otherwise fluctuating income; and furthermore, it accomplishes the very excellent end of removing educational measures from a charitable category.

The problem of caring for crippled children has a national aspect in the seeming isolation of institutions. There has been very little direct exchange of experience among them. The establishment of more intimate and co-operative relations would therefore mean a positive gain.



COUNTRY BRANCH OF THE NEW YORK ORTHOPEDIC HOSPITAL.

In this institution, at White Plains, N. Y., crippled children are given industrial training aimed to render them efficient and self-supporting.

INEBRIETY: THE HAGUE RECOMMENDATIONS

CORA FRANCES STODDARD

Boston

In September, at the invitation of the Dutch government, the Thirteenth International Congress against Alcoholism, as already noted in *THE SURVEY*, met at The Hague. The addresses and discussions assumed the premise that alcoholism is in the nature of a disease and not wholly of a moral fault, and dealt largely with practical measures for its cure. The recommendations had to do with institutional treatment of hopeful cases, asylums for incurable drinkers, consultation offices like dispensaries for treatment of drinkers in their own social surroundings, the improvement of social and family influences, and the influence of a temperance organization in reclaiming the drunkard.

If the state sanctions by law the manufacture and sale of alcoholic drinks, the least it can do in return is to remove the hurtful results of its neglect and policy; this was the main contention of a paper presented from the Bielefeld society against the abuse of alcoholic drinks. The paper recommended that, if possible, patients should be persuaded to enter an inebriate home voluntarily. The system of state insurance in Germany facilitates this, as the worker is given help when unable to work. In this case, the help consists of paying the total cost of the cure, and if the patient does not belong to a sick benefit society the state gives him some support, to make it easier for him to enter the home.

Under the new German criminal code, when adopted, it will be possible for the judges to send persons who have committed offenses while intoxicated directly to an inebriate home, or, after they have served a sentence in prison, to order their further detention in a home. In this case, of course, the home must be of the "closed" type, in which the directors have the power to help drinkers against their will. Another feature of the new German law will enable relatives and municipal authorities to place the person and property of the confirmed inebriate in the charge of trustees, when it becomes evident that he cannot take proper care of them.

Several private asylums for the care of incurables have already been instituted in Germany in the Westphalia and the Rhine sections. "It is these persons," says the Bielefeld paper, "who are a severe scourge for their families and surroundings as well as for the parish which must support them, because they generally will not or cannot work, since they can find nobody who will employ them. There is, therefore, a pressing need that these should be cared for by the state, and the local parishes induced to pay the cost of their stay in such an institution—which, for the most part, will be less than what the parish grants to these incurables when they are poor, because the inebriates in such closed asylums can and must

themselves earn by their bodily labor a considerable part of the cost."

The method of treatment in inebriate homes as outlined by Dr. Seiffert and by Dr. Feldmann should be both medical and educational. Complete abstinence should be insisted upon, accompanied with attention to diet, proper physical work and exercise, baths, mental treatment, or medicinal treatment if necessary. "In education," said Dr. Feldmann, "we are concerned with two things: first, to educate the patient to voluntary abstinence as the foundation of a useful life afterwards; and, secondly, to encourage him to use all the powers he possesses which can be strengthened by education on ethical lines.

"The education in abstinence is carried on as personal work with the patient and in an atmosphere of abstinence; there is an education which comes with becoming accustomed to his duties and with the effort to conquer bodily and mental weakness."

At the last National Conference of Charities and Correction an interesting account was given of the "follow up" work of the Foxboro Institution in Massachusetts, by which the patient who has been under treatment is given supervision and help after he leaves, and especially during the transition period as he tries to take up normal life again. One feature of the work was deemed especially important; the influence which such oversight could have in securing healthful conditions in the home and helpful cooperation from the family. One of the Hague addresses, by Wilhelmina Lohman, emphasized the absolute necessity of "organized care for the family of the drinker," because "the mania for alcohol wrecks family life and seriously interferes with the training of the children. Such care should not consist of charity and giving support, as this only makes the evil greater, but should be directed to a work of redemption for the whole family life. This means bringing the completely disordered circumstances into the right way again through helping the wife as well as the husband."

A dispensary system for combating drunkenness in thickly populated centers, without removing the drunkard from his own social surroundings and daily occupations, was outlined by another speaker at the congress. Excluded from such treatment, of course, would be the cases where repeated attempts of this kind have failed or where mental disorders, diseases, or injuries make necessary a temporary stay in an inebriate home or hospital. The treatment given during visiting hours at the consultation offices should be under medical supervision and should also be of an educational nature. Co-operation should be sought with existing societies for combating intemperance, with medical institutions, physicians in private practice, courts, police, and charitable institutions of all kinds. A direct control service springing from the consultation offices themselves over the inebriates entrusted to their care was deemed necessary. It was suggested also that in addition to working

with inebriates who come for treatment, or their families, the consultation offices ought to gather as much information as possible concerning the various phases of the alcohol problem, such as heredity, different forms of the drink mania, what influence social surroundings have upon the habit, racial differences, etc.

Three conclusions are significantly common to nearly all of the papers, namely: the problem of the drunkard is not the ultimate alcohol problem but one that, since it exists, must be handled more efficiently and intelligently than heretofore; abstinence is required in any method; and education of the drinker, his family, and society at large as to the facts involved is essential.

JOTTINGS

"EITHER THE SEWAGE OR THE PUBLIC SHOULD BE KEPT OUT OF THE WATER"

The Metropolitan Sewerage Commission which was created to make plans for a system of main drainage and sewage disposal for New York along lines similar to those adopted by London, Paris, Berlin, and other great cities has submitted a preliminary report on the collection of the sewage to one central point for disposal. The essentials of the subject are given briefly, and in various appendices are forecasts of population, volumes of sewage flow, and estimates of the cost of several ways of dealing with the problem.

It has occasionally been suggested by engineers and others who have recognized the need of stopping the pollution of New York harbor that all the sewage be collected into one system of main drainage and pumped out to sea. The benefits which would accrue from this solution of the sewage problem have led the commission to give attention to its practicability. In its report the commission describes the essential engineering features of four forms of this general project. The commission declares that it is within the range of engineering ability to carry out any of them, but advises against all of them because of the tremendous cost and because they do not afford the best solution of the problem of protecting the harbor against excessive contamination.

The commission finds that the sewage of New York could be utilized for agricultural purposes and that the only land within reach which has suitable elevation and is of proper quality is Long Island. It would be feasible to collect the sewage to a central point in the vicinity of Jamaica and from there pump it to irrigation fields which would begin at Amityville, about thirty miles from New York City Hall; but again the expenditure would not be justified. The sewage of New York could be purified at one point so as to be inoffensive and without serious chance of harm to health; but this also is rejected because of its great cost.

To collect all the sewage to a central point for disposal is, the commission finds, not the only way to protect the harbor against ex-

cessive pollution. Works of less magnitude and cost can be constructed to answer all the requirements. Fundamental to the design of the needed works is the division of the city into districts, which shall coincide with the principal natural drainage areas of the land. The commission believes that the sewage should be collected and treated in each of these districts in such ways as to afford the needed protection for the near future. The design of the drainage system should be such as to fit into a more comprehensive plan when more protection becomes needed. The manner of dividing the metropolitan territory into districts and of collecting sewage in each subdivision, and the cost of disposal, will be made the subject of special reports to come later.

TO REDUCE SURGICAL OPERATIONS

In an editorial in early September under the caption, A Medical Abomination That Must be Brought to an End, the Brooklyn *Eagle* voices a sentiment regarding the division of fees between physicians and surgeons that has been receiving expression lately in other parts of the country. Using as its text a recent report made by a committee of the Medical Society of Erie county, N. Y., composed of distinguished and efficient members, disclosing the fact "that sundry surgeons who are highly remunerated split their fees with many of the physicians who send cases to surgeons for operation," the *Eagle* says in part: "The tendency of this collusion is to declare operations are necessary which are not necessary, in order to increase the money which conspiring surgeons and conspiring practitioners can divide between them, at the expense of the life or the mutilation of victimized patients and always at the expense of their pockets. For in matters protecting health and life against syndicated conspirators, against both there can be no steps backward and the disclosures to-day have kindled a fire which will not be extinguished until the abomination shall have been burnt."

Moreover, the practice of dividing fees tends to choosing surgeons who will make the most liberal terms, but who may or may not be the most capable within reach. In other words, the tendency is to make the basis of choice not ability but liberality in fee-splitting.

In May of this year the Council of the New York Academy of Medicine adopted a resolution making the secret division of a fee sufficient cause for expulsion of a member from the academy. On October 5 the academy unanimously voted to endorse the council's resolution, the full text of which is as follows:

Resolved, that the secret division of a fee, or fees, with any person, or persons, who may be instrumental in influencing a patient, or patients, to apply for operative care or professional advice is unworthy of any member of the medical profession.

Resolved, that if such a division of fee is made by a member of the New York Academy of Medicine it should be counted as of sufficient ground for the expulsion of the member.



POISON FOR PENNIES

Herbert Johnson in Philadelphia American.

keeps people HAPPY. We are interested in HAPPINESS because it keeps people HEALTHY. That is the way we want you to feel about it. Every child can learn to take care of his own health and help to keep the people around him in good health too. If health is one secret of happiness, helpfulness is another. So the things we learn we will use to help make others happy and healthy."

Each member is to receive from the company a badge and certificate, upon pledging himself to do all in his power to preserve his own bodily health, and to help the company improve the health of other policy-holders, and upon his signing the following promises:

First, I will wash my hands and face before each meal, and my mouth and teeth each morning and evening; second, as spitting is unclean and helps to spread consumption and other dangerous diseases, I will not spit upon the public streets nor in public places; third, I will not use a public drinking cup—I will use paper ones, or carry my own cup; fourth, I will destroy every house-fly I possibly can; fifth, I will never throw rubbish in the streets, as dirty streets make sick people; sixth, I will do something to help my mother every day; seventh, I will try and do at least one kind act to some one every day; eighth, I will permit no rude or offensive word to pass my mouth, even when provoked.

On the back cover of the same issue is a full-page series of pictures contrasting good and bad methods of producing and handling milk. Boys and girls who have signed the league's pledge are invited to write compositions, stories, and verses about the pictures, in competition for fifty-two prizes. The company will distribute approximately five million copies of their publication bearing this graphic health lesson.

Resolved, that the council considers it its duty to investigate charges against members made on the basis of such division of fee, and on receipt of proof of offense the council may either permit the resignation of the person or expel him from the academy.

HEALTH, HAPPINESS, AND INSURANCE

The movement among life insurance companies for health conservation continues to grow. In the November *Metropolitan*, the publication of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, that company announces the formation of a "Health and Happiness League" into which it hopes to enroll 500,000 children between the ages of six and fourteen who hold policies in the company. The object of the league, as suggested in its name, is found in the announcement:

"We are interested in HEALTH because it

INDUSTRY

SOME METHODS IN SAFETY ENGINEERING¹

II

GUARDING WOOD-WORKING SAWS AND CUTTERS

JOHN CALDER

GENERAL MANAGER REMINGTON TYPEWRITER WORKS, ILION, NEW YORK.

The most difficult safeguarding problems for the engineer are those relating to numerous machines used in the arts, which, after the maker and installer have carefully protected all the structural details, are essentially dangerous at the operating point, if worked at all. The variety of uses to which such apparatus is put often precludes the application of a universal guard. Nevertheless protections claiming to be of all-round use are on the market for a number of especially dangerous machines.

No such machine, however, is effectively protected by any guard which hampers a workman, reduces his speed and earnings, and which has not been designed for the actual working conditions. Such inadequate apparatus is naturally removed by the workman or wholly or partially put out of action at the first opportunity, and the particular safeguarding problem becomes the subject of a fruitless triangular controversy between the employer, the employe, and the factory inspector.

To educate the employe to use caution and foresight about dangerous machines is difficult enough and it should not be rendered more so by calling upon him to work with an impracticable safeguard. What is needed in such a case is careful inquiry, by a competent engineer experienced in the study of safeguarding problems, into the conditions under which the employe has to operate and a solution, where such is possible, which will enable him to work with efficiency and safety or at least to reduce considerably the accident risk of his occupation.

For the purpose of illustrating the problem of the especially dangerous machine, the author has confined himself to examples of accident experiences with only four out of many classes of such apparatus. These four, however, are probably the most prolific in accident to the operator when performing his usual duties. They comprise woodworking saws and cutters, punches and presses, rolling machinery of all kinds where hand-feeding is necessary, and emery and other grinding wheels.

WOODWORKING SAWS.

A close approach by the fingers of work-

men to sharp cutting tools running at a very high rate of speed is essential in operating efficiently many woodworking saws and cutters. Consider first that king of accident producers, the common circular saw, which takes an annual toll of not a few lives. This tool, the author believes, mutilates several thousands of our workmen each year and renders many of these permanently unfit for following dextrous occupations.

It is the *bête-noir* alike of employers, employes, works executives, factory inspectors, and casualty insurers. What contribution can the mechanical engineer make towards conservation in this instance? In spite of claims to the contrary such an article as a universal saw-guard does not exist on the market. On the other hand, except in the case of small diameter checking and grooving saws covered by the work, the author believes it is quite possible to safeguard all saws to varying degrees, conditioned by the uses to which they are put.

An efficient as well as a safe saw-guard is one which may have to fulfil all or any of the following conditions:

a The safeguarding must be strongly made and once adjusted must be able to retain its position and form without special care on the part of the saw operator.

b It must so protect the saw, both above and below the bench and before and behind the saw, that no one can accidentally touch or fall upon the saw.

c It must not permit the work in a ripping saw to close upon the blade, mount the same, or be projected to the danger of those around.

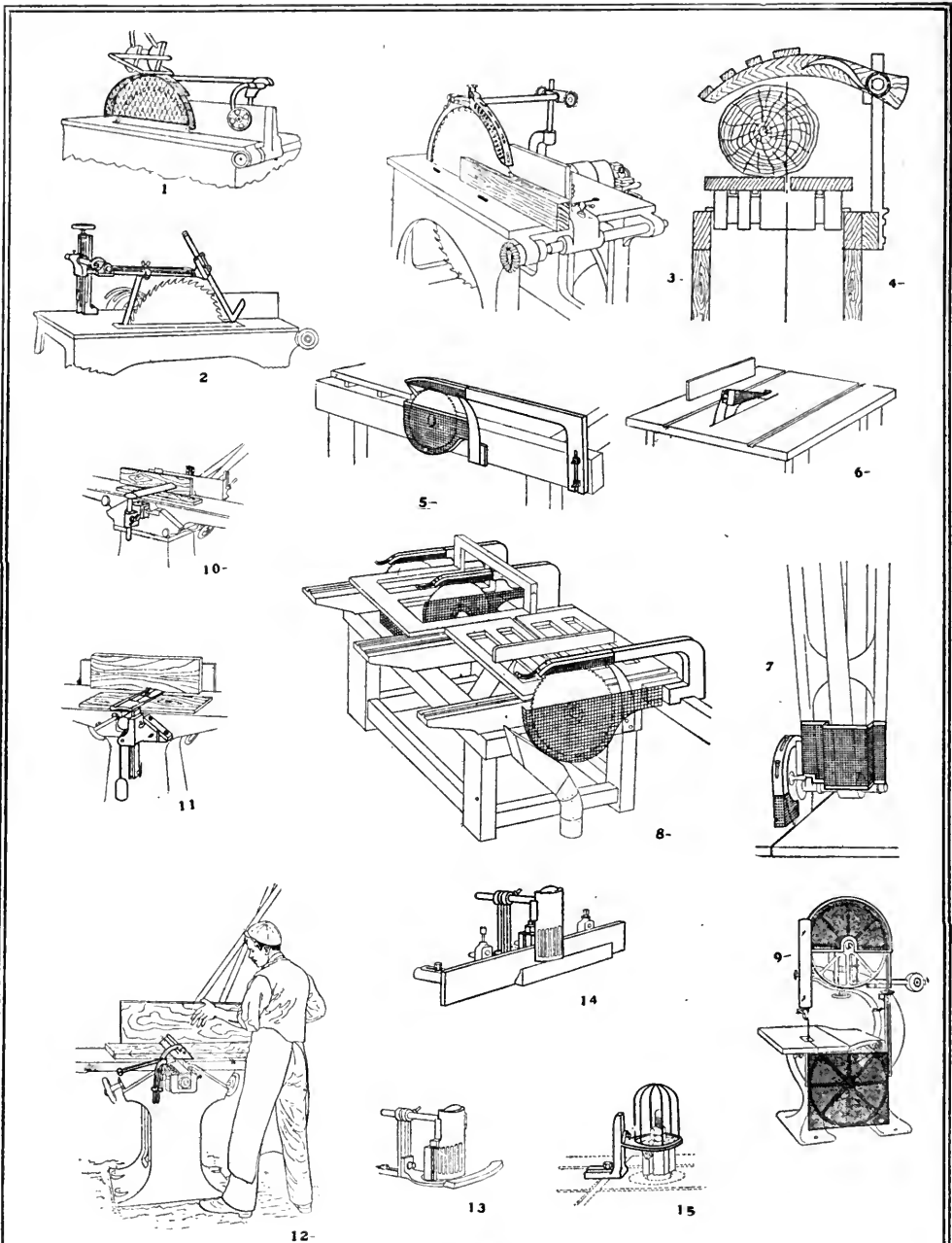
d It must not obscure the workman's vision of the line of the saw.

e It must be especially adapted to the class of work done on the saw bench and, where required, it must leave all the area of the saw table clear of obstruction and also the space above the guard itself.

The ways in which these conditions for reducing saw accidents, while maintaining efficiency, have been met in the author's experience are illustrated in Fig. 1 and in Figs. 2 to 9 for various kinds of saws and applications of such, from the handling of the rough log to completely converted lumber.

Fig. 8 shows in some detail the solution of a circular-saw protection problem where the conditions were supposed by workmen and foremen alike to forbid safeguarding which would permit the machines to be worked at full efficiency. The saw-bench illus-

¹From the *Journal of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers*. In THE SURVEY for October 21, 1911, was printed Mr. Calder's discussion of guards for transmission machinery; other especially dangerous machines will be taken up in a later issue.



GUARDS FOR WOOD-WORKING.

- 1 Automatic-positioning mesh guard for variable diameter converting saw.
- 2 Automatic-positioning bar guard for variable diameter converting saw.
- 3 Adjustable shield guard for variable diameter converting saw.
- 4 Spar guard for log saw.
- 5 Mesh guard for constant diameter overhung saw requiring clear bench for sliding table feed.
- 6 Mesh guard for constant diameter saw requiring clear bench for lumber.
- 7 Adjustable mesh guard for swing saw and belt.
- 8 Guarded triple-saw, slide-feed bench with clear tables.
- 9 Band saw guard against contact at any part and also against saw breakage.
- 10 Adjustable jointer guard.
- 11 Telescopic jointer guard.
- 12 Automatic-positioning jointer guard.
- 13 Spindle molder screen guard, thin work.
- 14 Spindle molder screen guard, thick work.
- 15 Spindle molder cage guard.

trated is a combination trimmer and edger having three saws on one shaft.

The over-hung saws, a rip and a cross-cut respectively, are fixed in position on the shaft ends, but the middle cross-cutting saw must, with any guard, traverse the shaft freely when required for a distance of eighteen inches. The work handled varies from one to three thicknesses, totalling two inches, and is fed into the saws on two sliding tables of twenty-nine-inch stroke and of fixed and variable gauge respectively. Thus no attachment above the bench for any guard is possible at the front or sides or for about the above named distance to the rear of the saw.

No purchaseable guard will meet such conditions. As finally worked out, the rip-saw has a safety parting-knife fitted in its rear, and all three saws are efficiently and strongly guarded, as shown, at every dangerous point. Men working at a rapid pace on task work at these benches are highly pleased with the result. They are able to use the three saws more effectively than before and without any fear of injury. The saw line is always visible through the mesh-work and pierced work, yet the operators' hands, which necessarily travel with the work, can never approach the saw teeth too closely, as they are pushed off by the projecting fingers.

WOODWORKING CUTTERS.

The common jointer accounts for a large number of finger and hand amputations every year. Figs. 10, 11, and 12 show three forms of effective guard. In the first and third, two movements, vertical and horizontal respectively, are necessary to adapt the guard to any given piece of work. In the second, the guard supported on springs rises automatically when pushed by the work and only the transverse sliding motion is necessary for positioning. After the work has passed the guard the latter returns automatically to a position close to the cutter gap. In the other two types the guards maintain their height above the table until readjusted. All these guards can be readily swung out of the way for cutter adjustments and as easily returned for use.

The vertical spindle molding cutters can also inflict serious injuries. Sometimes a leather knuckle-duster revolves with the tool and contact with it warns the workman of too close approach. Figs. 13, 14, and 15 show three forms of more positive safeguarding for this dangerous tool.

ARE LAKE STEAMERS "SLOCUMS?"

The following paragraph from the report of the federal commission which investigated the *Slocum* disaster, in which over a thousand men, women, and children were killed in June, 1904, should be read in gauging the significance of the charges made by the Chicago Federation of Labor with respect to passenger steamers on the Great Lakes:

"The deckhands are apparently picked up with very little consideration as to knowl-

edge of their duties, have very little discipline, change from year to year (only one of the *Slocum's* deckhands having been on the vessel before this year), and are unfitted to meet any such emergency as was presented by the disaster to the *General Slocum*, or properly to take care of such peculiarly dangerous traffic as that on excursion boats."

The inefficiency and poor quality of the deck crew of this vessel, doubtless typical of the majority of the crews on excursion steamers, is one of the essential facts that caused the loss of so many lives.

The Chicago report is published in full in the *Coast Seaman's Journal*. It describes crews on twenty-four passenger boats sailing out of Chicago as follows:

One master or captain, and two licensed mates.

Three to six experienced seamen called quartermasters, or wheelmen, watchmen (not "cabin watchmen"), and lookoutsmen.

Usually from two to eight "scrubbers." These men or boys are not sailors, are not required to have any experience; the only qualification needed to secure employment in these positions is a willingness to handle a scrub brush.

Four to thirty deckhands. No experience of any kind is needed to obtain employment in these positions. In most cases the deckhands are merely freight-handlers. The majority of those interviewed were "down and outs," working only a week or so at a time on the boats.

Engine department crew, consisting usually of two licensed engineers, two oilers, and from two to four firemen.

Steward's department, consisting of from six to 125 persons, none of whom are sailors. This department consists of cooks and helpers, pantry boys, waiters, porters, bellboys, cabin watchmen, chambermaids, bartenders, news and cigar stand attendants, etc.

"We find," the report goes on, "that the average crew of experienced seaman on each steamer, exclusive of the captain and two mates, is five. These five seamen are the two quartermasters or wheelmen, two watchmen on most of the steamers, and one lookoutsman.

"On a passenger steamer employing two quartermasters, two watchmen, and two lookoutsmen, a total of six experienced seamen, the watch on deck consists of one man of each grade, a total of three such experienced seamen. One of these, the quartermaster, is at the wheel in the pilot house or on the steamer's bridge, steering the ship, and is not available for any other work. The watchman is stationed on the freight deck and would only know of anything dangerous on the passenger decks through hearing the official signal or alarm. The lookoutsman is usually stationed at the extreme forward end of the steamer, and he is the only available man to whom the officer in charge of the vessel could personally communicate a sudden direct order to perform emergency service on deck. In cases where

only one lookoutsman is employed, who then stands watch only at night, the officer in charge must, during the day, wait until the watchman comes to him from the freight deck in response to a signal. The law itself permits this condition of affairs.

"It will be noticed from this that not one of the twenty-four passenger steamers ever has on watch at one time sufficient experienced seamen to launch and man even one lifeboat. No experienced seamen could be found on the passenger decks, except, at times, a lookoutsman stationed in the bow of the ship.

"Such few experienced sailors as are employed on board these steamers are each placed in charge of a lifeboat, with cooks, waiters, bellboys, deckhands, or freight handlers as crews and there are not even enough able seamen on board these steamers to place even one such man in each lifeboat."

The fire and boat drill practiced in these boats the federation denounces as of no value:

"The fire drill consists of pulling down the hose and opening a valve. The calling of the fire drill serves as a notice for boat drill. Boat drill consists of lifting from one to three lifeboats and swinging them out. It is not required that lifeboats be launched into the water with crews in place during boat drill—and without this being done the drill is very nearly useless. The men are given no practice whatever in handling lifeboats in the water, or other life saving apparatus."

In its editorial comment on this report the *Journal* urges legislation requiring experienced crews on lake and other vessels. The bill which has been introduced into Congress in several successive sessions and which will be brought in again this winter by the Seamen's Union (H. R. 11372 of the sixty-first Congress) would require that 75 per cent of a crew be able seamen.

The Seamen's Union has been on strike for three years against the Lake Carriers' Association, and the union officials claim that the present condition on the lakes is due to the use of casual laborers.

BAKE-SHOP RULES

The following tentative rules drawn up by the Wisconsin Industrial Commission have been adopted *in toto* by the Master Bakers' Association of the state. The commission invites criticism and suggestions and reserves the right to modify the requirements when special conditions demand changes in order to attain the sanitary standard they desire to attain in this trade. A digest of the rules follows:

1. If there is a public drain extending along any street or alley in which a bakery is located, the bakery must be connected.

2. If there is no public sewer or drain, a drain must be provided to a cesspool or other receptacle, located at least thirty feet away from the bakery; provided that if such drain empties into a running stream or lake, the limitation as to distance shall not apply.

3. All plumbing must meet the legal requirements; but in all cases water fixtures

shall be back-vented or equipped with anti-siphon traps.

4. Waste water shall not be drained directly on the ground below the floor or on the surface of the ground adjacent to the bakery.

5. Sewers running through any bakery shall be so securely and completely bedded as to prevent the escape of water, sewage, or gas, and must be subject to a test of at least two feet of water or twenty-five pounds of air pressure.

6. No drain is permitted nearer than eighteen inches to any water pipe.

77. No pan, hopper, or plunger water-closet shall be put into any bakery hereafter established, and all such closets now in use must be replaced, when worn out or filthy, with tank flushed siphon closets, properly trapped and ventilated.

78. All water-closets and urinals in bakeries must be fully enclosed and provided with self-closing doors. All closets and urinals shall be provided with a window to the outer air, if possible; if such window cannot be constructed, closets and urinals must be connected with a ventilating flue providing a continuous current out of the closet into the open air.

79. In places where it is not possible to have sanitary conveniences in bakeries on account of local conditions, privies with vaults may be maintained. Such privies must be located at least thirty feet from the bakery, and must be screened.

87. In bakeries where eight or nine persons are employed separate sanitary conveniences must be provided for females. At least one such convenience shall be provided for every twenty-five females or fraction thereof, for males in the same proportion up to 100, then one for every forty.

It may be noted that there is no provision that water-closets shall not open into bake-rooms, nor is there any requirement for facilities for cleanliness, or any regulation tending to limit the use of cellars as bakeries.

JOTTINGS

STANDARDS IN ACCIDENT REPORTING

The Committee on Standard of the American Association for Labor Legislation is sending out for criticism and suggestion its tentative schedule for uniform reporting of industrial accidents. It solicits the co-operation of all who have information on this subject in the task of drawing up its final schedule. A copy can be obtained from the following persons, members of the committee:

Leonard W. Hatch, New York Department of Labor, chairman; Lucian W. Chaney, United States Bureau of Labor; John R. Commons, Industrial Commission of Wisconsin; Don. D. Leschier, Minnesota State Bureau of Labor; John B. Andrews, secretary American Association for Labor Legislation, 1 Madison Avenue, New York.

The committee will make its full report at the meeting of the Association for Labor Legislation in Washington, December 27.

BRITISH REPORT FOR AMERICAN READERS

In *Bulletin 93* the Department of Commerce and Labor has made the essential facts in the recent report of the British Board of Trade on the Cost of Living in Europe and America available for American readers. The resumé, which digests in seventy pages the British report of 533 folio pages, should be useful not only to those wishing to get a general view of the report, but to introduce the subjects covered to those wishing to make a thorough study of the British investigation. Publication 93 contains also facts regarding the hours of labor of Austrian factory workers, a digest of recent foreign statistical publications, and recent decisions of American courts affecting labor.

BUFFALO TRADES UNIONS AND TUBERCULOSIS

A booklet issued by the Buffalo Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis tells of the organization of a Trades Union Section of the association. About sixty unions are at present affiliated, electing delegates to a central body. The purpose of the organization is to do "everything in its power to prevent the spread of tuberculosis among the well, and to care for the sick among its own members. Through organized effort, and its affiliation with the parent association, it will work for more and better hospital facilities for the care of the sufferers, and for improved public health agencies of all kinds in city, county, and state, and to arrange that its members have proper sanatorium treatment whenever possible. It will work for improved sanitary and hygienic conditions in factories and all places of employment. It will through meetings, lectures, and printed matter, carry on an educational campaign among the organized workers of the city."

One of the pioneers among trade unions in work for tuberculosis is the International Typographical Union, whose 700 locals have long co-operated with local anti-tuberculosis committees, have carried on an educational campaign among their membership, and have enforced sanitary conditions in union shops. Their sanatorium, founded in 1892, has spread from a single building to a group of buildings, which with the surrounding property are worth a million dollars. In this settlement care is provided for tubercular printers, and also for those aged members of the union who prefer institutional care to the weekly pension of \$5 to which all members of twenty years' standing who have reached the age of sixty are eligible.

A MASTER PLUMBER'S MUTUAL

In their effort to keep premiums low, the New England Mutual Fire Insurance Companies have, by confining their risks to buildings properly built, protected, and occupied, largely eliminated the fire hazard in the factories of their members. A system that works with fire may be turned to account in accident insurance, and it is interesting to learn from the *Metal Worker* that, influenced by the practically compulsory feature in the new

state compensation law, the master plumbers of Wisconsin have taken the initial steps toward forming a mutual liability insurance society. This is said to be the first venture of its kind on a large scale in the plumbing field.

ON A PAY ENVELOPE

This is the inscription on the pay envelope of the Lorraine Company, a Rhode Island firm interested in preserving the health of its employes:

WILL YOU HELP TO PREVENT TUBERCULOSIS?

It kills 1,000 people yearly in Rhode Island.
It is spread by Careless Spitting.
It can be cured if taken in time.
It can be prevented in nearly all cases.
Do not neglect a Cough. Consult a Physician.
Sleep with the Windows Open.
If you think you have Tuberculosis,
Notify the Overseer, and the Lorraine
Manufacturing Co. will help you.

LABOR NEWS LETTER

The weekly *News Letter* of the American Federation of Labor, issued by instruction of the delegates attending the last annual convention, is designed to furnish the affiliated labor periodicals throughout the country with current notes on the labor movement from the trade union point of view, and with the news of important events directly or indirectly connected with labor throughout the world.

Among other items last month's letters record the opening of the strike of the shopmen on the Harriman lines, boilermakers, carworkers, blacksmiths, sheetmetal workers, and machinists all voting to come out, the latter in spite of the adverse decision of the president of their organization. Later the strike spread to trainmen and conductors. The demand is for recognition of the federation of shopmen's unions.

—On the eve of his trial the International Bridge and Structural Iron Workers' Union has re-elected J. J. McNamara general secretary-treasurer of its organization.

—After six weeks' strike the ladies' tailors of New York have come to a settlement with the Employers' Association which is a compromise agreement on their original demands. The agreement secures the journeymen tailors shorter hours, increased pay, fixed pay-day and cash payments, some regulation of over-time, Sunday and home work, a certain degree of union recognition, and steps toward establishing a sanitary board.

—President Mahon in his annual report to Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway Employes of America states that: "During the term there has not been a single reduction of wages anywhere; while upon the other hand 138 divisions have received increases in wages varying from one-

half cent to ten cents an hour, and twenty of these divisions have had the second increase during the term. The wage increase affects 42,491 of our members and amounts annually to \$2,356,900. The average per member for the year is \$55.46."

—According to President O'Connell's report members of the International Association of Machinists have engaged in 152 strikes. They are now striking at forty different points for increases in wages, reductions in the hours of labor, and better shop conditions. In two years the general office has paid in strike benefits over a million dollars. In death benefits it has spent \$93,325, and its local unions have paid, on a conservative estimate, \$100,000 for sick benefits.

SAFETY AND THE MACHINE BUILDER

A Wisconsin builder, while approving state legislation compelling employers to install safety devices, suggests that the persons on whom compulsion should be used are the manufacturers of machinery. This, he points out, would save the manufacturers the expense of practically rebuilding parts of their machines. It is to be noted that some of the largest machine purchasers have safety standards which they demand as a matter of routine in securing new equipment, and let be known among the sales agents of machine supply companies that safety elements in machine construction will be taken into account in placing orders. The margin of profit on travelling cranes, for example, is so small that, unless specified, protection devices are not customarily built into them; only the purchaser who demands them is sure of getting them. The *Metal Worker* suggests that a compulsory safety law such as that before the last Wisconsin Legislature would automatically give the advantage in competition to the manufacturer of machinery who designs with a view to safety.

RESISTANCE TO MINIMUM WAGES

The efforts made at Cradley Heath to postpone the operation of the new scale of wages imposed by the British Minimum Wage Boards¹ are being closely paralleled in the lace industry, the second trade for which a scale was arranged. At Nottingham, the home of lace-making, the more unscrupulous firms are taking advantage of a contract clause in the board's award to postpone the new scale of wages. Under threats of dismissal workers are being asked by middlewomen—forewomen who, it is believed, expect in this way to earn an advance in wages themselves—to contract out for six months at less than the legal minimum of 2 3-4 d. per hour. For refusal to agree to this proposition several hundred women have been locked out. The National Federation of Women Workers, to which the lace-workers belong, and the National Anti-Sweating League have addressed a public appeal for funds, signed by Lord Henry Bentinck, M. P., and others, to support the locked-out women.

¹See THE SURVEY, September 23, 1911.

W. T. U. L. COURSES

The Women's Trade Union League of New York, encouraged by the success of its last year's classes in music, English, and social subjects, is offering a fuller educational program for this winter. The musical course covers classes in sight singing, voice production, and chorus. A course in parliamentary law will give training in carrying on the business of an organization. Courses in debating and in English, the latter especially for foreigners, will be offered, designed to increase the pupil's power of self-expression and orderly thinking. Through the class in English, the more elementary facts about modern industry will be taught, some of the subjects of the lessons being: Looking for Work, Learning a Trade, a Trade With a Union, Factory Laws. More advanced instruction on the subject of modern industry, with special emphasis on the position of women in this field, will be given in a series of half-hour talks on social subjects, economics, the labor movement, and trade unions. These talks, the first popular presentation of sociological subjects, have already been prepared in pamphlet form by James Dealy of Brown University, Charles Beard of Columbia University, and Jessica Linch. Beginning in January there will also be given a course of twelve lectures on American government and politics, constitutional rights and police power, and labor legislation in Europe and America.

TO PROTECT RESTAURANT WORKERS

A recent issue of the *American City* reprints a paper read at the last meeting of the American Public Health Association by Charles B. Ball, chief of the Bureau of Sanitation of Chicago, whose work for improving the condition of Chicago bakeries is well known. It lays down a model set of regulations for bakeries and restaurant kitchens. Mr. Ball deplors the growing tendency toward cellar occupation, but believes that pure food legislation can be used to obstruct it. Pure food is to be the excuse, the protection of the health and lives of those who are forced to labor in unsanitary places the real motive of sanitary improvement. He suggests the following regulations for bakeries: the floor to be above the ground level; lighting and ventilation to be from at least three sides; floors to be rat- and moisture-proof, monolithic to be preferred to wooden floors; wall and ceiling finish to be of hard, smooth, cement plaster; and furniture to be movable, to allow easy and frequent cleaning. For restaurants, whose present kitchen accommodations he calls "foul catacombs," he recommends in addition to the above requirements: an ample space requirement; an arrangement of appliances that shall insure the separation of garbage and dish-washing from food; adequate provision for the removal of cooking odors; ample and isolated toilets, washrooms, and lockers, and well-ventilated refrigerators, with separate compartments for different classes of food.

CRIME AND ITS CURE

ISABEL C. BARROWS, Contributing Editor

YOUNG CRIMINALS IN THE NEBRASKA STATE PENITENTIARY¹

LUTHER E. WIDEN

A little over 30 per cent of the convictions in Nebraska during the past forty years resulting in the serving of terms in the state penitentiary, at Lincoln, concerned individuals who were twenty-two years old or younger at the time of their conviction. As the writer moved from cell to cell and galley to galley talking to some of these youths, knowing that their average time behind the walls was less than two years, the question came forcibly: What is being done to help these boys to withstand temptation when they are given their freedom?

The penitentiary has two cell houses for men, well ventilated, equipped with modern sanitary appliances, and electrically lighted. The prison for women is above the chapel. The prison shops—contract labor is employed in making shirts and brooms—the hospital, greenhouse, electrical and heating plant, a branch kitchen, and tailor shop are back of the long cell houses and surrounded by the customary high wall. Barns, an orchard, gardens, and fields surround the walls.

The institution was opened to receive convicts July 28, 1870, when twenty-three men were admitted. During the following period of forty years, over 5500 men and boys have been committed, and of this number two-thirds were from fourteen to thirty years of age at the time of their commitment. The length of sentence has varied from one day in two cases to life in approximately one hundred cases. In numerous instances the death penalty has been exacted.

It was not till July, 1881, that the State Reform School was opened at Kearney to receive boys and girls under the age of sixteen, who were "growing up in mendicancy and crime for want of proper parental care or other cause." It took eleven years from the opening of the penitentiary to have established a separate institution for juvenile delinquents, and eleven more years elapsed before boys and girls were provided for in distinct institutions.

In the spring of 1893 a legislation investiga-

¹This is an abstract of a study made by the writer while a student in the Department of Sociology at the University of Nebraska, 1909-1910.

tion was held on account of the death of a convict from causes growing out of the inhuman method of punishment in the penitentiary. Among other recommendations were the following:

The contract labor system should be done away with at the earliest possible moment. The pay of the guards and other minor officials at the penitentiary should be increased. How can it be expected that convicts will be reformed while under the care of men who are almost if not quite as lacking as they in moral principles? The wiser economy would be to increase the compensation and secure the services of men better qualified to fill the places. Your committee believes that the system of confining young convicts, under sentence for the first time, with the older and hardened criminals is wrong in principle and unwise in practice. We believe that every endeavor should be made to reform the young criminals and to lead them to live moral and upright lives, but all efforts in that direction will be thwarted while such young criminals are permitted to associate with men who have led criminal careers during their whole lives; and we therefore recommend that suitable arrangements be made by the officials in charge to classify and separate the older and more hardened criminals from those less vicious. Your committee believes that some provisions should be made whereby the ignorant convicts, as also those who may desire further educational advantages, may be taught such branches as are taught in the common schools of the state; and to that end we believe that a night school should be held not less than two evenings in each week, which all those convicts who can not read and write should be required to attend for instruction in the common school studies.

What a different institution we should have to-day if these recommendations had been followed! But the contract system still exists, the guards and other minor officials are only half paid. The first offender is thrown in with the vicious. Moreover, there is not a country school in the state less systematically conducted than the present prison school.

Two boys of fourteen and sixteen boys of fifteen years of age have been committed to this prison. Of the 66 2-3 per cent from fourteen to thirty years of age, 17 per cent are under twenty, and a little over 45 per cent, nearly one-third of the total prison number,

are twenty-two years of age or less. More than ten times as many youths of twenty-two are received as men of forty-five. To one man between forty-eight and fifty-eight, fifteen boys are received between the ages of eighteen and twenty-eight. More boys between the ages of nineteen and twenty-six are received than men of all the ages after twenty-six. More boys from fourteen to seventeen inclusive have been received than men over fifty up to seventy-four. The average age of the Nebraska convict is a fraction over twenty-eight years, the degree of variability being much larger above than below this figure.

It may be worth while to give a few of the quotations concerning these younger convicts. In the third biennial report, 1873-1874, the warden says:

It is impossible to overestimate the moral injury inflicted on the young in years by having them thrust indiscriminately into the same room with older and hardened criminals.

He urges the need of separate cells. Chaplain Harris in his report in 1878 says:

I have become especially interested in some of the younger convicts. In many instances they are capable of being made very much of, but situated as they are among those who have been hardened in crime, their reformation is a matter of great doubt and difficulty. Their only salvation is to be removed at once to a reformatory school of some kind, and to be surrounded by better influences than are now possible. Many of them are as yet mere boys, wholly uneducated, and without a trade for their future support.

The Rev. P. W. Howe's long experience as prison chaplain afforded him a rare opportunity to become familiar with the needs and abuses of the penitentiary system. In his report, November 30, 1890, he says:

A person of ordinary comprehension can well understand that the placing of the young man who has committed his first offence in constant association with the hardened and abandoned criminal will inevitably lead to the worst possible result. As I understand it, we should, if possible, turn out a better man than we took in. Under our present system we are almost certain to turn out a worse man. That our prisons should be reformatory the best interests of society clearly demonstrate.

A statistical study from the prison record for the period from 1903 to 1909 inclusive brings out the following facts concerning the boys who were twenty-two years of age or younger at the time of their commitment. Three hundred and sixty-six individuals are

included in this summary study, representing 26.5 per cent of the total population received during the period. On January 1, 1910, nearly one-fourth of these young men were still confined, just one-half of these, however, having been received during the year preceding, 1909.

Thirty-three per cent of all the commitments were from Douglas county, of which Omaha is, the county seat, a county which represents a proportionate population just one-half as large. On the other hand, Lancaster county, of which the state capital, Lincoln, is the county seat, figures a proportionate number of convictions according to population, both figures being about 6 per cent.

Eleven per cent of these 366 cases were foreign-born. Seventy per cent were born in the north central states, nearly one-fourth in Nebraska. Thirty-six states and territories and sixteen different foreign countries are represented as birth-places.

Forty-two statutory crimes were recorded against these unfortunates, ranging in degree from seven cases of first degree murder to single instances of receiving stolen property, selling mortgaged property, larceny as bailee, sending threatening letter, etc. The crimes against property constitute 85 per cent of the cases, and one-half of these were burglary and horse-stealing.

These figures do not show any apparent variation in the ages of those convicted for crimes against property and those convicted of crimes against persons. But the age average is higher for larceny from person, that is pick-pocketing, than it is for burglary and horse-stealing.

Nearly one hundred different occupations were given by these youths as having been followed before their incarceration:

Thirty per cent were common laborers, 16 per cent were farmers, 6 per cent were waiters, 3 per cent were butchers, and 3 per cent were cooks. These were the most common.

The tendency of the judges is to give these young men the minimum sentence.

One hundred and forty-five of the 366 were sentenced to one year, which means only ten months, since practically all shorten their terms by two months by making so-called "good time." Eight were sentenced to one and one-fourth years, and thirty-five to one and one-half. Fifty-eight were "sent over" for two years, and as these young men spend as a rule only one year and eight months in prison, deducting their good time and assuming that they are not paroled after serving one year, it is readily seen that 68 per cent spend less than two years behind the bars. Ten of the commitments were for life. One boy of fifteen and seventeen of seventeen years of age were received during this seven-year period.

The most interesting part of this study is,

perhaps, that which the boys themselves contributed. A questionnaire asking some eighty questions was prepared. The prisoners were, without exception, courteous. One or two showed indifference, but as a rule they displayed unusual interest in the investigation. The questionnaires were given to those inmates who had entered the prison when they were twenty-two years of age or younger. Approximately 4,000 questions answered by fifty individuals were selected for statistical tabulation.

With one exception each of them knew the exact date of his birth. Sixteen per cent of these men were under eighteen at the time of their conviction. Only three of the boys hailed from the other side of the Atlantic, these coming from England, Denmark, and Sweden; two were born in Canada, and the remaining forty-five in the United States. Sixteen mothers and fourteen fathers were foreign born. Not a single parent was a native of Nebraska. The average size of the family, including parents, was nearly seven members. In fifteen cases there were from seven to ten children. In twenty-three cases both parents were still living, four of them, however, not living together. Twenty had lost their fathers and fourteen their mothers. Twelve of the boys were under ten when their fathers died; six were likewise under ten when their mothers died. Five had lost both parents before they were eight years old.

Several questions were submitted to determine the age at which schooling, if any, began; the age upon leaving school; the grade attained; and the reason for leaving school.

Only two had never attended school. The average age of entering school was six years; the average age for leaving, fifteen. The average time of attendance was, however, much less than nine years.

Three questions were given to ascertain the number of jobs held before conviction, and how many had had a trade, and how many had joined a labor union.

Fourteen had had so many different jobs they could not remember the number. Twenty-eight said they had learned some trade in whole or in part. However, the word "trade" was confused several times with manual labor or menial service. Only five had membership in labor unions.

It is generally contended that criminals are of a non-social type. A question bearing on this matter resulted in answers showing that one-half had never belonged to any organization whatever. Twenty claimed membership in seven or eight different religious organizations. Only four had joined secret societies.

Just one-half said that they had never been

arrested as boys. Only three admitted having worked off a fine, eight had served jail sentences, eight had served time in industrial schools for boys, two had paid fines, and one had already served a short penitentiary sentence in another state. Thirty-two had never before served sentences for crimes or misdemeanors. Twenty-one admitted that they had been drunk. Fifteen drank at times, and fourteen were, presumably, total abstainers.

Most of the boys appeared to be in good health, but about 40 per cent had some complaint to make.

Eighteen per cent admitted having suffered from venereal infections. One suffered from rheumatism, another from tuberculosis, a third from bad blood.

"Did you get justice when convicted? Did you plead guilty? Are you guilty of what you were convicted for?" In answer to these questions the boys showed a great deal of unexpected interest.

Forty per cent admitted getting justice, but only one of these had committed a crime against person, namely wife abandonment. All of those convicted of murder or manslaughter denied receiving justice. Eighteen convicted for property crimes claimed that justice had not been dealt out to them.

In spite of the fact that such a large proportion plead guilty, two-thirds of them spent more than a month in jail. The average time spent in jail was sixty-six days. It is evident, therefore, that the young men who are sentenced to the penitentiary have neither means at their disposal nor friends or relatives who are in a position to assist them in their trouble. It was found that the average time spent in the county jail by those charged with property crimes was fifty-three days. The time spent in this way has an important bearing upon the hardening process in these young, pliable characters. The average county jail is infested with the crime-breeding germs of idleness and vulgarity at least, not to say of social diseases, filth, and immoral practices. Even those boys who plead guilty served a significant sentence in the county jail, the average being fifty-seven days.

Eighteen boys had run away from home, and thirteen of these claimed that their relatives did not know that they were in prison. In answering the question, "To whom do you write?" sixteen specified their mothers, six their fathers, seven their relatives, five their friends, three their sisters, and three their brothers. Three wrote to their wives and one to his foster-parents. Nine wrote to absolutely no one.

That the apparently easy, shiftless life of

the tramp often leads to crime and a prison sentence is evidenced by the fact that

twenty-six of these fifty boys admitted having bummed their way in travelling. Twenty of these had at some time classed themselves as ordinary tramps. Sixty per cent claimed that they had travelled a great deal.

"Whose fault is it and what caused you to be here?"

Thirty of the boys attributed their waywardness to their own mistakes in greater or less degree. "Errare est humanum" was the classical answer of one of the younger prisoners. In ten cases "my own, by whiskey," or similar answers, were given. Gambling was mentioned once, and so was cocaine. Thirteen boys placed the blame on their evil associates. Six of the boys centered the cause of their downfall in their economic conditions before or after the crime was committed.

Tobacco was used by 80 per cent of the boys at the time the questions were submitted. Only three boys had never used it in any form before or during incarceration; five had not used it before going to prison.

In reference to their prison treatment the boys were not given to complaining. The few grudges that were noted in the answers were usually directed towards the guards.

Three-fourths of these young men referred to their treatment as being "O. K." Others complained of mistreatment.

"What do you like about the prison system?" was answered in various ways.

"Nothing," said eighteen. "Don't have to wear stripes," "working system," "library and school system," "parole and pardon laws," "modern cell house," "regularity of meals and sleeping rules," "visitors and warden," were other answers. The negative of the foregoing question, "What don't you like about it?" was answered by seven in one word, "Everything." The food was condemned by ten, contract labor by two, exercise by two, close confinement by six. One said that the prison system would be better if stricter, because too much partiality was shown to certain prisoners. Another appreciated the evil effects of mixing indiscriminately persons of all ages and crimes. Two criticized the moral standards of the guards.

Suggestions as to how matters could be improved were mostly specific.

Twelve urged better food, ten wanted to be allowed the freedom of the prison yard on Sundays, and eight suggested the employment of better and more moral men as guards. One made the suggestion, "Give us chance to earn and save a little money." Two recognized the advantages of keeping boys out of cells in which prisoners of vicious character were confined. Other suggestions were "grade convicts," "improve sanitation," "better wages to guards to induce better men to stay here."

The evil influences in prison given the most emphasis were the associations with hardened criminals and their stories of crime. About one-third of the boys referred to these.

Only two of the fifty boys had lost good time for some infringement of the prison rules. This practice, established by statute, of giving two months of the first and second years, three months of the third year, and four months of the fourth and additional years of sentence, for good behaviour, is a most important factor in maintaining discipline. One of the boys complained that the Nebraska law was not as liberal in this respect as some other state laws, and another thought that "the best should have a chance to earn more good time." Two men who had long sentences, twenty and twenty-two years respectively, had reason to believe that the indeterminate sentence law, which has not as yet been added to Nebraska's code, would be better than this so-called good-time law.

Prison officials usually realize the great dangers of sexual vice in prison and the debauching influence of the older men on the young boys when allowed to cell together. A convict is not in prison long before he learns of the revolting sex crimes practiced by perverted human beings. This is, no doubt, one of the most serious and difficult problems confronting the prison management and is a strong argument for the separate system. Sixty per cent of the boys answered in the affirmative to the question, "Do you think there is a great deal of sexual vice in here?"

All but two liked the weekly chapel exercises on Sunday morning. Only eleven of the boys attended the prison school. Two of them sang in the choir, and one played the cornet in the orchestra.

Perhaps one would venture to say that, as a whole, the answers were optimistic, considering the circumstances under which they were written. While this is a measure true one can not but feel the strong undercurrent of dissatisfaction. Again, many of these boys would be willing to say things they would not commit to paper. They feel keenly the contributory responsibility of others for their crime, their own weakness to combat evil influence upon their release because of the attitude of society and the majority of the servants of society toward the ex-convict. They are members of a large unorganized army, so they would have it, and their organized foe, the unit of which is the average American citizen, is, unconsciously, ever ready

to drive them back into accustomed haunts and nefarious practices.

One would naturally expect dissatisfaction to reign over the inmates of a prison. From the nature of things this must be true even in a model institution. And while there is no absolute panacea, no perfect system devisable whereby all delinquents may be reformed for social assimilation, there is great hope in those institutions where the problem is not only understood but dealt with by means of precedents that are tried and true. Reformatory ideals should be introduced into all correctional institutions. In the January, 1910, issue of the *American Journal of Sociology*, Z. R. Brockway discusses the principles of the American reformatory prison system. He says that it

is based on the principle of protection in place of punishment; on the principle of the indeterminate sentence instead of the usual time sentence; and on the purpose of rehabilitation of offenders rather than their restraint by intimidation.

BACK TO SING SING

With the removal by Governor Dix of four of the five members of the State Commission on New Prisons, and the resignation of the fifth, a further chapter has been written in the story of New York's attempt to get a new prison. Four years ago the commission made its selection of the Wingdale site, consisting of 500 acres of land lying on the west bank of the Hudson river, about forty-two miles from New York. The selection was approved by the State Commission of Prisons and Governor Hughes. Later, just before Governor Dix assumed his duties, the State Commission on New Prisons awarded the contract for the construction of the new prison, which was planned to take the place of Sing Sing, to the P. J. Carlin Construction Company of New York. This company began work.

As a result of investigations conducted by Governor Dix, Superintendent Scott, and the State Prison Commission, the permanent body charged with supervision of New York penal institutions—the personnel of which had undergone changes under the present Democratic administration—Governor Dix caused negotiations to be started with the Carlin company for the abrogation of its contract. The project has been abandoned and instead steps are to be taken to improve the equipment of Sing Sing.

Concerning the changed program, Joseph F. Scott, formerly superintendent of Elmira Reformatory and since this year superintendent of the State Prison Department, writes:

"There has been paid from the state

treasury at the present time for the Bear Mountain and Wingdale work upwards of \$400,000. The contract with the Carlin Brothers amounts to \$2,200,000. Their original bid was \$2,900,000, but six buildings were eliminated to bring the amount down to that authorized by the legislature. I do not believe that six buildings can be built for less than Carlin's original bids. With what has already been expended, this would amount to \$3,300,000. It will then be necessary to provide the prison with water works and sewerage disposal plant, and grade the grounds, the cost of which I approximate at \$200,000. This would bring the complete cost of Wingdale up to \$3,500,000 for the bare buildings, without equipment. The soil of the site is low, and one end marshy. The basement floors of all the buildings except the cell block and administration buildings would be seven feet above high-water mark of the swamp river. Many of the foundations go much below the high-water mark of the river.

"Of course there are no unfavorable conditions at Wingdale that could not be overcome, but the expense over that of a properly selected site would be considerable. I believe also that the water supply would be inadequate. Before the fall rains set in all of the water in the brook which would furnish the reservoirs was passing through a three-inch pipe put in by the contractors for construction work, and the rest of the brook was dry.

"I do not believe that the location of Sing Sing prison is an unhealthy one. A new cell block could be constructed there to do away with the old one, in which the cells are altogether too small, and could be constructed by prison labor. The present cell building could be stripped of its cells and converted into a factory building, which would be exceedingly serviceable. I believe \$1,000,000 would construct a new cell block at Sing Sing and leave enough money to put all of the other buildings in good condition. While the prison would not be as good as a new prison at Wingdale, it would cost \$2,000,000 less, and would be adequate to our present needs.

"It should be taken into consideration also that the prison at Great Meadows has been started since the Bear Mountain and Wingdale projects were inaugurated. There are already 600 cells completed at Great Meadow prison. The plans call for 600 more. This would give a cell capacity at Great Meadow of 1,200. There are 1,200 cells at Clinton, 1,200 at Auburn, and 1,200 at Sing Sing, making a total of 4,800, which would provide for a prison capacity of about 5,000 people in all four prisons, taking into consideration the number that are in the hospitals, etc.

"We have at the present time a total population in the four prisons of 4,375 male prisoners. The commitments of male prisoners to the state prisons for the past four years were as follows: 1908, 1,633; 1909, 1,627; 1910, 1,512; 1911, 1,368."

There have been charges that the abandonment of the Wingdale site let the construction firm out of an unprofitable contract, but these have not been generally credited among public-spirited people interested in prison matters in New York state. Opinion seems to be in support of the present prison administration in abandoning the Wingdale site as ill-adapted to institutional uses. It has been rumored that the "scientific method of elimination" by which the site was ostensibly chosen was used to cover up a choice made for reasons best known to the controlling faction on the new prison board. Certain it is that the structural plan adopted for the new prison by the removed commissioners, against the vigorous protests of the minority at the time, embodied all the old faults of American prison building and disregarded the recommendations made by Samuel J. Barrows as a result of his tour of European prison structures.

The settling back into a partially rehabilitated Sing Sing, as an economical solution of New York prison needs, however, is not likely to receive the same measure of acceptance. Sing Sing is not and cannot be made a fit place for reformatory work, and the time has come when all prisons should be reformatory. K.

PROBATION AND THE "PLEDGE"

There was doubt as to the efficacy of the "pledge" method of reforming drunkards in the minds of those who attended the Fourth New York State Conference of Probation Officers, held under the auspices of the State Probation Commission at Watertown, October 17-18. The discussion of this matter borrowed interest from the general endorsement given the "pledge" system by the delegates to the Thirteenth International Congress against Alcoholism at the Hague last summer. The doubt of the New York probation officers amounted, in the words of one of them, to "a general belief that the use of a 'pledge' is seldom effective". William J. Dempsey, county probation officer of Oswego county, told of the reply of one prisoner at the bar: "Now, Judge, never mind a new pledge, I've got a whole bureau drawer full of those pledges down home, and I'll just go down and take one of the old ones."

Opinion was divided among the speakers as to the wisdom of the "tapering-off" process. Young men should usually be required to stop drinking at once, was the opinion expressed by Thomas A. Fletcher, chief probation officer in the Utica City Court; but, he added, for older persons and especially for whiskey drinkers abrupt discontinuance may work physical injury. The importance of medical treatment in conjunction with probation was urged.

The use of probation as a means of requiring offenders to make restitution for stolen property and to support their families is growing, according to Vice-president Frank E. Wade, of the State Probation Commission,

who presided. There was almost unanimity, among the sixty people who gathered in round table discussion, that girls should be placed only under women officers, and boys of fourteen years or more only under men. Aside from the question of instruction in personal hygiene, it was pointed out that in dealing with boys it often becomes the task of the probation officer to wean them away from a "gang", or by securing the "gang's" confidence to elevate its own moral tone. One officer told of doing this through the agency of a boys' club.

The view came refreshingly to the front that a probation officer should be somewhat of a vocational director. He should feel a responsibility, it was thought, as to the nature of occupations in which juvenile probationers of working age are employed. Children should be dissuaded from entering occupations which offer no prospects of advancement, or are harmful either to health or morals. This responsibility should extend also, it was argued, to wholesome evening recreation.

Citing the fact that during September over \$4,000 was collected from husbands convicted for non-support in the Brooklyn Domestic Relations Court, Alexander J. McKinney, chief probation officer in the Second Division Board of City Magistrates of New York city, urged the large benefits resulting from the use of probation in cases not only of non-support but wherever the offense has caused the complainant financial loss. Yet even men guilty of neglecting their families should usually be allowed, was the declaration of one speaker, to pay for their support directly to them rather than through the officer.

JAIL OR FARM FOR DRUNKARD?

Under this title Dr. S. D. Miller, in the Jacksonville, Fla., *Metropolis* advocates outdoor life in treating intemperance. He shows that last year in the small city of Jacksonville, with only ninety-five policemen, the total cost of the mere arrest of drunken men was \$33,000. Eight arrests were made daily, on an average, though these arrests were "repeaters" in many cases. Says Dr. Miller:

"All this is labor and money spent without producing any lasting results. The arresting and bailing of these drunkards does not stop the drunkenness nor expense, but on the contrary both the drunkenness and expense keep growing every year. The question is: What shall be done with this large and ever-increasing body of men who are a menace to the public at large and an enormous expense if arrested and kept confined? They can not be taken out into the pine woods and shot, as we would do with a lot of worn-out horses to save the city the expense of keeping them. . . . Chronic drunkenness is not a thing that can be stopped at will. Occasionally there is a patient who can stop drinking at will, but most of these unfortunates have an overwhelming craving for liquor seize them, which overcomes all their power of resistance. They are as helpless as a row-boat be-

fore a gale. When this mad craving sets in they drink because they must do so to relieve its overwhelming power. They can not resist it. It is mightier than they. It simply overpowers them. . . . They cannot be cured by prison bars. They need medical care. They should be treated at least as humanely as we would treat a sick mule. We would not punish a mule for having a disease. We would not think of placing a man in jail for having typhoid fever, epilepsy, or malaria, but we do place the chronic alcoholic in prison, the same as the heathen in dark ages placed a man in prison for having epilepsy. If these same 500 chronic drunkards were properly treated they would become useful citizens and supporters of their own families, instead of a great public expense.

"The method of caring for them is simple. Let the city or county buy a farm, place an honest, conscientious physician in charge, with a competent farmer to direct the farm. . . . The farm would soon produce enough to pay the living expenses of all the patients, with the possibility of making money out of the farm. Here the patients would be treated until they had lost all desire for whiskey, and would then go out into the world as useful citizens."

The New Britain, Conn., *Herald* likewise advocates outdoor employment for the intemperate:

"Establish a farm colony to which drunkards could be sent for long terms, say five years, with parole possible at the end of one year, and not sooner. Let this institution be arranged upon the cottage system, with say not more than twenty in one building—all under the control of a central organization bringing about as nearly as possible the atmosphere of a decent home and family; the less air of an institution the better. If any rounder shows signs of ability to learn a trade let him be encouraged. This farm colony should be under the control of the state and there should be land enough for each inmate to get outdoor labor under kind supervision."

JOTTINGS

PUTS PRISONERS ON FARM

"At the Central prison, Toronto, we are experimenting with a farm of 840 acres. I have taken there between 800 and 900 men and I have failed with only three out of 100. Probation and suspended sentence have failed with them, but we are going to give them one more chance to make good without bolts and bars. There isn't a bolt or a bar or a gun on the farm," says Warden Gilmour.

DETROIT HOUSE OF CORRECTION

Z. R. Brockway was the first man to develop the financial side of this large institution. The seeds he sowed nearly half a century ago are bearing good fruit still. Said W. H. Venn at the Omaha congress: "July 6, 1911, the Detroit House of Correc-

tion passed its fiftieth mile-stone. During the last thirty-two years over \$1,000,000 in profits were turned over to the city of Detroit, to the families of prisoners, and to the prisoners themselves. Since 1880 the city of Detroit has annually received sums ranging from \$9016.83 to \$52,711.64. The original expenditure by the city of \$189,841.36 has been turned back into the treasury of the municipality, the institution has paid its own way, and in the fifty years showed a fine balance of \$1,254,178.15. In addition to this showing, the prisoners since July, 1901, have been receiving financial benefits ranging from \$5,958.14 to \$9,670.38 annually.

"In addition to amounts paid the prisoners, some of which are sent by the men to their families, provision is also made for the families of those who are imprisoned on the charge of abandonment. This is accomplished under a statute which provides that \$1.50 per week for the wife and an additional 50 cents for each child under fifteen years of age be paid them out of the funds of the institution."

PRISON CAMPS IN NEW ZEALAND

As described by J. A. Kayll at the Omaha Prison Congress, "the sites chosen for the camps are at a considerable distance from close population and in districts noted for their invigorating climate. The prisoners are out all day working at hard manual labor either on the hills or the plains. They develop keen appetites and sleep well. The result is a rapid improvement in physique, a much more contented mind, and the formed habit for sustained industry. The state also benefits considerably, for every year several hundred thousands of trees are planted on an otherwise barren soil. The work does not compete with free labor, inasmuch as the government could never get a sufficient number of men to take up the work under such conditions as are necessary to make it a possible undertaking."

CONVICT LABOR IN INDIANA

When the Indiana legislature abolished contract labor in the state reformatory there was rejoicing. But when time passed and work continued to be done under what was in reality but a thinly veiled contract with the Reliance Manufacturing Company, joy was not unmixed. Now the legislature has forbidden this work, and the reformatory labor is thus in fact what it before pretended to be.

When the members of the International Prison Congress went through this reformatory last fall and saw the four hundred men working at fever speed on this very contract, one of the European experts remarked: "We can show nothing like such product in Europe, but it is not reformatory."

LONDON MURDERS

"In the last year in London, with a population of 7,000,000, there were but nineteen

murders. Of the nineteen murderers five committed suicide. All of the others except four cases were arrested and either convicted and executed or committed to the insane asylum."

PROBATION AND PAROLE

The papers are making favorable comments on the plea of Attorney-General Wickersham for paroling life prisoners.¹ There are certain public speakers who decry parole and refuse to see the good in it.

The new Texas parole law has gone into effect. It provides that paroled prisoners must have employment and for the settlement of differences between them and their employers.

A. W. Towne, secretary of the state probation commission, takes this tone toward probation:

"During the past ten years the probation system has been steadily growing in New York state until to-day it is used, through paid or volunteer officers, in more than half of the counties and more than three-quarters of the cities. Over 11,000 children and adults were under the care of probation officers last year, and over 1,000 of these had been convicted of felonies. The extension and strengthening of the probation system tends to decrease the number of persons committed to institutions."

LIFE PRISONERS IN ALABAMA

Thirty-one life prisoners in Alabama recently held what they called a "Life-time Man Convention," in which they adopted a petition for clemency which was printed in the *Montgomery Advertiser*, signed by seven names. Though they say they are "sadly sorry" for their crimes, yet they give no proof that they deserve clemency, nor can they under a system that has no grades and marks.

"RULE OF HONOR" PRINCIPLE

Says the Grand Rapids, Mich., *Press*, speaking of the state prison at Jackson:

"Seven shops now are operated on the 'rule of honor' principle, and the result is that guards are not needed for these particular divisions of the penitentiary. Owing largely to the new spirit of the men the warden has been enabled to make improvements for little or nothing which formerly would have been left until a state appropriation was made. For instance, when there was no money on hand to get new boilers for the laundry, a convict who knew how volunteered to draw patterns for the castings needed. They were cast in the institution and several hundred dollars' worth of repairing thus was done at a cost of about \$25. At the suggestion of another prisoner the timber in some old dry-goods boxes was used when a new partition in the tailor shop for which there seemed to be no available timber was necessary."

¹See THE SURVEY for October 21, 1911.

ROAD-MAKING IN NEW YORK

The *Syracuse Standard*, after describing the mile of highway built by men from the penitentiary, says:

"The men themselves appear to be benefited by the work. They prefer the life to confinement at the penitentiary and for the most part are willing workers. So far there has been no trouble from attempts to escape, and but few of the men have so far violated the regulations as to require severe discipline."

CRIME AND THE PAPERS

The *Salt Lake City Telegraph* thinks that "the press of the United States is responsible for a good deal of increase in crime. The most respectable newspapers love to depict and magnify every form of criminality. If a woman is involved, and one generally is, her picture is displayed, the prisoner's picture, the jury's picture, the judge—the whole business; and what ought to be condensed into a couple of sticks is spread over columns every day, whereas if a very superb speech is made in congress or anywhere else, unless the speaker has obtained national fame, the speech is either dismissed with three lines or some reporter that never has written and never can write a speech gives what he calls the substance of it. The whole bearing of the business is that one horse-thief, or murderer, if he commits a real crime and is charged with it, is of more consequence to the public than all the statesmen in the land."

COST OF CRIMINALS

The Dallas, Tex., *News* has been printing a series of articles on prisons from which we quote this nutshell reason for expending large sums of money in training and caring for criminals:

"Men say, 'Why provide capital for caring for criminals?' The answer is, 'Because they are criminals.'

"We send men to prison for two reasons. The first is because they are dangerous. We want them where they cannot harm us. If that were our only purpose, possibly it would serve as well to keep them in the county jail or to lease them as it would to keep them in a penitentiary and work them upon state account.

"But our second object in sending men to state prison is that they may be reformed, rendered fit and safe again to become a part of society. It is because we believe that men may be cured of their evil ways that we limit the terms of imprisonment for most men convicted of crime, and provide for pardons and paroles. Just so long as we keep our laws fitted to that theory, it is necessary that the prison system shall be conducted so as to reform criminals. Otherwise, all convicted criminals ought to be sentenced to death or to imprisonment for life, for it is unsafe to liberate them if they have not been cured of crime."

SOCIAL AGENCIES

MADISON CONFERENCE ON SOCIAL CENTERS

GEORGE B. FORD

From October 25 to October 28 there was held in Madison, Wis., the first social center conference in America. It was organized by a society called the Social Center Association of America, with headquarters in New York city, and by the Extension Division of the University of Wisconsin. In response to their invitations there appeared at Madison nearly 200 delegates representing all interests, races, creeds, and localities. The eleven sessions of the conference were addressed by a remarkable set of speakers, including the governors of three states, the mayors of six cities, some of the most prominent educators in the country, sociologists, economists, newspaper editors, and people prominent in civic and social work. The whole conference was wonderfully inspiring. Everyone went away feeling that he had been present at the inception of one of the most remarkable and telling movements that America has yet embarked upon. A spirit akin to the fervor of a great religious revival actuated the whole conference. It seemed to those present that America was at last about to develop a true democracy; that at last the people of the United States were about to direct their own affairs, and further, that this Social Center movement was going to be the medium through which all the people in a given community could learn to know each other and so to help each other, and that this was to be accomplished by neighborhood gatherings in some public place like the school-house.

The conference was not only an inspiration; it was an education to all. That is to say, a great many people who had been interested in the starting of social centers in their own communities had been at a loss as to the best way to get results. Each person had been working out the whole problem for himself. This conference brought together the experiences, successful and otherwise, of people who had tried to solve the social center problem either in the large city or in the rural district,



and by the interchange of ideas and through general discussion a great fund of useful knowledge was accumulated.

No two people agreed as to just what a social center really is. Some were particularly interested in the civic side, that is, in what was termed the gathering in public places for open discussion of public questions. Some were interested particularly in the social side, in the

idea of bringing the families of a given community into closer friendliness with one another so as to create that spirit of co-operation which can be gained only by a mutual understanding. Some were interested particularly in the educational side, seeing in the social center a medium for the education of parents, who are usually so neglected in our modern educational system. There were some who saw the problem as a whole and who realized that a social center would be most effective if it combined all these different phases so that each would help toward the success of the others.

The conference was particularly fortunate on the opening night in having with it Governor Woodrow Wilson, because he, more than anyone else present, clarified the conception of the real meaning of a social center. Protesting that he was new to the subject, he yet reasoned on the platform in such harmony with his audience, and so logically worked out his subject, that he left the auditors with a very definite impression as to the different possibilities lying within the development of the social center idea.

In order to understand the real significance and value of the conference it might be desirable to go quickly over the history of the movement. Frances G. Vandergrift, of Pittsburgh, a woman who had long been interested in social welfare work, decided that she would like to do something worth while and distinctive along these lines, and she asked Mrs. David Kirk, of Pittsburgh, to help her. Mrs. Kirk came to New York and there became

interested in the possibilities of putting the moving-picture business on a better footing morally and educationally. A small committee of interested people was formed, and as they considered the subject they saw that it would be necessary to deal with other forms of commercialized recreation in working out their program. This soon broadened to include the neighborhood club, then the civic forum, and then the idea of the wider use of the school plant. In order to carry out their work they found it necessary to form two organizations—one, the People's Recreation Company, which would carry on experimental work with actual problems of organizing and directing commercial amusements of the better sort, and the other the Social Center Association of America, which would propagandize the social center idea and send out missionaries wherever it seemed desirable to start social centers. As their work developed they discovered that the subject of social centers was a very live one throughout the United States. With the splendid example of Rochester, N. Y., where the public use of the schools has become a prominent feature of the life of the people, and with the examples of social centers as worked out in many places in the West, particularly in Texas and Oklahoma, it seemed that the propagandizing function of the society demanded a much more representative body to carry it out. Further, they found that sending out missionaries to start social centers was quite impracticable, for such groups turned out to be successful only when they were a matter of spontaneous growth. The Social Center Association of America realized that it could be of the greatest service to the cause by calling a national convention which should represent all those interested in the subject. This resulted, through the co-operation and the indomitable zeal of Mr. E. J. Ward and of the University of Wisconsin, in the great convention at Madison.

This gathering formed itself into a permanent national organization with a definite purpose and with a constitution and by-laws and an effective group of officers. The purpose of the Social Center Association of America was defined as follows:

To promote the development of an intelligent public spirit through the use of public school houses and other public places for the free discussion of all public questions and for all wholesome civic, educational, and recreational activities.

The first plank of the platform reads:

The social center represents all the people in all those interests which are common to all. It is the people's forum and permanent headquarters for citizenship and neighborly spirit. In it the people come to know one another and how to make their government work. The public school plant now functions only in part. Its present service is parental. The social center makes it also function fraternally. Details of this wider use of the school plant vary with local needs, but its spirit is the Lincoln spirit.

The officers elected are:

President, Dr. Josiah Strong, New York city.

Vice-president, Frank P. Walsh, Kansas City.

Second vice-president, and chairman of the Program Committee, Dr. George M. Forbes, Rochester, N. Y.

Third vice-president and chairman of the Legislative Committee, Louis Brandeis, Boston.

Fourth vice-president and chairman of the Local Arrangement Committee, Charles Frank, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kan.

Secretary, Edward J. Ward, Madison, Wis.
Treasurer, George W. Harris, Cincinnati.

It was arranged to hold the next conference one year hence at the University of Kansas, and in the meantime, as far as possible, the secretary, E. J. Ward of the University of Wisconsin, is to keep the delegates in touch with one another and informed as to the progress of the movement. It was hoped that a magazine would soon be started to serve as a medium of inter-communication among those interested, a sort of clearing-house of social center ideas and especially as the great propagandist organ for the movement.

At the various sessions the subject was discussed from different points of view. At one session, given up to the farm problem, Dean Russell of the Wisconsin Agricultural College insisted that the best energies of the city come from the country and that the country, feeding its most vigorous youth to the city, will soon offer only the less energetic type for the city to draw upon. "It is all nonsense," said another speaker, "to cry 'Back to the farm!' As the farm now is, it means atrophy of the best human faculties."

The new awakening in the country was said to come from the consolidated schools and was proved to exist by such notable movements as those in Kansas, Texas, Wisconsin, and other states for rural neighborhood clubs and neighborhood improvement centers in the schools. Another session was given up to the educational side, and prominent educators showed the relation

between the school and the social center. Another session was devoted to the discussion of the possibilities of a career as a social center worker. About 150 students of the University of Wisconsin were present at this session by special invitation. Here George R. Forbes, of Rochester, N. Y., who, as chairman of the Board of Education, had a leading role in the Rochester social center movement, showed most clearly the possibilities and the attractiveness of social center work. Another session was given up to the commercialized amusements, the motion-picture show, the dance hall, etc., showing the possibilities of the use of the model motion-picture show or the model dance hall in the social center as a means of abating the current exploitation of these amusements.

Much was made of the opposition which a live social center is likely to meet from the political machine. The case of Rochester, N. Y., was discussed in full, for here the machine soon realized that an open discussion of public questions was not to their advantage—with the result that the appropriation for the wider use of the schools was cut off, the superintendent was deposed, and the social centers were temporarily without a chance to meet. But the civic groups in Rochester were so thoroughly organized before this happened that there is not the slightest doubt that they will survive, stronger than ever despite these obstacles, and that it is only a matter of time before they will come back greater than before.

Throughout the conference a spade was called a spade, and the power of the social center as a medium for righting the political wrongs of the country was brought most markedly to the fore. It was realized that the social

center movement can be successful only so long as it is absolutely non-partisan. Most of the western men present laid practically the whole emphasis of the social center movement on the idea of the open forum for the free discussion of public questions; but all realized that the social center gained in the end by being much more comprehensive in its scope; by developing along recreational, educational, and social lines as well as along the line of the civic forum. In other words, the social center should bring all classes, all ages, all races, all sects, all interests together in one family group where they can know one another and sympathize with one another's point of view, where they can "swap" experiences, and broaden that life which the home too often checks and confines.

The movement is most auspiciously launched. The character and quality of those present at the convention, the value of the convention in an inspirational and educational way, the fact that there were present editors of a number of the leading progressive papers of the country, and that nearly all finished by agreeing on one line of attack—all of this means that the movement is destined to have a great success, a success which in its ultimate working out means the triumph of American life and American democracy.

The convention was concluded by four hundred people rising and with great fervor singing the following stanzas:

Come close and let us wake the joy

Our fathers used to know,

When to the little old schoolhouse

Together they would go.

Then neighbor's heart to neighbor warmed

In thought for common good;

We'll strike that fine old chord again—

A song of neighborhood.

"BUTTRESSING THE FOUNDATIONS OF DEMOCRACY"

ADDRESS AT THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON CIVIC AND SOCIAL CENTER DEVELOPMENT,
MADISON, WIS.¹

GEORGE M. FORBES

President Board of Education, Rochester, N. Y.

The movement for the wider use of school "buttress the foundations of democracy." It buildings in Rochester was from the very was, therefore, in the very broadest sense beginning consciously and deliberately educational, and yet without any suggestion planned, as Governor Hughes expressed it, of the organization or atmosphere of a

¹"After Mr. Forbes had spoken," writes a correspondent, "he was cross-questioned by Governor Woodrow Wilson and it was brought out that the direct cause of the strangulation of the social center movement in Rochester was the enmity of the political machines of both parties, especially the enmity of the dominant Republican faction. It was further brought out that as a

result of this same situation Mr. Forbes had himself been defeated for re-election to the presidency of the board, so that if the present drift goes unchecked the reactionary elements in Rochester may make a clean sweep, not only of the social centers, but of the progressive educators of that city."

school. It was educational in the sense that where there is human aspiration and joint effort for better things there is education. The very foundation of the movement was built upon the underlying assumption of democracy that the spirit of good-will is in the average man, and that this spirit may become dominant; that this spirit is ethical and has two aspects. One is the consciousness of the essential equality of men as persons. Upon this is founded the sense of justice. The other is the consciousness of the essential solidarity of men, so that they must realize the true good together. Upon this is founded the spirit of brotherhood. Now democracy assumes that the average man will take this ethical attitude when rightly appealed to and when he is free to act; i. e., it assumes that you can trust the final issues of human well-being to the sense of justice and the sense of brotherhood of the average man. This means that the average man is ethical in the very roots of his being, and capable of such ethical development as makes him worthy to be a member of the final court of appeal for justice and brotherhood. What is over-looked in this assumption is the established fact that absolutely no inborn endowment of a human being develops except in response to its appropriate stimulus, and that the selfish instinct, equally innate, may be so stimulated as to repress the ethical nature and leave it to atrophy and perish altogether. It is, therefore, an absolutely essential condition of democracy that the ethical spirit shall be aroused in the average citizen by appropriate stimulation. This can not be left to hap-hazard influences. The existing dominant influences are those which appeal to selfish instincts. Modern individualism with its "each for himself" has abnormally stimulated the spirit of unscrupulous competition on the one hand and monopolistic greed on the other. It has repressed and atrophied the sense of brotherhood and developed to an inordinate extent the selfish impulses. Under these circumstances the faith in democracy is futile unless there is a systematic appeal to the ethical spirit, the deliberate provision of a soil in which it can grow.

We are accustomed to say that social evolution has reached the conscious stage, that we are advancing with increasing momentum because we are intelligently shaping social progress and not leaving it to the slow

processes of nature; but what institutions are we shaping? Are they those which will guarantee the systematic development of the communal spirit? Rather we are now intensely occupied in forging the tools of democracy, the direct primary, the initiative, the referendum, the recall, the short ballot, commission government. But in our enthusiasm we do not seem to be aware that these tools will be worthless unless they are used by those who are aflame with the sense of brotherhood. If the action of a democracy is to be but the resultant of a clash of selfish interests, it is hardly worth battling for. It can give at best but a negative good. The truth is that we have developed every kind of institution and every form of education except the one fundamental kind of institution and form of education upon which the very existence of democracy depends. Every institution within the state, except the public school, is more or less exclusive. The family, the church, the political party, the social classes, the endless social groups and organizations, commercial, industrial, fraternal, purely social—all are exclusive and have exclusive interests. They can never develop the ethical spirit as a community spirit, a spirit that transcends all such bounds and feels that its supreme membership is in the whole community and that the greatest good is that which may be shared by every human being in the community.

The public elementary school, our only non-exclusive institution, can not adequately meet the ethical demands of democracy. Its limitations are too great. One serious limitation is the fact that it is confined to very immature minds, with very narrow and very simple experience. Another is that all school work is by necessity artificial, isolated from life, even from the life of the family, and so abstract. The school, as such, is not an ethical community. It is not a democracy. It is an absolute monarchy. It is an institution framed to furnish every child with some mastery of the fundamental tools of civilized life: reading, writing, and the elements of number and measure. Hence, no matter how excellent the ethical teaching of the elementary school, it is utterly inadequate to develop the ethical attitude of the mature citizen to the problem of the whole community. It is utterly unable to fortify the child against the selfish appeals of real

life. Democracy must have its distinctive institutions for the stimulation and development of the community spirit. These institutions must be free from the limitations of the public schools; i. e., they must appeal to relatively mature minds dealing with the actual experiences of community life. Furthermore, they must be in themselves a realization of democracy, not merely non-exclusive, but positively all-inclusive, the one institution within the state that takes in everybody solely by virtue of his living in the community; and, lastly, the relation of these institutions to the community life as a whole must not be artificial nor abstract, but vital, exercising real initiative, dealing with real problems with a view to real betterment of community life.

If Rochester has any lesson to teach regarding the community use of school buildings, it is because the movement in Rochester was from the very beginning consciously and deliberately founded upon these principles, and its supreme aim was to arouse and develop the ethical spirit of the whole community. The movement was, therefore, in the broadest and most fundamental sense educational, but it was in no sense the establishing of a school or the extension of existing schools. The most vital education, and preeminently the ethical education, essential for citizenship can never be achieved in the artificial atmosphere of a school. Hence the very deepest purpose of the movement was to make each neighborhood conscious of its civic functions and power; it was to make real democracy conscious and bring it into action. The idea was to establish in each community an institution having a direct and vital relation to the welfare of the neighborhood, ward, or district, and also to the city as a whole. What was called the civic club, composed of adult citizens of all classes, parties, and shades of opinion, was the very foundation stone of the whole movement. And the first great lesson of the movement is that such organizations became actualities, held their meetings in school buildings, have had continuous existence for four years; that they did actually develop the community spirit in a most remarkable degree; and that they proved to be capable of discussing in the spirit of fairness and good-will questions involving the most extreme and radical differences of opinion. They proved not only will-

ing but eager and insistent to hear both sides of the questions considered and they did not "lose their heads", nor were they "carried away" by radical utterances and appeals so as to take any hasty or ill-considered action. Not a single instance of such action can be cited in the history of some twenty civic clubs in as many different neighborhood school buildings. On the contrary, on their initiative notable contributions to the welfare of the neighborhoods and to the whole city have been made. It was this spirit which profoundly impressed Governor Hughes and led him to say on the occasion of the second anniversary of the first civic club: "I am more interested in what you are doing here than in anything else in the world. You are buttressing the foundations of democracy."

There are a multitude of lesser witnesses who will testify that the atmosphere of these clubs and their associated activities gave them a wholly new revelation of community spirit, that here they felt for the first time the wonderful thrill of human brotherhood actually realized. The intensity of this feeling was illustrated by a prominent visitor from Buffalo, who remarked as he came out of a meeting: "I feel as if I had been in a religious revival."

As the movement developed certain very significant phases appeared. One of the most interesting was the influence of free and fair discussion upon radical opinion. One of the most radical socialists in the city publicly stated that his views had been seriously modified by the discussions in the civic clubs. Many others gave similar testimony. This result is the more surprising because it was feared by many that these free centers of public discussion would be seized upon and controlled by radicals and extremists, and because radical opinion was freely expressed. Opponents of the movement charged that they were so controlled, but no action of any civic club ever gave the slightest foundation for such a charge. On the contrary, the net result of the movement was to modify extreme opinion and bring it into line with rational progress. The movement vindicated the opinion that the average man is a conservative or moderate progressive, and will take only one step at a time in the path of progress. Another most interesting side-light was the fact that the most congested quarter of the city, with a large for-

eign element in the population, and—judged by conventional standards—lacking in education, culture, and material well-being, proved to be most thoroughly responsive to the civic spirit; and it was a common remark of the ablest speakers at civic clubs that they did not find in the twelfth ward, with its wealth and culture and large number of so-called "best citizens," anything like the civic spirit and breadth of view that was found in district No. 9, which is the most congested quarter of the city. Several of these clubs had such border line locations that they gave a practical demonstration of the fact that all classes of the citizenship could work together without a trace of class distinction. There was nothing in the experience of these clubs which so impressively brought home the lesson of real democracy as the appearance of public officials in response to the invitation to explain their policies, their acts, and the methods of operation of their departments. There was such full opportunity for questions and answers as resulted in illuminating for the average man the whole field of their work and made him a much more intelligent and sympathetic critic of public officials. It vitalized for both official and citizen the theory that the officials are really servants and not masters and exploiters of the people.

Equally effective in a different way was the method by which some clubs made use of a political campaign. They invited able representatives of the various parties to present to a non-partisan body in a calm and dispassionate way, on different occasions, their reasons for their political faith. Nothing could more effectively emancipate the average man from a blind and narrow partisanship born of tradition and prejudice.

I dwell thus upon the life and functions of the civic club because it is the corner-stone of all that is distinctive in the Rochester movement. It means that our public school buildings, consecrated to education, may become the instruments of that deepest and most fundamental education upon which the very existence of democracy depends. This use gives depth, seriousness, purpose, and unity to every subordinate use. All other clubs—the women's clubs, the young men's clubs, the girls' and the boys' clubs—are inspired and shaped by the spirit and ideals of the civic club, and for this reason they too become schools of the community spirit.

They are recreational and educational in many other respects as well, but the civic spirit gives unity and purpose to the whole. This gives all its real initiative and power to the movement, because it takes it up into the very life and purpose of democracy. I do not wish to be misunderstood. Without the civic club, the social center is well worth while. Its possibility of certain kinds of good to the community is inestimable. Apart from the civic club, every school building should be a neighborhood club house. No one could possibly estimate too highly the need in every neighborhood for a public place of wholesome recreation, social intercourse, physical development, and the opportunity to combat, by means of lectures by competent persons, the awful ignorance of proper conditions of wholesome living and social well-being. These ends are amply sufficient to justify this convention, and support an increasing and widening agitation till every school building in this country is suitably equipped and open for this purpose, without any other payment by those who wish to use it than the public taxes to which all self-supporting persons necessarily contribute directly or indirectly through the cost of living. I have seen a neighborhood of working people, characterized by vicious moral standards, chiefly because its young working men and women were driven to the streets and dance halls for recreation, undergoing complete transformation because the young men and women were permitted to use the school building under inspiring supervision, which thus provided the wholesome recreation and the powerful moral impulse they sorely needed. I only insist that while the social center may be an inestimable good, it makes no necessary contribution to the problem of democracy unless it is also a civic center, developing the consciousness of communal responsibility and power. The social center may be an inestimable good granted *to* the people or provided *for* them, but it may not mean anything done *by* the people. New York city does a great deal for the people in its recreation centers, but there is nothing done by the people. If New York city had real civic clubs in every school building, a new charter would not be prepared by a handful of men and then presented to the legislature without even saying "by your leave" to the people who are to live under it. What I wish to insist upon is

that the civic club as embodying the spirit of real democracy is in my judgment Rochester's great contribution to the problem of the use of school buildings by the people. If Rochester's social centers have had a unique enthusiasm and vitality, if they have attained a unique hold upon the community, as I believe they have, it is because they have been also genuine civic centers inspired fundamentally by the civic spirit. No social center can meet the present crisis in the history of democracy without an organization open to all the voters of the neighborhood, and feeling the ultimate responsibility of citizenship for the securing of the common welfare—an organization in which every narrower interest of sect or party or class is swallowed up in the consciousness that the interests of the whole community are supreme, and that the effort to realize them in the spirit of brotherhood is the supreme function and the supreme satisfaction of citizenship.

These experiences gave the movement an increasing hold upon the steadily growing number of people who came within its influence. The best possible test of this "hold" was its power to meet and resist opposition. This opposition was intelligently focussed upon the very nerve of the movement, the free discussion of the civic club. It developed early and took various forms. One form was the quiet effort of political forces to take possession of civic clubs in their very beginning by dominating the initial meeting. This was successful in but one or two instances. Another was the sensational exploitation in the newspapers of the one or two cases of hasty or ill-considered remarks of speakers, and the exaggeration and distortion of any unusual incident, however innocent or trivial, in a way to excite prejudice and give an unfavorable impression. Another was the charge that the social centers were centers of socialistic propaganda, because socialists were permitted to present their side of questions under consideration, and because speakers of known socialistic views dealt in a thorough-going way with various phases of social wrong or injustice and progressive measures for remedying them. All these were unavailing except as they aroused the prejudices of many who did not know the facts.

The last resort was to strike at the appro-

priation and attempt to influence the authorities to cut it out of the annual budget before the movement should gather irresistible headway. A crisis came regarding the third annual appropriation, and a determined effort was made to defeat it; but the movement was already so deeply rooted and the authorities were so flooded with petitions, committees, resolutions, and protests from those who had felt its power and saw its significance that they were obliged to yield and make provision for another year. Finally the flood of popular influence for the appropriation was avoided by merging the appropriation with those for other purposes, so that it was not known till too late that the appropriation for social centers had been cut down to about one-third of that of the previous year. Success in restoring the appropriation to its former amount must depend wholly upon the initiative and leadership of the federated civic clubs and the public sentiment they are able to bring to bear upon the present administration. Meantime the energy and persistence of the civic spirit which centers in this movement is the greatest hope for the future in our community. It is the one rallying-point for the democratic spirit which is bound sooner or later to triumph in its determination to restore power to the people. I do not know whether the particular form of organization which I have described as a civic club will prove to be permanent in our own or any other community; but I am profoundly convinced that unless this or something like this can be given the permanence of a settled institution, democracy as a permanent and effective form of government will be but the end of the rainbow of humanity's great hope and age-long effort, ever receding as we advance.

In any case the movement in Rochester has increased our faith in the common man; it has demonstrated that, if he seems selfish, it is because he lives under conditions which bring no incentive but the one to look out for himself. It has shown most strikingly that the ethical spirit within him springs to life and power in response to the quickening influence of the community challenge; and, finally, that he finds his greatest satisfaction in the expression of that spirit in action, and is along with his fellows our only hope of a trustworthy, final court of appeal for the realization of justice and progress in human society.

PERSONALS

The difficult task of reorganizing and readjusting the work of the Providence, R. I., Society for Organizing Charities is being shouldered by James B. Williams, recently general secretary of the Detroit Charity Organization Society.



JAMES B. WILLIAMS.

In Orange, N. J., Mr. Williams was for three years general secretary of the Bureau of Charities. There he was instrumental in developing a number of welfare agencies such as the Public Bath Association, the local and State Anti-Tuberculosis Association, the Fresh-Air Home for Mothers and Children, and similar enterprises. Under his leadership the Bureau of Charities became active in the promotion of social legislation which led to the establishment of the State Reformatory for Women, the appointment of a Commission for Codification of the Poor Laws, and the establishment of an up-to-date system for the treatment of advanced cases of tuberculosis.

Since 1908 Mr. Williams has been general secretary of the Detroit Charity Organization Society. His administration may be measured concretely by the budgetary growth of the organization from \$3,000 at the time of his appointment to \$20,000 at his leaving. His executive ability and his grasp of the broader community problems of this virile middle western city were effective in securing the appointment in Detroit of a Housing Commission, the establishment of a Children's Bureau, the organization of a Playground Association, and of the Confidential Registry Bureau. In connection with his own work he organized the Central Council of Charities and secured the gift of a Fresh-Air Home, now considered one of the best in the country, and also of a Charities Build-

ing which became the property and home of the Charity Organization Society.

Mr. Williams is a graduate of the University of Indiana, where he specialized in social science. Since his graduation in 1904 he has been continuously in social work. First as investigator for and later as assistant secretary of the Cincinnati Associated Charities, he went outside his regular work to aid in the establishment of the Lodging House for Homeless Men as a municipal agency.

ing which became the property and home of the Charity Organization Society.

In choosing a leader, the Providence society faced a situation rendered more difficult because of the able administration of its former secretary and of the long time during which it was without a head. Mr. Williams comes to his new task with unusually rich experience in social organization and a proved capacity for constructive work.

C. A.

Leroy Hodges, formerly commercial geographer for the Tariff Board, and before that special agent and geographer of the United States Immigration Commission, is filling the novel post of Commissioner of Immigration of the Southern Commercial Congress. Since his appointment in the spring Mr. Hodges has been co-operating with Senator Fletcher and Managing Director Dawe in organizing the work assigned to him. In a letter to the executive committee expressing sympathy with the view of the Southern Commercial Congress that the lands of the South had better remain empty than bring on a second race problem, Mr. Hodges says:

"There is a pressing demand now in the South for skilled industrial laborers as well for unskilled workmen who can be relied on, and who will not further complicate our Negro problem. I would advocate, however, that the energy of the Southern Commercial Congress be directed toward turning agriculturists toward the South. The large tracts of land which are now lying idle throughout the South should be placed in condition to produce not only subsistence for the army of workers who will be attracted to the region in quest of employment as our industrial development continues, but also to furnish the raw cotton, tobacco, sugar cane, and other commodities which our own mills and factories will require outside of the export demands. While this may be made the main work of the congress for the present, I do not mean to say that the demand for industrial laborers and skilled artisans should be overlooked, for I believe that as far as it is practical an effort should be exerted to supply this need. But as these latter classes are seldom permanent settlers in any one locality, the Southern Commercial Congress can best serve the South by guiding within her boundaries those who will become real factors in the communities in which they take up their residence."

Though a native of North Carolina, Mr. Hodges received his early education in Virginia. After studying law and economics in Washington and Lee University and at the University of Chicago, he spent two years in railroad and engineering work. In 1908 began his connection with the United States Immigration Commission.

The Ohio State Commission for the Blind, which, though first created in 1908, has just started to develop the employment phases of its work, has secured Charles F. F. Campbell

as executive agent. Mr. Campbell, who leaves the secretaryship of the Pittsburgh Association for the Blind, scarcely needs introduction to SURVEY readers. Son of Sir Francis Campbell, the blind founder of the Royal Normal College for the Blind in London, he has since graduating from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology been continuously engaged in furthering progressive movements in the field of his present service. The emphasis of his efforts has been laid largely upon the development of vocational work. From its inception he acted as executive agent of the Massachusetts Association for Promoting the Interests of the Blind, and under the auspices of that society directed an experiment station for trade training. When the permanent State Commission for the Blind was created in Massachusetts, largely as a result of the association's efforts, Mr. Campbell was made superintendent of the industrial department. Giving much time to investigating processes of work in numerous industries, he has been pioneer in seeking new spheres of livelihood for the blind side by side with the seeing. His experiments led to the development of the modern arts and crafts hand-woven rug as an industry for the blind. In 1909 Mr. Campbell became director of the work for adults which the Pittsburgh Association for the Blind conducts in Western Pennsylvania. During his administration the Pittsburgh Workshop for the Blind was established.

The fact that pensions are given in Ohio to the needy blind who have lost their sight in that state makes it possible for the Ohio commission to devote much attention to those who desire employment. The commission has no intention to establish any large workshop in the state, and while it will maintain headquarters at Columbus it expects to foster the employment of the blind either as individuals or in small groups, so that the employes will live, as far as possible, in their own homes.

Mr. Campbell is editor of the *Outlook for the Blind*, and secretary of the American Association of Workers for the Blind.

J. Byram Deacon has been appointed financial secretary of the Charity Organization Society of New York city. Mr. Deacon was at the Woodbrooke Settlement for Social and Religious Study in Birmingham, England, during 1907. The next year he attended the New York School of Philanthropy. From June 1908 to September 1909 he served as superintendent of the Charity Organization Society of Paterson, N. J. From Paterson Mr. Deacon went to Philadelphia to become executive secretary of the Pennsylvania Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis. For the last two years also Mr. Deacon has been secretary of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction.

Max Mitchell has resigned as manager for the Federated Jewish Charities of Boston to become head of the Cosmopolitan

Trust Company, a newly organized bank for the savings of Boston immigrants. Mr. Mitchell has been closely associated with Jewish social work since 1891, when he came to America from Roumania and started as an office boy with the Federated Jewish Charities. He has been connected with the federation ever since—for the past ten years as its manager.

Aside from his association with the Jewish Charities of Boston, Mr. Mitchell has been prominently identified with the general social work of the city. A leader in the creation of the State Employment Bureau, he was also chiefly responsible for the erection of the new Immigrant Station. When the agitation over the higher cost of living arose, Mr. Mitchell was elected chairman of a committee, with power to appoint the committee of nine which conducted the preliminary investigation. He was one of ten members who organized the Boston City Club.

Mr. Mitchell has been active in immigrant removal work in Massachusetts, Maine, and New Hampshire, and largely through his efforts 300 immigrant families have been placed on Massachusetts farms. He founded the National Association of Jewish Social Workers, served as its first president, and is now its treasurer. He is vice-chairman of the National Immigration Council, a member of the Executive Committee of the United Improvement Association, and an assistant secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

The recent appointment of James Minnick as secretary of the Illinois State Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis and as superintendent of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute is a gain for the city of Chicago in the same degree in which it is a loss to Providence, where for seven years he was general manager of the Society of Organizing Charities and was also later made secretary of the Providence League for Suppression of Tuberculosis. For the organizing of the latter association he was largely responsible. Mr. Minnick's record is one of continued hard work and success against odds such as pioneer efforts usually encounter. In Chicago, where he first began as a district charity worker in the stock-yard district, his enthusiasm and executive ability made him one of the best known agents of the Associated



MAX MITCHELL.

Charities. His return to that city has proved a source of gratification to many of his friends and co-workers. In Providence, where he took charge of the Society for Organizing Charities in 1905, he found an organization with an annual budget of \$1900, and through his efforts that budget reached its maximum in 1910 by an expenditure of over \$22,000. Aside from his work as manager of the Society of Organizing Charities, Mr. Minnick exercised his influence upon the community by taking the initiative in a large number of important movements, in the administration of which he was always ready to accept the burdens which his fellow-workers so willingly placed upon him. The Rhode Island Anti-Tuberculosis, the District Nurses', and the Play-ground Associations, and other similar welfare movements found in him a wise counsellor and a progressive leader during the period of their organization, and it was not until his health failed him because of overwork that it was realized what responsibilities had been placed upon him. In the field of legislation considerable improvement relating to conditions of labor and sanitation were attained through his ready co-operation and knowledge of existing conditions. James B. Williams, who is to follow Mr. Minnick, will find a wide field of activity opened by his predecessor, in which his leadership and counsel is impatiently awaited.

Dr. Charles P. Emerson, who for several years has served as superintendent of the



CHARLES P. EMERSON.

Clifton Springs, N. Y., Sanitarium, has been appointed professor of medicine and dean of the School of Medicine of Indiana University. Dr. Emerson, before he went to Clifton Springs, was for nine years on the medical of the Johns Hopkins Hospital in Baltimore, and toward the end of his term there was resident physician, having served previously as an associate in medicine. Dr. Emerson for some time has been one of the contributing editors of THE SURVEY.

The Circuit Court Judges of Cook County, Illinois, (Chicago), have elected Judge Merritt W. Pinckney to his third term as judge of the Juvenile Court. The importance of the work of the Juvenile Court is recognized by electing him at the same time

chief justice of the Circuit Court Judges. The re-election of Judge Pinckney to the Juvenile Court at this time is especially gratifying for the reason that upon him will devolve the responsibility of putting into operation in Cook county a most important amendment to the juvenile court law—an amendment for the securing of which Judge Pinckney and Chief Probation Officer John H. Witter were to a considerable degree responsible.

The amendment to the juvenile court law is as follows:

"If the parent or parents of such dependent or neglected child are poor and unable properly to care for such child, but are otherwise proper guardians, and it is for the welfare of such child to remain at home, the court may enter an order finding such facts and fixing the amount of money necessary to enable the parent or parents properly to care for such child, and thereupon it shall be the duty of the county board, through its county agent or otherwise, to pay such parent or parents at such times as said orders may designate the amount so specified for the care of such dependent or neglected child until the further order of the court."

Unless due care is exercised in the investigation of the cases that really deserve to come under the operation of the law, there will be many frauds and naturally the law will become a boomerang. This result would be unfortunate, because the law is in the direction of keeping worthy parents and their children together instead of separating them, a thing which all social workers believe to be right.

H. W. T.

Hospital service in Illinois has recently undergone a number of important changes in personnel. Dr. J. L. Greene has resigned the position of alienist on the State Board of Administration to accept the superintendency of the State Hospital for Nervous Diseases at Little Rock, Ark. His place on the board of administration has been filled by Dr. Frank P. Norbury, formerly superintendent of the Kankakee State Hospital. On October 10 Dr. Sidney D. Wilgus, after eighteen months' service at the Elgin State Hospital, took Dr. Norbury's place at Kankakee. Since that date Dr. Ralph T. Hinton, formerly assistant superintendent in Jacksonville State Hospital, has been appointed superintendent at Elgin State Hospital.

BOOKS FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

LILLIAN BRANDT

Contributing Editor

JUSTICE. A Tragedy in Four Acts. By John Galsworthy. Charles Scribner's Sons. New York, 1910. Pp. 109. Price 60 cents. By mail of THE SURVEY, 65 cents.

Mr. Galsworthy's Justice gives one hopes

for the English drama. To the social worker it is inspiring that these hopes seem to lie in the re-socialization of the drama. The strength of this playwright's arraignment of the English criminal code lies in its restraint. Throughout there is deliberate underdrawing of situations, no ranting emotionalism, and little harrowing detail. Easy openings for tragic but not unlikely complications are passed over. By suggesting many such potentialities in the general situation, instead of making any particular ones explicit, the power of the play is made ten-fold. Being a true artist, the author has selected essential elements which form a type of experience—not a mere experiment in realism. Fine restraint is also noticeable in the choice of characters. Corruption of law, with which a crude writer might have filled the plot, is absent. Every character is an excellent representative of his profession as it is at present conceived. Serious personal shortcomings are eliminated except in the hero. The problem is thus stripped to its social essentials. The result is a less disagreeable and more truly tragic drama. The issue is clear-cut between the individual and the institutions and traditions of society. The protagonists themselves, moreover, are not sentimental martyrs; they are weak and distinctly human. To the reformer the play is a strong plea for individualization of penalties. Falder is a neurotic, sensitive man, who needed probation, or an indeterminate sentence in a strict reformatory, and complete removal from an environment which offered severe temptations and later stigmatized him. The lone woman complicates the problem with the terrible inflexibility of the divorce law.

T.D.E.

CRIME AND CRIMINALS. 1876-1910. By R. F. Quinton, M.D. Longmans, Green, and Company. New York, 1910. Pp. 259. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.60.

The recent writings of Russell, Martyn, and Galsworthy present the English treatment of crime from the points of view of a social worker, an ex-convict, and a reformer-dramatist, respectively. Dr. Quinton's is the judgment of a progressive and experienced prison official. He defends the system, not unqualifiedly nor exhaustively, by a statement of results in lowered prison population, by a comparison with early conditions, and by counter-attacks on the stern old-line theorists as well as on the sentimentalists. The present régime is a compromise not in theories but in practice. It is well suited to the handling of the professional criminals and recidivists who form the bulk of the prisoners. Exceptional cases must suffer. The evils come not from the administration of the existing system but from its incompleteness. Preventive detention and industrial-reformatory treatment for habituals, defectives, and reclaimables are soon to improve matters, if judges have learned their value.

Dr. Quinton discounts the stories of ex-convicts, who are apt to be more sensational than

is Mr. Martyn, in describing diet, discipline, and sanitation. The author misjudges Galsworthy's play, for he sees in it only criticism of prison methods. On the contrary Galsworthy contends, as does Dr. Quinton himself, that the system, taken at its best, does not provide properly for certain classes of offenders who need individual care.

The book is interesting and occasionally humorous, but it is without index or chapter titles. The outlines do not correspond to the page-titles, and there is no means of ready reference. The previous history of prison reform is thrust into the middle of the book, which opens with 1876.

While Dr. Quinton strongly favors the indeterminate sentence, and the treatment of the criminal rather than the punishment of his specific offense, he is not a Lombrosan nor a "theorist" of any kind. His is the conservatism of real experience.

THOMAS D. ELIOT.

THE GREAT ILLUSION. By Norman Angell. G. P. Putnam's Sons. New York, 1911. Pp. 388. Price \$1.00. By mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.

An idea of the interest excited by this study of the relation of military power to the economic and social advantage of nations may be gained from the fact that it was published simultaneously in ten European countries and in Japan. The book, which is written under a pseudonym by a journalist of cosmopolitan experience, has been called one of the greatest contributions to the peace propaganda. Its strength lies in the fact that it aims to take this movement out of the realm of the spiritually ideal into that of the practical—to found an anti-militarism based on material advantage. Mr. Angell first takes up the "economics of the case" and shows that the idea that war is necessary is based upon the "great illusion"—a survival of past conditions—that the prosperity of nations depends on their political power, that conquest of a nation means confiscation of its material resources, and that military protection of the national trade and commerce is therefore necessary. He shows by abundant illustration from recent history that wealth does not change hands with conquest but remains with the population producing it and that, furthermore, on account of the "delicate interdependence of international finance" an attempt actually to seize or destroy the wealth of another nation would mean financial ruin to the conqueror and would always mean some financial loss. As for the protection of commerce, it is the foreign merchant and not the foreign Dreadnought that is to be feared by a commercial nation. As a matter of fact it is the trade of the peaceful nations like Switzerland and Belgium, known to be stable because not engaged in warlike preparations, that is the greatest rival of the old established commercial nations, such as England.

Mr. Angell's analysis of the "human nature of the case" is no less interesting. He shows

that all the evidence of history is against the popular conception of the unchangeableness of human nature and that the warlike spirit hitherto dominant in civilized as well as uncivilized human nature can be changed by considerations such as those urged in the earlier part of the book. He shows further that in modern times the warlike nations do not inherit the earth, and that physical force is a constantly diminishing factor in human affairs and pugnacity between nations is being replaced by such co-operation as is exemplified by international industry and finance.

The last fifty pages of the *Great Illusion* are devoted to suggestions for an anti-militarist campaign based not on idealism but on considerations of the practical common-sense advantage to the civilized nations of the world. Mr. Angell does not touch the subject of the use of arms against nations with a lower civilization or for suppression of internal disturbances, such as labor wars, but confines himself to warfare between two nations of the same economic development.

The *Great Illusion* is an expansion of a pamphlet by the same author which was published about a year ago and which excited so profound an interest in diplomatic circles as to lead to a demand for this more detailed study of the subject.

M. B. S.

A HOLIDAY IN GAOL. By Frederick Martyn. The Macmillan Company, New York. Pp. 278. 1911. Price, \$1.25. By mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.33.

These experiences of a cultured man, in custody sixteen months for business carelessness, complete the picture of English justice given in Galsworthy's play and in Mr. Russell's book. The journalistic style and sparkling humor smack of America. The even-mindedness of the author's criticisms, with neither sentimentality nor bitterness, is commendable, and remarkable under the circumstances. The natural temptation to generalize is resisted. The simple yet thorough descriptions are therefore so vivid that, if any part be fiction, it must be ranked with De Foe's best. The author's frank willingness to lie and bribe if he had known it would help him is unpleasant, and the absence of any friends for bondsmen or witnesses is conspicuous. The life was probably not so pleasant as it seems to him in retrospect.

The most flagrant abuses mentioned are as follows: The spite of detectives, due perhaps to low pay and the tipping system; arrests on false charges to obtain evidence for other charges of which the prisoner is not informed; treatment of unconvicted men like convicts; efforts to secure conviction rather than the truth; inequity of sentences; pettiness yet laxity of prison discipline; worse treatment in poorhouses than in prisons; little segregation of tuberculous convicts; special cells hired by rich convicts, who are served by less lucky ones; an absurd appeal to the home secretary as the only resort for petty injustices; failure to reform or even punish hardened offenders in the prison. Due

credit is given to good officials, and for many excellent practises which mitigate the system, but which are at variance with its fundamental theories. The reader is left to draw his own conclusions: that there are, first, these mediæval theories of law and punishment; second, many laws and rules, both good and bad, but inconsistent with these theories; and, third, practises either corrupt or lax, but in violation of the theories or the regulations, or both, which by mere chance are or are not to the advantage of the prisoner and society.

THE SOCIAL COMPOSITION OF THE TEACHING POPULATION. By Lotus Delta Coffman, Ph. D. Teachers' College, Columbia University. New York. 1911. Pp. 87. Price \$1.00. By mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.10.

What kind of person is forming the minds of our boys and girls? This is the question which Dr. Coffman has sought to answer through the use of the statistical method. His information was furnished by 5,215 teachers selected by a sampling process from the rural, town, and city schools of seventeen states. Three-fourths of the returns are from women, which is about the proportion of that sex in the teaching profession.

The typical American male public-school teacher, according to the author's findings, is about twenty-nine years of age, having started to teach at twenty, after a preliminary training which extended three or four years beyond the elementary school. His present annual salary is \$489. Both of his parents spoke the English language and were living when he entered the profession. They received about \$700 income from their farm, upon which they supported themselves and four or five children.

Our typical pedagogue began to teach in a rural school at a salary of \$390. In order to get a town school he had to obtain an additional year of training. For a city position it was necessary to add two more years of preparation. During the first six years of his experience there was a regular increase in his salary, but after that period, age and experience were less influential than training in advancing his salary.

The typical American female teacher is twenty-four years of age and began her work when she was nineteen, after four years' training beyond that of the elementary schools. At present she receives \$485. Her parents are both native-born and, with their four or five children, were living upon about \$800 when she left home to teach. Under the necessity of earning her living, she went to work, and her choice of an occupation fell upon teaching because it was a highly respectable calling. She first spent two years in a rural school, and then obtained a position in a town, the promotion being due almost solely to her experience, as no additional training was required by the town officials. To secure a city job she was compelled to undergo more training, at least for another year, and she found that any additional years of schooling she could afford increased her salary correspondingly. Each of the five years she has taught has been

marked by a rise in salary, and this condition would probably last two years more should she have to teach that length of time.

"Into the hands of teachers," concludes Dr. Coffman, "who more or less nearly conform to the above description is given the duty of transmitting the culture of the race to the youth of the land, of training them in the habits of thinking, in modes of behavior, in methods of work, and in intelligent appreciation."

Humble circumstances are not undisputable evidences of the lack of culture and efficiency; and yet it is probable that the ordinary student of society would be deeply disturbed to learn that the difficult task of preparing the coming generation for the activities of life is in the hands of people who have demonstrated no greater proficiency in worldly affairs than the persons above depicted.

Fortunately the average city-dweller will not be able to recognize the instructor of his boys and girls in this portrait. The reason for this has been pointed out by the author himself in the inadequacy of the range of his investigation. Few of the returns were obtained from the larger cities; the Pacific coast is not represented at all, and only three counties in New England.

After making allowance for this shortcoming, it must be acknowledged that the book is an important study. Not only because it will bring to the attention of the inhabitants of the rural and smaller urban communities their short-sightedness in not making the calling of the teacher attractive to a more ambitious class, but because it is the kind of study that is helping to make educating a real profession. Dr. Coffman has chosen a tool that, skilfully used, does respect-demanding work; and he handles it well.

C. A. P.

THE SOCIAL DIRECTION OF HUMAN EVOLUTION.

An Outline of the Science of Eugenics. By William E. Kellicott. D. Appleton and Company. New York. 1911. Pp. 249. Price, \$1.50. By mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.62.

Mr. Kellicott sets forth the most recent principles of eugenics, as represented by the modern schools founded by Galton and the followers of the Mendelian principle of heredity. The essential theme of the book may be stated in the question: Is human heredity capable of control and has science advanced sufficiently to be used in directing and controlling, at least in part, human breeding? to which an affirmative answer is given.

The attitude that the social worker should take is stated by the writer as follows: "We should examine and re-examine current as well as proposed social practices and reforms from the racial point of view. . . . We should investigate not only the racial effects of the unfavorable conditions themselves, but also the racial effects of the measures directed towards the relief of such conditions."

Throughout the book, problems of eugenics, such as that involved in relieving parents of

their defective offspring, are stated clearly, but with little suggestion as to methods of meeting them. It is left to the social worker to revise his code wherever it may be vulnerable, and adjust his method to the needs of the race with the same care and foresighted sympathy as he does at present for the individual. The book should find a wide circle of readers among social workers, parents, and the public as a whole, as it is a concise, clear, elementary, and at the same time comprehensive discussion of the problems of heredity as related to the human race.—CAROL ARONOVICI.

JOTTINGS

A Novel Art Exhibition.—Desirous of bringing good works of art within easy reach of its neighborhood, the University Settlement of New York is holding an exhibition this week and next. The novel feature is that artists and connoisseurs connected with the National Arts Club have volunteered to act as interpreters of the pictures to those who come. The settlement has held three exhibitions in the past, in none of which, however, was the experiment of talks by artists tried. It is hoped that after this exhibition other settlements and neighborhood centers in the city will offer space, thus leading to a systematic effort to bring as many people as possible to an appreciation of recognized masterpieces.

Fire Demonstration.—How vital in the true sense—a matter of life and death—is the problem before the New York Factory Investigating Commission was illustrated again last week, when some 200 persons, the majority girls, were overtaken by fire above the fifth story of a New York factory loft building. A fire drill had been too newly installed to allay panic and the improved fire-escapes, lately installed, were cut off by flames from a fifth story window. The occupants got out without casualties; but their escape was more fortunate than satisfying as to the means for safety.

Would Abolish County Jails.—At the thirty-seventh annual convention of the Association of Directors of the Poor and Charities of Pennsylvania, Indiana, Penn., Francis J. Torrance, president of the Board of Public Charities, advocated the abolishment of county jails in rural communities and the substitution of district jails in their place. The association will meet in Erie, Penn., in October, 1912. H. Frank Eshleman, of Lancaster, Penn., was elected president and Louis C. Colborn, of Somerset, Penn., secretary and treasurer.

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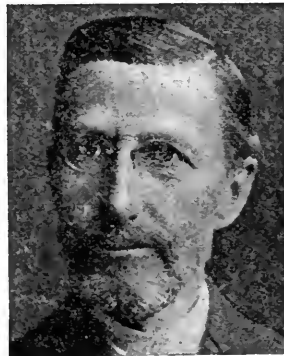
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VOLUME XXVII, No. 8

WEEK OF NOV. 25, 1911

DEC. 1 1911

THE SURVEY

SOCIAL CHARITABLE CIVIC



S. F. Hart in St. Louis Post-Dispatch.

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THE PITH OF IT

Thirty-three representatives of seventeen denominations responded to the call for a conference at Chicago, issued by the Commission on Social Service of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America. P. 1259.

The arbitration plan worked out last year in the Chicago Garment strike met the test this month in a case affecting 700 employes. P. 1249.

The Homestead Commission of Massachusetts announces a tentative plan to encourage city workers to move to the suburbs. P. 1249.

As cities spread out, the district becomes an important unit for social action. It was made the subject of the annual public meeting of the New York Charity Organization Society. Pp. 1251, 1264.

In the scale of municipal employes the street cleaner and garbage collector are well towards the foot; but the issues raised by their strike in New York affect all branches of the public service. The strike reviewed:—P. 1243.

The democratization of industrial capital in America by the sale of sound securities on the instalment plan was advocated before the New York Academy of Political Science by William E. Harmon. P. 1256.

Representatives of the National Committee on Prison Labor attack the contract system in Rhode Island. P. 1257.

Governor Marshall of Indiana comes out for abolishing the present use of county jails. P. 1258.

"Neglect is the great pauperizer, not relief, but the old bogey dies hard," is the way Frederic Almy handles a subject which is stirring the philanthropic agencies dealing with families in their homes. P. 1263.

Harry Phillips, member of the conciliation committee which settled the London dockers' strike, compares the governmental grievance boards and other English methods of settlement with "the line of a dictator" which, he says, Mayor Gaynor adopted in the garbage strike in New York. "Your mayor has sown a bitter feeling," is the way he puts it. "He has sown the seed of a strike for 1912 which will paralyze New York, . . . and with your dangerous cosmopolitan element which we do not have in London, I gravely doubt that you will have . . . 200,000 men standing good-temperedly and chaffing and chatting with the police without riot or trouble." P. 1260.

The Wisconsin Supreme Court last week sustained the constitutionality of the workmen's compensation law enacted at the recent session of the legislature.

THE SURVEY

Edward T. Devine, Editor Graham Taylor, Associate Editor

A Journal of Constructive Philanthropy

PUBLISHED WEEKLY BY

**THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY
OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK**

Robert W. deForest, President; Otto T. Bannard, Vice-President; J. P. Morgan, Treasurer; Edward T. Devine, General Secretary

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EDITORIAL GRIST

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The New York Budget Exhibit has been transferred to City College, where it is open throughout the month not only to students but to all comers. This is in a sense a first step toward making these annual exhibits serviceable throughout the year: possibly developing them into a permanent municipal museum.

THE COMMON WELFARE

NIGHT WORK AS DRIVERS SEE IT

"Here's the way it is," said one of the twelve hundred night drivers in the New York Street Cleaning Department who, with seven hundred other drivers and sweepers, went on strike November 8 in an unsuccessful protest against the night work which was instituted last April.

And as the public has had only fragmentary notions of what led up to this walk-out of civil service employes, which crippled the housekeeping of the greater city and put its health in jeopardy, it will serve an informing purpose to set down first of all what, to the minds of the men themselves, justified them in acting as they did. The night driver went on:

You go down to the stable for roll-call at ten o'clock at night. Your horse and cart are hitched up for you, and you go out on your route. Quitting time is supposed to be four o'clock in the morning, but you got to clean up everything in your district before you quit. See? Well, maybe everything goes along all right for a while. You got to make two trips; first for ashes and then for garbage. The rules of the department is that you can't mix 'em. The people ain't supposed to mix 'em in the cans either, but sometimes they do. In the daytime it's easy enough to tell what's in a can, but at night it's different. You can't tell by lifting it, 'cause some kinds of garbage is heavier than fine ashes. Sometimes you can tell by shaking the can and sometimes you can't. When it comes winter, and there's two or three inches of snow or ice over the top of the can, a man 'll have to ram his hand down in the mess to tell what's there. And if you mix 'em in your cart you get called.

In the dark, if the cans ain't sitting out on the curb you have to hunt 'em. There's a lantern strapped onto the cart, but you can't carry that and the cans too. You grope around in black areaways, and if you miss a can a kick is sent in and you get suspended.

Some cans weigh 200 or 250 pounds. I've weighed 'em at a hospital on my route. In daytime you can get the janitor or a sweeper to give you a lift. In the night you got to lift every can yourself. Maybe you got to carry it up out of an areaway, into the street, and heave it up onto your cart. There's a

lot of drivers get ruptured that way; I'm wearing a truss myself. There ain't many drivers in the service that can't show a mark somewhere from heavy lifting. If you spill the can out on the street to shovel it up, you break the regulations. You pick off a can with a big jag in the top rim. It cuts, and you drop the can. Maybe it's two o'clock in the morning and some grouch reports you for making a noise. I've had things thrown at me out of windows.

In winter it's hard for a horse to keep his feet. If he falls down on the slippery pavement in daytime you can get a sweeper or a passer-by to help take the cart off and get him up. But who's around to help at three o'clock in the morning? One man can't take a loaded cart off a horse.

There ain't a one of these things that don't make you lose time. Usually you can't clean up your route in the eight hours you're paid for in daytime. At night it can't be done. Take my route; there's an average of ten or twelve loads a night. Each load holds twenty-three to twenty-five cans. I can't take my cart back to the stable until I haul 'em all to the dump. Since this night work started I averaged ten hours. That gets me home between six and seven in the morning. I live near my stable; most of the drivers do. You can say we all live east of Third avenue or west of Tenth avenue. You can't get any sleep in the daytime in those parts of town.

The cold weather this fall gave us a hunch how things would be later on. Size up what a blizzard in the dark would put us up against. Why, even before we struck I was wearing three pairs of socks under my boots, two pairs of pants, an overcoat, and an oilcloth coat over that. You can't do heavy lifting with that weight on you.

They say we're striking because we don't get tips at night. I tell you there's nothing to this tip talk. A stray dime or two is all the most of us pick up. Maybe it's different with the fellows that have hotel and theater districts. But what do you suppose an east sider is going to tip?

I tell you it's the night work we're sore on. We wasn't asked when night work was started. It was at the start of the hot weather and at first a lot of the men thought it wouldn't be so bad. But to-day there ain't a driver that's in favor of night work. A lot of us have got the croup already. I don't know a driver that hasn't lost from fifteen to twenty-five pounds since he started working nights. It's killing work, and we all saw what it would come to in winter. That's why we struck.

This driver's view of the trouble was repeated in substance by other strikers

interviewed. So far as a quick inquiry revealed, the strike was the spontaneous coming out of the garbage men, who thought it was the only way to stave off winter night work. Either this was true, or the labor organizers who let the advantages of pre-election weeks slip by before they called the men out bungled it or did not want to win. This was not the first strike in New York's Street Cleaning Department, however. With an organization but a month old, Local 658 of the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, comprising the sweepers, drivers, stablemen, and hostlers of the department, went out in June, 1907, demanding an eight-hour day and the abolition of the fining system then in operation. Mayor McClellan and Commissioner Craven took up the grievances; fines as penalties were supplanted by suspensions, and the eight-hour day was granted. Thus, as a piece of departmental history, these earlier improvements in conditions had come about, not through administrative initiative, but through the action of the men together in a successful strike.

STEPS WHICH LED UP TO THE STRIKE

The story of the present strike began with the change from day to night work last spring. On April 22, William H. Edwards, commissioner of the Department of Street Cleaning, ordered that beginning April 25 night collection of garbage and ashes be tested between Twelfth and Fifty-ninth streets on the west side of Manhattan, and in parts of the Bronx and Brooklyn. On June 16 came the order that on June 19—three days later—night removal would become general. The chief objections cited at the time against day removal were the odors and flying ashes stirred up in emptying the cans in the midst of the city's other activities. About one-third of the drivers, or those engaged in removing street sweepings, continued day service.

Officials of the department declare that nothing was said at the time as to how long night removal would continue. The men insist that it was generally understood among them that it would

last only during the summer months. As fall came on rumors circulated that night removal would soon cease. October 1 was the day set by the early rumors, then October 15, and finally November 1. Meanwhile discontent gathered head.

With November 1 past and night work still in force, a committee from Local 658, headed by George H. Prescott, secretary-treasurer, called on Commissioner Edwards on November 3, and made an oral request for the restoration of day work. The Commissioner told them he would take the matter up with Mayor Gaynor. Sunday, November 5, Local 658 voted to strike if night work was not abolished in response to this request. On Monday Mr. Edwards told the committee that the mayor's decision was that night work must continue. Thereat the committee carried its case direct to the mayor's office but was unable to see Mr. Gaynor until Wednesday morning, Tuesday being election day. The Mayor told the committee that night collection of garbage was popular with the citizens and that it would continue. That night, the following letter from mayor to commissioner was read at the stables of the department:

In regard to the threatened strike of the drivers and garbage collectors of your department, be so good as to notify them at once by general order to strike just as soon as they see fit. And see to it that not one of the strikers gets back into the city employment again. We can get along without them. It will inconvenience the householders for a few days, but they will stand it patiently. Let the contract system be resorted to if necessary. The city pays the men of your department the highest wages for the shortest hours; and in addition a pension law was passed for them last winter. If they think they can make the city conform to their dictation by striking, they will find themselves grievously mistaken. The city's business has to be done as the charter prescribes, and no strike can force it to be done in any other way. The city is not in the position of a private employer and able to make any terms with its employes it sees fit.

Not a few of the men, hearing of the mayor's stand in his interview with the committee at City Hall, absented themselves from roll call; perhaps two hundred went out with their carts. The

rest struck. A majority of the day drivers struck in sympathy next morning and three days later the street sweepers also left off work. The administration took the position that the men were guilty of insubordination as municipal employes, and sent out a call for 5,000 strike-breakers, pending the filling of their places from the civil service lists. When three days later (November 11) William H. Ashton, general organizer for the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, one of the leaders in this strike and in the unsuccessful strike of the express drivers last year, wrote to Mayor Gaynor offering to submit the men's case to an arbitration board.¹ The mayor did not answer the letter and refused to see the writer. Within the fortnight the backbone of the strike was broken.

STREET RIOTS AND PILED-UP GARBAGE

Meanwhile, this dispute in one branch of the municipal service was disrupting the peace and threatening the health of the whole city. Ashes and garbage accumulated faster than new men could be brought to New York from Philadelphia, Baltimore, Pittsburgh, Boston, Buffalo, and other points, and broken in to the work of removal. On the lower east side, in parts of Harlem, wherever is congestion of people, there also was menace of infection. By Sunday night the situation had become acute. There was stench throughout the tenement districts. In narrow streets, vehicles rolled hub-deep through piles of refuse. Roving strike sympathizers and bands of boys, on the street for amusement, over-tipped the cans on to the pavements. Children played in and about heaps of garbage with no one to stop them. Feeding animals attacked the putrefying matter, and a cold snap was all that saved from thorough decomposition. It was not until November 16 that a normal day's removal of garbage was effected. Then began the work of catching up with the accumulations of eight days.

¹Mr. Ashton's letter suggested a board made up of three representatives each from the Merchants' Association, the Chamber of Commerce, the Civic Federation, the Contractors' Association, the Democratic and Republican clubs, the three central labor bodies of Greater New York, the Health Department, the Anti-Noise Society, the Board of Aldermen, the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, and the men's union.

which has not yet been accomplished.

Rioting followed the appearance of the strike-breakers in the streets. These were heavily guarded by police, mounted and unmounted, who had orders to use their clubs. Sunday afternoon, November 12, a half brick thrown from a roof in the San Juan Hill neighborhood tore a scalp wound in the head of Chief Inspector Schmittberger; a mob of 2,000 quickly gathered, and was as quickly routed by a general police attack. Later Inspector Schmittberger said:

This dropping of missiles from roofs and upper-story windows is a new style of warfare in the history of New York. We have had isolated instances, but never before did the batteries of a whole block of tenements open, as if by signal, upon those in the street. Our foe was unseen. We met it by a new kind of police duty—roof patrolling: For several days my men patrolled the roofs ahead and on each side of carts manned by strike-breakers. They came upon pile after pile of chimney bricks and copings heaped at the street edge for instant toppling.

One other such crowd gathered on this, the critical Sunday of the strike. For the rest the riots were small; but many cases of attack upon strike-breakers were reported. The only fatality known to the police was the killing of Ferdinand Bublitz, alias Robert Moeller, struck by a portion of a chimney purposely toppled from a roof. Bublitz was not a professional strike-breaker but had been out of work for six weeks and took a job on a cart. He was twenty-three years old and leaves a widowed mother who depended upon him for support. Police records show twenty-six injuries as the result of strike rioting. Four were serious—concussion of brain, fractured shoulder, broken skull, and shock from fall. Fifteen of these cases were strike-breakers; seven were policemen. No official data is available as to rioters or pedestrians injured by the police charges.

Like a private employer the city faced the usual problem of housing the men brought in to break the strike. Forty-five hundred blankets, as many cots, and commissary utensils for half that number were purchased. 3,085 men were housed in twelve stables in Manhattan and the Bronx. A midnight visit to a stable on the upper east side

found 278 men sleeping on the city's cots. The third floor, used ordinarily for storing harness, feed, etc., was given up to 200 Negroes. The wet from the single lavatory in a corner overran the nearby floor. In the cellar sixty horses stood in their stalls and seventy white men slept on cots, some of them not four feet from the horses' tails. A long low-roofed passage, without ventilation, was choked with twenty cots. Other stables visited showed conditions less cramped. In nearly all food was cooked and eaten within doors.

The city paid the detective agencies and other labor contractors \$5.75 per man per day, the agency supplying food and wages out of that amount. Transportation of strike-breakers, food, sleeping and commissary equipment cost the city \$136,000 during the first six days alone.

STANDING OF STREET WORK

In direct financial loss, in disturbance, and in danger to the public safety, this strike almost immediately concerned the interests of the whole community, although only a handful of men were involved compared with those called out in a strike in any one of a score of building or manufacturing trades in New York. More than that, it concerned the status of municipal employes as strikers, and as such involved questions affecting the civil service in all its branches. The civil service examination to which a street cleaner in New York is subjected calls for sound physical condition and the ability to wield a fifty-pound dumb-bell. Commissioner Edwards early began to fill the vacancies created by the strike from civil service lists. Application blanks were distributed among the strike-breakers and the best among them were encouraged to fill these out. The Municipal Civil Service Commission had furnished Mr. Edwards with 9,500 names of previous applicants, to whom notices were sent. A relatively small portion of these responded; but on November 20 the department announced that it had 922 civil service men on its pay roll. Commissioner Edwards said:

The status in the department of the civil

service men who struck is this: They are suspended, without pay, under charges. These men cannot be dismissed until they have had an opportunity to answer to charges, nor can their places be filled until they have been dismissed. This department has the names of about two hundred men who remained loyal. None of the others will get back.

Each man received a notice directing him to appear November 20 to answer to the following charges:

Absence from roll-call November 8; refusal to go to work November 8; conduct prejudicial to good order and discipline, in that he left his work in concert with others, intending to cripple the department; disobedience of orders in that he refused to go to work November 8.

Over 1,000 men reported at this hearing. Newspaper reporters were barred; the men were ushered in by stables; the "trials" averaged twenty seconds per man. Decisions were reserved.

The opinion of the Municipal Civil Service Commission, said Frank A. Spencer, its secretary, is that Commissioner Edwards has been within legal bounds in all that he has done. Paragraph eleven of Rule Nineteen of the Municipal Civil Service Rules reads:

In a case of emergency where it is not practicable to secure laborers from an eligible list with sufficient promptness, or where a list is temporarily exhausted, an appointing officer may hire . . . for a period not exceeding five days as many persons as may be required. . . . The emergency continues, in Commissioner Edwards' view,

as long as the department is crippled. Therefore it is legal to hire outside men over again at the end of each period of five days.

So far as general terms of employment go, the pay roll of the Street Cleaning Department has shown a rather steady increase in the wages of the men since 1892. Under the present schedule, (the last change being in 1909) drivers and hostlers receive \$800, the former with twenty-five cents per hour and the latter with \$2.30 per day as extra compensation for Sunday work; sweepers receive \$780 and stablemen \$760, each with twenty-five cents per hour extra for Sunday work. Last September two petitions were presented by the union to the Department of Street Cleaning asking for an increase to three dollars a day in the wage of steady and

extra drivers, sweepers, stablemen, and hostlers. Commissioner Edwards recommended such an increase to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, but it was not allowed, and the men appear to have dropped their demand after the final budget for next year was approved.

Three further points with respect to terms of employment should be noted: In declaring that any decrease in tips had nothing to do with the desire of the men to change to day work, the strikers contradict a view put forth freely in the press that drivers habitually demand remuneration from tenants and janitors. An official of the department said that he had the name of one middle-class hotel which regularly gave fifteen dollars a month in tips to a driver. A canvass of two residence blocks on the middle east side, where four-room apartments rent for from \$18 to \$25, discovered no evidence of continuous tipping. Many janitors stated, however, that they tipped when an extra service was asked. On October 1 the provisions of a pension law passed last summer by the state legislature were put into effect. Varying amounts are paid from this fund to disabled employes, and to the widows and children of killed employes. Employes in the service for twenty years or more who have reached sixty years of age are granted pensions amounting to not less than half of their compensation when retired. "The practical effect of this pension scheme," in the view of some of the drivers, "is simply to deduct 3 per cent from our wages. Very few drivers reach the age of sixty years in service. The work calls for younger men."

On the other hand, there are opportunities for rising in the departmental service. Above the labor grade, each vacancy must be filled by promotion on examination. In this way 259 drivers were raised to assistant foremen the past year.

ISSUES RAISED BY THE STRIKE

Such, in brief, are the main facts of the public service strike which has agitated New York the past fortnight.

Certain phases of the situation have received comparatively little attention. The first is that the change of any line of work from day-time to night dislocates the normal habits of life for the men involved and their families. Night work means abnormal household living, and there would probably be consensus of opinion that the burden of proof is on the executive, public or private, who would establish it that the advantages to be gained more than counterbalance these very apparent evils, and that the change is the only method to secure those advantages. A critic of the administration states:

In numberless cities of Europe garbage is collected by day without nuisance through the use of covered carts different in design from those employed in New York. A change to any of these systems would require the scrapping of the present New York equipment at a cost running into the millions; but in the opinion of experts who have been studying the question in connection with the Metropolitan Sewerage Commission it would prove its worth in the long run. The present system is regarded by these sanitarians as neither scientific nor even civilized, and viewed from this angle the strike hinges not on the institution of progressive methods, but on the night work involved in a belated sanitary régime. Moreover, it is customary in many employments demanding night work to arrange alternating weeks of day and night shifts, and if this is not done the day turn is allotted, as in a sense a promotion, to the older men. No such adjustments were made by the city in instituting the night work in garbage removal, and no increase was made in pay for the night work.

In the second place, the events of the strike may be viewed from the standpoint of the public estimation of municipal employes of whatever rank. That the men struck in haste, within a week after making their first demands on the mayor; that they recklessly jeopardized the well-being of every tenement dweller in New York; that they resorted to intimidation, riot following on its heels—these are charges reiterated with force by the New York newspapers. There has been less clear statement as to whether the attitude of the city administration tended to break down or build up the morale of the garbage men. In denouncing the union strikers and their officials the tone of the editorial columns

themselves has indeed been rather that of choleric old butlers exasperated at a flare-up among their scrub-women. In earlier days, section foreman and district superintendents of the street cleaning department were peace officers, and during the present strike Commissioner Edwards suggested that if his men were made health officers they would feel a larger responsibility and petty complaints by householders would be reduced. When Col. George E. Waring came into office as street cleaning commissioner in 1895 he definitely set out to raise the standard of the service and to give to the street cleaner a higher personal dignity. In his own words, he put a "man instead of a voter at the other end of each broom handle." In spite of cartoon and caricatures he adopted uniforms—"white wings"—established an annual parade, started boys clubs and illustrated talks in the public schools, all as part of his plan to secure a new sort of public interest in the important work of this department.

COL. WARING'S METHOD OF GRIEVANCE BOARDS

That part of Colonel Waring's experiment of most interest today was the development of a plan of internal arbitration for the peaceable settlement of grievances. Briefly the scheme was as follows:

The sweepers and drivers in each of the thirty-two section stations and each of the nine stables elected one of their number to represent them in a General Committee of Forty-one. This committee elected five spokesmen to represent it in a Board of Conference of ten members, the other five being the commissioner's representatives. Meeting once a week in secret the Committee of Forty-one discussed "with perfect freedom everything connected with their work, their relations with the commissioner and his subordinates, all questions of discipline, duties, pay, etc., in which they were interested, or which their sections, stables, or dumps may have submitted to them." The Board of Conference met monthly. Such questions as it could not settle "to the satisfaction of all" were argued by its chairman and secretary before the commissioner, who then rendered a verdict. A sweeper was elected chairman of this board.

During its first year the Committee of Forty-one considered 345 separate matters, of which 124 were referred to the Board of

Conference, the others being settled satisfactorily by itself.¹

The Waring plan of grievance committees has long since been abandoned, and the present strike has apparently hinged upon peremptory decisions made by the city's chief executive. The change from day to night work was made last spring on three day's notice, without consulting the men or interpreting it to them. This fall the mayor refused to consider the question open or arbitrable when the union committee called. Instead of seizing the situation as an opportunity for the city to demonstrate to private employers that industrial disputes can be settled off the public streets, his message to the stables that the men should strike when they saw fit merely provoked bad temper, and was in striking contrast to the methods employed by Colonel Waring in building up *esprit de corps*. The crux of the matter lay deeper, however, in the fact that, for men who as a body felt themselves unjustly treated, no channel was open but to quit the service—or strike. To meet this situation, Dr. Henry Moskowitz, member of the Joint Board of Sanitary Control of the Cloak, Suit and Skirt Makers' Industry urges the creation of a municipal grievance committee² to hear petitions from all grades of city employes. Dr. Moskowitz states his plan as follows:

A small unpaid body of this sort, appointed by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, with power not to grant demands but only to make public its opinion of their justice, would be capable of impartial verdicts, and would discourage extreme measures by employes. A strike must have public sympathy to win. An adverse report from such a committee would rob any set of demands of public sympathy and a favorable one would go far toward inducing their satisfaction by the city. Confidence in such a body would give to municipal servants a collective entity not otherwise possible.

¹Concerning the attitude of the men toward this plan Thomas A. Doe, chief clerk of the department and secretary of the board of conference, wrote: "From the beginning it was evident that a large number of the men had a full appreciation of the purpose of the plan. . . . A false impression obtains among the public that the drivers and sweepers are below the average in intelligence and acumen. This is not the case. A glance at the faces of the members of the Committee of Forty-one would quickly dispel this illusion."

²See reference to English grievance boards and a general review of the strike by Henry Phillips. P. 1260.

ARBITRATION PLAN WITH AN ENACTING CLAUSE

According to reports from the Chicago Women's Trade Union League, the arbitration plan which came into force through the settlement of last year's strike of the garment workers employed by Hart, Shaffner, and Marx is operating satisfactorily; but to the league's mind its success is in no small part due to the strong organization of these workers which has been developed since the strike.

On November 6 seven hundred employes in three shops were discharged, without warning, although but a few hours before two union officials had been in conference with one of the members of the firm. At the time of the discharge and afterward, the firm stated that the action had been taken because of a decision to give up the location of these shops. The arbitration committee, consisting of Carl Meyer, representing the firm, and William I. Thompson—Mr. Thompson taking the place of Clarence Darrow, who is in Los Angeles—representing the workers, met at once and succeeded in bringing about a satisfactory adjustment, whereby those discharged were to be taken back by foremen at other shops of the firm.

The readiness with which this adjustment was reached bears a close connection, as the union leaders see it, to the fact that 5,000 garment workers in the employ of the firm have joined the union. The work of organization is now to be extended to the employes of three other large clothing concerns.

CO - OPERATIVE HOMESTEADING

The Homestead Commission appointed last spring by Governor Foss of Massachusetts has made public a tentative bill designed to aid city workingmen in acquiring small homes in the suburbs. The commission will report to the Legislature early in January and in the meantime it desires constructive suggestions in preparing the final draft of the bill. The latter calls for a permanent commission of three unpaid members, to be appointed by the governor; these to be

assisted by a paid secretary. They would be authorized to purchase, lay out, and build upon tracts of suburban land for the purpose of providing homes for workingmen.

Each person holding property in these tracts is to own at least five shares of stock at a par value of \$10 each, the total amount of out-standing shares not to exceed the total amount loaned to the commission by the state. The treasurer of the commonwealth is authorized to loan the commission such sums as are necessary for the purpose of the act, from funds deposited by the savings banks in the state treasury. In return the commission is to give notes to the treasurer, to bear interest at 3 per cent, and to mature not later than thirty years from the date of issue, the principal to be paid in annual instalments, but in no case earlier than January 1, 1918.

These notes are to be a first lien on all real estate, except such as may be released from time to time by individual purchasers, in which case an equivalent amount shall be paid into the treasury of the commonwealth. The amount of any note when paid may be re-loaned to the commission, provided, however, that the amount of all notes outstanding and unpaid at any one time shall not exceed \$300,000. On all the stock issued the commission is to declare dividends based upon any net earnings over an amount sufficient to establish a contingent fund for the improvement of the property, and after the payment of interest, expenses, repairs, and any assessments for water, sewage, sidewalk, street lighting, or other public improvement purpose.

The tentative bill further provides that as soon as the number of certificate holders is, in the judgment of the commission, large enough for the purpose, a meeting of stock-owners shall be called to elect officers and adopt by-laws to be approved by the commission. The commission responsible for the tentative bill consists of Eva W. White, Charles F. Gettemy, Arthur B. Chapin, Kenyon L. Butterfield, Clement F. Coogan, Henry Sterling, and W. D. Foster.

FEDERAL ACTION AMONG CHURCHES

Thirty-three representatives of seventeen denominations responded to the call for the inter-denominational conference at Chicago, November 8, issued by the Commission on the Church and Social Service of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America. Two branches of the Baptist Church were represented, three of the Methodist, two of the Presbyterian, two of the Reformed, the Congregational, Disciples and Christian, German Evangelical, Mennonite, Protestant Episcopal, the Society of Friends, and the United Brethren. The attitude toward co-operative work and the organization for social service reported on behalf of the denominations represented was hopeful for the future, if not definite in the statement of present achievement. The need of literature adapted to inspire and inform the awakened interest in social work was acknowledged by all. A series of brief handbooks, leaflets, reading courses, labor Sunday orders of service, and social service programs for the use of local churches in their respective communities, as proposed by the Literature Committee, was widely favored.¹ The discussion elicited the desirability of "a social gospel for the foreign missionary field," to meet the needs of an awakened social conscience in the East.

Special state conferences were thought to be necessary to carry out the policies and suggestions for constructive action which the Social Service Commission may present from time to time. Various suggestions were offered by the delegates for immediate co-operative effort in local communities. It was proposed that those social service officers whose work for the denomination is of an executive nature shall compose a secretarial cabinet, under the chairmanship of the secretary of the Federal Council's Social Service Commission. The latter was designated as the representative of all those denominations which are with-

out such executive officers on social service.

The following specific recommendations for immediate social service were accepted: increased provisions for teaching and training theological students for social service; the education of church people and ministers through social service literature; the campaign for one day of rest in seven; a living wage and reasonable hours of employment for all workers; the betterment of social conditions in rural communities; the regulation of child labor and women's work. The peace propaganda and reform in prisons and almshouses and other public institutions were suggested as means of interesting in social service those who are not ready to enlist in efforts for industrial betterment.

ORGANIZING THE FIGHT AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT

Concerning itself chiefly with matters of organization and program, the Committee of the International Association for the Fight Against Unemployment met this fall at Ghent. The first conference of this international body was held at Paris, September, 1910, and the second will be held in 1913 at Ghent, the city which, under the leadership of M. Varlez, has made bold experiments with insurance against unemployment.

The meeting of the committee was attended by members from all the principal countries, many of them sent by their governments or by city councils. America was represented by a single volunteer, Prof. Charles R. Henderson of the University of Chicago. The committee considered:

What should be done in respect to the form of affiliated national organizations and their by-laws; the financial plans of the international association; the establishment of new sections; recruiting new members; subsidies from governments; financial report and budget; changes in composition of the committee; the committee meeting for next year at Zurich, Switzerland, with other related organizations—protective legislation, insurance, etc.; the next international conference in 1913; the conduct of the *Revue Internationale du Chomage*; and the program for future action.

Max Lazard, of Paris, was authorized to continue the publication of the *Revue*, the first number of which gives a sum-

¹All requests for literature and information regarding the federation of churches may be addressed to the offices of the Federal Council, Clarendon Building, 215 Fourth avenue, New York city.

mary of the situation in Europe in its latest phases. The proceedings of the first conference have been published in three volumes, the papers and discussions being printed in English, French, and German. They may be procured through the American Association for Labor Legislation.

Of the movement in this country Professor Henderson writes:

The officers of the association earnestly urge friends of the movement in the United States to form a national section. The American Association for Labor Legislation is the natural center for directing this effort, and anything done should be in closest cooperation with our recognized leaders. It is hoped that arrangements can be made for forming an organization so that we can be represented in the international association and can have an effective organ for securing progressive action in this country. Any one can become a member and be entitled to receive the publications on payment of ten francs per year. Societies pay twenty-five francs and public bodies fifty francs. Until an American section is formed all dues may be sent to the American Association for Labor Legislation.

HEBREW CHARITIES AND SELF-HELP

During the past year a Committee on Advice and Information to Widows has been organized by the United Hebrew Charities of New York to meet a need created by the small insurance sums left to their widows by the majority of Jewish husbands. These amounts, usually ranging from \$300 to \$500, are easily spent. The committee aims to give such advice that this money may enable a widow to earn a livelihood. Another new line of work has been in cooperation with the Bureau of Licenses with respect to the issuance of push-cart permits. The society has been able to put a considerable number of applicants on a self-supporting footing by furnishing them with stock at comparatively little expense. The work has brought the society into touch with the whole problem of street peddling and the plans under discussion for the gradual abolition of such traffic without hardship to those who ply the trade. Such a plan has received the written approval of the mayor, other city officials, and a number of social and civic organi-

zations. The United Hebrew Charities intends to continue its efforts to secure the necessary administrative action that will put this plan into effect.

Of the general problem faced by the relief department of the society the following statement was made at the recent annual meeting:

We find again that the factors which make for dependency are largely forces over which the unfortunate applicants have no control. Our figures show, as in the past, that crimes and intemperance play no appreciable part in the sad drama of human lives which we see unfolded. Sickness, old age, accident, widowhood and orphanage, desertion, unemployment, and insufficient earnings—these uniformly stand out as the *causae causantes* of dependency. With one exception, these causes of dependency operated in the same degree as in the previous year. During that year tuberculosis afflicting the breadwinner required aid to the extent of approximately \$32,500, or 14 per cent of the total relief disbursements, whereas during the past year it necessitated the expenditure of \$49,500, or 20 per cent of all the cash relief distributed. This but confirms the impressions of our relief committee and workers that this scourge is steadily making headway. Whatever may be its origin, there is no doubt that overwork, congestion, and undernourishment form the soil upon which it thrives. The conviction is growing upon those engaged in combating the disease that, notwithstanding efforts to disseminate a knowledge of hygiene, the only hope lies in a radical change of working and living conditions. Factories must be made sanitary, tenements must be made habitable; children must be given room in which to play; men and women must not be overworked and underpaid—otherwise society in all its strata will have to pay the penalty.

NEW YORK BUREAU OF SOCIAL RESEARCH

The discussion of the district as a city unit at the annual public meeting of the New York Charity Organization Society was made the occasion for a review of the work carried on the past two years by the Research Bureau of the New York School of Philanthropy in connection with the Clinton district of the Charity Organization.

The research bureau fulfills a double purpose. It gives an opening to students in social investigation and at the same time, with the help of the more experienced members of its staff, it makes its studies of immediate value to the active remedial agencies of the city.

When it was first proposed to make a

social survey of one neighborhood in the great city, to act as it were as the investigating arm for one district, it seemed an almost impossible undertaking, said Pauline Goldmark, director of the bureau. She continued:

How could one attack anything so enormous as a survey of all the factors that have produced the life of the city today?

The very size of the city is enough to daunt the most fearless. The daily spectacle of New York, the relentless maelstrom of its business life, the interminable stream of traffic, the seething subways and overflowing tenements, the storms of rebuilding that are remaking the face of the city—in a word, the unprecedented speed of economic and social changes—who could have the power or the skill to grasp them all?

Even the device to break up this giant into manageable parts, to take one section and to study that, at first appeared impracticable. Was it possible to unravel and understand the problems of any one neighborhood considered apart from the rest of the city?

Now, after taking the initial steps, there is little doubt that this plan of work is perfectly feasible. It becomes apparent that a patient study of one locality, its peculiarities and needs, its antagonisms and prejudices, prepares the basis for well considered and effective social work.

When one gets down to business, one begins to discover that even the city government, which supposedly serves all alike, has to be studied from the neighborhood point of view. Municipal housekeeping—street cleaning, removal of ashes, snow, etc., the police and ambulance service—does not deal with all sections impartially. For instance, why is it that in our section we sometimes have to wait two hours for an ambulance call? Why is it that thefts and burglary are committed in broad daylight and that gang fights make our streets impassable without calling forth the effective interference of the police? Those are some of the questions which we set ourselves to answer.

If we are to find out why such conditions have arisen, if we are really to understand the intertwined and intermingled causes which have made our neighborhood what it is today—to a large extent neglected, poverty-stricken, lawless—obviously the most detailed knowledge of and intimacy with the district is essential.

The bureau went back to historical development of the quarter. New York conceals its history well instead of parading it; and it took a long search to discover the original settlers of the land, the German and Irish immigrants who followed, to trace the coming of the industries, the sudden growth of population, its racial elements, and the hurried

building operations in the 70's which bequeathed to us the wretched tenements of that period. More significant still is the history of that old lawlessness which has showed itself ever since the draft riots of 1863 and persists to the present day.

Handicapped by this social heritage, what are the citizens of today? What kind of homes do they live in, what are their standards of morality and conduct, their pleasures, and their vices? What are the special factors that interfere with their well-being and how heavily do they bear upon the different levels of the community?

These are some of the problems the bureau has set itself to interpret in stating the needs of this neighborhood as distinguished from any other working-class section of the city. To begin with, it naturally attacked some of the immediate questions that are baffling social workers, in order to give information or open up new points of view that will make their work more intelligent and better focused. For instance, said Miss Goldmark, there are the new immigrant groups, Italian and Slav, who are adrift in the community. Their lack of acquaintance with American institutions and standards is a distinct menace to their girls and young women. The change to industrial life outside of the home, the possible dangers in the factory and the streets, for instance, need to be carefully explained. The social worker sees the apparent indifference of the Italian parent to the welfare of his children, such as the failure to send his children to school regularly and lack of intelligent interest in the activities of his sons and daughters. All these things need to be considered with a due appreciation of the foreigner's difficulties in adjusting himself to his new environment. The social worker who deals with the foreigner should understand them and give advice based on this knowledge.

MANAGEABLE UNITS ARE NEEDED IN SOCIAL WORK

Opportunities for work in the neighborhood have been studied and of these Miss Goldmark said:

We ought, if possible, draw up a white list and black list of factories, which will give the agencies the necessary information to guide their girls in the choice of an occupation. In place of the present haphazard and unintelligent method of getting work, we ought to be able to tell a young girl where she will work under good conditions, where positions are permanent, and where advancement is assured for competent workers. To take an illustration from our neighborhood: for many years girls and women went as a matter of course into the so-called Hammock factory, where conditions of work were undesirable in every way. This factory violated the child labor law, women worked over-time at exhausting occupations, and yet no one in the neighborhood interposed or seemed to appreciate that other more desirable occupations should be found for the workers who were too defenceless to help themselves. This factory has now given up business, but there are many other places which ought not to be recommended. It is certainly one of the obvious duties of any one interested in the welfare of this neighborhood to take an active part in finding the best sort of occupations for these young wage-earners and to protect them from exploitation. There are, for instance, good positions for young boys in the piano factories. This is the largest man-employing industry in the district, and young boys should be encouraged to enter this occupation and submit to the years of training and slow advancement that will ultimately place them in highly paid positions, rather than yield to the attraction of the vagrant occupations—messenger and delivery service, etc.—which at first seem to offer better wages but which lead to constant change of occupation and consequent demoralization.

Our study of juvenile delinquency probably shows more clearly than any other part of the inquiry the need of special intimate knowledge of social conditions. It shows also the failure to knit together all the social forces of the community in order to check overlapping of effort and make neighborhood activities really effective. The Children's Court in Manhattan as we all know urgently needs better investigations on which to base court action. At present it cannot even take advantage of the information about families which is available in relief and church records. It has no connection with the schools, whereby it could be informed about the gangs of toughs in the neighborhoods, the ring-leaders who lead the boys of the block into trouble, etc. Arrests are made hit or miss, and very often the judge is forced to act blindly, since he receives no proper report of the family or neighborhood situation. It is obvious that the work of the court could be greatly strengthened and improved, if a probation officer specially appointed to work in a given district were able to report on each case, with a full knowledge obtained from every one acquainted with the family—for instance, from school, church, relief agen-

cy, settlement, club, etc. The present system of indiscriminate arrests, which often fails to bring into court the ring-leader who is responsible for the disorder, the innumerable arrests for petty offenses or for playing in the streets, seem so unreasonable to the neighborhood and have aroused its antagonism so often that the influence of the court is seriously undermined. The Children's Court in New York, which ought to be known in the community as a friend of the children, is unfortunately considered nothing but a vague authority in league with the police, which arrests a boy for playing in the street as well as for more serious lawlessness, which may send a boy up to an institution. But its real purpose is entirely unintelligible to the neighborhood.

In the light of a year's investigation, we believe that an agent of the court, working intelligently in this neighborhood, could bring the real offenders to arrest, and could do much to correct the present unfortunate attitude of the neighborhood towards the Juvenile Court.

This discussion of the significance of working in small units, Miss Goldmark pointed out, should not be understood as an attempt to make our social organization more complex.

If we are to keep our problems within bounds, if we are to prevent their outstripping human ability to deal with them, we must break them up into manageable units and get close to the actual causes underlying them. As Arnold Bennett says: "When one has thoroughly got imbued into one's head the leading truth that nothing happens without a cause, one grows not only large-minded but large-hearted."

INVESTIGATION OF AUSTIN DISASTER

Three weeks of inactivity and silence followed the first brief session, on October 6, of the coroner's jury charged with fixing the responsibility for the loss of life when the Bayless Pulp and Paper Company dam broke at Austin, Penn., September 30. As told in *THE SURVEY*,¹ the inquest was adjourned indefinitely when the superintendent of the Bayless mill refused to testify, the district attorney saying that he desired to ascertain his authority to compel testimony.

Suspicion was current that the investigation would be quietly dropped, or carried out only in a perfunctory way.

¹A Man-Made Flood: Some Issues in Social Responsibility Raised by the Breaking of the Dam above Austin, by Graham Komeyn Taylor. *THE SURVEY* for November 4, 1911. Price 25 cents.

Significantly, the announcement that it would be resumed on November 2 appeared in the public press at the same time that the following letter, signed by the governor of Pennsylvania, was published:

Commissioners of Potter County,
Coudersport, Pa.

Gentlemen:—Information has come to me that there is a disposition to halt the inquiry now being made at the coroner's inquest into the cause of the breaking of the dam at Austin, which resulted in such great loss of life and property. The duty being imposed upon the county authorities to make such an investigation and the extent of the calamity being so great, not only are the people immediately affected interested, but the citizens of the entire commonwealth are much concerned.

I hope therefore, and urge, that no reasonable expense be spared, and that nothing be permitted to interfere with the prompt and conscientious discharge of the duties of investigating and determining the cause of the dam breaking and the responsibility therefor, if any.

Please furnish me all information brought out in investigation to the present time and full report upon its completion, and oblige,

Respectfully yours,

JOHN K. TENER.

The session on November 2 was brief, and again an indefinite adjournment was ordered until such time as the designing engineer, T. Chalkley Hatton, could be present. A letter stated that he could not attend until December, but would then be willing to testify. The hearing, however, brought out some important engineering testimony by Prof. Frank P. McKibben, of Lehigh University, and Prof. Alfred D. Flinn, of the Department of Water Supply of New York city. Prof. McKibben is reported to have declared that the foundation was faulty, that the construction was poor in a number of respects, and that the dam was very unsafe whenever more than half filled with water. While he found some evidence of a puddle bank to keep water from going under the dam, he could discover no trace of a cut-off wall to prevent entirely such percolation. The testimony of Professor Flinn corroborated that of Professor McKibben.

This evidence is reinforced by a statement issued on October 30 by the conservation commission of New York

state, following an examination of the Austin dam made by its inspector of dams, Alexander L. McKim, who declares that he could find nothing to indicate the existence of a "key" or cut-off wall which, according to the drawings, should have reached the entire length of the dam, extending four feet down into the rock and having a thickness of four feet. It will be recalled that the article in *THE SURVEY* for November 4 stated that *Engineering News* had received intimation that the engineer's original plan to carry a cut-off wall deep down had been over-ruled on account of the expense, and, moreover, that the plans and recommendations submitted by the engineer after the partial failure of the dam in January, 1910, had provided for a cut-off wall deep enough to reach impervious strata. *THE SURVEY* pointed out that according to representatives of *Engineering News* and *Engineering Record*, who visited Austin after the disaster, nothing had been done to carry out these recommendations. It is stated that Mr. McKim found that at least one portion of the dam which published drawings showed to be thirty feet thick at the base was actually only twenty feet thick.

At the session on November 2, George M. Miller, a contractor of Kane, produced letters which had been written to him in 1910 by President Bayless concerning the re-inforcement of the dam. According to the report one of them mentioned a four-inch stream that leaked beneath the dam and asked if certain work could be done, as "we must make this dam safe to satisfy the people of Austin."

BUSINESS AND THE WAGE-EARNER

The possibilities of business for the wage-earner and the responsibilities of business for the capitalist were the topics of the annual meeting of the New York Academy of Political Science on November 10 and 11. The pros and cons of government regulation of the trusts as a substitute for anti-trust legislation were discussed at the dinner meeting on the final evening by Frederick W. Whitridge, George W. Perkins,

John Hays Hammond, and Robert Walker, general counsel of the Chicago, Rock Island, and Pacific Railway.

Labor legislation, to those who took part in the first day's session, meant legislation to protect the lives and health of laborers. The responsibility of the state inspector toward such legislation should, in the opinion of P. Tecumseh Sherman, who read the first paper, include recommendations for its improvement, and should include, also, a program of education among employers on the best means of safeguarding their workers. For this educational work the inspector would have to be an expert. Such legislation should not be voluminous; it should not unduly burden industry, but should be limited to safeguards whose usefulness had been fully demonstrated. Further safeguards the employers could be trusted themselves to supply if a compulsory compensation law held them financially accountable for injury to their workmen.

That, even aside from this financial incentive to safeguard life, there has within recent years developed a sense of responsibility in employers, which has gone along with the improvement of labor laws and labor departments, was the theme of the address by John Calder, general manager of the Remington Typewriter Company. He pointed to the employment of experts and the installation of insurance plans by large industries and urged that the work of protecting life be begun early, by offering courses on safety in the engineering departments in colleges. He held that safety, sanitation, and the limitation of hours were but so many means of increasing working efficiency. At a later session Raynal C. Bolling described the means by which the United States Steel corporation had cut its accident rate in half.¹

Prof. Henry R. Seager called for support of the constitutional amendment introduced into the New York legislature to extend the police power of the state so as to bring compulsory compensation legislation within the scope of

the constitution. Professor Seager outlined the history of the Wainwright Commission's law. Another means of satisfying constitutional requirements was outlined by Miles Menander Dawson in his advocacy of national insurance. This, he argued, was from humanitarian, economic, and constitutional points of view the best form of compensation. He advocated the full German system carried on through employers' mutuals, as he believed that state or national insurance departments have many of the limitations of private industrial insurance. This plan of social insurance was defined by another speaker as "insurance where the company does not make anything." Edward T. Devine and Dwight Morrow, though not out of sympathy with Mr. Dawson's ideals, expressed belief that it would be best for the several states of the Union to try different methods of meeting the accident compensation problem, and by practical experimentation thus arrive at a permanent solution.

SOCIAL EFFICIENCY IN OUR BUSINESS

The preservation of the health of workers was the topic of the second session. Irving Fisher, who introduced the subject, contrasted the economic gain to society as whole with whatever economic loss might come to individual employers through regulation of conditions of work. He pointed out that a revolution in health has taken place, through changes in personal habits and through the work of health departments, but that in America this revolution has not yet spread to working conditions, and instanced the fact that America was not represented in the industrial hygiene exhibit at the recent Dresden exposition. He believed that hygienic working conditions would on an average lengthen life from one to two decades.

Lillian D. Wald, of the Nurses' Settlement, and Jane Seymour Klink, welfare manager of the Pilgrim Laundry, described the medical and the personal sides of welfare work, and Mrs. John Hays Hammond told of the work of the Woman's Welfare Department of the Civic Federation.

¹Steel and Steel Workers in Six American States—Illinois: Boosting for Safety. by John A. Flitch. THE SURVEY, November 14, 1911.

Average present-day sanitation and ventilation of factories were described by George W. Price in terms of the little boy's composition on Christmas presents: "I don't have no Christmas presents." The figures he gave from his many years' experience as factory inspector and as expert for the Joint Board of Sanitary Control of the Cloak, Suit, and Skirt Industry and for the Factory Investigation Commission bore out the truth of his picturesque comparison.

John B. Andrews told of the movement to cut down our annual sick list of 13,000,000 persons from occupational diseases, which was inaugurated by the American Association for Labor Legislation with the Congress on Occupational Diseases at Chicago in 1910. W. Gilman Thompson discussed the best method of working out a system of public reporting of industrial diseases.

STOCKS, LOANS, WAGE-EARNERS

The program of the last session, on financial facilities for the wage-earner, contained material that was new to most social workers, in William E. Harmon's scheme for investments on the installment plan. Mr. Harmon advocated a central board of prominent financiers, which should, like the insurance companies, employ agents to solicit business from small wage-earners. This money would then, without the expense of further intermediary, be invested in the best paying stock, thus yielding 6 to 9 per cent interest to the small investor, who is to-day practically shut out from any more profitable investments than insurance or the savings bank. Such a system as Mr. Harmon advocated is at present in existence in France and would, he held, in this country as in France give public ownership by purchase instead of by confiscation and tend to counteract revolutionary tendencies, to unify the interests of labor and capital, and to make us a nation of conservatives. Issac N. Seligman and Henry R. Mussey took part in the discussion of Mr. Harmon's paper, the former pointing out practical difficulties, the latter criticising the plan on the

ground that the public ownership conferred would not give democratic control. The control would lie, he held, just where financial control lies now, and the hands of the great financiers would be measurably strengthened.

The discussion of remedial loans (chattel and salary), was opened with the constructive plan outlined by Arthur H. Ham. On the one hand he advocated that the rate of interest in the pawnbroking business be brought down by organizing such semi-philanthropic establishments as the Provident Loan Society to compete with commercial loan enterprises. On the other hand, in dealing with salary loan evils, he recommended the regulation of interest charges (a generous rate being allowed, however, to compensate for the great risks of the business) coupled with the inauguration of cooperative enterprises. Mr. Ham's paper was supplemented by the account given by Raymond B. Fosdick, New York commissioner of accounts, of his practical inquiry into salary loans among city employes. Pierre Jay, former Massachusetts commissioner of banking, outlined a model form of cooperative loan society, and S. T. Simmonds described the practical workings of the Celluloid Club, a savings and loan association among the employes of a single factory which has in the six years it has been in existence loaned \$25,000 and sustained losses amounting only to \$50, the only security on which loans are based being the personal responsibility of the borrower.

ST. LOUIS, WATER METERS, AND RED RAGS TO BULLS

The water works of St. Louis have long been run and owned, and run successfully and with profit, by the municipality. A fortnight ago the water commissioner announced to the public that water meters would be installed in all residences and that the present flat rate system of charging for water supply would be abolished. By evening of the day that this announcement was made, the public was making stormy opposition to the proposed measuring of its water supply. Water Commissioner Wall's

name, known to few the day before, was in every street-car conversation. In a day or so organizations began to pass resolutions; arguments against the change accumulated and appeared in the press in editorial, news item, and letter-to-the-editor columns.

The commissioner defended himself. His only thought, he said, was for economy. There is a waste, he stated, of 25 per cent, amounting to \$120,000, annually; in tenements especially taps are left running in cold weather to prevent pipes from freezing and bursting; several times last summer the maximum pumping capacity was reached; if meters are not installed soon, the water works will have to be enlarged by installation of more pumps. For authority to make the change he quoted a certain permissive ordinance; and the Board of Public Improvements stood with the water commissioner for the universal use of water meters.

SURVEY readers will be interested, however, in the loud chorus that surprised the commissioner. Economy! The water works department shows a big surplus. This can mean but one of two things, it was argued—that rates ought to come down or pumping and distributing facilities go up. It is wicked for a town to make money out of water, one of the prime needs of civilization! Our population is increasing. Install more pumps. Be prodigal in the use of water, else what avails it that our city has at its command the limitless water of the Mississippi and Missouri rivers? Install more pumps. Anyway, installation of the required 100,000 meters would cost \$2,050,000 and increase our taxation and perhaps our rents. It is not waste to water our lawns, fill our tubs, etc. Plenty of water is a necessity to health and beauty. As for the tenement taps left running in winter, the only time when consumption of water crowds pumping capacity is summer. The closing of faucets in tenement-house kitchens in January is not going to raise pumping capacity in July. Increase the horde of the Great Unwashed? Never!

And the water commissioner, still astounded, has somewhat calmed the

storm by saying, "I would not take an arbitrary stand against popular demand."

PRISON CONTRACTS IN RHODE ISLAND

The criminal code and philanthropy, infant mortality, the church in social service—each of these themes was up for discussion at the Rhode Island State Conference of Charities and Correction, held in Newport last month. Judge William H. de Lacey of Washington dealt with the system in the District of Columbia whereby deserting husbands are compelled to care for their families through the authority of the Juvenile Court. The juvenile court, he said, is really a family tribunal rather than a juvenile court. The Rev. Thomas B. Slicer opened a series of addresses which dealt with the contract labor system now in vogue in Rhode Island. E. Stagg Whitin, secretary of the National Committee on Prison Labor, declared that the dark cell, the straight-jacket, and the gag are being used to bring about discipline and to compel prisoners to work. John J. Sonstebly, of the United Garment Workers of America, set forth the present attitude of organized labor to the contract system, as follows:

We do not believe in nor advocate keeping prisoners in idleness, but the alternative to idleness should not be unfair competition with free labor in the open market. Organized labor believes that the employment of convict labor should be so diversified that the burdens will be equally distributed among all free labor and reduced to such a minimum that the members of no trade or occupation can justly complain.

Mr. Sonstebly especially arraigned those contracts which provide that the product shall not be sold within the state where it is made.

That there are four types of diarrheal diseases which are now recognized, and that each type requires distinct treatment, was the theme of a paper interpreting present advances in their prevention and treatment, by Dr. Charles Hunter Dunn.

"We have learned from bitter experience," said Dr. Dunn by way of illustration, "that paregoric is frequently a very dangerous drug in the acute diarrheas. On the other hand it

is very valuable, almost specific, in the type due only to increased peristalsis. We have learned to treat each type by itself."

Dr. Helen C. Putnam brought out that Rhode Island and Pennsylvania are the two states having the highest infant death rates, while Walter E. Kruesi, in a paper outlining a program for the practical conservation of infant life and health, called attention to the gap that now exists between babyhood-supervision and school-supervision, where we are fortunate enough to have even these.

In dealing with The Church in Social Service, Rattibone Gardner of Providence took the position that the church should not

act as an agent of the state in any of its functions, even to the extent of receiving state aid for any benevolent work which it is conducting and even though it thereby relieves the state of a part of its burden. Funds raised by taxes should be dispersed as the state itself determines, and the recipients of public charity should be determined by the state and by no other organization whatever. No church should be in any way accountable to the state for its actions. This applies, in my opinion, likewise and for the same reason to voluntary charity organizations. Again, few churches are in my opinion locally possessed of sufficient resources, either in men and women or in money, to conduct in the most effective way important private charities. . . . Churches would accomplish much more by joining forces, and the work in common tends to bring them together.

The plea that "in this great work of social service we must all unite, both Jew and Gentile," was the theme of several of the speakers who called upon the church for a more active part in the conflict with oppression of every phase—industrial abuse, political influence, and personal greed.

GOVERNOR MARSHALL ON COUNTY JAILS

"Probably the most notable thing about the state conferences which have been held in Indiana for the past twenty years, and especially for the past five or six years," writes a veteran attendant, "is the excellent cooperation which they have exhibited between the executive officers and board members of

the state institutions and the officers and members of private charities. The twentieth conference, held in Indianapolis, October 28-31, was complete in its representation of the local public institutions, of which there are six in the city or within a short trolley ride. County and township institutions and agencies were also well represented."

The conference gave opportunity to Gov. Thomas R. Marshall, whose name has been mentioned in connection with the presidency, to outline his program of reform for the next two years. Favoring many things desired by the social workers of the state, the governor drew especial response when he came out for a state correction farm and the abolition of the present use of the county jails. A note sounded by Prof. U. S. Weatherly, of Indiana University, in his presidential address, and heard throughout the sessions, was that the principles of organization and centralization in social work must be developed still further than they have yet been carried.

"If we are to have progress we must organize for progress," declared one speaker.

The same topic which has come insistently to the front at more than a few state gatherings this year claimed the attention of the Indiana workers at the session of the committee on Neighborly Helpfulness, of which Alexander Johnson, general secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, was chairman. The need of special education for country life was urged by Prof. G. I. Christie, superintendent of the Department of Agricultural Extension, Purdue University. Jane Addams pointed with clearness to the interdependency which must be maintained between remedial and constructive efforts if they are to issue effectively. A feature of the conference was the popularity among outside delegates and citizens of Indianapolis of a series of twenty-four round table discussions occupying two mornings. With each discussion lasting an hour and four discussions going on simultaneously it is not surprising that the topics boxed the compass of social reform.

CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT AT PANAMA PACIFIC FAIR

Wide as was the range of subjects treated at the Sixth California State Conference of Charities and Correction (San Francisco, October 25-29), child welfare was the theme most prominently to the fore; and a resolution was adopted recommending that a Child Welfare Exhibit be arranged for the Panama Pacific Exposition in 1915.

The California meeting brought together a number of social workers "on tour," as well as strong local speakers. Among them were Francis H. McLean, secretary of the National Association of Societies for Organizing Charity, New York; Prof. John Graham Brooks of Harvard University; E. P. DeGroot, supervisor of Playgrounds, Chicago; L. H. Weir, Pacific Coast secretary of the Playground and Recreation Association of America; and Dr. W. H. Slingerland, special agent of the Child Helping Department of the Russell Sage Foundation.

General social and economic conditions, the lack of home training, the breaking down of the home, the rush for cheap amusements, were among the causes set forth for the downfall of boys and girls. One speaker declared that 51 per cent of the boys in state reform schools were from homes broken up by divorce. The extent to which physical defects are contributing causes to juvenile delinquency was recited. It was asserted that 60 per cent of the children going through the Juvenile Courts have bad teeth, adenoids, and enlarged tonsils, and that nearly 25 per cent of delinquent children and nearly 20 per cent of dependent children are suffering as the result of sexual disease. "The judge of the Juvenile Court," said one speaker, "should have in one hand the physical history of the child and in the other its moral history."

Children need the association and companionship of their parents, urged another.

The unity of the home must be preserved if we are to save the boys and girls of the nation. . . . Let there be created public sentiment so active and dominant that the parent who does not live up to his responsibility will

feel the heavy hand of an ostracism so great that life will be rendered unbearable.

The amusements of to-day were declared to be passive instead of active; the old pleasures and recreations of home life giving way, with the coming of the apartment house and the disappearance of back yards, to moving-picture shows and cheap dance halls. The establishment of the modern playground was urged as one of the best substitutes a community can provide.

Resolutions called for an appropriation for the establishment of a training school for delinquent girls, and for the devotion of the entire time of a Superior Court judge to the business of the Juvenile Courts in San Francisco, Los Angeles, and Alameda counties. Exhibits of model playgrounds, recreation maps, exhibits of school work and manual training, models of tenement house conditions, domestic science, causes and treatment of tuberculosis, and photographs, illustrations, and literature concerning the various institutions of the state were on display throughout the conference.

OPEN-AIR SCHOOL RAISES ATTENDANCE

The first open air public school in Cleveland has completed one month's work and the records for this brief period give some striking facts. The thirty Italian children who make up this roof garden school are all in incipient or open stages of tuberculosis, yet the records show an average gain in weight of one pound, and this in spite of the fact that inclement weather has prevailed. Previous records of these children show that they were frequently out of school on account of colds and other ailments. Not one child has had a cold since beginning his out-of-door career, and there has been a higher average of attendance than in any room of the school. Many of these children had dropped out of school entirely and most of the others were negligible quantities as far as getting on in school work was concerned. The record card that a few months ago read "inattentive," "dull," and "frequently absent" now reads "making

progress," "increased interest in work," and "regular attendance."

This little school has some of the disadvantages of the old district school in so far as it represents five grades under one teacher. However, this difficulty is partially obviated by letting some of the more advanced pupils go inside to recite with their classes. The establishment of this open-air school was accomplished with so little effort that the experience should be known in other cities. The director of the city schools is allowed to expend out of the general appropriation \$250 each year in whatever way he sees fit. This money purchased a wooden floor and canvas covering, which were installed on the roof of one of the largest school buildings, located in the heart of the Italian district. A teacher who needed the fresh air was transferred. The Tuberculosis League supplied blankets for the children to wear, and the School Dietary Department supplies hot and nourishing food in the morning and afternoon. This small effort has produced such favorable results that those who are watching it believe that the time is not far distant when every public school in Cleveland will have its roof or open-air room.

AN ENGLISHMAN'S VIEW OF THE NEW YORK STRIKE

HARRY PHILLIPS

LAST SUMMER THE DOCKERS' STRIKE BLOCKED THE INLETS OF LONDON'S FOOD SUPPLY; THE PAST FORTNIGHT A STRIKE OF THE GARBAGE COLLECTORS IN NEW YORK ALL BUT CHOKED THE OUTLETS FOR THE CITY'S WASTE. IN BOTH CONTROVERSIES THE COMFORT AND WELL-BEING OF THE WHOLE COMMUNITY, AS WELL AS LABOR ISSUES, WERE AT STAKE; BUT RADICALLY DIFFERENT METHODS WERE EMPLOYED IN BRINGING THEM TO AN END.

BY A COINCIDENCE, MR. PHILLIPS, FIRST HONORARY TRUSTEE AND PRESIDENT OF THE DOCK WORKERS' AND COAL PORTERS' TRADES UNION, HAS BEEN IN NEW YORK GATHERING AMERICAN DATA IN ADVANCE OF A LECTURE TOUR WHICH INCLUDES BOOKINGS UNDER THE WOMAN'S SUFFRAGE LEAGUE, THE LEAGUE FOR POLITICAL EDUCATION, THE PEOPLE'S INSTITUTE, ETC. AT THE REQUEST OF THE SURVEY, THIS LONDONER, WHO WAS ONE OF THE MEMBERS OF THE CONCILIATION COMMITTEE, WHICH BROUGHT ABOUT THE SETTLEMENT OF THE LONDON DOCK STRIKE, GIVES HIS IMPRESSIONS OF THE NEW YORK STRIKE.

THE FACT THAT MR. PHILLIPS, FOR TEN YEARS DEPUTY MAYOR OF EAST LONDON, WAS KEPT KICKING HIS HEELS IN THE OUTER OFFICE OF AN AMERICAN CITY HALL WHEN HE CALLED ON MAYOR GAYNOR IN BEHALF OF THE STRIKING GARBAGE MEN, MAY ADD A DASH OF PEPPER TO HIS STATEMENTS, BUT DOES NOT DISCOUNT THE STRIKING CONTRAST

HE DRAWS BETWEEN THE PLANES OF DIGNITY AND REASONABLENESS MANIFESTED IN THE NEGOTIATIONS IN LONDON AND NEW YORK.

On August 20 the morning papers in London had a very short paragraph stating that the London dockers had come out on strike. To the ordinary public that paragraph was of very little importance. You might as well have said a fire had broken out in the kitchen of a poor man's house. But to those of us who are in the heart of the labor movement of London and who knew the growing discontent that had been increasing for years in connection with the dock work of London, to us that statement meant a great deal of serious trouble. The next day another paragraph appeared stating that the coal porters and the stevedores had come out to help the dockers. Perhaps I should explain what that work means. The docker or dock-worker of London is the man who unloads all the ships that come into the London docks. The stevedore is the man who loads them. He is much more skilled and better paid. He has to arrange the cargo and the passengers' luggage so skilfully that it does not roll about when the ship meets the big Atlantic seas. The coal porter is the man who coals the ships from the barges. Well, these three divisions of men, comprising about 40,000, were out on strike for an increase of wages. On the third day they were joined by the lightermen, an important section of river labor, the men who row the barges and do the whole of the barge work of the River Thames. This practically held up the shipping of London. They were then joined by the carmen of London—what the New York men speak of as the teamsters or the expressmen, men who do all the express work and delivery of luggage and goods all over the city. These men were the worst paid of all the men. I know a large number of them personally, and many of them received less than \$5 a week, working fourteen and sixteen hours per day—no time allowed for meals, and if they were found waiting to get some food at a restaurant they would be fined. Very often the work ran far into the night all through winter as well as summer, for \$5 and \$6 per week. The dock workers received

twelve cents per hour for their work and averaged eight hours per day, which was practically a starvation wage to many of the men, because they seldom did more than four day's work per week. Broadly, the pay of the men was extremely low and the struggle to live very difficult. Their unions, of which I was honorary president, were greatly weakened by leakage on the part of the men who had become disheartened.

And then came this impulsive strike. It was in no sense caused or called for by any one labor leader. It was a sudden revolt of the men against conditions which had become intolerable. And they now presented a solid mass of workmen, controlling the whole of the transport of London, and by the fourth day London was practically a city besieged. No food came in or went out, no ship was loaded or unloaded, not a single carman delivered any goods. No porter in the meat markets nor porter in the fish market delivered or carried any meat or fish. In a word, the food supply of London was absolutely held up. London was dependent upon the stock of food in its shops and stores. The shop-keeper immediately put up his prices and began to make a big profit. There on Tower Hill and down by the docks was gathered this great army of 150,000 men, all in perfect order, no rioting, no shop looting, scarcely one man locked up, the police chatting with the men, and the men with the police. The most perfect good-humor reigned, but still London was held up. The wives and the children of the men were quite in sympathy with their husbands and fathers. They had starved for many weeks in the winter, without any hope, and they could very well starve for a fortnight in the summer with a great deal of hope. So London was getting very near towards being starved out. The public wanted to know what was the reason for it, and, as soon as it realized the moderate demands of the men, urged immediate settlement.

Some of the war-like and fire-eating men and members of Parliament urged that the soldiers should be called out, that the strike leaders should be shot. Churchill, one of the Cabinet ministers,

the home secretary, was going to call the soldiers out. John Burns, himself an old strike leader, now a member of the Cabinet, strongly advised against such a policy. Ben Tillet, the wonderful labor leader of the dockers, told the home secretary that if he put a single soldier into London the government would be unseated and wrecked. I know myself that that was absolutely possible. We could have stirred England from end to end against the Government, and upset them if they had called the soldiers out. John Burns asked; Whom are you going to shoot? Why are they to be shot? These men are perfectly orderly, they are giving no trouble, they are within their legal rights of combination—and behind the men there is the great principle of the workman's right to live a full, fair, and satisfied life. You may shoot the men but you cannot shoot the principle,—and so the strike went on for two or three more days. The Shipping Federation, representing the whole of the ship-owners of London, had been paying a man called Mr. Laws, a great strike-breaker who advised the ship-owners, who from the first were willing to arbitrate, not to do so. He said that he could break up the strike; but he was utterly powerless, and now stands a discredited man in London. It was impossible to break up the strike of 150,000 men, mostly skilled workmen. The strongest proof of the power of the men was shown when the postmaster, Sidney Buxton, sent to Ben Tillet asking him to give a permit for the mails to go through. This permission was granted. Also we saw that the hospitals were kept supplied with food and ice, and the workhouses and the little children had their free dinners as usual. The horses of the carmen were also looked after and fed each day, but as far as the business and the food supply of London went, we absolutely hung that up; also, no petrol for autos could be purchased.

The men then offered to accept arbitration. The ship owners agreed and a Conciliation Committee representing men and masters met, and the government appointed their own arbitrator and Mr. Askwith. We had daily messages

from the king, who watched the strike with the greatest of interest. So the men and the masters met. There was the most perfect good feeling, and by the end of forty-eight hours the whole strike was settled. The men won terms all along the line, and an agreement was signed that no further strike was to take place for a period of twelve months. Either side breaking this agreement is to be fined so much per day, either the men's union out of their funds, or the masters out of their funds. And so the great London strike was settled without a shop being looted, a window broken, or a man's head cracked. To my mind, it was the most wonderful illustration of industrial organization I have ever seen. People say the strike was unjustified. We reply, What other course had we to pursue? We had been asking quietly and peaceably for better conditions. So long as the men starved and suffered in silence the public never listened to them; but the moment you inconvenience this public, stop its food, or its comforts, immediately you get redress. I say that the strike under the present existing circumstances was the workmen's only method. It was not socialism in the least sense. The men did not strike for the control of the docks and transport of London; they simply struck for a fairer share in the wealth they produce, and to live under-better conditions in the existing state of society. I believe that industrial organization is the next step for the salvation of the worker. The average workman is not a socialist. Socialism is an abstract principle. The average working man is not concerned with abstract principles but with a definite bettering of his conditions as they stand. So the great strike was settled. It was peace with honor. Far better feeling was evoked and now exists between the capitalist and the workman, the ship owner and the docker, than ever existed before. It has led to a wonderful organization of the transport work of London. Not only in England, but internationally, the whole of the transport work, all the work connected with shipping, is federated and organized, so that there are now 700,000 transport workers all linked

together in Great Britain, Germany, the United States, France, and other parts of Europe. They are so organized that at forty-eight hours' notice they could practically hold up if necessary the whole of the transport work of Europe.

I left London about a month ago and came over here to your United States on a lecture tour. I have been staying in New York some few weeks, and there broke out last week the strike of your street cleaners. I was greatly interested in this strike because I have large sympathy with the men who do that class of work, whether in London or here in New York, and I immediately got in touch with your men and ascertained their wages, hours, etc. I think this work so horrible and so uncongenial that it is work that should be done by convicts as a punishment for crime rather than by honest men. I look upon your street cleaner and scavenger as the savior of the health and life of New York. He is handling night by night the filthy food that would spread disease, while you and I are sleeping in our beds; such work demands the fairest payment, and such men have a right to the kindest possible treatment. I think that we are always under a debt to the man who cleans and scavenges the streets of our great cities. I met your men and they said they had offered to arbitrate on the question if the mayor would kindly see them, and that he had refused to do so. I was tremendously surprised and astonished at the attitude of your mayor, bearing in mind how willing and desirous our prime minister and the mayor of London and the great ship owners had been to meet our dock workers and arbitrate. I could not understand the attitude of your mayor with such a small question as 2,000 street cleaners, and his refusing to see them.¹

¹They asked me to call on him personally and I wrote to him, telling him that I had the honor of having been deputy mayor of East London for some ten years, that I was a vice-president of the International Peace Forum of which William Taft, your president, is also president, and which has in its ranks some of your finest Americans, and that I would be glad if he would see me and explain to me his viewpoint in reference to his refusal to meet the men and to allow the question to be settled by arbitration. It seemed to me such an impossible attitude for anyone to take in 1911. I wrote a very courteous letter to your Lord Mayor, and he

He is utterly and absolutely out of touch with all the methods which are making for industrial peace. I say here frankly that our king in England or prime minister or any large employer of labor would have met his men and settled the question by arbitration. Your men told me that the whole of this dispute could have been settled in forty-eight hours. Your mayor, to my mind, has taken the line of a dictator in a country where I expected to find greater democracy and larger freedom that we have in our old aristocratic England. I see in your papers that the mayor has settled the strike and that he has won. I submit he has not won. He has lost. He has lost all that good feeling and finer friendship and willingness to work on the part of the men which are so essential in all good management. The fact that your men were municipal employes makes it all the worse that the mayor would not see them. I may add that the London Council has a standing rule that any of the employes representing any of their departments may always approach the chairman of any of those departments and lay their grievances before him. This applies to West Ham district, where I myself was the deputy mayor, and I believe that the same applies to the whole of Manchester and Birmingham. The postal system under the present Liberal government in England has also a standing board to which the postmen can apply to state any grievance.

Your mayor has sown a bitter feeling. He has sown the seed of a strike for 1912 which unless prevented will paralyze New York. By his attitude to the street cleaners he has driven together and fused the industrial organizations of New York as he perhaps scarcely realizes. I have been moving about amongst your men and I know,

without any exaggeration, what will happen unless better feeling can be induced.

I am no strike leader. I think the strike is an old-fashioned weapon, something to be hung up in the museum to show how we settled labor disputes long ago; but my fifteen years of honorary and unpaid work amongst the dock workers and river-side toilers of East London have taught me that there is a better method than the strike and industrial war, and that that method is the principle of co-partnership profit-sharing amongst your men, and representation of the men on the board of directors in every work and industry. Such a movement will always make for peace. This idea of co-partnership and profit-sharing with the men is not a dream. It has arrived. In England we have numbers of great organizations and industries where the men have some direct share of profit and interest in the work as well as their wages, where the men elect one or more of their representatives to sit on the governing board. It is the finest safety-valve both for master and for men. Wherever this has taken place there is never any strike nor labor dispute; the finest and the best feeling prevails. It was in reference to such work as this that I have seen existing and have been carrying on year after year in England that I called to see your mayor. I am convinced that it is not only commercially and economically sound but also altruistically right. I want to see the churches and all those organizations which are making for a finer feeling and a closer partnership with all classes in this great city take their share in formulating this public opinion towards some such principle as I have outlined. I am convinced from my close knowledge of and personal touch with the great labor organizations of London, and my contact with your labor organizations here during my short stay, that unless the employers, whether they be individual men, companies, or municipalities, recognize the right of the man who is working for them to a fairer share in the wealth he is producing, to a better and more humane treatment, and to recognition as one of the individuals working in the concern—that unless

kept me waiting for nearly four hours in a passage outside his room and I then had to go away without seeing him. He wrote me an official letter the next morning saying that he could not see me. I can assure your mayor that if he were to come to London neither the deputy mayor nor the Lord Mayor of London would keep him waiting for four hours without seeing him. It seems to me at the least to be very discourteous and impolite on the part of the mayor of a great city like New York. I have found greater courtesy in the citizens than in their mayor.

this spirit is developed and brought about—there will be the greatest industrial war which New York has seen for a long while. And with your dangerous cosmopolitan element which we do not have in London, I gravely doubt that you will have, as we had in London, 200,000 men standing good-temperedly and chaffing and chatting with the police, without riot or trouble.

EDITORIAL GRIST

THE CITY DISTRICT IN CHARITY WORK¹

MARY WILLCOX GLENN

Each speaker at the annual meeting of the New York Charity Organization Society approached its topic, the District—Its Significance in the Social Field, from the point of view of the family itself and then brought, by a co-ordinated treatment of his subject, the following facts into bold relief:

First, the fundamental importance of dividing a city into manageable parts, so that the social worker may get close to his problem and may see it with the eyes of him who belongs, not by choice, but by force of circumstance, within an area of mean opportunities. More than one of the speakers emphasized how the Charity Organization Society and other charitable agencies, as well as the churches and the settlements, are feeling the impulsion of the command, to paraphrase a great prophet, "I must sit where they sit."

Second, the need of studying the complexities of city life in relation to socially isolated groups of people, of considering what the city withholds from these groups that it offers to other citizens who are closer to centers of influence, and of recognizing what latent forces may be

¹The District—Its Significance in the Social Field, was the subject of the annual public meeting last week of the New York Charity Organization Society—a phase of its work which is being given especial emphasis at this time, and to the prosecution of which Mrs. Glenn is contributing much constructive thought and energy as chairman of a committee of the Central Council. The speakers were: Judge Julian W. Mack, of Washington, D. C.; the Rev. William J. Kerby, D.D., of Washington, D. C.; Pauline Goldmark, Frank J. Bruno, Mrs. Glenn, and Robert W. de Forest, of New York.

brought into effective play to aid them to secure a fairer share of municipal services.

Third, passing on from an intensive study of a particular locality, the value of acting so that the family which emerges from the great body of families within a district to ask for charitable assistance be secure in its right to receive individual consideration. Each claimant must be the subject of careful study, each must benefit by definite treatment following close on the heels of inquiry, each must feel the result of the establishment of genuine relationships between the various agencies at work within the field. Special emphasis was laid on the importance of conserving the fine springs of charitable emotion so that, in making the delicate adjustment between the service of the tutored and the untutored, there may be no loss of true helpfulness.

Fourth, the sharp defining of the value of the service of neighbor for neighbor. One who by birth as well as by election is the neighbor works from a point of vantage in trying to remove a fellow's handicap and in evoking or restoring his sense of true citizenship. What the St. Vincent de Paul Society is contributing in calling into play this form of district service was clearly described.

Fifth, the duty that lies upon those who have learned the richness of the opportunity for personal service to arouse to effective expression the dumb desire to serve of the many who live outside the poorer districts. Many await the definite call to take up the individual problems of those who are staggering under the burdens of life. The district forces must be prepared to make the call definite, must study how to vary the method of approach to family life, must see to it that they offer a kind of work which shall serve to discipline, to enlighten, and to unify. The readiness to be enlisted was shown to be due not only to a consciousness of the need of increasing the sum of civic righteousness, but to the underlying spiritual purpose of preparing for a citizenship which is not of this world. It was further emphasized that the call for service must be made not in behalf of an agency or of a society, but

in behalf of the common cause, and that to enlist is to recognize this service—to use William James' phrase—as “the moral equivalent of war.” The purpose of the district effort was shown to be to increase within any selected area the number of those who are socially minded.

Faith in the power of the individual to rise, faith in the service which fellow can render to fellow, faith in the contribution which forces secular and religious can make in the regeneration of even the most meanly endowed sections of our city, may be claimed to have characterized this meeting and to have made its peculiar significance. Its significance also lies in the quickening recognition of the fact that we are entering upon a period when gathered emphasis is to be laid on the need of a psychological approach to the family problem. In making the psychological approach results of social gain are to be measured ultimately by the service rendered not to the bodies but to the souls of men.

CONSTRUCTIVE RELIEF

FREDERIC ALMY

Secretary Buffalo Charity Organization Society

Relief was formerly destructive, killing character. It is now constructive, and builds character. Money can be made quite as spiritual in its effects as the alms of good advice. Constructive relief is one of the new slogans of charity. It needs, and it will get, more money and more endowments than were given even to the wealthy old relief societies.

As Jane Addams said at St. Louis in 1910, in her presidential address before the National Conference of Charities and Correction: “The negative policy of relieving distress, or even the more generous one of preventing it, is giving way to the positive idea of raising life to its highest value.” The old relief was lavish, but negative in its results. The protest of organized charity was at first extreme in its insistence that we should prevent pauperism by denying alms. Organized charity today seeks to lift life to its highest levels.

Mere relief was laxative, and dangerous to character. No relief was tonic,

but equally dangerous to character. Constructive relief considers character first. Its emphasis is spiritual though it makes use of material agencies.

Dr. Devine said ten years ago, and still says: “Our resources for relief are woefully inadequate. Our use of relief has been most sparing and timid. I am inclined to believe that we have caused more pauperism by our failure to provide for the necessities of life, for the education and training of children, and for the care and convalescence of the sick, than we have by excessive relief, even if we include indiscriminate alms.”

Neglect is the great pauperizer, not relief, but the old bogey dies hard. Adequate relief pauperizes less than inadequate. If you sprinkle plants, the roots turn upward, but watering them makes the roots strike down deep. As Mr. de Forest says: “Inadequate relief is torture and temptation.”

Modern charity is the most liberal, the most tender, and the most effective charity the world has ever known. It used to be called as easy to get blood from a stone as to get money from organized charity, but this was prejudice and misconception. The commandment of modern charity never was “Thou shalt not give,” but “Thou shalt give thyself.”

Mere relief, without more, seldom relieves, and seldom raises standards of living. It must be relief plus a plan, relief plus a friend, for the gift is indeed bare without the giver. I would rather trust poverty to the tender mercies of a friend without relief than to relief without a friend; just as I would rather trust a good doctor without drugs than drugs without a good doctor. Relief is dangerous, like the drugs which ease pain and create appetite. Since relief is dangerous it must be handled by people who are competent for danger. Fire is dangerous, but if the fires of the world do not burn the wheels will not turn. Nevertheless, children must not play with fire, and the day is near when social workers like doctors will have to pass an examination before they are allowed to practice upon the lives of the poor.

Pre-collected relief, or a large relief fund which it is easy to dip into, is

especially dangerous, and leads to lazy work in developing the natural resources of families in need. So far as possible, relief should be hand-picked for each family. I dislike even pre-collected work, and believe in individual jobs for unemployed men instead of a work-room or wood-yard.

Good charity is expensive, as Homer Folks says, and poor charity is worse than none. No competent society will employ incompetent people to help the incompetent poor. It takes ability to mend broken lives; and the wasteful crudities of unsalaried relief are like pouring water through a sieve. An unsalaried society will always lack funds for relief. Those who give doles to many have never enough for any. We want quality of relief, not quantity. "Those do not give best who give most, but those give most who give best."

How shall we get the money for adequate relief, and for the adequate salaries which must precede it if it is to be a blessing and not a curse to the poor? How shall we get the vast sums which modern charity calls for to support the widowed and tuberculous families, and to administer this relief wisely? Such relief is very costly, and it is an important question whether the money can be found for it by private charity.

I believe myself that a society which has not the energy to find adequate relief will not have the wisdom to use it; but timidity in emphasizing relief has caused inadequate relief in many cities. I think that adequate relief is a neglected asset for obtaining the money necessary for adequate treatment. Much inadequate relief comes because the money is not in sight, and the money is not in sight because of inadequate relief. Why not warm the cockles of the public heart, which finds us cold? The question is, can we get the money that goes to a relief society for the work of a charity organization society? I think we can, but most charity organization societies have been content with the support that goes to a society for organizing charity. They have wanted to give relief, but they have "let I dare not wait upon I would, like the poor cat in the adage."

THE TREND OF THINGS

With the organization last June of the *Civic Press*, the *American City* has changed hands and the fall numbers are showing the new lines of emphasis which may be expected under the present management. The editor is Harold S. Buttenheim, who has been for more than fifteen years identified with trade journalism, resigning the position of second vice-president of the David Williams Company, publishers of the *Iron Age*. As a commuter in Madison, New Jersey, Mr. Buttenheim organized a local civic association four years ago and has been in touch with various lines of municipal affairs. Edgar J. Buttenheim, his brother, formerly circulation manager of the Williams publications, is the business head of the new venture. The field which the new management have set out to occupy is midway between that of civic reform pamphleteering and the more technical municipal trade journals such as the *Municipal Journal* and *Municipal Engineering*. The November issue contains Gov. Woodrow Wilson's address at the Social Center Conference in Wisconsin, an article on the new commission government charter of Spokane, and a third on street lighting, to illustrate three phases of the field before the *American City*.

* * *

True to the promise made last February when the *Yale Review* suspended publication on the ground that its field was the same as that which was to be covered by the *American Economic Review*, established at that time by the American Economic Association, the older review has reappeared this fall in a new aspect. The *Yale Review* (new series) starts in October as a quarterly devoted to literature, science, history, and public affairs. Among the articles in the first issue are Infantile Paralysis, by Simon Flexner, A Living Rate for the Railroads, by Morrell W. Gaines, and War, by the late William Graham Sumner.

* * *

The Class-consciousness of the Eleventh Edition of the *Encyclopedia Britannica*—this is the novel contribution to social criticism promised as a feature of the *Twentieth Century Magazine* under its new editorship, that of Charles R. Zeublin. It will be written by Professor Zeublin, Martin Schutze, and L. T. Johnson. The *Twentieth Century Magazine* has other important announcements to make, for with its November issue it changes its cover and its editor. B. O. Flower retires to pursue independent literary work, though he remains on the board of management and becomes a contributor. The new editor is widely known as lecturer and writer on social and economic subjects. The November issue contains among others articles by William Butler Yeats, Florence Kelley, B. O. Flower, and Charles Edward Russell. Many of the departments of the magazine do not appear this month. "Towards Democracy" contains "news editorials" on matters of social interest.

SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

GOOD WILL AMONG MEN: PEACE AMONG NATIONS:

The danger of war has outlived intense racial antagonisms and traditional national enmities and has now become a sort of background for commercial competition, a dark shadow cast before industrial conquests. France has still her old grievance, but there would have been no danger of war over Morocco if French and German business interests had not been engaged in fierce rivalry for the privilege of exploiting certain natural resources in that territory. Italy would not be before the bar of the world's good opinion, charged with atrocious barbarity by her soldiers, if she had had no motive for the conquest of Tripoli other than instinctive hostility to the Turk. England would not be seeking a tardy absolution after half a century for the crime of forcing opium on the Chinese, by giving grudging acquiescence in the limitation of the Indian importation to match the decline in the home cultivation of the poppy, if the desire for profit had not been a stronger motive for war than any natural antagonism of the white man for the yellow. There would have been little occasion for the mobilization of an American army on the Mexican frontier if there had not been American investments in Mexican mines and railways.

We do not seek to contrast the economic motive with racial and strictly political motives to its disadvantage. War and diplomacy which have for their end the advancement of trade, the opening of markets, the establishment of colonies, the securing of an outlet for surplus population, and the protection of foreign investments may be quite as glorious as war and diplomatic pressure inspired by race hatreds or by the desire to propagate particular faiths and institutions. Moreover the commercial element no doubt entered largely into the wars of ancient and mediæval times.

If, however, we are sincerely to pray for the coming of international peace, if we are to exhibit, by our works, our faith in the message of Bethlehem of which we celebrate this month the anniversary as our most sacred festival—the message that there is to be peace on earth, good will towards men—we must look to the exciting causes which threaten that peace where those causes are to be found, and we must take precautionary measures that have some genuine relation to the danger. Now commercial disputes are certainly especially adapted to the method of judicial procedure and, in the international field, to arbitration. Even in domestic trade we are not hesitating to deprive strong and unscrupulous traders of the advantages which are inherent in secrecy and monopoly. In a strictly analogous way we are ready to demand the open door and equal privileges in the markets of the world, subject only to such domestic regulations as each nation may think it expedient to make for the development of its own industries and the protection of its industrial workers.

Few of the issues which have disturbed the peace of the world in our generation should ever have arisen; and most of them, having arisen, should have gone promptly to a competent international court with real jurisdiction and

with an international police force adequate to enforce its decrees. This Christmas season is notable because it finds our own great nation calmly deliberating over the precise form of arbitration treaties which would go far to produce this result in the case of any future controversies with the three most powerful nations of Europe. It is well that we should deliberate. The senate, which is soon to become a more democratic body by the popular election of its members, does well to safeguard its constitutional prerogatives. Admiral Mahan does good service in pointing out that diplomacy, with the force which rests upon national efficiency in the background, rather than war alone is to be regarded as the real alternative to universal arbitration, and we shall long have need to rely upon diplomacy and national efficiency as an essential, perhaps an ultimate resource in determining our national destiny. But international arbitration treaties are not so much an alternative as a very natural expression of these ultimate elements in our destiny. We calmly set up international tribunals, not because we are afraid to fight, but because we are strong enough not to fight: We choose to settle disputes by arbitration rather than by the sword because we prefer the kind of justice which arbitration will give us, whether on specific issues we win our case or lose it.

When full recognition has been given to the importance of diplomacy, whether seeking national defense or seeking more aggressively a place in the sun, when the details of the relative responsibilities of president and senate have been settled, when all other issues honestly raised in the deliberation have been fully weighed, it is inconceivable that the treaties should fail. The plain people of the nation who must fight when there is war, who pay taxes when there are war burdens to be met, who suffer when industry is paralyzed, and who share in the blessings of a stable peace and prosperity, have the paramount stake in the outcome of the pending negotiations. The release of a substantial part of the huge sums now absorbed, even in this country, by the cost of the army and navy, interest on the national debt, and pensions, would materially advance the movements for good roads, for the support of elementary schools, especially to help the southern states carry the unfair and grievously heavy burden of Negro illiteracy, for the protection of the public health against interstate infections, for developing more rapidly the postal savings banks and inaugurating at once a national system of parcels post, and for carrying out the policy embodied in the children's bureau bill on which the senate has already once acted favorably. Such expenditures as these are literally investments in health, intelligence, efficiency, and prosperity, just as war pensions and war debts are wholly unproductive and wasteful expenditures which no generation has a right to entail upon posterity for any light and transient cause, and which the arbitration treaties and the spirit of international good will which they reflect tend to prevent.

If it is wise national policy and ultimate national efficiency by which we are to be guided let us favor the treaties.

THE SURVEY

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY





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THE COMMON WELFARE

THE CARNEGIE PEACE PLANS

When on December 14 next the trustees of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace hold their first annual meeting since accepting the custody of Andrew Carnegie's gift of \$10,000,000, the Executive Committee will be able to report substantial progress not only in the further organization of the endowment, but in outlining the methods and the machinery by which the projects outlined in the proposed charter now pending in Congress, will be undertaken.¹

The endowment has divided its work into three departments of which Dr. S. N. D. North, statistician and editor for the endowment, writes as follows:

The first, to be known as the Division of International Law, will concern itself "to aid in the development of international law and a general agreement on the rules thereof and the acceptance of the same among nations; to establish a better understanding of international rights and duties, and a more perfect sense of international justice." Dr. James Brown Scott, the secretary, has been appointed director of the first division. His long training as a professor in American universities; his experience in the State Department, where he was the solicitor during the greater part of Senator Root's term as secretary; his series of treatises on

¹Headquarters have been established at No. 2 Jackson Place, Washington, directly opposite the White House and the State Department, in the building formerly occupied by the Pan-American Union. A small clerical force is at work here, under the direction of Secretary Scott, who is the administrative head of the endowment, as the direct representative of the trustees.

various phases of international law; and his services at the Second Hague Conference as the technical delegate of the United States Government all equip him for it. This division of the movement is recognized by the close students of the subject as the field in which constructive work promises to be most effective, in further developing those principles of international law upon which nations can be brought into agreement; in working out the principles of arbitration in such a way that they may be ultimately substituted for arbitration treaties between individual nations; and in establishing an international court which shall be a real and permanent court, and not merely a panel of judges out of which a temporary court may be drawn, as is the case with the present Hague Tribunal.

The second division of the endowment has been designated the Division of Economics and History, and John Bates Clark, professor of political economy at Columbia University, has been appointed director. Its work, as described in the charter, will be "to promote a thorough and scientific investigation and study of the causes of war and of

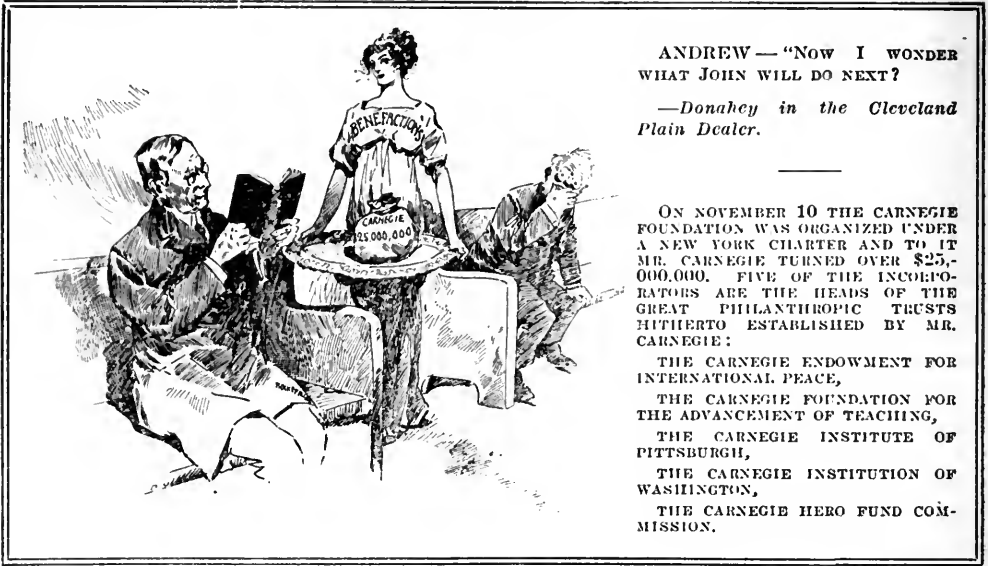
the practical methods to prevent and avoid it."

Dr. Clark has given close study to the economic causes and economic effects of war, as shown by his numerous addresses on these subject at Mohonk Conferences and elsewhere. The second division, like the first, will expend its energies in scientific research. Vast as the literature of peace has become, no such fundamental investigation of the underlying conditions precedent to and following upon the phenomenon of war, by the technical methods of the economist, has ever been made. It is a work too great and too far reaching to be undertaken as a purely private enterprise. The Carnegie endowment affords the means, for which the world has been waiting, whereby such a study, reaching out into all countries and including all modern wars, can be prosecuted



ANDREW — "NOW I WONDER
WHAT JOHN WILL DO NEXT?"

—Donahy in the Cleveland
Plain Dealer.



ON NOVEMBER 10 THE CARNEGIE FOUNDATION WAS ORGANIZED UNDER A NEW YORK CHARTER AND TO IT MR. CARNEGIE TURNED OVER \$25,000,000. FIVE OF THE INCORPORATORS ARE THE HEADS OF THE GREAT PHILANTHROPIC TRUSTS HITHERTO ESTABLISHED BY MR. CARNEGIE:

THE CARNEGIE ENDOWMENT FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE,

THE CARNEGIE FOUNDATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF TEACHING,

THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTE OF PITTSBURGH,

THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTION OF WASHINGTON,

THE CARNEGIE HERO FUND COMMISSION.

in a manner so thorough, under direction so eminent, that its results must make their impress upon governments, and tend to hasten the day when international peace will be accepted as a necessary postulate of civilization.

The third division has been designated the Division of Intercourse and Education, and pending the selection of a permanent chief, Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, president of Columbia University, has consented to organize it as temporary director, with an office in New York city. This branch of the work of the endowment is practically a work of propaganda. For years Dr. Butler has been recognized as one of the closest students and most earnest advocates of the movement which the endowment is intended to promote, to harmonize, and to accelerate. He not only possesses the confidence of all Americans interested in this movement, but has a wide and intimate acquaintance with its leading exponents in the principal European countries. The specific purposes for which the third division has been created are defined in the proposed charter as follows:

"To cultivate friendly feelings between the inhabitants of different countries; to increase the knowledge and understanding of each other by the several nations; to promote a general acceptance of peaceable methods in the settlement of international disputes and to maintain, promote, and assist such establishments, organizations, associations, and agencies as shall be deemed necessary or useful in the accomplishment of the purpose of the endowment or any of them."

TO GET DOWN TO BED ROCK OF WAR

Professor Clark was in Europe at the time of his appointment as director of the second division, and it was fortunately possible for President Root and Secretary Scott to arrange for a conference, which took place under Dr.

Clark's supervision in Bern, Switzerland, in August last. To this conference were invited some twenty economists and publicists, representing seven European nations, Japan, and the United States. Nearly all attended, and in a series of meetings extending over ten days a program of studies was agreed to. These researches are to be entered upon under the immediate supervision of the participants in the conference, who divided up the work in accordance with their personal preferences and studies.

Two things are pointed out about this method of procedure. First, it demonstrates the international basis upon which all the work of the Carnegie endowment is planned; while the endowment itself is an American institution, in the sense that it was founded here, is administered here, and has a local *habitat*, it is nevertheless in the view of trustees and founder a world-wide institution, in the sense that it seeks the co-operation and co-laboration, on an equal basis, of the trained minds and the leading experts of every country. Second, while the members of the Bern conference were selected without reference to their personal views on disarmament, arbitration, and the whole subject of the possibility and desirability of the abolition of international war, and while they, as a matter of fact, held divergent and conflicting views on these subjects, they were nevertheless unanimous as to the form of the investigation.

CHRISTMAS SALE OF RED CROSS SEALS

If five Red Cross seals will cure one case of tuberculosis, how many cases will 50,000 seals cure? A haggard-looking woman, speaking a strong Irish brogue, walked into a west-side drug store in St. Louis the other day and asked for a bottle of Dr. Quack's Consumption Cure. While the clerk was wrapping the package, she conversed volubly of Mike, her husband, who was sick with consumption. She said one of her neighbors, Mrs. Casey, had told her that the bottle of medicine she held in her hands would surely restore Mike to health. So she had saved fifty cents from the scant earnings she won over the washtub in order that her husband might have a chance. As she turned to go away, her eye was attracted by a sign upon which was this legend in big red letters: *Buy Red Cross Christmas Seals, and Help Cure Consumption. A penny for a Seal.*

From the few cents in the palm of her hand, the woman drew out a nickel and holding it to the clerk, said, "Oi'll take five of them. Sure, with this bottle of medicine, and thim things stuck on Mike, he'll be well in a wake."

—The story is one of those brought out by the Red Cross in provoking interest in its Christmas seals. Although the actual selling season did not begin until December 1, the national agents had earlier been compelled to increase their original order of 50,000,000 seals to 75,000,000, with the prospect of a further increase later, possibly to 100,000,000. Not all of these seals will be sold, of course, but present indications are said to point to a sale of 20,000,000 in excess of that in 1910, or over 50,000,000.

Almost every known method of advertising the seals is used this year. The newspapers and magazines carry large display advertisements, all of

which have been donated to the campaign. The billboards also show generous donations of space, and all of the large street railway advertising syndicates from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from the Gulf to the Canadian border have donated free space in their cars. The motion picture theaters are again helping along this line, by displaying a new film dealing with tuberculosis, entitled "The Awakening of John Bond", and by showing colored lantern slides of the seal itself. Circulars, letters, dodgers, window cards, and even badges and buttons are used to remind the public to "Buy Red Cross Seals and Help Prevent Tuberculosis."

The sales organizations in all parts of the country have been organized with

greater care than ever before, and with the exception of a few sparsely settled localities, Red Cross seals will literally be "On Sale Everywhere." From the sales manager, using every known method to promote the sale, down to the hustling school boy striving to win a button for selling 100 seals, 500 anti-tuberculosis agencies are en-

gaged in the work; and this story, reported by one of them, shows how nearly the bright red bits of paper and the Christmas spirit they stand for have to do with the sober responsibility which this organization meets in its everyday work, and to whose treasuries these Red Cross seals bring reinforcement:

A man walked up to a Red Cross Christmas Seal booth in San Francisco, and after fumbling around till he found a dollar in his pocket asked for a hundred seals. He seemed to want to say something, and; the chance being given, he told how these greetings were to be put on some letters, cards, and little packages his wife was to send out this Christmas.

"She told me to be sure to get them," he said, "and so I came here before going to the shop, for it's the last Christmas she'll have a chance to remember those she loves. The doctor says she may hold out till after New Year's, but her cough's so bad now I don't much think she will."

Then he turned quickly and hurried away.



**THE SPIRIT OF YOUTH
AND — KANSAS CITY**

Kansas City's Child Welfare exhibit, which was held in Convention Hall, November 3-11, was similar in the main to those of New York and Chicago but had some characteristics of its own. With one or two notable exceptions, the average visitor passed through the departments of the pioneer New York exhibit

thing to be noted about the exhibit; but it was coupled with western optimism and the graphic interpretation, also, of the positive forces for child welfare in the community. The second point was that it was given under municipal auspices, those of the Board of Public Welfare,¹ which has charge of various activities for social betterment and is itself, perhaps, Kansas City's most unique-con-

1. WAGES OF GIRLS

'The Living Wage'
After three have yielded it
Kotson, it's a week or less in, it's a week or less
Illustrations of 100 women, factory workers
What shall be our standard?

In Kansas City
Two are under \$40, 10 are under \$45 together
573 Girls
Average for the country, 40 cents which
don't take into account fines, etc.
50 of these receive \$40 a week or less
123 (girls) = \$50
284 (girls) = \$60

Four factories employ together
574 Girls
50 of these receive less than \$40 a week
150 (girls) receive \$45 or less
200 (girls) = \$50
342 (girls) = \$60

By Minneapolis Standard
Less than 10 of these receive a living wage
By the Boston Standard
Less than 10 receive a living wage
Who makes up the deficit?

Board of Public Welfare

2. ROOM RENTS

Half of our wage-earning girls get
\$60 a week or less
Note the proportion they must spend for rent

**Pictures
Can
Not
Show
Bad
Air
and
Dirt.**

**Could
You
Afford
one
of
These
Rooms
on
\$60
a
week?**

Board of Public Welfare

3. COST OF FOOD

\$1.30
The least that will buy a
week's wholesome food

What does the girl with \$60 do?

Light Housekeeping
Just another item of
economy in the expense of health
200 worth of groceries may
last a week, and so will
some girls spend.

Cheap Restaurants
Furnish it so called and 50 cents
three of these meals
a day cost \$2.50 a week.
Look at the Samples!

The Girl of Today is
"The Mother of Tomorrow."

Can Society afford
such a sacrifice of health?
Board of Public Welfare

The Kansas City Child Welfare Exhibit was characterized by Mrs. Florence Kelley, secretary of the National Consumers League, as the "most ruthlessly truthful exhibit in my experience." "That a municipal board," said Mrs. Kelley, "should assume, over its signature, the responsibility for these statements, is almost unheard of."

with a feeling of how much was being done for the children and how excellent it was. The managers of the Chicago undertaking put a nib to each branch of their show that enabled the public to read almost in words of one syllable not only what Chicago was doing for children, but what needed to be done: how the city sized up with other cities and with the future. The Kansas City exhibit, in its addresses and displays, even more engagingly "got down to tacks," and saw to it, metaphorically speaking, that every one who came along felt the prick of them—of those things which in the community life meant neglect, exploitation, and waste. That is, perhaps, the first

tribution to civic advance. The exhibit was made possible, however, by private generosity, that of William Volker, former president of the board. The fact that the city itself was back of the enterprise was not an inconsiderable factor in the impression which it made on the imagination and common purposes of the people. "The effect in arousing popular interest" writes a correspondent, "will be felt for years to come."

In the third place this exhibit did not adhere quite so strictly to the subject of child welfare as the former ex-

¹The members of this board are: C. D. Mill, Jacob Billkopf, John T. Harding, Alexander Massey, and L. S. Mohr. L. A. Halbert is general superintendent.

hibits, for some of the things included affected only more or less indirectly the well-being of children; the term "child" was interpreted as applying to any minor. In fact, the most striking part of the entire exhibit, was that which dealt with working girls. It displayed the wages in stores and factories separately and gave photographs of rooms, an actual sample of a cheap lunch in a show-case, and an

conditions in Kansas City. Kansas City is not so large but that some of the photographs were recognized and the lessons that they carried were personal and striking, although they caused no open opposition. In the recreation section was set forth the fact that over five million dollars are spent in a year for the various forms of commercial recreation, including fifty dance halls, twelve theaters,

5. THE DANGER

15¢ (5¢) Showed less than 30¢ per week 30¢ (25¢) Showed less than 30¢ per week

Wages on which 300 Girls Tried to Live. Now they are Prostitutes.

Only 70 out of 300 Boarded as much as \$30 per week. Only 20 Boarded as much as \$100 per week.

Where Does the Lodging House girl Entertain Her Customers?

All Lodging Houses of our City Lodging House Districts Only 111 (27%) Have Barbers.


Of 300 White Girls now Prostitutes 115 (38%) are the lid of Shame while living in Boarding or Lodging Houses. Who is to Blame?

Figures from Investigation of "Carnal and Lewd" Board of Public Welfare

6. REMEDIES

What are we doing for Our Young Homeless Girls?

The Girls' Hotel takes care of 70



The Girls' Club takes care of 30.

Cooperative Boarding Clubs is a great thing to do for the landlady? 40 girls working together can receive nutritious food & clean comfortable rooms with original appointments for \$50 per week if someone will furnish the initial cost of equipment. Chicago has such Clubs and one is being organized here

But Hundreds of girls cannot afford even \$30. Should girls working cities a week be mal-nourished on charity? Girls must have a Living Wage How?

Minimum Wage Law—England has adopted this country in certain underpaid industries. Massachusetts and Wisconsin are considering such a law. What are we going to do?

7. A LIVING WAGE

A Girl Must Pay

\$6.00 for room and board, etc.
\$1.50 for clothing
.50 for incidentals
\$8.00 Total expense per week

But She Must Save for Times of Sickness and Unemployment

Is \$100 too much?

\$9.00 per Week IS A LIVING WAGE IN KANSAS CITY.

One important ordinance—to provide for factory inspectors—passed the city council immediately after the exhibit, several councilmen confessing that they "couldn't oppose it any longer." The proposal of the Board of Public Welfare of a minimum wage law as a solution of the economic distress of working women was set forth in big red letters.

exhibit of shoddy clothing. Statistics were marshalled to show that more than one-half of the girls receive \$6 per week or less and that the necessities of life cannot be readily obtained by a self-supporting girl for less than \$8 per week. \$9 was set down as a living wage for Kansas City to stand for.

WHAT FUN COSTS A CITY WHEN IT'S JUST FOR SALE

This was one of several exhibits which set forth the results of various social investigations which have been carried on during the past year by the Board of Public Welfare. In the homes section were six screens portraying bad housing

seventy motion-picture shows, 200 pool halls, and one river excursion boat. The relative importance of these forms of recreation may be appreciated when it is known that the amount spent upon them is not only a great deal larger than the cost of parks and playgrounds, but is larger than the entire amount spent for the current expenses of the Board of Police Commissioners, the Health Board, the Board of Public Welfare, and all other city departments exclusive of the Board of Education, and is two and one-half times the amount spent for the city's entire public school system. It was estimated that 25 per cent of these commercial recreations are bad, and a suggestion

printed in large letters was: "Eliminate the bad by supervision." Then a striking diagram showed what proportion of these recreations are now under careful supervision. Only the dancehalls are supervised. After the diagram came the statement: "All commercial recreation should be supervised by the city." This fact bore on an ordinance, pending in the city council, placing the censorship of motion picture films under the Board of Public Welfare.

Marked interest was attracted, also, by the sections on child labor, trade schools, industrial accidents, and factory inspection. The Playgrounds Association put on a splendid pageant, portraying the history of the town, in which children acted the parts of Indians, scouts, fur traders, missionaries, business organizers, etc. The public school children from the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades of the entire city, arranged by districts, gave the afternoon entertainments—drills, choruses made up of a thousand children's voices, and athletic dances which were fascinating to vast audiences. The Park Board had a model playground set up in the lobby and furnished three play festivals in which a folk dance by the Italian young people was the most striking feature.

SANITARY SURVEY OF ALABAMA MINING CAMPS

The Alabama Coal Operators' Association during the last two years has, through its organization and through the individual efforts of its members, given considerable attention to the subject of accident prevention both on the surface and underground. This work has been supplemented by the organization and training of a number of first aid corps.

At the annual meeting of the association last August the subject of tuberculosis was given special consideration, particularly those features relating to its prevention and cure in its early stages. In expanding this general policy the association has just engaged Morris Knowles, consulting engineer, of Pittsburgh, who is now actively at work in making a social and sanitary survey of the coal mining camps represented in the organization. The work as outlined is comprehensive, embracing housing conditions, the more strictly fundamental sanitary features, including drinking water supply, closets, sewage and garbage disposal, etc.

The problems of education and recreation will also be given consideration. In announcing the plan the Coal Operators' Association states:

As a result of concerted effort along these lines, it is hoped that living conditions throughout the state will be such as to entitle Alabama to first rank in matters of this character.

This is perhaps the first instance in which the operators of any important district have undertaken such a concerted and scientific study of

camp life. Mr. Knowles was the municipal engineer who was in charge of the building of the great Pittsburgh filtration plant, is chairman of the Commission on Sanitation of the Pittsburgh Civic Commission, and is otherwise equipped for this notable undertaking among the southern mines. He contributed an article on Sanitation in the South to the *Manufacturers' Record* last year, and has more recently prepared a report on the sanitary needs of the Birmingham district for the January number of *THE SURVEY*. Maurice R. Scharff will be his resident assistant.



EDITORIAL GRIST

A MATCH WORKER

JOHN B. ANDREWS

John Werner came to America from Germany and from August 1907 until December 1908 he worked in an Ohio match factory. In Germany, as in practically all civilized countries except the United States, the government does not permit the use of poisonous phosphorus in the manufacture of matches. It has long been known that where this deadly poison is used a terrible disease called "phossy jaw" afflicts the workers. The government of the United States and of the several states, however, still permits the use of the poison, for which there are harmless substitutes. The poison is a little cheaper.

But John Werner came to the United States for citizenship. After working one year and four months in an American match factory he contracted "phossy jaw." His teeth dropped out; his jaw bones decayed. He suffered excruciating agony. In spite of two surgical operations in April, 1909, he is condemned to a miserable existence on liquid foods. Still able to drag himself about, he is not strong enough to work.

John's wife took in washing until crippled with rheumatism. Then, with the help of relatives in the old country, she and their one little girl returned to

Germany. John Werner, helpless and alone, then sued the match corporation, under the employers' liability law, for damages. The corporation through its attorneys denied "that it was guilty of carelessness, negligence, or improper conduct." John Werner did not get one penny.

Now, with his face in a bandage tied in a knot at the crown of his head, he drags himself up and down the streets of this match factory town, bearing the following petition:

I, JOHN WERNER, A NATIVE OF GERMANY, WHO CAME TO THIS COUNTRY FOR CITIZENSHIP, LABORING IN ONE OF ASHLAND'S MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS, CONTRACTED A DISEASE OF THE BONES OF THE FACE. I AM UNABLE TO WORK. HAVE NO MEANS. BY AID OF KINDRED IN THE FATHERLAND, WIFE AND CHILD HAVE GONE TO THE OLD COUNTRY, AND I ASK AID FROM THE PEOPLE OF ASHLAND TO GET MYSELF INTO PHYSICAL CONDITION TO MAKE THE TRIP AND EXPENSE OF THE TRIP TO JOIN THEM IN THE FATHERLAND.

During the past six months, while living alone in a shed near the railroad track, he has collected with this appeal nearly twenty dollars. The characteristic odor of this occupational disease forces everyone to shun him. He can eat no solid food. Physicians frankly state that his case is "hopeless."

The story of John Werner is merely typical. In spite of the most extraordinary sanitary precautions, match workers in our country still suffer and die with this loathsome disease, and there are many others to whom early death would have been welcome. Absolute prohibition of the poison is the only remedy.

"Phossy jaw" is an unnecessary disease! Congress by passing the Esch bill can stop the use of the deadly phosphorus. The Association for Labor Legislation appeals to all to urge its passage upon their representatives in Congress.

HORATIO ALGER, THEN AND NOW

WHEREIN IS SET FORTH THE STORY OF RIP VAN WINKLE IN TERMS OF TONY THE NEWSBOY

LEWIS E. PALMER

"Tony the Newsboy" was his name and Horatio A. Alger was his father. Last Saturday we figuratively coaxed Tony from between his frayed covers in



JOHN WERNER.

A typical case of phosphorus poisoning.
Photographed November, 1911.

a Sunday school library (of course he was sleeping in an ash barrel) and took him to the Boston School Committee. He was so pitifully forlorn, all shreds and grime and ashes, that we let him sit on the floor behind a blackboard where he could see but not be embarrassed. For though Tony is still a favorite when he stays where he belongs, in his book, we felt that he might not prove very popular among the fifty up-to-date news-merchants in the room. Picture him crouched down in the chalk dust behind the blackboard, watching and listening with mouth and eyes and patches agape.

Judge Harry Hornstein, "aged sixteen, sir," of the Boston Newsboys' Trial Court, was speaking: "I am not here to do any electioneering today, fellows. I have been serving on the Trial Court for a year now and my term of office is over. It's up to you fellows representing over fifty schools here in Boston to elect a new board today and we all want to see the best boys win out, no matter what their color or religion or school is. The court during the past year had tried to give every fellow a square deal, and although some of us don't know very much about jurisprudence we've been on the job for justice to all and I think you fellows will agree with me. It's poor business to sell before six o'clock in the morning, because a fellow that sells before that time don't get enough sleep at night and is dopey the next day in school. If you want to grow up to be a bum, the best way to start in is to sell late at night to the sports who ought to be home in bed. If you're on the job with your badge during the hours when you ought to be on the job, you won't run up against this court or any other court."

We thought we saw Tony slink back a little farther into the corner when Philip Davis, the supervisor of licensed minors, introduced the five candidates for the three positions in the Trial Court. A little Irish chap from South Boston, an aspirant for the bench, explained that he could make up in ability what he lacked in size. A colored boy from Dorchester modestly set forth his claims. A German from English High and a Jew from the High School of Commerce told just why they should be elected judges.

Then the balloting started. There was a rumor that the slate had been "fixed," but in reality the votes were split from the head of the ticket down. In Tony's day there weren't such things as news-boy republics, and so Tony was more aghast than ever when he saw that the balloting included a captain general and a general secretary as well as the three judges for the Trial Court. Each captain of newsboys from the fifty schools had a vote for each candidate, some of the delegations carrying over 200 votes from their respective districts and some swinging not more than twenty. The final count showed that the Trial Court for 1911-12 will consist of Michael Berman, Ab Resnick, and Henry Brown, a colored boy. The captain general will be James Biederman, and the general secretary Joseph Flax.

When the cheering was over we thought of Tony in his patched trousers and ragged shirt. But Tony had gone back to his ash barrel in the Alger book. Newsboy republics and newsboy courts had made him homesick.

The Boston Newsboys' Republic consists of all newsboys between the ages of eleven and fourteen licensed by the School Committee, as distinguished from the older boys licensed by the City Council. The republic has some citizens over fourteen who attend school and agree not to smoke, gamble, short change, or do anything whatever unbecoming a young citizen. It has been in existence for about four years and is a self-governing scheme applied to the needs of the trade. It is made up of 3,000 licensed newsboys, 100 additional captains and lieutenants elected annually by the boys according to school districts, a chief captain, a general secretary, and seven district captains.

The Newsboys' Trial Court, established about a year ago, is the republic's department of justice. The court consists of three newsboy judges elected from the ranks of the captains, a clerk, and two adult judges appointed by the School Committee. The court deals with all violations of license regulations and minor troubles which before had clogged the Juvenile Court. A year's trial has proved the newsboy's court a success.

RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION

I

LIFE AND RELIGION

GRAHAM TAYLOR

[THE SERIES OF ARTICLES ON RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION WHICH PROFESSOR TAYLOR BEGINS IN THIS NUMBER WAS SUGGESTED BY THOSE WHO THROUGH THE MEN AND RELIGION FORWARD MOVEMENT HOPE TO RECRUIT THE MEN IN ALL RELIGIOUS ORGANIZATIONS FOR PRACTICAL SOCIAL SERVICE IN THEIR RESPECTIVE COMMUNITIES.

THE BROADER PURPOSE OF THE SERIES, HOWEVER, IS TO INSPIRE AND INFORM LOCAL GROUPS OF PUBLIC-SPIRITED PEOPLE IN SERVING THEIR RESPECTIVE LOCALITIES IN THE MOST PRACTICAL WAYS.

BEGINNING WITH A SURVEY OF THE COMMON GROUND ON WHICH ALL MAY MEET TO CO-OPERATE, UNDER THE SANCTION OF BOTH RELIGIOUS AND PATRIOTIC MOTIVES, PROFESSOR TAYLOR WILL PROCEED TO EMPHASIZE THE INDIVIDUAL LIFE AS A SOCIAL PRODUCT, BOTH AS A FIELD FOR SOCIAL CULTIVATION AND AS A FORCE TO BE USED FOR COMMUNITY WELFARE. HE WILL THEN CONSIDER THE RELATIONSHIPS WHICH CONSTITUTE BOTH LIFE AND RELIGION, IN ARTICLES DEVOTED SUCCESSIVELY TO THE FAMILY, NEIGHBORSHIP, INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS AND RELATIONS, POLITICAL FUNCTIONS, AND THE AGENCIES OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

UNDER THIS LAST HEAD HE WILL SUGGEST LINES OF CO-OPERATION BETWEEN PRIVATE CITIZENS AND PUBLIC OFFICIALS, CIVIC AUTHORITIES AND VOLUNTARY AGENCIES, AND WILL GO INTO SUCH DETAILS AS THE CO-OPERATION OF LOCAL GROUPS WITH COUNTY COMMISSIONERS, CITY COUNCILS, THE HEADS OF MUNICIPAL DEPARTMENTS, SUPERINTENDENTS AND MANAGERS OF PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS, AND THE CO-OPERATION OF VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATIONS WITH EACH OTHER AND WITH THE CHURCH.

THE SERIES WILL CONCLUDE WITH AS CONCRETE DEMONSTRATION AS POSSIBLE OF THE PRACTICABILITY OF CO-OPERATIVE UNITY FOR ALL THE FORCES MAKING FOR RIGHTEOUSNESS, PUBLIC WELFARE, AND PROGRESS IN EVERY AMERICAN LOCAL COMMUNITY. THE INSTALMENTS WILL NOT LACK FOR GRAPHIC HUMAN INTEREST WINNOWN BY PROFESSOR TAYLOR'S BROAD FRATERNALISM, AND DRAWN FROM HIS EXPERIENCES AS MINISTER, SETTLEMENT WORKER, AND CITIZEN.—
THE EDITORS.]

LIFE IS RELATIONSHIP

Life and religion are alike. They were meant and made to be one and the same. A human life consists in largest part of its relations with other lives. There is no "self-made man." If any of us could be put in a chemist's retort, and by some strange alchemy everything were extracted from him that mother and father, brother and sister, playmate and schoolmate, teacher and work-fellow, wife and child, pastor and partner, author and speaker, the world's literature and the life of his own day and generation have put into him, who would dare to look at himself in the glass? Could any one recognize himself? Every one of us would be nothing less than a blasphemy of his former self. For each and all the capacities and powers which constitute selfhood and come closest to being himself, the individual is dependent upon and indebted to others. Every human life is a social product, produced by the co-operation of many other lives. Every one of us who is

honest must put down on the credit side of life's ledger all others who have invested any part of their lives in him, and, with Paul, write himself down, "I am debtor."

RELIGION IS RELATIONSHIP

Religion, like life, is relationship. No other word is so interchangeable with it. It is the ideal of what the relation of the one man should be to the one God and to every other man.

The religion both of Judaism and Christianity consists of their founders' ideal of the relation of man to God as Father and man to man as brother which is being progressively experienced by the individual and gradually fulfilled in the life of the community and the history of the race.

THE BIBLE A BOOK OF LIVES

The Bible is the story of the way in which these relationships were realized. Godward and manward, in the personal experiences of typical individuals and in

the history of selected family, national, and racial groups. It is the book of lives and therefore the Book of Life. It gives life through lives. It is biography and history, the life story of God and man. The book of Genesis is Abraham's life put to press between the times of Ur of the Chaldees and the eternity of the Lord God Almighty, whose friend he was, with whom he walked and talked. In Exodus we see the patriarchal households becoming the People of Israel, the "kingdom of priests," as Moses' life emerges from the age of the Pharaohs into Jehovah's leadership. In great succession the books of the Old Testament and the New bear the sign manual, if not the names, of the men and women through whose lives they were produced. They have the earth flavors of every land from which they sprung at the touch of life from God's skies upon the soil of man's earth.

LIVES ARE ITS LETTERS

Leaves of life—God's life in man—constitute the sacred literature. Human lives are the letters, the characters, the very types in which the Word is written. Men, women, and children; families and tribes; neighborhoods and fellowships; nations, peoples, and races live, move, and have their being in this Book of books, *par excellence* the Book of Life. In form and substance the Scriptures of both Testaments are biography and genealogy, history and experience, folk lore and personal epistles, songs and sighs of the soul and of peoples. These are the warp and woof of which the spirit weaves the pattern of the religious life upon the inspired word. David and the psalmists of Israel, and the singers of the Advent, wrought into music the divine psychology of the human soul. And in their songs they rise to the heights of man's aspiration and sink to the depths of his sin and despair. The seers are the interpreters of God to the people and of the people to themselves. Their prophecy is the interpretation of history. Their history is the spirit of prophecy. Their religion was statesmanship. And their statesmanship was

so true to their own times that it applies to all times.

The Gospels are memoirs of evangelists, memoranda of what they saw and heard of Jesus, and of what they told others about him. The first and greatest theologian of the Church was its first and greatest missionary. It was in the heat and by the power of his passion to win men's souls that Paul wrought the facts of his own experience with God and men into the formulated truth of the epistles, for the teaching of those whom he had evangelized. Thus faith is identified with life throughout the Scriptures. But none of its seers or singers emphasizes this fact more than St. John, whose name seals the document with which the volume of the sacred book is closed. He never reduces truth to an abstract faith. Faith to him is always believing, always the verb of action, always the doing of the truth. He declares "the life, the eternal life, . . . which we have beheld, and our hands handled." And the final glimpse which this last survivor of the apostles caught of Christianity triumphant was not in another world, but in this one; not of a Church, but of a "Holy City;" not of a mere multitude of saved souls, but of the "nations of them which are saved," organized into a saved human society, in which "the tabernacle of God is with men and he will dwell with them and they shall be his people and God himself shall be with them and be their God."

RELIGIOUS LIFE THE COMMON DENOMINATOR

Far more than belief, the religious life inspired by the old Testament and the New has been always and everywhere the same. The lives growing out of the doctrine, more than the forms of the doctrine out of which they grow, stand the historic test of catholicity, "*semper ubique*." Beliefs change, vary, shift their emphasis. But the godly life, like God himself, remains the same. It is the Messianic life that links the Old Testament to the New. It is Christian living which identifies contemporary experience with primitive Christianity. The common denominator of all the sects is the real

religious life being lived by their members.

TRUTH COMING TO THE BIRTH

Dr. Austin Phelps, the great professor at Andover Seminary, thus accounts for the Bible: "Divine communications to the world have always been made through the medium of real life. Living men live a great truth, and so truth comes to the birth. The Bible is almost wholly history and biography. Abstract knowledge is given in it only as interwoven with the wants and experiences of once living generations. God took out of the circle of universal history a single segment, and the result is a revelation. Men live under special divine superintendence and illumination, and the product is—a Bible. So all the great truths which have moved the world have been lived. They have been struck out by collision of thought with the living necessities of the world."

THE FIELD AN INSPIRATION TO THE WORK

The whole great field for human service and religious work is a primary source of information and inspiration. If the Scriptures contain the spring whence the head-waters flow, the field marks the channel through which the river of life streams forth into all the world. If the divine Word contains the incentive and marching orders for the work, the work with the Word is its contemporaneous expositor. We "know the doctrine" only as we "do the truth." When the believer or the church has had no use for the faith, it has been of no use to either—"without works dead." The marching orders of the Church are like the sealed orders to the navy which are to be opened, read, and obeyed when at sea.

BASIS IN NATURE FOR FAITH

Nature is foundation for the supernatural. The natural instincts of men are the ground-work for the superstructure of faith. From self-consciousness we rise to God-consciousness. And the consciousness of God rounds out and perfects our true self-consciousness, in relation to the selfhood of God and fellow-men. The instinct of reverence is the basis upon which are built the spirit and forms of worship.

From the innate sense of accountability are developed the conviction of sin and repentance toward God. Faith is founded upon the universal experience of dependence, from infancy to old age, from birth to death. The yearning for fellowship, in the loneliness of the human soul, leads up directly to communion with the Father of our spirits and to the "Communion of saints." Even those who think, as Kingdon Clifford thought, that "science has taken God to the confines of the universe and bidden him a respectful adieu," seldom fail to feel his "sense of utter loneliness at the loss of one's cradle faith," in the thought that "the Great Companion is dead." Black old "Sojourner Truth" reinspired the faith and courage of Frederick Douglas in the struggle for the freedom of the slave by rising in the audience after he had struck a note of despair and asking, "Frederick, is God dead?"

FAITH VERIFIED BY FITTING LIFE

Thus all human experience verifies the fact to which St. Augustine gave currency in the coin current of the realm, "Thou has made us for thyself, and our souls are ever restless until they rest in thee." So we must look in human nature for the counterpart of the divine ideal of man. For something of that ideal is written on the hearts of men as truly as upon the sacred page. In seeing that the world's great heart, and every human life that shares the pulsations of the race, are as truly made for essential religion as religion is made to fit and form the life of every human being, we discover the most convincing evidence of religious faith. In claiming that being religious is nothing less, and yet can be nothing more, than making the most of ourselves and doing the best by others, and so becoming what we were meant and made to be, by the best help from Father God and brother men, we are laying the most natural basis for the appeal of the "like common faith."

The whole world of man's life rolls through the Scripture. Having the range of its area, one moves in a larger sphere than his own life-contacts or

any one age of earth's history will open to him. The world revealed there is larger than the earth can be to anyone at any one time or place. One meets there all kinds of men, types of character, and conditions of life with which he comes in personal contact, and many more. In its heavenward and earthward reach, the Bible-visioned life "lives eternal life in time," as Harnack says.

BIBLE CHARACTERS AS INTERPRETERS

But even this does not compensate the religious worker for the lack of personal contact with fellow men. To know men only as seen in Bible characters and conditions is no substitute for knowing our own neighbors and our own times. For the men and women of the Bible are there as types and interpreters of our contemporaries, not as substitutes for them. They cannot render us the service for which they have their being in the letter unless we let them lead us out into life. And yet the fact that so many of those who have deprived themselves or have been deprived of these life-contacts have, in spite of this fact, not because of it, been able to understand and help their fellow men so conspicuously as religious biography has shown them to have done proves the Scriptures to be a very real source for the study of human nature. Nothing else accounts for the success of these secluded lives, lived within such limited areas, and restricted to such remote knowledge of practical affairs. But far more effective would these merely Bible-taught men and women have been if they had known more of the world, and had been able with dear old John Bunyan to say, in the words of his prologue to the *Pilgrim's Progress*:

O then come hither
And lay thy head, thy heart, my book
together.

Through all their history and biography the Scriptures guide us to the very originators and founders of the ministries committed to ourselves. We stand at the birthplace and hour of their life and power, within the laboratory of their inmost souls—where their experience crystallized into their magnificent

conceptions, by the forge and anvil of their trials and toils where were wrought the tools and implements of their achievements. Now watch for the coming of the impulse they receive. To many of them its coming is described by the phrase which forms the preface to most of their deeds and to some of their lives, "And the word of the Lord came." This impulse to work "came" to prompt Abraham's emigrant-faith and pilgrimage to the fatherland (Gen. xii. 1; xv. 1, 4); Joshua's self-conquest for the conquering of Canaan (Josh. i. 1, 7-9); Samuel's childlike soul to be the father of the prophets (1 Sam. iii. 1-3, 21; iv. 1); Elijah's lion-heart for every turn in his mighty career (1 Kings xvii. 1-5, 9; xviii. 1, 31, 36; xix. 9; xxi. 17, 28; 2 Kings ii. 2-6); Isaiah's humble mind to "send" him to sing the oratorio of the Messiah (Isaiah vi. 8); Jeremiah's faltering faith to set him to "pluck up and to break down and to destroy and to overthrow, to build and to plant" (Jer. i. 2, 4, 10); the courage of all the heroes of faith enshrined in Hebrews, eleventh chapter, that Westminster Abbey of Scripture.

Thus also through the New Testament and church history Christian biography might be scanned to see how the Word "came" to the great world-workers. It came on the wings of mother's prayer to Augustine when, as Harriet Beecher Stowe said, this "soul-friend loved him not for what he was or had been, but for what by God's great grace he might become." It came to Francis of Assisi and made him every one's hero-saint, to Xavier and gave him the glow of heart and tongue of flame which lit up so much of the world. It "came" to the monk Martin before he became the world's Luther, and to the Wesleys, prompting their evangel of persuasive song and speech. It came to a Coleridge and thus made the Bible divine to him because it "found" him. At the knee of his motherly nurse it came to a Shaftesbury and shaped him in the philanthropic mold of Christian manhood and statesmanship which the hardship of his early school and the previous influence of political life could neither disfigure

nor destroy. Inspiration inspires or loses its claim to be inspired.

DIVINE COMMISSION AND CREDENTIAL

A commission and credential for human service is issued both by the Old Testament and the New. To each and all we meet the requirements for work. The ideal of the one is "a kingdom of priests, a holy nation" (Exodus 19:6), and the other "a royal priesthood, a holy nation, a people for God's own possession" (1 Peter 2: 9, 10). The ministering membership is the only recognized constituency of the churches of both testaments.

There must be a whole world of work if there is to be a whole kingdom of workers, a whole people of priests commissioned to do it. And there is. For the extent and diversity of the field are as great as and even greater than the number and aptitudes of the workers. Opportunities for service always exceed the trained capacities to render it. To the call of God and the demands of this world field, the church itself and the larger fellowship of human service are the response. All that men need them to be God meant his churches to be. There are as many kinds of work to be done as there are kinds of people and diversities of human nature to do them. "To each one his work." One need not choose nor refuse another's work. "Every man is a once to the spoken

word." There are few men and women whom God cares to repeat. It required the gospels of four evangelists to speak the gospel of that one great Christ-life. There are diversities of gifts and workings, but the same spirit. The ministering body "has not one member but many," and the many members of that one body are warned that "eye cannot say to the hand, I have no need of thee; nor, again, the head to the feet, I have no need of you. They, though members of the body which seem to be more feeble, are necessary." So far from permitting any fellow Christian to think that he is "not of the body," St. Paul neither allows that the working body can do without the service of every one of its members nor admits that any member can really share the life of the body if he does not do his own work for and with it. As each of the returned exiles was expected to rebuild the walls of Zion "over against his own house," so the apostolic commission is "now, ye are the body of Christ and members each in his part."

Life and religion are thus seen to be counterparts of each other, according to the account which the Bible gives us of both, and according to our own experience of each. Human lives, singly and together, and far more together than singly, are thus shown to be both the field and force for the work of religion.

THE COST OF THE CRANBERRY SAUCE

CHARLES L. CHUTE

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

In agriculture the seasonal character of the work is an ever-recurring problem. At certain times in the year, particularly during the harvesting season, there arises an urgent demand for labor—a demand hard to satisfy. This problem confronts the grower of all small fruits. In harvesting the cranberry crop in our eastern states the problem of meeting the great temporary demand for labor was

for many years an acute one, and many a cranberry crop was sacrificed to early frosts because of a lack of hands to gather the scattered harvest. In recent years, however, this problem has been solved from the standpoint of the growers by recourse to the crowded immigrant colonies in our large cities. Most of the cranberries which are in so great demand all over the country this year were picked by Italian and



A FAMILY AT WORK.
Father, mother, boy of five, and girl of three,
working together.

Portuguese men, women, and children—no small proportion by the children.

After the publication in *THE SURVEY* of the results of an investigation made last year for the National Child Labor Committee into the work and living conditions of Italian cranberry pickers in New Jersey,¹ indignant protests were made by certain prominent growers in that state. A leading newspaper took up the cudgels for the growers. New Jersey has been libeled; evils had been exaggerated; conditions were misrepresented. However, the quarrel was not so much over the facts found as over their general application and the varying interpretations put upon those facts.

Upon the return of the brief cranberry picking season this year, bringing the usual migration of great numbers of families from the cities to the bogs, a new and more thorough investigation was undertaken by the organization which began it last year. This has just been completed. Agents visited cranberry growing sections of Massachusetts and covered most

of the larger plantations in the four cranberry producing counties of New Jersey. In general, it may be said that all the essential facts of unrestricted child employment, loss of several weeks' schooling to thousands of children, an un-American system of labor under a padrone, and the crowded and unsanitary camps reported last year were this year again found to be the rule rather than the exception. Young children were found working long hours under a padrone, in Massachusetts as in New Jersey, and families were crowded into unsanitary shacks. However, as a much greater proportion of the harvesting in Massachusetts is done by means of "scoops" operated largely by Portuguese men, the evils of family migration and child and woman labor were found to be not as extensive as in New Jersey, where nearly all the picking is done by hand. This year, in the latter state, there was somewhat less crowding, slightly shorter hours, and less Sunday work, due to a smaller crop. Otherwise the situation has not improved, except in the housing conditions on one bog.

In New Jersey the picking is done almost entirely by large gangs of Italians. These gangs are largely recruited in Philadelphia by padrones employed by



CHILDREN OF THE PICKERS.
All work except the two babies.

¹See *THE SURVEY* for January 7, 1911.

the growers. These padrones take advantage of their ignorant countrymen if they can, charging them varying amounts for the privilege of a job and obtaining a "rake-off" on transportation rates. In seven cases padrones were paid a commission on each bushel of berries picked; on the other bogs they were paid wages. They are usually given the commissary privilege as well. The padrone always prefers to engage the large family with many children, for this means many pickers and of a sort more easily satisfied with the low rate of wages.

When picking begins the entire family may be seen on the bog. Babies are left to amuse themselves as best they may, while all the children who are old enough work. Upon seventeen of the bogs visited, where a careful count was made, 32 per cent of the pickers were found to be under fourteen, 18 per cent were under ten years of age, and on twelve bogs some children under five were seen working. These children are encouraged, when they are not compelled, by both the padrone and the parents to keep at work throughout the long day.

The work is in the open and undoubtedly has its healthful features; but among the conditions which make it unsuitable for young children are the prevailing wetness of the ground and the swarms of mosquitoes from which the workers suffer constantly. Many of the padrones are rough in dealing with the children. Heavy boxes must be carried to and fro and the boxes vary in size, although the price paid per measure remains the same. All these conditions are of constant recurrence.

The worst evils are in the camps, where the children live from five to seven weeks. The surroundings are often unspeakable. The congestion out-slums the city. Families of five, six, and even eight were found living in one room measuring six by eight feet, without any sanitary provisions whatever. They are not even provided with screens against the swarming mosquitoes. Barracks measuring eighteen by thirty feet were found housing sixty to seventy-five people. Refuse and filth of all kinds pervade these dwellings and are scattered about the doors and windows. Yet certain growers claim

that the children return to their city homes after a life under such conditions in better health than when they came out. Their condition when seen in the camps does not justify the claim.

Much might be done by the growers under the pressure of public opinion to improve these conditions. Four suggestions have already been made to one of their number, as follows:

- (1) That children of tender years be excluded from regular labor.
- (2) That temporary schools be established on the larger plantations which children of school age shall attend for part of each day.
- (3) That the hours of work for children under fourteen be shortened.
- (4) That reasonable supervision be given to housing conditions, so that the quarters provided shall be adequate, decent, and sanitary.

But, apart from voluntary action on the part of progressive growers, there is in the New Jersey situation a problem for the school authorities of two states which perhaps can be solved only through new legislation. Many hundreds



"SCOOPERS" AT WORK.
Men gathering cranberries with "scoops." Few children are employed here.



A TYPICAL BARRACKS.

Contains twenty rooms, each six feet by seven and one-half feet. Over sixty persons are housed here.

of children from Philadelphia lose at least six weeks' school attendance at the beginning of the school year. Some of these lose much more through failure to return to school promptly after the picking season is over. The compulsory school laws of Pennsylvania and New Jersey should not be set aside for the benefit of the cranberry growers whose profits are already large, however willing the parents may be to profit by the labor of the children. These children need their full schooling. If they cannot be reached by Pennsylvania laws while outside that state, is not New Jersey responsible? Why should not her child labor law regulate such agricultural employments as well as other forms of work?

The evils of this annual migration could in such ways be minimized and the children to a degree protected; but should we not go further? Is not this sporadic family labor inherently bad? The employment of children in this in-

dustry, as in all others, means depressed wages and a low standard of living. The system itself is intolerable. The wholesale removal of these families is not for an outing in the Jersey pines, as one of their employers naively expresses it, but to labor for the support of the family in a region where there are no restrictions as to age or sex, hours and conditions of labor, nor regulated living conditions.

On the plantation referred to, the largest in New Jersey, housing conditions are much superior to those in the other camps. This was found to be the case last year. This year conditions have become even better, by the addition of several houses, so that the occupants of six and one-half by eight foot rooms average but a small fraction more than three persons to a room. On this bog also sanitary outdoor toilets with cement base have been erected this year. These conditions were not found on any other of the twenty-three plantations visited in New Jersey.

THE HUMAN SIDE OF LARGE OUTPUTS

STEEL AND STEEL WORKERS IN SIX AMERICAN STATES

III BETHLEHEM

THE CHURCH AND THE STEEL WORKERS

JOHN A. FITCH

MEMBER STAFF (1907-8) PITTSBURGH SURVEY

THE SERIES

★

OCTOBER
LACKAWANNA:

MILL,
TOWN,
AND SWAMP

★

NOVEMBER
ILLINOIS:

BOOSTING
FOR
SAFETY

★

DECEMBER
BETHLEHEM:
THE CHURCH
AND THE
STEEL WORKERS

★

JANUARY
BIRMINGHAM:

THE
CONSERVATION
OF LABOR

★

FEBRUARY
PUEBLO:
THE
STEEL INDUSTRY
AND THE PEOPLE

★

MARCH
CONCLUSION:

THE
LABOR POLICY
OF
UNRESTRICTED
CAPITAL



NOT Jerusalem,
Lowly Bethlehem
Twas that gave us
Christ to save us,
Not Jerusalem.
FAVORED Bethlehem
Honored is that name
Thence came Jesus
To release us
Favored Bethlehem.

THE BETHLEHEM CHRISTMAS HYMN.

THE PLACE HAVING AS YET NO NAME, IT SO HAPPENED THAT ON CHRISTMAS EVE WE CALLED TO MIND THE BIRTH OF OUR SAVIOUR, AND AS THERE WAS A THIN PARTITION-WALL BETWEEN OUR DWELLING-ROOM AND THE COW- AND HORSE-STABLE, COUNT ZINZENDORF IN THE TENTH HOUR OF THE NIGHT WENT OVER TO THE STABLE AND COMMENCED TO SING WITH GREAT FERVENCY OF SPIRIT!:

NICHT JERUSALEM—SONDERN BETHLEHEM,
AUS DIR KOMMET WAS MIR FROMMET.

AND THUS ON CHRISTMAS EVE, 1741, THIS NEW SETTLEMENT RECEIVED THE NAME OF BETHLEHEM.
—FROM THE DIARY OF JOHN MARTIN MACK.

THE HYMN WAS LETTERED AND DECORATED WITH A DRAWING OF THE FIRST HOUSE OF BETHLEHEM BY ERNST FREDERIC DETTERER.

OLD BETHLEHEM —



THE RESTING-PLACE OF THE MORAVIAN SETTLERS.

Photo by Hinc.



A SUNRISE EASTER SERVICE IN THE OLD CEMETERY.

Photo by Hinc.

— AND THE NEW



Photo by Hine.

THE TWO BANKS OF THE LEHIGH: UNBROKEN REST—SEVEN-DAY TOIL.



Photo by Hine.

THE INDUSTRIAL FRONTIER AS TO-DAY'S IMMIGRANT SETTLERS FIND IT.

THE GAMUT OF THE HOUSEHOLD



THE OLD SEMINARY AND THE QUAINT COMMUNITY DWELLINGS WITH GABLES AND DORMER-WINDOWS AND SUGGESTIONS OF REPOSE.

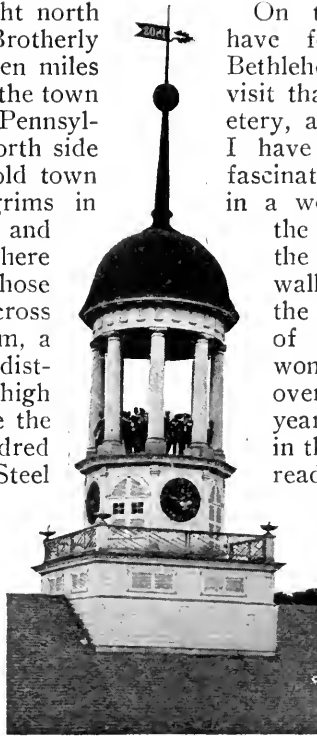


Photo by Hine.

A COURT IN THE IMMIGRANT QUARTER WHERE ALL EUROPE IS GATHERED FRESH AND WHERE, AS RESULT OF LOW WAGES, THE BOARDING-BOSS SYSTEM RUNS OUT REAL HOMES AND FAMILY LIFE.

FIFTY miles straight north of the City of Brotherly Love and some ten miles from Nazareth is the town of Bethlehem, Pennsylvania. On the north side of the Lehigh river is the old town founded by Moravian pilgrims in 1741. Church and school and theological seminary stand there to-day, the monuments of those early missionary pioneers. Across the river is South Bethlehem, a lusty offspring that has outdistanced the parent. There Lehigh University stands, and there the smoke rolls forth from a hundred stacks of the Bethlehem Steel Corporation. On the north bank young men are studying the lives of the martyrs and the history of the Church. On the south bank they are studying metallurgy and mechanics. On the north side of the river the quiet residential streets suggest only peace; on the south side ten thousand men at furnace and lathe and forge are making the implements of warfare. On one side is the idealism of the old world; on the other the materialism of the new.

As you walk up Main street in Bethlehem from the railroad station you pass on your right the Young Ladies' Seminary, with its colonial hall, which was used as a general hospital by the continental army under George Washington. Turn the corner past the seminary and go on to the right. That brings you opposite the Central Moravian Church with its high belfry overlooking the whole town. Going on you pass the Widows' House, where the church provides a home for the women in its membership left without support; then the *Gemeinhaus* built in 1741, the first house of worship in Bethlehem; then the old Seminary, standing back from the street; and after that the Sisters' House. Turn the next corner to the left and you come to the old Moravian cemetery, on a hill in the very center of Bethlehem.



The trombone choir in the belfry of the Moravian church which ushers in the festal days with sacred music.

On three different occasions I have found myself a visitor in Bethlehem. It was on my first visit that I discovered the old cemetery, and on each subsequent visit I have returned to it. It has a fascination about it, for it represents in a wonderful manner the hopes, the faith, and the character of the pioneer settlers. You can walk through that little city of the dead and read the motives of those determined men and women who left their native soil over one hundred and seventy years ago to make a new home in the wilds of America; you can read there what America meant to them, and what sort of society they believed should be established on this new soil.

The resting-places of the dead here are not marked by replicas of the Parthenon nor by lofty granite or marble shafts nor even by broken pillars. Over each grave is a plain flat stone, not upright, but resting horizontally upon the earth.

No distinctions appear there. Old and young, rich and poor, master and servant, white men, red men, and black men are sleeping side by side, each with the same little white stone, of nearly uniform size, telling only where he was born and when he died. Side by side with "Michael of the Minnissinge Nation" lies "Johan Bernhard Mueller, born Apr. 19, 1761, in Wirtemberg, dep. June 6, 1757;" and beside the grave of "Simeon of the Delaware Nation, born 1680, dep. Oct. 17, 1756," is that of "John Lighton, born Dec. 8th, 1706, at Dondy, Scotland, dep. Aug. 23, 1756."

At nearly the extreme edge of the cemetery there is a stone, differing in no way from the others. It reads:

DAVID NITSCHMANN
FOUNDER
OF BETHLEHEM WHO FELLED THE
FIRST TREE TO BUILD THE FIRST HOUSE
BORN SEPT. 18TH, 1676
IN MORAVIA
DIED APRIL 15TH, 1758.

Next to the grave of the founder is that of

JOHN FREDERIC
CAMMERHOFF
EPISCOPUS FRATRUM
BORN JULY 28, 1721,
NEAR MAGDEBURG
DEPARTED APRIL 28,
1751
AT BETHLEHEM

And then next after these two is a stone with a long inscription upon it—the longest, I think, in the cemetery. It is this:

IN MEMORY OF
TSCHOOP, A MOHICAN INDIAN
WHO IN HOLY BAPTISM APRIL 16TH
1742 RECEIVED THE NAME OF
JOHN
ONE OF THE FIRST FRUITS OF THE
MISSION AT SHEKOMOKO, AND A
REMARKABLE INSTANCE OF THE
POWER OF DIVINE GRACE, WHEREBY HE
BECAME A DISTINGUISHED TEACHER
AMONG HIS NATION.
HE DEPARTED THIS LIFE IN FULL
ASSURANCE OF FAITH AT BETHLEHEM
AUGUST 27TH, 1746.
"THERE SHALL BE ONE FOLD AND
ONE SHEPHERD." JOHN X 16.

Just a short distance away are the graves of "Christian an African, Born and dep. 1747," and of "William, son of Johannes, an East Indian, and of Magdalen an African."

Christian humility, a human brotherhood that knew no bounds of rank or color, pure democracy—these are the principles that those pioneers brought with them to the New World; and there in that little Moravian cemetery in Bethlehem the story of their faith and works is chiseled so plainly in those simple stones that he who runs may read. It is an odd commentary that it was in the steel plant just over the river from this settlement dedicated to the worship of God and the love of man that in 1910 the workmen had to strike before they could make the public understand that they were getting no opportunity either to worship God or to know their fellow men—because they were obliged to work seven days a week, Sabbaths and all. And the local public shrugged its shoulders and said the men had better get back to work and quit making such "irresponsible, inflammatory, and untrue" statements, which were working the "great pecuniary loss of the business interests and of the invested capital of our citizens."

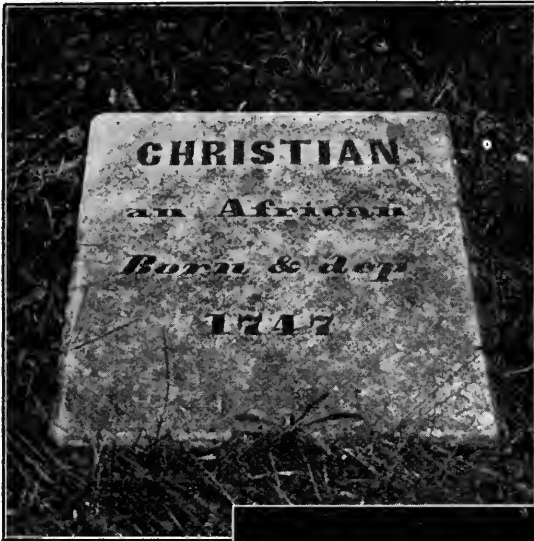
Yes, it is an odd commentary. But

what have the Moravians up there in the cemetery and the 1,900 Moravians now members of the Central Church in Bethlehem to do with that? And what have the thousands of other churchmen in the Bethlehems, Lutheran, Reformed, Catholic, Methodist, Presbyterian, and the rest—what have they to do with it? Not much, perhaps. And then again, perhaps, a good deal. But let me tell some more about Bethlehem before we come to that.

When the Moravian pilgrims came to America they came, like the Pilgrim Fathers of *Mayflower* fame, because they had been persecuted on their native soil. They had been driven from Moravia and had found a shelter first on the estate of Count Zinzendorf in Saxony, where they remained for nineteen years. And then, like the earlier pilgrims who were not content to remain in Holland, they came to America. Early in 1741, just a little handful of them, they built a log house, twenty by forty feet, on the north side of the Lehigh river near Monocacy creek. As soon as that was done they set to work building a larger two-story structure which they called the "*Gemeinhaus*," a substantial structure used as a dwelling to-day. This building was "for years the center of the greatest Christian activity, being at one and the same time church and administration office, home and school, inn and town hall."

There were just two things that the founders of this new settlement had to do—support themselves, and preach the gospel to the Indians. To do the former, they formed themselves into an "Economy," and for the first twenty years the settlement was a pure communism. Half of them, the "Home Church," tilled the soil, while the other half, the "Pilgrim Church," supported by those at home, went out and preached over a radius of "scores and hundreds of miles." Sometimes a man in the Pilgrim Church would come home, and one of the Home Church men would be transferred to take his place.

These Moravians were like the Quakers in some respects. They did not believe in war, and so greatly did they reverence the Deity that they would not take an oath. So, during the Revolutionary War, they did not join the pa-



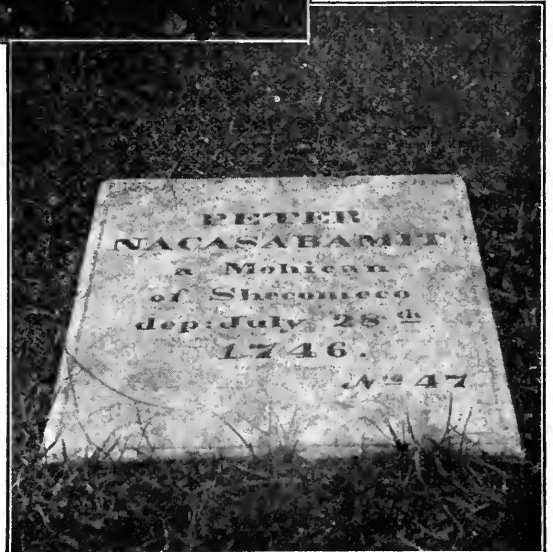
Negro slaves with harsh masters they bought them and brought them home to give them back their liberty, to employ them as free servants, and finally to bury them side by side with their honored leaders.

It was not unfitting that this center of missionary enterprise and social service should have the name of the birthplace of the Christ. But the name was given it under doubly fitting auspices. For the first few months after they had built the *Gemeinhaus* the place was known simply as the "House on the Lehigh." Then in

December, 1741, Count Zinzendorf, their friend and protector in Saxony, came to visit them. The original log dwelling sheltered both the people and the cattle. It was in this house that they were sitting on Christmas eve, after having partaken of the sacrament together. Sud-

triot army; they knew little about the dispute anyway. Consequently they were looked upon as Tories, and General Charles Lee wanted to lead an army to the settlement and destroy it. But a better way out than that was found. The Moravian faith would not let its adherents fight, but it did not stand in the way of rendering aid to those wounded in battle. So the seminary was made a hospital for Washington's soldiers.

Adoration and worship of the Father may have been the first article of the Moravian creed, but the second was clearly service and fellowship with man, the brother. Hence it was that they won the confidence and friendship of the Indians, at a time when other white men were looked upon as deadly enemies. Hence it was that they so tenderly cared for the wounded patriot soldiers; and hence it was that when they found





THE "SISTERS' HOUSE"

denly Count Zinzendorf arose and led the way past the partition to the part where the cattle were stabled, and there around the mangers they sang Christmas songs. After that they could think of no name quite so fitting as Bethlehem. "And so," says a Moravian historian, "Bethlehem, city of David and David's greater Son and 'House of Bread' for this wilderness it has ever been." Perhaps it hasn't always been that, but it was once—it may be again.

It isn't necessary to tell how modern industry came into this community. It came and grew. Men of a score of different nationalities came to work in the steel mills; men of a dozen different variations of the Christian religion. The Central Moravian Church with its 1,900 members is still the largest single congregation in the Bethlehems; but the Catholic, the Lutheran, and the Reformed churches—all have outstripped the Moravian church in point of total numerical strength.

But in spite of church institutions Bethlehem is no longer a religious community. It is industrial. With the coming of industry have come conditions of which David Nitschmann, founder of Bethlehem, never dreamed. Residents of Bethlehem to-day as a whole are not spend-

ing so much thought on the Fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of man as did the pioneers, now under their little squares of stone in the old grave-yard. Some of them are, but others apparently are spending more time now talking of pecuniary interests and invested capital.

It wasn't an example of the old brotherhood when, in 1909, five men were discharged because they had signed a petition to the management of the Bethlehem Steel Corporation asking for the elimination of Sunday work. It wasn't an example of brotherhood when in 1910 another man was discharged for avoiding Sunday work, and then three more because they served on a committee that protested against this man's discharge. Neither were these examples of that democratic straightforwardness that entitled every man to the respect of his neighbor in the days of Tschoop, the Mohican, whose name became John, and of William, son of Johannes the East Indian and of Magdalen the African.

What had happened to Bethlehem that these things could be? Was it a quiet development of a policy foreign to Bethlehem's natural instincts—a policy imported, as it were, and not understood or known by the people? I cannot tell whether Bethlehem knew; but the outside world did not know. For years and years the Bethlehem Steel Corporation had gone ahead making structural shapes and rails, guns and armor plate—odd enough coincidence that the chief industry in a town named for the Prince of Peace should be the forging of the instruments of war! For years the mills had run and there had been no murmur of discontent.

Most people believe that where there are no strikes, there all is well. It is not always so. On February 4, 1910, after those many years of outward contentment, a strike began in one of the machine-shops of the Bethlehem Steel Corporation. It spread and before long the plant was closed down.

What was it all about? The government wanted to know, because it had let some large contracts to the Bethlehem Steel Corporation. So the Federal Bureau of Labor made an investigation and a report.

I am not going to reproduce that report. Get it and read it all for yourself.¹ It's worth reading. But I am going to mention some of the things that the investigators found. They found a remarkable amount of Sunday work. Out of a total of 9,291 men employed, 2,628—28 per cent of the entire working force—were working regularly seven days a week. In addition 1,413 men, who were regularly six-day workmen, had been obliged to work seven days a week in the month prior to the strike; making in all 4,041 seven-day workmen; 43.5 per cent of the entire force.

It isn't necessary to require men to work seven days a week in steel making. Most of the 1,413 men who were not regular Sunday workers but who worked on Sundays in January, 1910, were employed in the machine shops and in the steel foundry. There is no technical necessity for continuous operation in such departments. The reasons must have been commercial. But, as stated, these men were not regular seven-day workers; their regular schedule called for Saturday afternoons and Sundays free. Of the 2,628 regular Sunday workers, 542 worked at the rolling mills, 656 at the open-hearth furnaces, and 263 in the fabricating shop—1,461 in the three departments. In none of these departments is Sunday operation a technical necessity. There are dozens of plants in this country that close these departments down every Sunday. As a matter of fact the blast-furnace department, with 254 men, was the only important department that for technical reasons had to be operated Sundays. But even here the management could arrange to let every man off one day in each week, if it provided enough men to have a full crew each day. The United States Steel Corporation, the Lackawanna Steel Company, and other steel companies are proving to-day that this can be done. It is true that the twelve-hour, seven-day men at Bethlehem are not engaged in continuous unremitting toil. Theirs are waiting and watching jobs to a considerable extent.

¹Write to Commissioner Charles P. Neill of the Bureau of Labor, Washington, D. C., and ask for the report on the Bethlehem strike. Or write to the Superintendent of Documents for Senate Document No. 521 of the 61st Congress, 2nd Session.

But the continuous, unremitting demand on a man's time made by such jobs is utterly to be condemned.

The federal investigators found that twenty-one men out of the 9,184 employed were paid 60 cents or more per hour. This would be \$7.20 or more for a twelve-hour day. But 5,618 men, 61 per cent of the pay roll, got less than 18 cents an hour, or \$2.16 for a twelve-hour day, and 31.9 per cent made less than 14 cents an hour, or less than \$1.68 for a twelve-hour day.¹ Of the methods used to get work out of the men who were paid these rates, H. L. Gantt, who knows Bethlehem from personal experience there, says in his recent book: "A complete return to the drive method (at Bethlehem) has produced a series of labor troubles which have culminated in closing down the whole plant."²

Before the government set about its investigation, the citizens of Bethlehem took action. This action was not to gain the federal government's aid in learning the truth as to conditions of health and labor in the great shops where so many townspeople were employed, subject to the régime of what was now an outside corporation; nor to call on the moral support of the country in wresting back from the god of toil that Sabbath which nineteen centuries ago the Son of David said was "made for man." The train-load of business men of Bethlehem who went down to Washington went there to make Congress and the War Department and the president believe that the Bethlehem Steel Corporation was all right; that the strikers were all wrong; that the government's contracts should stand; and that the corporation should feel that its in-

²Twice has the general manager of the company told me that the report of the Bureau of Labor is unfair, and he has strongly intimated that it is untrue. But although on both occasions I diligently sought to learn in what particular the report might be unworthy of credence, and although I most earnestly requested that I be given the true facts, there has not been up to this time an iota of evidence placed before me that would discredit the report. Not only that but at no time has the manager or any other person attacked in my hearing the validity of a single statement of fact in the report. I cannot accept a general charge of unfairness from men who will not discuss particulars. Therefore I see no reason to doubt the statements made. On the contrary I am compelled, by the evident care in preparation and by the mass of figures shown, to accept the report at its face value.

³WORK, WAGES AND PROFIT, by H. S. Gantt. 1910. P. 107.

terests were safeguarded by the loyal support of the merchants and the town's best people. For there had been talk in the newspapers—as there always is—that because of the strike the Bethlehem company would move.

An organization called the Industrial Commission, composed of business and professional men of the borough of Bethlehem, held a meeting and passed some resolutions, stating that

Whereas the object of the industrial commission is to obtain, protect, and foster industries, new and old, protect the welfare of the workingman, and to encourage citizens to invest their money in homes, we denounce the assertions of the unscrupulous and non-resident agitators as irresponsible, inflammatory, and untrue, and destructive of the purposes of this commission and of the development of the town, to the great pecuniary loss of the business interests and of the invested capital of our citizens. . . .

We desire to express our appreciation to Mr. Charles M. Schwab for the great things he has already accomplished for this community, and trust he will not be diverted by the unfortunate industrial dissensions from continuing to carry out his great plans. We stand ready now as in the past to aid him in whatever way we can.

Some of the things that the strike leaders said during the conflict are of a sort for which only round condemnation is possible. But none of it was of a sort which so offended against truth and manhood as the humble, fulsome resolutions passed by these business men in the midst of a struggle for ordinary justice, carried on by thousand of workmen, their fellow towns-people. Had the workers looked to them for leadership of a higher sort, they would have looked in vain.

And what of the other leaders of the community? The fact that the strike was in the first instance, as already noted, a strike against Sunday work, and that the first men to protest had been discharged off-hand by their superiors, made it in its very essence a challenge to the churches.

There is a new federation of church organizations to-day called the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America. It represents all of the evangelical denominations and thirty million communicants. It is an organization that gives promise of great progress in the

direction of Christian unity and action. Under this organization is a Social Service Commission which has only recently been appointed. Its business is to interest itself in social welfare and economic justice—to bridge the gap between the churches and the workers. The Bethlehem strike seemed an opportunity to demonstrate that the church can take a positive stand for righteousness and fair play in an industrial crisis. It was eminently fitting, too, that this new work, designed to bring the church back to the common needs of man, should be begun in a town called Bethlehem.

There was special provocation, also, for this action. A labor organizer had published in the labor press a number of serious charges against the Bethlehem ministers. Among other things he declared that they had not interested themselves at all in the campaign for Sunday rest, and that they were, many of them, collecting their funds through the steel company's office—a certain amount being taken from the pay envelopes of the men affiliated with the churches, and the amounts thus collected turned over to the church treasuries. It was felt that, in justice to all concerned, these charges ought to be investigated. The Social Service Commission appointed a committee, consisting of Charles Stelzle, secretary of the Presbyterian Department of Church and Labor, as chairman; Dr. Josiah Strong, of the American Institute of Social Service, and Paul U. Kellogg, to go to Bethlehem. At the committee's request I accompanied them. Against the protests of some of the local ministers, this committee visited Bethlehem and called a meeting in the old Sun Inn, where General Washington and Mrs. Washington, Paul Jones, Lafayette, and Pulaski used to stop. Thirty or forty ministers were present. They filled one of the big upper rooms, with its white woodwork and its sense of detachment from the great work shops where huge steel beams are being fabricated. Such a meeting of ministers never had been held in Bethlehem before—all but one of the entire ministerial contingent were there, it was said—nor has there been such a meeting since. Men met there who scarcely

knew one another; the Ministerial Association had never had over half that number at its regular sessions.

The labor organizer who had made the charges was asked to come to the meeting also; Mr. Stelzle, as chairman, read the charge as to the pay-roll contributions to the churches and asked the ministers if it were true. They denied it absolutely. The organizer was asked to substantiate his claim by any evidence he might have, by citing his informants, or in any other way.

He refused to give any evidence whatever. It was a very sorry spectacle he made, I thought, and I agreed with the committee's report that the charges were not substantiated. I am told that the organizer has since been dropped by the American Federation of Labor.

The meeting was one of intense interest from beginning to end. Stelzle spoke as a minister and as a workman as well. He holds a union card to-day. And he told those present that if he felt that the church was helpless in dealing with such situations as the one before them, he would not come to Bethlehem as a minister but as a labor organizer. If the church was on the firing line, he was with it. While he did not spare the labor leader who had no evidence to offer to support his libel, he fearlessly challenged the ministers about him to pledge themselves to what might be called the national citizenship of the churches—to rise above the small public opinion of those towns-people who feared for Bethlehem's undoing, and to assert the church's claim to one day out of seven—its claim for such leisure and justice among this work-a-day population which had come in upon Bethlehem as would make the life and labor of the town in keeping with its heritage, its story, and religion, in keeping with the human heritage of the whole church.

After the organizer had left, discussion broke out frankly as to whether the ministers had really, all of them, grasped the true situation in the strike. Some of the pastors of the wealthier churches thought that the charges of excessive Sunday work in the steel plant were unfounded. Their Sunday congregations had not suffered. But then up

rose men from some of the smaller congregations and those made up of workmen. One told of a deacon who had been kept from church many Sundays against his will because he was a steel worker. Another had trouble about his choir because some of his best singers had to work Sunday mornings. And when one minister said that an official of the plant had told him that the men need not work Sundays unless they wanted to, another was there to reply that a member of his congregation had told him he was afraid he would lose his job if he refused to work seven days a week.

The Federal Council's committee made a report basing its statements relative to working conditions on the findings of the Bureau of Labor, and its statements as to the church situation on the facts that were brought out in this meeting. It cleared the ministers from the libelous charge of the labor organizer, but it criticized their attitude toward strike and strikers.

It was unfortunate that only the criticism was emphasized by the papers. It was unfortunate, too, that the public got the idea that the Bethlehem ministers in some unusual and signal manner had failed to live up to the standards of the church as those standards are customarily recognized in America. For the committee never intended to make Bethlehem the scape-goat for the shortcomings of the entire church. But the committee did right to criticize, for only thus can progress come. The author of a play that reflected on the standards of the Church is reported to have answered, when rebuked for it, that no one has so good a right to criticize the church as the sons of the church. It is exactly on that ground that I, too, claim my right to criticize. I believe the Christian Church will some day be the greatest force existent for social well-being and economic justice. In that spirit I speak of the attitude taken by the ministers of the Bethlehems, and I do so even though I feel quite confident that a similar attitude would have been taken by a majority of ministers in the industrial centers of America. Often in my visits to the steel districts I have found such an atti-

tude. I must bear witness nevertheless to those self-sacrificing, public-spirited ministers whom I have met in Pittsburgh, in Buffalo, in Chicago, and elsewhere—heroic fellows, who despite opposition and prejudice and misunderstandings are doing men's work in the world. One such Protestant leader especially stands out in my mind throughout all these events in Bethlehem which I am narrating. But the church as a whole has yet to learn that saving souls consists in saving men; that the spirit can never be wholly dissociated from the flesh, so long as the body remains the temple of the soul. Possibly because of lack of knowledge of some of the real problems of life, the ministers sometimes deliver their heaviest blows against secondary evils, while the prime wrongs, the ones that dry up the roots of life, may escape their wrath. It has been true with respect to one of the biggest problems of the steel industry today—that of Sunday work. There was a movement against Sunday work in the Pittsburgh district in 1907-8; but its efforts were directed more frequently against drug-stores, confectionery and fruit stores, and amusements, than against the United States Steel Corporation, with its thousands of employes then working the long turn. There has been a radical change for the better with respect to seven-day work within the last two years, but it has not been the result of the collective protests and aggressive campaigning of the churches of Pittsburgh to enforce the Sunday closing law against the steel works that has brought it about.

Of course the hostile attitude of some of the workingmen towards the church is not entirely reasonable, although it is a feeling characteristic of the majority. They are defiant and they make demands beyond the strength of the churches. There are, on the other hand, a good many steel workers who are loyal members of churches; and the church would, I think, have the confidence of all if it would boldly withstand industrial oppression and corporate wrong-doing in the spirit of the Man who violently drove the money-changers out of the temple and who denounced to their faces those

who laid heavy burdens upon the poor.

Only one clergyman, a priest of the Roman Catholic church, openly voiced his indignation over the conditions that had been found to prevail in Bethlehem. He went to the strikers' meetings and cheered them on.¹ The Protestant ministers, some of them, went to the strikers' meetings too. But they did not go to encourage the men in their fight against conditions that were repugnant to every article in Bethlehem's early creed. They went to conciliate. They did not try to help the men establish their right to Sunday rest nearly as hard as they tried just to end the strike.

We mustn't forget that the strikers made it hard for the ministers to help them. They practically dared the ministers to do anything else but come into camp. And then too there were the false statements that had been sent out by the federation organizer and printed in the labor press. It would be hard for anyone to co-operate enthusiastically with men in a state of mind like that.²

But it was terribly unfortunate that the ministers could not see that a principle was at stake here—a principle so big that they could not afford to think of personalities. It was a question of fundamental human rights and involved several thousand honest, law-abiding

¹A large part of the employes of the Bethlehem Steel Corporation, especially the immigrant labor force, are Roman Catholics. So too is the president of the Bethlehem Steel corporation. In a little mountain village of western Pennsylvania, where, in the first years of the last century, a Russian nobleman who had taken holy orders erected a log chapel, and gathered around it one of the most devoted Catholic rural settlements of the Alleghenys a memorial church has been erected, perhaps the most beautiful rural chapel in all America. The donor is Mr. Schwab, who grew to manhood in Loretto and went to the seminary there. So that, in a way, this issue of Sunday labor between master and men in Bethlehem was an issue which involved on both sides members of this one communion, more than the Moravians or the kindred Protestant Churches, which are strongest in the English-speaking half of town. And in reviewing the course which the Protestant ministers took in the events of the strike, it must be remembered that however valiantly the individual priest stood out for his men, there was no public evidence of concerted action on the part of the Catholic Church as a whole in support of those who wanted a cessation of Sunday toil.

²They had some leaders—those strikers—whose heads were turned by a little brief authority. They wrote a letter containing a request to Senator Owen and ended the letter thus: "Should we fail to receive a reply from you within a reasonable time to this letter, we shall conclude, and so publish the fact, that you are with Mr. Schwab and against the workers; that you favor long hours, small wages, and the desecration of the Sabbath day."

men, who were not responsible for the pettiness of their unwise leaders. Good men are sometimes blind to the truth. The ministers must have been blind, or they never would have published a statement in the local press telling the striking workmen that

only the officials of the company can accomplish the righting of any existing wrongs!

The *officials*, mind you, who had discharge five men for protesting against Sunday work, and three more for mentioning that they were dissatisfied. Or they never would have asked the workmen:

Is it reasonable to expect that by attacking your employer openly and in secret, by trying to destroy his property and his business, you can best persuade him to deal *generously and magnanimously* with you? (The italics are mine.)

I do not want to give the impression here that the ministers were afraid to take the part of the workmen or that they were unduly influenced by the steel company. Not at all. I have looked into the matter and I am confident that the churches of the Bethlehems do not derive their support from that source. But they did not show a positive allegiance to those things for which they are stewards. These ministers in a very real and peculiar way are the natural custodians of the faith of the founders of Bethlehem, which was in an unusual degree a faith in men. They forgot that, I think, for a little while. It was contravening the established customs in Bethlehem to strike for anything, it is true. But if John Huss and John Calvin and John Knox and Martin Luther had cared much for custom—would there have been any Protestant churches in Bethlehem in 1910?

So the workmen lost the strike. Along in May, 1910, they went back to work.

Just a month before this article went to press I was in Bethlehem. I went there to find out how the workmen had fared after losing their strike. I did not find out much about that. But I found out some other things that seemed to me rather important. A year and a half has gone by since the strike ended, and some of the people of Bethlehem

are still quibbling about the strike being one of non-residents—because some of the leaders of it lived in Allentown, a few miles away. The people have not inquired whether conditions have been alleviated. The citizens of Bethlehem do not know. Instead, they are still ringing the changes on the words “non-resident” and “agitator.”

There has been a slight advance in wages since the strike. Some of the men who were getting 12½ cents an hour are now getting 13½. Some who were getting 13½ are now apparently getting 15. But I was told that there are still some men who get no more than 12½ cents an hour. I was also told that men paid by the ton have suffered a reduction since 1910.

I cannot vouch for the wage figures. They were not verified from the payrolls. But everybody in Bethlehem knows that Sunday work is going on at the steel plant. Nobody outside of the company knows how much Sunday work there is or how necessary it is, but the word has gone forth that it is optional with each man—he may work on Sunday or not, just as he pleases. And Bethlehem seems to be satisfied with that assurance. But nobody has made sure of it. And no one can say that the system really works.

How *could* Sunday work—seven-day work—ever be optional with all the employes? If it actually is optional, then we must understand that the steel company runs the plant on Sunday just to accommodate its employes who want to work. And if none of the men want to work, then the plant will be closed. Wouldn't that be allowing a considerable amount of “dictation” in the running of “our business?”

I talked with two foremen who work in departments where there is Sunday work. One was in the gun department, where, he told me, 1500 men work seven days a week. They were wary—those two foremen. Yes, they said, Sunday work was optional; nobody had to do it. But when I questioned them further, both admitted that they were in the habit of “asking” the men to work on Sundays. One of them said that if a man didn't want to work and could give a

good reason for not working he would "let him off." And the other said that in a slack time, if he were "laying off" men, he would let those men go first who had objected to working Sundays. When I enquired of workmen and induced others to make inquiries for me, I found the idea was strangely prevalent that Sunday work is not "optional."

Charles M. Schwab, the president of the steel company, was in Europe at the time of my visit to Bethlehem. Archibald Johnston and Henry S. Snyder, vice-presidents, were also out of the country. So I went to the general manager who was in charge of the works and asked him for a pass into the plant so that I might see for myself just what conditions were. I went in good faith, because I wanted to give the better side of the story, if there was a better side, and to give due credit for improvements in labor conditions if any had been made.

But the general manager would not give me a pass. He would not tell me whether any improvements had been made or were contemplated. I tried to talk with him about the scheme that the Steel Corporation, the Lackawanna, and other steel companies are adopting, that provides for twenty-four continuous hours of rest for each man every week. But he wouldn't talk about that either. "Of course you realize," I said to him, "that your attitude is a peculiar one and that I can't help wondering why you refuse to discuss these things, and why you refuse to let me see the inside of your plant—unless it is that you are not adopting the progressive measures that some of the other steel companies are adopting and that your plant is in a bad condition."

"I know it," he answered me cheerfully. "Those are natural suspicions. We, have to run that risk when we

refuse to let you go through. But we are through with investigations. We haven't had a square deal, and we don't propose to co-operate any further with investigators, no matter who they are."

"Is it your opinion," I asked, "that these things are none of the public's business?"

"It is the business of that part of the public that works for us," he told me, "the rest of the public can find out if they are able. I've no objections to your finding out all you can by talking with our men." And with that he shook my hand cordially and I went away.

I enjoyed that interview. I like to talk with a man who doesn't hedge.

But it's no joking matter that ten thousand men are working for a company that will discharge any of them who object to the conditions of employment, if the objection is made collectively. It's a serious matter that the Bethlehem Steel Corporation is working large numbers of men seven days a week in departments where there is no technical excuse for continuous operation. And it is a very serious matter that the steel company regards its treatment of labor as nobody's business but its own. The general manager intimated that it was the business of the men also. But when the men tried to make it their business they were speedily dropped from the payroll.

All this, it seems to me, is considerable of an overturning of the old Bethlehem ideals. The old ideals made men care about other men's welfare. There was injected into

American life by the founders of Bethlehem something that we need—something that we cannot afford to lose; something that wasn't so manifest at the beginnings of Chicago, or Buffalo, or Pittsburgh, or Birmingham. I cannot believe that the old spirit is dead in Bethlehem. I know it is not. But it needs a new birth.





CANNON: TEST-TUBES :: SWORDS: PLOW-SHARES

THE SAFETY DEMONSTRATION OF
THE FEDERAL BUREAU OF
MINES AT PITTSBURGH

PAUL U. KELLOGG

Straddling the headwaters of the Ohio and commanding the trade routes north and south, Pittsburgh was tense with feeling in the early days of the Civil War. The resistance of the men of the town to the shipment of guns from the arsenal to the South in 1860 is described in the local histories as the first overt act of that war. A story told me by an old resident is that the tension all but snapped when a wagon loaded with ammunition unaccountably blew up. Whether it was an accident or part of a plot is no matter to-day; but it is a very great matter that the old arsenal, forty blocks up the Allegheny river front, is taking on new life after decades of disuse. It is a hatchery no longer for war. Here in the dour stone buildings, inside the high grey walls, with old army mortars turned to use as tools, are being carried on experiments designed to pull the fangs of explosives, so that they can be used harmlessly in the arts of peace. And the change which has come over the place itself is no whit greater than that which is revolutionizing the practice of American mining from the standpoint of safety.

The arsenal is still nominally under the jurisdiction of the War Department, and at it is stationed the most important high-sergeant of the United States army; for under his nominal suzerainty are the laboratories and persons of the remarkable staff of engineers and scientists through which the Department of the Interior is addressing itself to that great constructive phase of conservation which opened with the creation of a Federal Bureau of Mines in July, 1910.¹ Here, October 30 and 31, under the auspices of

the bureau, the American National Red Cross, the United Mine Workers, and the Pittsburgh Coal Operators' Association, was held the first National Mine Safety Demonstration in America. Three or four mine rescue cars (the government has seven, Illinois three, and certain operators, like the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, have their private ones) were shunted into the sidings. Lignite and coal briquetting machines, gas producers, foundry cupolas, smokeless boilers, and other experimental apparatus were set in motion. The various laboratories made the hearts of the physical scientists glad with their instruments for determining thermal conductivity at high temperatures, for proximate and ultimate analyses of peat and coke, for investigating fuel oils, mine air, ash, clinker, boiler-water, and what not. But the crowd was not altogether different from other crowds, and it was about the big apparatus in the outer yards, in tow of young engineers with megaphones, that you found mine inspectors from a dozen states; superintendents whose word goes with 5,000 men; professors from the scientific schools; Welsh, Irish, Scotch pick-miners; Old Believers with flaring beards, and mine owners with the look of city club men; engineers who know the bowels of the Andes and the Rockies, as well as their neighbors know the Pittsburgh seam. All the world loves a bang, and if the government only builds enough steel galleries for testing explosives and mine gases, and touches them

¹As the successor to the Technologic Branch of the Geological Survey, the real work of the bureau may be said to have been going on since 1907, the year of the greatest death toll in American mining, which closed with four tremendous December explosions, killing 700 men.



GAS AND DUST-EXPLOSION GALLERY.

This is a great tube of boiler plate, as big as a trunk-sewer, in which mine conditions are duplicated for purposes of experiment. The first day of the demonstration, the gallery was filled with a mixture of gas and air containing 7 per cent of methane and ethane. When the old-style black blasting powder was used, the explosion shook the gallery, ripped up the safety-valves, and burst out the end.

off on Independence Day, it will solve the safe and sane Fourth problem. They are firecrackers of half-inch boiler plate, 100 feet long and six feet through. But these men who pushed at the ropes, and saw the smoke belch up, understood what the roar was saying. They knew that 30,000 miners were killed in the United States in the last ten years; that 75,000 were injured, many maimed for life. They knew that these explosive tests showed that with the old long-flame black powder in common use when the government began its investigations, a miner took his life in his hands every time he touched off a fuse.¹ They knew that when the government set out to prove that coal dust was the greatest menace of the mines, a majority of miners and operators held that coal dust would not explode in workings free from fire-damp. This public demonstration was but a final step in a process of education, which had brought mine men singly and in groups to the arsenal in the past, to see for themselves. State Mine Inspector Laing of West Virginia tells of a hard-headed Welsh superintendent, who fought all the innovations of the scientists, and scouted the idea of coal dust exploding. He was induced to bring his dust up with him to Pittsburgh, scatter it in the gal-

lery, tamp the shot, and set it off. Like the farmer when he first saw the camel—"Hell, there aint' no such animal!"—he wouldn't believe his eyes. Twice he did it; three times; then he went home, and now there's no better evangelist for the new ways in all the Alleghenies.

As a clincher to these experiments the bureau dug an experimental mine near Bruceton, Penn., sinking it in the Pittsburgh vein, and equipping it with explosion doors, concrete portals, one surface and four underground instrument chambers for recording pressure variations and velocity readings and taking gas samples. We are used to seeing the navies set off torpedoes under their old battle-ships; but it remained for the United States to dig a mine for the good of blowing it up. All the methods proposed by the engineers for preventing and checking explosions in progress will be tried out in this hole in the ground. A preliminary test was made the week before October 30, but the final demonstration of the explosibility of coal dust under actual mining conditions was reserved as the big feature of this national gathering—until after a thousand visiting experts had filed into the black entry, inspected the coal dust placed along shelves, a pound for every foot, and noted the drill hole in the far end where a charge of black blasting powder was to

¹A greater quantity of short-flame explosives has come into use in the United States since than is employed in the mines of Great Britain.

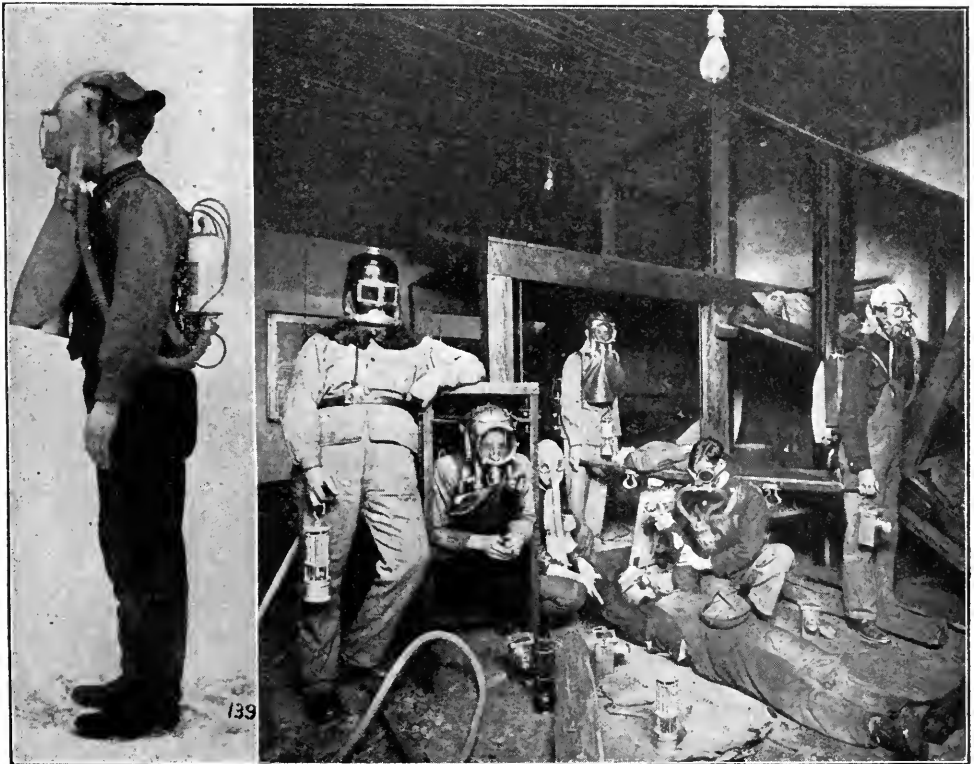
be set off by electricity to represent a blown-out shot.

After the manner of Sunday-school picnics from the beginning of time, it drizzled that afternoon, but the thousand mine inspectors, mine workers, mine owners, engineers, superintendents, and chemists did not stay home on that account; and after the manner of watched pots since the stone age, it fizzled, that giant fire cracker; and mine inspectors, mine workers, mine owners, engineers, superintendents, and chemists stood ankle-deep in a plowed field on a hill-side, shooed up to coigns of safety by the state constabulary, and held fast by the cold mud from three in the afternoon to half-past six. Once, twice, three times the government men tried it (the wiring was defective), before the mine went off.

But go off it did, finally, the night silhouetting the stupendous breaker of churning flame into the most wonderful piece of fireworks ever seen. It poured over and up, toppling the tall trees of the grove, setting far branches afire, and making the ears ache.

In the dark a sober crowd groped down the slippery paths to the special train. Men who had helped carry out bodies from Monongah, and Darr, and Marianna, knew what little chance there had been for them in the path of such forces; they knew that had this demonstration come five years earlier those 361 men at Monongah might now be living men; and so with the rest.

But to know the secret which the seared mine-mouths kept so long is only



SMOKE ROOM FOR RESCUE TRAINING.

The men are wearing various types of artificial breathing-apparatus. The plate at the left shows the oxygen tanks worn on the back, which permit breathing for two hours in deadly atmospheres. To work to advantage, a rescue man must not only be accustomed to breathing the artificial air, but to handling himself in his helmet against all sorts of odds. To force a way through the débris of a wrecked mine is more strenuous than surf-bathing or foot-ball; prowess at it demands training. This smoke-filled chamber, with its passages for crawling, climbing, etc., is used for practice work.

the beginning of prevention. The dust is there and must be conquered. Expert shot firers and the safety powders are one line of attack; water sprayed in the passages and exhaust steam turned into the ventilating currents may keep the dust from igniting; zones of rock or shale-dust, clay or sand, may keep the flames from spreading. Still other lines of protection are anticipated; water pressure may even supplant powder as an agent for loosening coal. Moreover, explosive dust is a characteristic only of bituminous mines; mine-fires and gas are to be reckoned with here and elsewhere. Further, 50 per cent of mine fatalities are not due to any such spectacular causes which can be struck at with sweeping blows, but are due to falls of roof. Again, 29 per cent of the miners of West Virginia are to-day Southern or Eastern Europeans; 43 per cent of those killed or injured in the state in the last five years were of this recent immigration, among whom not one out of five has had mining experience in the country from which he came. Such facts seem to call in the name of safety for a fixed period of apprenticeship for miners. The campaign of human conservation thus entered upon by the bureau of mines, promising as it is, is therefore only fairly broached. The bureau's relations to the mining interests is that of "helpful co-operation and not of intrusion or of interference." It supplies the progressive operator with demonstrated fact and method; the progressive state with standards which it can set in law and enforcement.

The first aid exhibition in Forbes Field was an illustration of this co-operative work of the federal service. President Taft spoke, Secretary Fisher, Governor Tener, Miss Boardman of the Red Cross, and others, but the stars were the helmeted rescue-men and the long lines of first aid teams, in blue jumpers, flannels, khaki, and even white ducks. Six rescue stations are maintained by the Bureau of Mines, in addition to its seven rescue cars. In many instances the cars cannot arrive at the scene of disaster in time to be of service, their chief use

being to travel from point to point and to train resident miners in rescue work. Five thousand were so trained the first twelve months of the bureau's existence; there are to-day 300 oxygen helmets throughout the coal fields, and in the last two years between thirty and forty coal companies have purchased rescue equipments; three states (Illinois, Kentucky, and Ohio) and fifty companies have established rescue stations. First aid work was started about 1899 in the anthracite fields, where it is now practically an essential feature of mining, one miner in fifty having knowledge of the work. When the American Red Cross organized a separate first aid department it employed Dr. M. J. Schields of Scranton; and at about the same time the Young Men's Christian Association made first aid a part of their educational work. The Philadelphia and Reading sent down to Pittsburgh a corps with badges that showed a long string of victories in local competitions in which no less than seventy-eight teams participate. Eight teams recently contested in a Colorado meet; the work of the Tennessee Coal and Iron Company in the Birmingham district is a story in itself; the Northwestern Improvement Company sent a team east from Tacoma; and the bituminous districts turned out largely for the Pittsburgh demonstration.

It was a field day for safety. The cheering bleachers and, even more, the personal interest of the big operating men, bespoke the miracle of a new front—constructive, organized, aggressive—upon the grim fact that six miners go down each day in the coal pits of the United States never to come up again. The conservation of mineral resources, efficiency, the elimination of waste in combustion, the development of new fuels—all fall within the scope of the Federal Bureau of Mines: all are receiving attention; but "Safety first" was the slogan printed on the Pittsburgh program—printed over and over again in the tongues in which it means life and death:

"Ben pecnost—Prva."

"Sicurezza—Prima."

"Bez pieczenstwo—Pierw."

"Biz tonsag—Elso."

¹A comprehensive report on accidents in coal mines as affected by immigrant labor was prepared by Earle Clark for the Federal Immigration Commission and is to be published in its findings.

UNDER THE BORDER LIGHTS

MARY BOYLE O'REILLY

They sat side by side watching the moving pictures—the vaudeville artist and the social worker; one beruffled, plume-crowned, with flaming cheeks, the other correctly austere in serge and furs. The tentative way in which the vaudevillist opened a stick of gum indicated her willingness to make friends.

"Are there many moving-picture theatres in Boston?" asked the social worker.

"There are thirty-eight—going on thirty-nine," answered the other in an odd, metallic voice. "You come from the country, perhaps?"

"Well, not very far out. What is the chance for a girl in vaudeville—Ah! what a pretty picture!"

"You think so?" the professional tone was a little patronizing. "For me, I hate them pastoral scenes. But I love the villains! You see I do a song-and-dance act myself. I'm Miss Della Dalrymple of the Imperial. . . . I don't think I caught your name."

"Mamie Riley," murmured the other humbly.

"My! is that so! Well, Miss Mamie Riley, I'm not one to stand in no girl's way, especially if they're tired of their job. But take it from me straight: when you've been in this burg as long as I have you'll know that any work gets to be slow when it means your bread and butter."

In the half-dark a girlish figure came up the inclined aisle.

"Hello, Stella," called the vaudeville girl. "Do stay just a minute. Sit here. Oh! my eye! What a grand raglan! Fourteen ninety-eight! *And a willow plume.* My, but you are an up-to-date dresser! Oh! x'cuse me. This is my lady friend, Miss Mamie Riley, Miss Stella Stapleton. She's looking for a job. Say, Stella, why ain't you working at the Royal? You didn't have *another* row with that old skinflint?"

The newcomer's young face hardened instantly; her glance sought refuge on the biograph screen.

"Meb'be," she answered defiantly. "Anyway, I'm through. Della Dal-

rymple, I'm just tired of working. What is the use of always getting barely enough to keep alive. . . . Never a cent left over for a little fun. Del', you're twenty and I ain't but nineteen—I tell you I'm sick of living. Did you see in the paper today where it said how that woman in the Back Bay spent ten thousand dollars for one dress? *Ten thousand dollars*, and us like this!" She thrust her slender arm beyond the loose cuff of the fawn-colored coat to show a sleazy silken sleeve rubbed and ragged along the seams. The poignant bitterness of her tone forbade expostulation. The two other women watched her miserably.

"Well, I must be going!" She rose abruptly with a swish of skirts. "Pleased to have met you, Miss Mamie Riley. So long, Della," and she was gone.

"Honest, she ain't to blame," explained Miss Della Dalrymple, "she just wasn't born to be happy. Back home she sang in the church; but she was bound to sing in grand opera. So she cashiered in a store to earn money and somebody said—what wasn't true. Wasn't that sickenin'? She thought she couldn't face the cutting looks, so she ran away."

"Could we help her a little, perhaps?" asked the social worker.

"My, no, Stella would starve before she took a cent!"

"I did not mean money, exactly," explained the other, "but just being friendly; letting her know we care; giving her a lift out of the loneliness."

"Oh, I see," commented Miss Della Dalrymple, in a tone that proved she did not see at all. "That's acting real kind, I'm sure. But I'm afraid Stella don't go to your church."

"What has that to do with helping? Surely we women can lend each other a hand, whichever our church."

Miss Della Dalrymple drew a long breath.

"Honest, that sounds good to me," she said. "That's what you call being a philanthropist, ain't it? Say, I'd like to be one of them philanthropists *my-*

self. Still, I think religion's a real interestin' thing to talk of, don't you? Well, I *am* glad." She sat back sideways, facing her companion in the warm dark. "You see, nobody troubled much about my religion—sure, I know, "*Now I lay me.*" 'Course I went to sociables and choir practice like everybody; but, honest, I picked up the Lord's prayer for *myself*. When you stop to think there's a whole religion right in that one prayer. Sometimes I wonder if I thought that all myself or just saw where somebody wrote it. You see I always read the religious pieces in the newspapers. I think President Eliot is real interestin' when he talks about that there universal church of his. I always cut them pieces out. No joshin'. I think they are real educatin'. But say, do you know—it ain't for me to be knockin' President Eliot—but I sometimes think he hasn't thought all the way round that idea? Back home, in my little town, there was four barns of churches and only fifty-eight voters. It was mostly deacons that handed out the seven deadly sins and the wrath to come to their intimate friends. But I'll put you wise; them churches wasn't too small to have four rows going on in every one of them all the time. Well, I guess! if we all belonged to one universal church wouldn't it be a continuous performance?"

"It certainly would," laughed the social worker, but next instant Miss Della Dalrymple's mobile face was serious.

"I learned a lovely poem once," she said gravely. "It told what you said just now about giving a girl a lift. I cut it out but I never thought of doing it for a good action. But say, after this I'm going to do my share. There's Stella Stapleton now you saw a minute ago. . . . Don't she just need somebody to be friendly? She's working at the Palace, I'll bet, just by her looks. Oh, gee, she was a nice girl! She was the best dancer ever. . . . Why, she could kick off a man's hat as easy—as easy! But one day she up and talked to the rest of the pony ballet about their ought to having a dressin'-room and the manager guessed it was her the first rattle. Say, he didn't do a thing to her. . . . just starved her out. . . . Half-time acts and four dollars a week. . . . Well,

when he got her down the old *hy'ena* offers her a chance clog-dancing in teamwork with Jim Reagan. My, but he was a mind-reader! Of course she took it. Wasn't she hungry, I tell you! But when she came back from the long circuit—ten dollars a week, and four days in a train—she was sick and tired of working and dotty on Jim Reagan. . . . Now, there ain't no harm in Jim Reagan. . . . He's got that kind of a face—and a cigarette, you understand, that if you look at him long enough you'll be stuck on him for fair. Well, I guess it was a shame! Before that Stella was as slick as silk. . . . Now he has her on the slant. You can take it from me for a fact she's gone so crooked that if the Pope of Rome was to try and straighten her out the old gentleman would be tired of his job. I says that 'cause Jimmie and Stella is Catholic-Catholics. That's what they was raised, and that's what they'd better live up to. Now there's Catholic-Catholics—they think well on the saints, and bein' sorry for your sins; and then there's just Catholics, *they don't*, but they're tonier, more style, and no bother, and they call theirselves the High Church of England. . . . My! don't my mind wander something awful? We was talking of Jimmie and Stella. Honest, you've given me the real helpin'-hand idea. It looks like they was up to me. Well, you can listen for Stella's wedding bells to ring! *Adios!*"

And gathering all her properties she fled to dress for her turn.

A few weeks later Miss Della Dalrymple stood before the social worker, both beringed hands laid carefully on her supple hips.

"Well, say, don't being a *flanthropist* get to be real responsible?" she asked soberly. "I suppose you've heard about Stella? No? Well this is a big world and it's full of busy people. You haven't forgotten I was bridesmaid for Stella and Jimmie? Well, now I've got to find a godmother for the baby! You never tumbled there *was* a baby? Well, honest, I *was* surprised! Between you and me, now, wasn't it a lucky baby? Some infants is born lucky and some just has luck thrust upon them. This is one of the times you can take your choice.

Is Stella pleased? Well, I guess you don't know Stella. I told her last week: 'Miss Stapleton, you've got to cut out that Bloom-of-Youth if you don't want to poison the only child you ever had. And she done it right off. And Jimmie? Well, honest, I have to smile. He's cut down on his cigarettes, and he says Stella ain't going to dance no more. 'The mother of my child,' he says, 'ain't going to appear in no ten-cent theater.' Ain't that perfectly grand? I'm glad, for I feel real responsible about that baby; just like it was mine—without any scandal, you understand. While I thought it was going to die I didn't say nothin'; but now it's pickin' up to get real well I'm just set on havin' it christened. You see, I'm off on the long circuit: Nova Scotia and the Provinces for mine, and the Lord knows where Stella and Jimmie will be when I hike back. So I up and talks to Stella about the christening, but Stella she was shy to go back to that church just now. She thought it looked too soon. . . . Was I pleased? Not me! I just put on my hat with the willow plume and up I went. It was a new priest came into the parlor. He was *young*, you understand. Did he hand me a frost? Oh, no, not at all. But I says to myself: 'My friend, if you wasn't so nasty nice I'd break it to you gentle that only for me *your* church would be short a baby.' But he listened all right; and say, it was surprisin' how he caught on. Honest, he wasn't so awful young after all. At the end he says: 'Sunday at two: No, I will not forget. Good bye, Miss Dalrymple; you are a good woman. May Gaw'd bless you.'

"Well! I was took back! Before I thought I says, 'Say that again and say it slow.' Then he smiles—my, but he had a lovely smile—that smile in top-boots and doublet would bring fifty dollars a week! So I says, 'Go as far as you like. I'm putting you wise. It's going to be a screamer of a christening and I'll be the godmother.' Then he looked real solemn. 'I'm sorry to hear you have planned that, Miss Dalrymple,' he says, 'because I will have to disappoint you.' No, he wasn't stringing me. It wasn't on account of me being in the chorus. I'm betting *he* never heard of

the pony; it was the rule, you understand. There are awful strict rules over christenings. No, I wasn't mad. Honest, I have strict rules. Somehow you kind'er feel they *belong* to a company you'd like to get into.

"When he explains, I says like this, 'Don't you worry none. I'm going to see this act through on the level. Leave it to me.' And he says, 'I will.'

"So I hikes back to the boarding-house to find a godmother, thinking all the time of Mrs. Barrington-Brown, *Mrs.* Barrington Brown, you observe. Gee, but she's a hummer. She's in stock. And I says to *Mrs.* Barrington-Brown, 'Say, *Mrs.* Barrington-Brown, ain't you a Catholic—I mean a Catholic-Catholic?' And she just screams, 'Oh! Del! what makes you think that?'

"Then I says, 'Well, no harm meant, of course, but there's something about your profile makes me think you are.'

"'Well, I was, once,' says *Mrs.* Barrington-Brown, real sad. So I said, 'Well, seeing we're in a hurry, that's good enough for me,' and I told her about them strict rules and the christening. But *Mrs.* Barrington-Brown took to crying and wringing her hands. 'Oh! Del.' she says, 'I can't, honest I can't; and what's more I darsen't. Del', I've forgotten the Lord's Prayer and I don't know the Creed any more. What could I do?'

"'Do?' says I real short and sharp, 'Do? *Mrs.* Barrington-Brown, you make me tired; don't you try no Lady Macbeth business on me; this is the time I've got you dead to rights. What would you do? Suppose you was playing one-night stands on the road and the act didn't go. What would you do? You know well enough that you'd hike to your room and study your lines. And that's what you're going to do *now*. I can't be that infant's godmother, and you're going to. *Rules is rules.*'

"That's all, of course, except I'm going to have my way. It sounds awful sober, but you can take it from me straight, it would make a cat laugh to see me in my dizzy-lizzie make-up teaching *Mrs.* Barrington-Brown what she believes. Now, honest, don't being a *filanthropist* get to be real responsible?"

THE STRUGGLE FOR THE BRITISH HEALTH BILL

RANDOLPH J. BRODSKY

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THE ABC OF THE INSURANCE BILL

(Introduced by Mr. Lloyd George on behalf of the Liberal Government.)

1. Every working man or woman whose wages are less than 23 a week will have a chance of joining a good Friendly Society at less than half price.
2. It costs on the average 9d. a week to join a Friendly Society with good benefits.
3. Every man whose wages are over 15s. a week will contribute 4d. a week from his wages (3d. a week for women).
4. Those who earn less than 15s. a week will contribute less from their wages, down to the woman or the boy with 9s. a week, who will only contribute 1d.
5. The employer and the State, between them, will have to make up the rest of the 9d. a week necessary to insure the man (5d. for the woman).
6. Every man who contributes this 4d. a week from his wages (3d. in the case of women) will be entitled free to all the benefits that 9d. a week can buy him in the best Friendly Society. The State will pay the 5d. a week for him.
7. If a man is already a member of a Friendly Society, contributing more than 4d. a week, he will not need to contribute anything more in future, but rather less.
8. If he now contributes 9d. a week to his Society he will be able to save 5d. a week after the Bill is passed, for he would then be able to get 9d. worth of benefits for 4d.
9. Or, if he preferred, he could continue to contribute the same as before and get nearly double benefits.
10. Any person up to the age of 65 can join any Society on as good terms as if he (or she) were only 18. The State will pay the difference.
11. The workmen themselves will be able to exercise control over the administration of the insurance scheme. They can elect their own officers and say whether sick pay is to be granted or not.
12. For 4s. a week (women 2d.) the insured person will get five benefits: Medical Benefit, Sanatorium Benefit, Sickness Benefit, Disablement and Maternity Benefits.
13. If there is a surplus, after these benefits are paid, as there is certain to be, he will get additional benefits.
14. Medical Benefit means free doctors and medicine.
15. Sanatorium Benefit means free residence at a sanatorium for consumptives, with sick pay for his wife and children.
16. Sickness Benefit means sick pay of 19s. a week (woman 7s. 6d.) for the first 13 weeks and 6s. a week for the second 13 weeks.
17. Disablement Benefit means 6s. a week during permanent disablement or invalidity.
18. Maternity Benefit means 30s. for the wife of an insured person at childbirth.
19. During sickness the man who is insured under the Bill need not continue his contributions, and his Society will not count him in arrears.
20. During unemployment a contributor is not required to continue his contributions so long as his unemployment does not exceed an average of three weeks a year. If he fails to pay his contributions for a longer period through unemployment, up to an average of thirteen weeks a year, he may still draw benefits at a reduced rate. At present members of Friendly Societies have got to keep up their contributions both during sickness and unemployment.

A LEAFLET DISTRIBUTED BROADCAST IN THE LLOYD GEORGE CAMPAIGN.

Since the repeal of the Corn Laws no British legislative measure has aroused such intense interest as the National Insurance Bill. Neither the Morocco incident that nearly ended in war nor the great railway strike that temporarily paralyzed trade caused any abatement in this interest. This is the high-water mark of socialized British Liberalism. It represents the entire abandonment of the old liberal-individualistic doctrine, both in the assumption by the state of responsibility toward its economically weaker citizens, and in the forcing on those citizens of a compulsory principle hitherto believed to be antagonistic to the very foundations of the "free-born Briton's" character. The National Insurance Bill is a colossal scheme covering as it does 14,000,000 people.¹ In contrast, the existing friendly society benefits only reach, at the outside, some 5,000,000

¹The health insurance system only is discussed here. An outline by Prof. H. R. Seager of the whole British Insurance Bill, including both health and insurance features, appeared in THE SURVEY of September 23. As originally planned, the bill included pensions for widows and orphans, a feature only this year added to the German system of state insurance.

persons, the trades unions 2,400,000, and these the most prosperous of the working community. The rest can only take out death benefits at disproportionate expense in industrial insurance organizations. Asserting the inadequacy of voluntary and industrial insurance and of charitable institutions, the English labor movement has urged compulsory state insurance and other social legislation during the past decade. The Liberal Government, recognizing that Germany with its vast system of state care for the working population has increased national efficiency and out-distanced England in the competitive struggle for the international market, adopted the social program urged upon them by labor, as much from motives of economic self-interest as of social reform.

Aside from its scope, embracing the vast majority of the working population of the British Isles, and taking in not only the care but the prevention of disease, the bill is peculiarly interesting in that it makes skillful use of existing

English agencies together with new administrative institutions patterned on the German experience; and that it comes at a time when the problems of poverty and industrial stagnation have become acute. When the bill was introduced in Parliament last May by Lloyd George, chancellor of the exchequer, it met with spontaneous approval, the Opposition uniting with the Government in its support. Gradually, however, the full significance of each provision became clear to the various interests that would be affected, and difficulties arose for adjustment. Friendly societies which maintained coöperative drug stores came into conflict with the pharmacists who, under the bill, were given the right to dispense all medicines. The hospitals claimed that the bill would increase their cases and that the insurance rates would deprive them of many voluntary contributions from working people and employers; therefore they demanded state payment for in-patients, as well as exemption from payment for their own employes. Householders and farmers also demanded exemption. Suffragettes and representatives of working women complained of the inferior terms under which the benefit would be paid to women—in return, it is true, for a lower contribution. Insurance companies operating among industrial populations and fearing that the bill might cut down their business asked to participate in the insurance system. Small societies objected to the 10,000 membership limit set in the first draft of the bill. Employers felt that the whole community should share the burden. Though the Labor party as a whole supported it, a minority in that body, as well as the Dockers' Union, the Social Democratic Federation, and the Anti-Sweating League, opposed the contributory features and the treatment of poorer insurers vigorously. The Irish labor unions contended, as a matter of course, for home rule.

The chancellor, for many years president of the Board of Trade and a skilled arbitrator, mollified these and many other opponents. A greater difficulty was, however, encountered in satisfying the claims of doctors and friendly

societies. A preliminary review of the Insurance Bill is essential to a discussion of the claims of the critics, particularly of these two groups.

Lloyd George's health scheme, which was framed with the co-operation of the friendly societies, covers sickness, invalidity, and maternity. Out of a total wage-earning population of 19,000,000, 14,000,000 persons are to receive its health benefits as compulsory insurers. These fourteen millions include all working persons under sixty-five years who are in receipt of an income not exceeding \$800 a year, with the exception of those working on their own account, wives working for their husbands, casual domestics and workers, commission agents working for more than one employer, and pensionable government employes. Sailors and soldiers are to be covered by a special fund. In addition to the compulsory insurers, special provision is made for voluntary insurance, which will probably take in some 850,000 persons, the majority being wives of compulsory insurers. On her marriage a woman's contributions while compulsory insurer are returned to her.

Those insured under the compulsory scheme are divided into two groups, members of approved societies and post office or deposit contributors. Under the term "approved society" come trade unions, clubs formed of policy-holders of industrial insurance corporations, and friendly societies. These approved societies must be self-governing organizations, not on a profit-making basis, with membership large enough to secure against risk, and must provide medical treatment and money benefits.

Employers' benefit funds are allowed in this group under certain conditions. They must, however, be in a position to grant the minimum benefit for the statutory contribution. Any member is, however, given the right to transfer his subscription and his employer's share with it to any ordinary society, if he desires to do so. The principle of self-government remains, but the employer is allowed one-fourth representation in the management of the society, if he makes himself responsible for the solvency of the fund. The requirement as

to a minimum number of members is not applied to employers' funds.

It has been estimated that 12,000,000 persons, or 86 per cent of the insured, would be members of approved societies existing or created. Those who do not wish to join benefit societies or who are disqualified for membership by physical, mental, or moral defects constitute the post office or deposit contributors. This class, which will number some 900,000 persons—14 per cent of the insured—represents low risks, that is, high morbidity and mortality rates. Special precautions have therefore been taken against possible depletion of the treasury. The post office depositor is deprived of invalidity insurance. His waiting period for the sick and medical benefit is prolonged and under ordinary conditions the sick benefit he is allowed to draw must not exceed the amount of his deposits. Under certain conditions, however, the local health committees who administer the benefits of this group of insured may, with the consent of the treasury or the local authority, enlarge the benefits of post office depositors by spending more money than the actual amount of the contributor's deposit upon medical treatment, the treasury and local authorities

the age of sixteen, it is estimated that the following expenditures will be necessary for each person participating:

1.51d.	for doctor
.32d.	" sanatorium
.92d.	" administration
.64d.	" maternity
2.16d.	" sickness
.78d.	" disablement
<hr/>	
6.33d.	
.67d.	margin
<hr/>	
7.00d.	total

As the contributions per beneficiary from all sources amount to 9d., a margin of 2d. per beneficiary will be provided for; that is, a reserve amounting to the government's own contribution. -

Contributions are uniform for all ages. On the basis of entrance at sixteen years, it is estimated by the sponsors of the bill that the liability accruing from this novel method of ungraded premiums will be wiped out by the government contribution in about sixteen years, during which time the minimum rate of benefits can be paid. The following budget of income and expenditures shows the government's estimates for the next sixteen years, during which it expects to wipe out the initial liability.

TOTAL INCOME AND EXPENDITURES.

	Contributions by Employers and Insured.	Money Provided by Parliament.	Total Income.	Total Expenditure.
1912-13.....	£16,500,000	£1,900,000	£18,400,000	£7,300,000
1913-14.....	18,300,000	3,500,000	21,800,000	13,600,000
1914-15.....	18,700,000	4,100,000	22,800,000	15,600,000
1915-16.....	19,100,000	4,200,000	23,300,000	16,200,000
1916-17.....	19,400,000	4,400,000	23,800,000	16,700,000
1917-18.....	19,800,000	4,500,000	24,300,000	17,100,000
1922-23.....	21,200,000	5,100,000	26,300,000	19,600,000
1927-28.....	22,600,000	5,500,000	28,100,000	21,300,000

each defraying one-half the additional expenditure. The arrangements for post office contributors are tentative for three years.

To members of approved societies the rate of contribution is, in the words of Lloyd George, "4d. for 9d."—3d. for 8d. in the case of women—the remaining 5d. a week being supplied 2d. by the government, and 3d. by the employer. Rates of contribution are graded for those whose wages are under 2s. 6d., the minimum weekly contributions being one penny. To provide the minimum benefits under the state scheme in the case of a man joining at

The minimum sickness benefit obtained for these contributions is 10s. a week for men and 7s. 6d. for women, to begin after the fourth day of illness and continue for thirteen weeks. Those paying lower than 4d. contributions receive correspondingly lower benefits. If illness continues after this time 5s. is provided for the following thirteen weeks. Invalidity benefit begins at the twenty-seventh week and continues at the rate of 5s. until the patient is eligible for an old-age pension. A maternity benefit of 30s. is to be paid to the wives of insured men or to unmarried mothers who are insured. This latter benefit will be paid to some-

thing like a million mothers annually. Besides money payments the insured will receive free medical attendance and medicine, and sanatorium care in cases of tuberculosis or certain other specified diseases.

A comparison of the English with the German system shows the English bill to be more advantageous to the insured in that the workman bears a smaller proportion of the expense and has the entire administration of the funds. The employer bears a larger share of the financial burden and the government contributes not merely as in Germany to the invalidity fund but to that for sickness as well. The maternity benefit is on a basis far wider than that of Germany, where it is so hedged about with restrictions as to reach comparatively few. The estimated annual cost of this maternity benefit in the British Isles will be £1,500,000; in Germany, with a population almost half again as large, it is only £300,000.

The cost of management will be reduced to a minimum by the method of collection through existing approved organizations. The method of collecting contributions, the most vital part of a compulsory plan, is simple. The workman obtains from his friendly society or the post office a card issued by the Insurance Commissioner. To this his employer attaches each week stamps to the amount of the workman's and his own contribution, the former being held back from wages. At intervals these cards are cashed-in to the insurance office by the societies. The sums paid for stamps, together with the contribution of the government, form the national health insure fund. The greater part of this fund will, on the plan of the German Sick Funds, which have in this way cut down their sickness rate, be invested by the National Debt Commissioner in loans for sanitary housing. The friendly societies retain the right to invest the workmen's own contributions.

Sanitary housing is one side of the health campaign; the general work of preventing and caring for disease is the other. This is entrusted to local health committees, bodies which will supplement the work of already existing health

authorities. Their special functions will be the administration of the funds for medical care and sanitation and the conducting of an educational campaign. More important still, they will have the power to demand a public inquiry in cases of excessive local sickness due to neglect of public health, factory, or housing acts. If the case is proved against a local authority, that authority will have to reimburse the insurance fund through the societies or, in the case of post office contributors, through the health committee, for any expenses it has incurred—reimbursing itself in turn from the local property owner at fault, if the fault is a private rather than a public one. This system will mean also the accumulation of invaluable records of public health and the automatic revelation of "black spots" to be cleaned out.

The sphere of action, the powers, and the influence of the local health committees being from the beginning so large, and subject to such indefinite extension, their personnel will be of immense importance. The friendly societies and the medical profession are to be included, besides representatives of county or borough councils and of the post office contributors. General supervision of the insurance system will be entrusted to a Board of Insurance Commissioners—with a central office in London and branches throughout the country—aided by an advisory committee of representatives of employers' associations, approved societies—including trades unions as a balance to the employers' representatives—physicians, and other experts chosen by the commission. Women are eligible for membership in all committees. The expenses of the Board of Commissioners will be met out of the national exchequer.

Such is the National Insurance Bill. Some idea of the number of its critics has already been given. It has been strongly objected to both in principle and in detail. The basic contributory plan has been attacked by the group of representatives spoken of above, who, using the metaphor of the dog who fed upon its own tail, claim that the worker pays both his own and (in enhanced price as consumer) the employer's contribution.

They say further that the contributory system renders the insurance almost useless to the poorest class of workers, who need it most, and who receive back only what they give. The full benefits of the system go, they hold, only to the well-paid workers, who need them least. Other critics object to the total exclusion of the married woman from the compulsory plan. Others again object to the age limit of sixty-five for admission to the system, which leaves an interval of five years during which an aged person is eligible to no state assistance. This latter difficulty, it is expected, will be met by lowering the inferior limit for old age pensions by five years. Lack of funds and difficulties of administration will make it necessary to deal with the other problems by later legislation. The believers in the bill point out that when the accrued liability due to the flat rate system of contribution is met, large sums will be released for extending and perfecting the system.

After this period of debt is passed the plan is to increase maternity, sickness, and invalidity benefits. Besides this increase in existing benefits, the government contemplates adding new ones, such as free medicine for dependents and a benevolent fund for members in economic distress, and extending and improving the whole public health system, so as to make it an integral part of the Liberal scheme of social legislation, which is planned to cover all contingencies, from accident to old age, that befall the working man.

Two serious protestants the government had to deal with. Both are essential parts of the mechanism of the national insurance system: the friendly society because the whole work of organization and management of sick benefit is left in its hands; the medical profession because it is called upon as part of a public scheme to administer medical treatment to some 14,000,000 people. How important complete harmony and close co-operation between these two elements is, is shown by the German experience, where their quarrels have seriously handicapped the system. From the very introduction of the English bill

fears were entertained of a possible collision, and, when the clash actually occurred, the excitement was communicated to the general public, which watched with curiosity the struggle between common friendly society man and "gentleman" doctor. Under the bill the friendly society or trade union is promised state aid, is guaranteed a steady and increased business through a compulsory plan that will give it stability and permanence. It is presented with a reserve fund and, if it already possesses reserves of its own, it will be enabled to reduce contributions for the same benefits or increase benefits for the same subscriptions. It will prosper, but at the price of partial renunciation of the self-government principle and certain other privileges. From now on the government will stand between the friendly society and the individual member; from now on the friendly society becomes an "approved" society; it submits itself to the supervision, regulation, restriction, and reorganization desired by the government. From now on it will be obliged to make regular valuation of its assets and liabilities and will be restricted in its right of investing its sickness benefit funds. None of the friendly society activities except these sickness funds will, however, be affected. In respect to one form of society, the trade unions, it is estimated that the insurance will mean a donation of some \$12,000,000. At the publication of the bill the friendly societies showed a rather sympathetic attitude toward it. They became, however, more reserved when Parliament, under the pressure of the insurance interests represented by the eighty directors of insurance companies who sit in the lower house, extended the definition of approved society so as to include in the scheme the industrial insurance companies and collecting societies, and permitted them to form sick clubs of their policy-holders. These profit-making institutions the friendly societies viewed as dangerous and unfair competitors. They feared that industrial corporations, with their hordes of paid agents and solicitors, would soon crowd them out; that high officials and agents, and not the policy-holders, would

administer the business; that there would be an end of the self-government principle guaranteed by the bill.

Finally, when Parliament, persuaded by the interests represented by the British Medical Association, made changes in the bill that deprived the friendly societies by the stroke of a line of the power of making their own arrangements to secure efficient medical treatment and transferred this power to the local health committee, they began to manifest a feeling of hostility toward the bill and of distrust towards its framer. They saw themselves with their traditions of self-government, mutual help, and social intercourse in unequal competition with the insurance companies' sick clubs, in no sense democratic but governed by the company officials; and they saw their whole medical system passing out of their hands into those of the doctors and the health committees. The additional money advantage to their members did not balance the danger to their social and democratic traditions. At a special convention of the National Conference of Friendly Societies, they formulated a series of minimum demands and sent an ultimatum to the chancellor to the effect that unless their demands were granted they would repudiate the bill and refuse the administration of the act. Among these demands, the restitution of their control over the medical treatment of their members occupies the most prominent place; and on this issue—"the free choice of a doctor"—the battle was concentrated for several months. So much for the Friendly Societies' side.

In transferring the administration of medical benefit from the approved society to local health committees, Parliament expressed its belief in the principle of individual choice of a doctor. It decided that, in the interest of the individual member who may become ill, from considerations of efficient and economical administration and general health, it is desirable that the whole question of medical benefit should be turned over to local health committees. The latter will maintain an approved local list of doctors whom the local contributors may freely choose instead of being forced to use the "club" doctor employed on contract by

the friendly society or pay, in addition to their dues, for a physician of their own choice. The class of "soft" doctors, who are willing to give certificates to malingerers and cause the depletion of the society treasury, can be held in check, the adherents of this plan maintain, by their own profession, which will protect itself and the scheme by organizing watch committees. The daily experience of club treatment shows that the members often do not take advantage of the right to the attendance of the club doctor, but prefer to pay for a doctor of their own choice.

The doctors' side of the question remains to be considered. Doctors have hitherto accepted contract practice, with friendly and other societies, partly in order to get a start in life, partly to obtain experience, and often because, although in good practice, they were willing to do the work from altruistic motives. In many places, indeed, there has been no "doctor difficulty," the friendly societies treating the doctors reasonably and considerately. But under a scheme nation-wide in application the doctors were faced with the proposition that an engrossing share of their practice would become contract practice at a rate of pay which they held would be unremunerative. If the greater part of a physician's practice was to be turned into club practice, they claimed that a much higher rate per head would have to be charged. The chancellor agreed to fix this rate at 6s. per capita, without the medicine, as against the 5s., 4s., and even 3s. contract doctors have been accustomed to receive from friendly societies.

The final question at issue between doctors and friendly societies was the control of the local health committees, and to their demand for a majority on these bodies the societies were determined not to yield. In this fight the Opposition, the Conservative party, took the part of the societies. Afraid, to the minds of the Liberals, to attack the bill openly, and at the same time fully conscious of the fact that, if passed, it would establish a monument to the present Government, the Conservatives deemed this the proper moment to retard the progress of the bill. "Willing

to wound, but afraid to strike," they, in the words of Lloyd George, "gave a yap and then said to friendly societies and trade unions, 'You go at it.'" Their press recorded painstakingly the slightest manifestations of dissatisfaction—"revolt," they called it—from friendly society, labor man, socialist, suffragette, hospital officer, or private individual. They dwelt upon the unpopularity of the bill, the complexity of the situation, the inadequacy and unripeness of the bill, and finally went so far as to urge its withdrawal. Disappointed that the old-age pension bill stood to the credit of the Liberal government, they sought to block further social legislation by the party in power. For a time, this taking the bill into politics seriously endangered it, but gradually the situation cleared. The election results in Kilmarnock, where the campaign was conducted and won on the issue of the insurance bill, brought some relief and encouragement in Government circles, as did the effect on the public of Lloyd George's speech on the bill at Whitefield's Tabernacle on October 14. In this address Mr. Lloyd George presented the strong features of the bill, revealed the intrigues and the misrepresentations of the Opposition, and carried with him the audience and the general public by the declaration, "I will fight through or fall." To clinch this victory there appeared at this time a Report on Trade Unions Under the Scheme, prepared by an actuary of national standing, on behalf of organized labor, which pointed out, to the surprise of the labor unions themselves, that they would derive great advantages from the act. Soon after Ramsay MacDonald, M. P., chairman of the Labor party, made a public statement to the effect that the Labor party had passed a resolution in support of the insurance bill. He promised that all his influence would be used to aid its passage and stated that opinions contrary to the bill were held by but two or three members of the party. In the meantime the chancellor was using his influence to bring the two chief conflicting interests to terms. He brought the friendly societies to the point of attending joint meetings with representatives of the medical

profession, at which both sides made some concessions. On October 19 a great meeting of all friendly societies was held, at which the leaders surprised the audience by announcing that the chancellor of the exchequer had conceded nine out of their original eleven demands, and by moving a resolution in support of the bill, which was carried. The important concessions were: the right of investing their own funds; the right of self-government for the sick clubs of insurance companies; and, most important of all, the right to appoint the majority of representatives on local health committees. The acceptance of the amended bill by the societies was followed by the election of committees made up of doctors and society men to work out a *modus vivendi*. It is generally believed that the doctors, whose points as to larger fees and free choice have already been met, will soon be brought fully into line. With the heaviest opposition thus satisfied, all things point to the prospect that within a matter of weeks the bill will become law. Early the past month forty-two out of seventy clauses of the bill—and these the most important ones—had been voted on affirmatively in the House of Commons. The law once passed, England like Germany will possess a complete system of workingmen's insurance, so indispensable under present industrial conditions for the preservation of the workman's efficiency, the maintenance of his family, and the preservation of the nation of which he is an integral part. The full realization of the national aspect, of the constructive importance of the measure, the firm belief that it is intended for the common good, sounded through all deliberation and struggle. It was heard unmistakably by all classes of the population. Whether simple friendly society man or scientists of the medical profession, whether wage-earners or captains of industry, all have been made finally to understand that the Insurance Bill is a great measure in consideration of which selfish interest must be swept aside. In another case, that virility of the Englishman which seems to be his distinguishing asset has again come to a clear expression.

THE LODGING HOUSE

W. P. ENGLAND

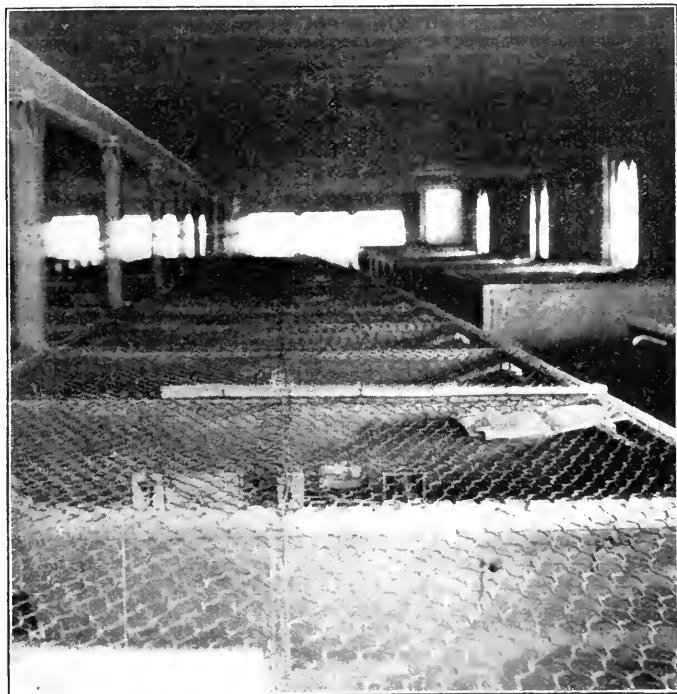
FIELD SECRETARY YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION, CHICAGO

There is a tale of tragedy in Dollman's great picture *Am I my Brother's Keeper?* which represents a scene on the Thames embankment, London. Three figures seated at one end of a bench are those of unskilled workers without money or occupation. A fourth figure is that of a discharged soldier with a war medal on his breast which he refuses to pawn even in the face of a bitter winter night outdoors. At the other end of the bench is a man from the country, with his wife and child, who has wandered into the city in fruitless search of work.

The scene makes a tremendous appeal to human sympathy. These people are asleep with no place to lay their heads and no covering save heaven's blue dome. But from the standpoint of health their lot is not so bad as that of the men and boys who with a few cents to spend put up in the close, disease-breeding lodging houses which are permitted to sell a vermin-laden hospitality in many of our great cities.

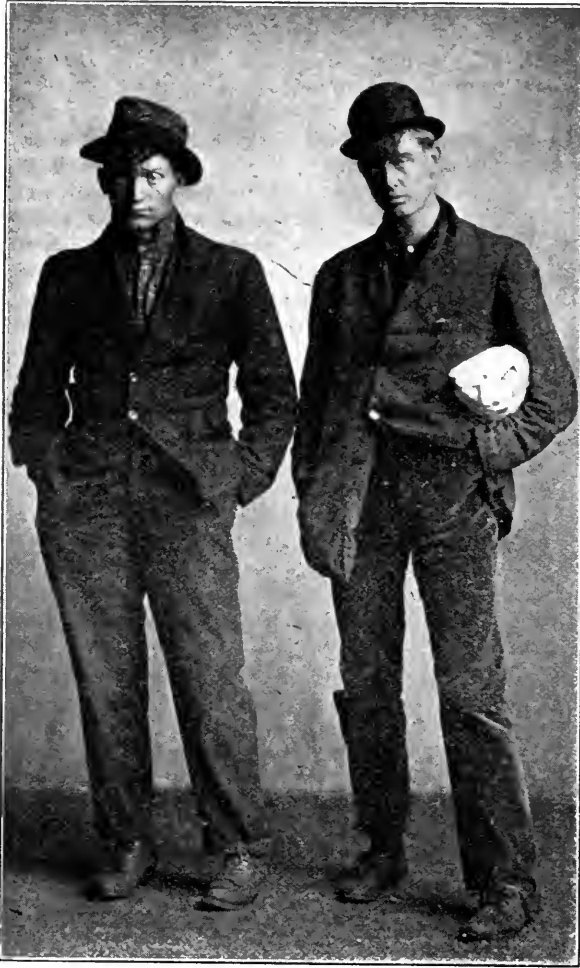
In every large city of the country thousands find nightly shelter in cheap lodging houses. To judge by investigations carried out under the direction of Abraham Bowers, immigration secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association of Chicago, 80 per cent of these houses no man can enter and be reasonably sure of leaving without being first infected with any of a dozen loathsome diseases or infected with itchy vermin. The sanitary and ventilating conditions in more than half of the Chicago lodging houses were

found to be not only deplorable but criminal. In most of them no laundry accommodations are furnished to the men and in many of them there are no baths. Common towels and a single drinking cup for an entire floor accommodating perhaps a hundred men, lack of cuspidors and often of brooms are a few of the items which go to make up a poor man's hell on earth. In one lodging house which embodies all these features, and many more, I found a ladder leading to an attic directly under the roof, scarcely four feet in height, and with little floor other than roof boards thrown across the joists which supported the ceiling of the room below. The attic had practically no ventilation and showed no signs of having been cleaned since the building was erected. What was it used for? Five senses answered the question. This was a parlor bed-room



"CELLS."

In this type sheets are changed once a week, the other bedding never. The whole is alive with vermin.



ON THE JOB.

In appearance these college-bred investigators were undistinguishable from the riff-raff in whose beds they slept.

for noisy drunks, poor men in the last stages of most horrible disease, and of old fellows so infested with vermin that even the most hardened lodger will have none of them. Not only was the air in this place the foulest, but every inch of the surface was overlaid with contaminating matter. One wishes for the pen of a Dickens or a Hugo to set out in words of burning insistence the necessity of providing some means whereby men may escape the paths which lead to these surroundings.

The Chicago investigation was carried out on a more comprehensive scale than any inquiry of recent years into lodging

house conditions. As a result of its findings gifts have been made toward an association hotel for homeless men as one step in a plan for improvement. The inquiry was carried out last March during the high-tide of the drift of casual laborers to the city. After the general plan was mapped out a meeting was held, at which a number of housing experts made suggestions.

Investigators were drawn to some extent from university men enjoying their spring vacations. A majority of the nineteen men chosen had had experience in investigations of a similar nature. They were sent out in pairs, each pair to lodge two nights in the same hotel. Each man was equipped with a large bed sheet, nine feet in length, in which to wrap himself against vermin and disease; a steel tape for computing the cubic feet of air space per lodger, and the sizes of the windows and doors for light, ventilation, blind hallways, and fire-escapes; cameras and flash-light material for interior photographs; and two kinds of questionnaires. The investigators found it difficult, either singly or in pairs, to get good photographs, but after the visits had been completed six men

formed a camera party and with the authority of the health department made forcible entry into a number of hotels and secured pictures which give a permanent graphic record of the conditions described.

Of the sixty hotels investigated, thirty-one were on the south side in a narrow district two blocks wide and five blocks long, between Van Buren and Polk streets and extending from Wabash avenue to the river; twenty-seven on the west side were confined to seven blocks, between the river and Halsted street; the other two were on the north side near the river.

The entire number had a capacity of 14,689 men in night service alone and the majority of them had day lodgers in addition. At the time of the investigation, 14,048 were found in the buildings. Including those who were known to be stopping at these houses but who could not be counted, day lodgers, those lodging at the municipal lodging house, and at those other places in the lodging house district not investigated, it was estimated that from 20,000 to 25,000 homeless men were housed at the time in the first and eighteenth wards.

These houses fall into several groups, according to the type of manager, nature of equipment, rate charged, and location. These determine the kind of patronage attracted. First, there is the most common type, called the "cell" or "stall" house, in which the rates range from ten to twenty-five cents. This type has three or four floor being a single room running the length of the building, and being divided into cells, the walls of which rise to within three feet of the ceiling and are generally made of corrugated iron sheathing—sometimes wood. There are ninety to two hundred cells on each floor. Over the top of each cell is a wire netting. The equipment consists of an iron bed two and one-half by six feet, with wire woven springs, upon which is a straw mattress and the usual coverings.

It was found that in this type the sheets were changed once a week, the other bedding never. The pillows, made of feathers and covered with a dark and greasy case, were often as heavy as lead and harder than the mattresses. The whole outfit was usually covered with a filthy dust from the dry sweepings and was alive with vermin. In almost every house of the "cell" type lavatory facilities existed on each floor but were confined to a single room. From the urinals, much of the time out of repair and seldom

ii ever clean, and the unpainted, soft wood flooring, arose odors which added to the contamination of the air in the sleeping cells. Disinfectants and fumigation are seldom used in these buildings. The lavatory equipment usually consisted of two or three wash-bowls, a roller towel to each bowl, one or two closets and a urinal. Quite often there was no soap. The two or three towels were used by all the men on a floor, which meant fifty or one hundred men to a towel. Venereal diseases and tuberculosis are so common among the transient laborers, professional criminals, and beggars living in these houses that



TO KEEP OFF VERMIN.
This device was resorted to by most of the investigators. The lodgers didn't use it.

it seems impossible that young men and boys thrown into their company for the first time can be safe.

The second type of lodging house is what is commonly called the "flop." This is the lowest form of herding men together. One visited was in a basement. The floor was covered with boards laid any way; the men slept on the floor with no protection whatsoever except a newspaper, paying five cents for the privilege. In some cases a coat was used for a pillow and an overcoat for covers. Newspapers were used as towels. At times the place is crowded and the men are arranged in rows upon the floor with no space between them, so that often one rolls over on another. The price paid for such quarters is five cents, and they are patronized regularly only by the lowest class of lodgers, most of whom, in the opinion of the investigators, never work and do not want to work—men who live by begging and pilfering.

A third type of lodging house is the degraded rooming house. The old rooms are often divided into "cells" with practically the same equipment as the "cell" lodging house. Rooms were found also which were not divided, and these contained a large number of beds arranged in rows. The price of such sleeping quarters, as in the stall houses, ranges from ten to twenty-five cents.

There are three sorts of these "rooming" houses: first, the respectable class, where a transient may obtain a fairly good night's lodging at small cost; second, houses of ill repute, where only quarters for disreputable purposes can be obtained; and lastly, the combination type, where a night's lodging can be obtained as a transient, but no objection is made to assignation if the privilege is paid for. Their mixed character makes them all the more insidious dangers to young men, unacquainted with the city, who may put up at them. The signs on the streets leading to these places are often misleading, and many a transient girl falls into them.

Taken as a whole, the lodgers in all these houses comprise the bulk of the floating population of a big city and include a large part of our social para-

sites. There is a great lack of ambition and foresight among them. Many never know where their "banner" is coming from for the next night. "Banner" is the slang expression for the money necessary for lodging. Peculation and theft are every-day occurrences. Most are casual workers. Some work on the railroads and lakes in the summer and loaf at these cheap lodging houses during the winter, living on the earnings saved during the season. Large numbers are irregularly employed, working at odd jobs, such as distributing bills, carrying signs, washing dishes. Some work for a week and rest for a week, not caring for steady employment. The professional beggar and professional criminal also have their headquarters at these places. The criminal, unlike the professional beggar, who is crippled or defective in some way, is generally a little better dressed than the ordinary lodger and is more alert. The young fellow who has had trouble at home; the boy who wants to see the world; the business man who has failed in middle age and lost out; the tramp; the criminal—all find place in the ranks.

All of the investigators agreed in the judgment that 27 per cent of the lodgers they met were under twenty-five years of age. In their estimate, over 1,000 boys under twenty-one years of age come into this cheap hotel life in Chicago every year. Two cases will illustrate the wide extremes to be found among the men in lodging houses. One, born of old Vermont stock, worked on his father's farm until twenty years of age. Then he went to a college of engineering, and after graduating got a job as fireman. He railroaded for some time, until one day he found that he could better his condition by working in the engineering department of a packing company in Oklahoma. Recently he had been transferred to the Chicago plant of the same company and was planning to take the Young Men's Christian Association course in electricity. He was good-looking, clean-shaven, wore clean clothes—old, but neat. His wages were about twelve dollars per week. He spent his leisure in reading good literature. He lived in

this lodging house temporarily in order to save money.

The other man, within six months of the same age, came of German-American stock, was born in New York city, and went through seven grades of the public schools. After learning the painting and decorating trade, he ran away and enlisted in the navy. He had been out of work for some time, was dirty and down at the heels. His habits were all that they should *not* be. Often he had not enough money for a bed, and bunked on a floor or in a rear door-way.

There is little public opinion among the lodgers. Each man is for himself. No questions are asked of him, and he asks none. In all the places visited there was not much conversation and no companionship of any form. The majority of lodgers spend their leisure moments in the lounging rooms, smoking and letting their thoughts wander. Occasionally a habitué will offer a bit of sound advice to a newcomer into the life.

"Get right out of this," said an old man to the writer. "It is no place for you. Be ambitious—make something of yourself. You are young and can make a success out of life."

Few of the men talked with had gone beyond the lowest grades in the public schools. The newspaper is the common source of knowledge. It is invariably the sensational paper. In none of the places visited was card-playing allowed; but at one place the management furnished dominoes and checkers, and the boards were sought after eagerly, showing the craving for wholesome recreation otherwise unmet.

A striking and important thing to know about the average lodger is that he has no family life, no ties whatsoever to give stability to his scheme of existence. No little child places its arms around his neck. He lives for himself. The lodging houses are generally found adjoining or near the red light district. Saloons line the streets, and many have free burlesque shows in connection where lewd women dance and drink with the men. Immorality is invariably the topic of conversation among lodgers. One young fellow of

twenty-one could not speak a sentence without using its vernacular. Throughout the district investigated quack doctors abound, often connected with free museums of anatomy where the wax exhibits are calculated to frighten visitors into their clutches. The attendant gives to each man entering a memorandum book, recounting symptoms such as will play on the imagination of young men, ignorant of the ways of adolescence, until they think they are diseased.

In devising methods for raising the level of lodging house conditions in the interest of the lodger and the community, the landlord is the natural leverage through which the public can act by compulsion and cooperation. But, in doing so, his difficulties and interests must not be ignored. The landlord's equipment is generally cheap and old and under severe treatment on account of the sort of tenants to whom he caters. His also is somewhat a seasonal business. The winter is his harvest; in summer many of his patrons sleep outdoors and others are working on the lakes and in the construction camps.

The community has the right to demand from the landlord a fixed minimum amount of cleanliness, sanitation, toilet facilities, and air space per lodger. There are all kinds of landlords, just as there are all kinds of lodgers. All are in it for the money, but many take pride in keeping their places in good repair. Such are satisfied with a fair return on their investment. Others are exploiters who make no repairs except under compulsion and care little whether lodgers suffer inconvenience or sanitary evils.

The necessity for action that will eliminate such houses as, through public neglect and private greed, have become sink holes in the community life concerns more than the men who are bogged in them. For the lodging house opens up a complex of problems. It is bound up with many other evils of the day. Its influence is far-reaching and at present the net result of that influence is undermining to society at large. The lodging house, left to itself, is breeding vice, crime, poverty, sickness, and death.

IN THE HANDS OF A RECEIVER

SAMUEL McCHORD CROTHERS

[Reprinted from the *Atlantic Monthly*.]

It sometimes happens that a business man who is in reality solvent becomes temporarily embarrassed. His assets are greater than his liabilities, but they are not quick enough to meet the situation. The liabilities have become mutinous and bear down upon him in a threatening mob. If he had time to deal with them one by one, all would be well; but he cannot on the instant mobilize his forces.

Under such circumstances the law allows him to surrender, not to the mob, but to a friendly power which shall protect the interests of all concerned. He goes into the hands of a receiver, who will straighten out his affairs for him. I can imagine the relief which would come to one who could thus get rid, for a while, of his harassing responsibilities, and let some one else do the worrying.

In these days some of the best people I know are in this predicament in regard to their moral and social affairs. These friends of mine have this peculiarity, that they are anxious to do their duty. Now, in all generations, there have been persons who did their duty, according to their lights. But in these days it happens that a new set of lights has been turned on suddenly, and we all see more duties than we had bargained for. In the glare we see an army of creditors, each with an overdue bill in hand. Each demands immediate payment, and shakes his head when we suggest that he call again next week. We realize that our moral cash in hand is not sufficient for the crisis. If all our obligations must be met at once, there will be a panic in which most of our securities will be sacrificed.

We are accustomed to grumble over the increase in the cost of living. But the enhancement of price in the necessities of physical life is nothing compared to the increase in the cost of the higher life.

There are those now living who can

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remember when almost any one could have the satisfaction of being considered a good citizen and neighbor. All one had to do was to attend to one's own affairs and keep within the law. He would then be respected by all, and would deserve the most eulogistic epitaph when he came to die. By working for private profit he could have the satisfaction of knowing that all sorts of public benefits came as by-products of his activity.

But now all such satisfactions are denied. To be a good citizen you must put your mind on the job, and it is no easy one. You must be up and doing. And when you are doing one good thing there will be keen-eyed critics who will ask why you have not been doing other things which are much more important; and they will sternly demand of you, "What do you mean by such criminal negligence?"

What we call the awakening of the social conscience marks an important step in progress. But, like all progress, it involves hardship to individuals. For the higher moral classes, the saints and the reformers, it is the occasion of whole-hearted rejoicing. It is just what they have, all the while, been trying to bring about. But I confess to a sympathy for the middle class, morally considered, the plain people, who feel the pinch. They have invested their little all in the old-fashioned securities, and when these are depreciated they feel that there is nothing to keep the wolf from the door. After reading a few searching articles in the magazines they feel that, so far from being excellent citizens, they are little better than enemies of society. I am not pleading for the predatory rich, but only for the well-meaning persons in moderately comfortable circumstances, whose predatoriness has been suddenly revealed to them.

Many of the most conscientious persons go about with an habitually apologetic manner. They are rapidly acquiring the evasive air of the conscious

criminal. It is only a very hardened philanthropist, or an unsophisticated beginner in good works, who can look a sociologist in the eye. Most persons, when they do one thing, begin to apologize for not doing something else. They are like a one-track railroad that has been congested with traffic. They are not sure which train has the right of way, and which should go on the siding. Progress is a series of rear-end collisions.

There is little opportunity for self-satisfaction. The old-fashioned private virtues which used to be exhibited with such innocent pride as family heirlooms are now scrutinized with suspicion. They are subjected to rigid tests to determine their value as public utilities.

Perhaps I may best illustrate the need of some receivership by drawing attention to the case of my friend the Reverend Augustus Bagster.

Bagster is not by nature a spiritual genius; he is only a modern man who is sincerely desirous of doing what is expected of him. I do not think that he is capable of inventing a duty, but he is morally impressionable, and recognizes one when it is pointed out to him. A generation ago such a man would have lived a useful and untroubled life in a round of parish duties. He would have been placidly contented with himself and his achievements. But when he came to a city pulpit he heard the Call of the Modern. The multitudinous life around him must be translated into immediate action. His conscience was not merely awakened: it soon reached a state of persistent insomnia.

When he told me that he had preached a sermon on the text, "Let him that stole steal no more," I was interested. But shortly after, he told me that he could not let go of that text. It was a live wire. He had expanded the sermon into a course on the different kinds of stealing. He found few things that did not come under the category of Theft. Spiritual goods as well as material might be stolen. If a person possessed a cheerful disposition, you should ask, "How did he get it?"

"It seems to me," I said, "that a cheerful disposition is one of the things where

possession is nine-tenths of the law. I don't like to think of such spiritual wealth as ill-gotten."

"I am sorry," said Bagster, "to see that your sympathies are with the privileged classes."

Several weeks ago I received a letter which revealed his state of mind:—

"I believe that you are acquainted with the Editor of the *Atlantic Monthly*. I suppose he means well, but persons in his situation are likely to cater to mere literature. I hope that I am not uncharitable, but I have a suspicion that our poets yield sometimes to the desire to please. They are perhaps unconscious of the subtle temptation. They are not sufficiently direct and specific in their charges. I have been reading Walt Whitman's *Song of Joys*. The subject does not attract me, but I like the way in which it is treated. There is no beating around the bush. The poet is perfectly fearless, and will not let any guilty man escape.

O the farmer's joys!

Ohioans, Illinoisans, Wisconsinese, Kansadians, Iowans, Kansans, Oregonese joys.

"That is the way one should write if he expects to get results. He should point to each individual and say, 'Thou art the man.'

"I am no poet,—though I am painfully conscious that I ought to be one,—but I have written what I call the *Song of Obligations*. I think it may arouse the public. In such matters we ought to unite as good citizens. You might perhaps drop a postal card, just to show where you stand."

THE SONG OF OBLIGATIONS.

O the citizen's obligations.

The obligation of every American citizen to see that every other American citizen does his duty, and to be quick about it.

The janitor's duties, the Board of Health's duties, the milkman's duties, resting upon each one of us individually with the accumulated weight of every cubic foot of vitiated air, and multiplied by the number of bacteria in every cubic centimeter of milk.

The motorman's duties, and the duty of every spry citizen not to allow himself to be run over by the motorman.

- The obligation of teachers in the public schools to supply their pupils with all the aptitudes and graces formerly supposed to be the result of heredity and environment.
- The duty of each teacher to consult daily a card catalogue of duties, beginning with Apperception and Adenoids and going on to Vaccination, Ventilation, and the various vivacious variations on the three R's.
- The obligation resting upon the well-to-do citizen not to leave for his country place, but to remain in the city in order to give the force of his example, in his own ward, to a safe and sane Fourth of July.
- The obligation resting upon every citizen to write to his Congressman.
- The obligation to speak to one's neighbor who may think he is living a moral life, and who yet has never written to his Congressman.
- The obligation to attend hearings at the State House.
- The obligation to protest against the habit of employes at the State House of professing ignorance of the location of the committee-room where the hearings are to be held; also to protest against the habit of postponing the hearings after one has at great personal inconvenience come to the State House in order to protest.
- The duty of doing your Christmas shopping early enough in July to allow the shop-girls to enjoy their summer vacation.
- The duty of knowing what you are talking about, and of talking about all the things you ought to know about.
- The obligation of feeling that it is a joy and a privilege to live in a country where eternal vigilance is the price of liberty, and where even if you have the price you don't get all the liberty you pay for.

I was a little troubled over this effusion, as it seemed to indicate that Bagster had reached the limit of elasticity. A few days later I received a letter asking me to call upon him. I found him in a state of uncertainty over his own condition.

"I want you," he said, "to listen to the report my stenographer has handed me, of an address which I gave day before yesterday. I have been doing some of my most faithful work recently; going from one meeting to another and helping in every good cause. But at this meeting I had a rare sensation of freedom of utterance. I had the sense of liberation from the trammels of time and space. It was a realization of moral

ubiquity. All the audiences I had been addressing seemed to flow together into one audience, and all the good causes into one good cause. Incidentally I seemed to have solved the Social Question. But now that I have the stenographic report I am not so certain."

"Read it," I said.

He began to read, but the confidence of his pulpit tone, which was one of the secrets of his power, would now and then desert him, and he would look up to me as if waiting for an encouraging "Amen."

"Your secretary, when she called me up by telephone, explained to me the object of your meeting. It is an object with which I deeply sympathize. It is Rest. You stand for the idea of poise and tranquility of spirit. You would have a place for tranquil meditation. The thought I would bring to you this afternoon is this: We are here not to be doing, but to be.

"But of course the thought at once occurs to us, How can we be considering the high cost of the necessaries of life? It will be seen at once that the question is at bottom an economic one. You must have a living wage, and how can there be a living wage unless we admit the principle of collective bargaining? It is because I believe in the principle of collective bargaining that I have come here to-night to say to you workmen that I believe this strike is justifiable.

"I must leave to other speakers many interesting aspects of this subject, and confine myself to the aspect which the committee asked me to consider more in detail, namely, Juvenile Delinquency in its relation to Foreign Immigration. The relation is a real one. Statistics prove that among immigrants the proportion of the juvenile element is greater than among the native-born. The increase in juvenility gives opportunity for juvenile delinquency from which many of our American communities might otherwise be free. But is the remedy to be found in the restriction of immigration? My opinion is that the remedy is to be found only in education.

"It is our interest in education that has brought us together on this bright

June morning. Your teacher tells me that this is the largest class that has ever graduated from this high school. You may well be proud. Make your education practical. Learn to concentrate, that is the secret of success. There are those who will tell you to concentrate on a single point. I would go even further. Concentrate on every point.

"I admit, as the gentleman who has preceded me has pointed out, that concentration in cities is a great evil. It is an evil that should be counteracted. As I was saying last evening to the Colonial Dames,—Washington, if he had done nothing else, would be remembered today as the founder of the Order of the Cincinnati. The figure of Cincinnati at the plough appeals powerfully to American manhood. Many a time in after years Cincinnati wished that he had never left that plough. Often amid the din of battle he heard the voice saying to him, 'Back to the Land!'

"It was the same voice I seemed to hear when I received the letter of your secretary asking me to address this grange. As I left the smoke of the city behind me and looked up at your granite hills, I said, 'Here is where they make men!' As I have been partaking of the bountiful repast prepared by the ladies of the grange, your chairman has been telling me something about this community. It is a grand community to live in. Here are no swollen fortunes; here industry, frugality, and temperance reign. These are the qualities which have given New England its great place in the councils of the nation. I know there are those who say that it is the tariff that has given it that place; but they do not know New England. There are those at this table who can remember the time when eighty-two ruddy-cheeked boys and girls trooped merrily to the little red school-house under the hill. In the light of such facts as these, who can be a pessimist?

"But I must not dwell upon the past; the Boy Scouts of America prepare for the future. I am reminded that I am not at this moment addressing the Boy Scouts of America—they come to-morrow at the same hour—but the principle is the same. Even as the Boy Scouts of

America look only at the future, so do you. We must not linger fondly on the days when cows grazed on Boston Common. The purpose of this society is to save Boston Common. That the Common has been saved many times before is true; but is that any reason why we should falter now? 'New occasions teach new duties.' Let us not be satisfied with a superficial view. While fresh loam is being scattered on the surface, commercial interests and the suburban greed to get home quick are striking at the vitals of the Common. Citizens of Boston, awake!

"Your pastor had expected to be with you this evening, but he has at the last moment discovered that he has two other engagements, each of them of long standing. He has therefore asked me to take his place in this interesting course of lectures on Church History. The subject of the lecture for this evening is—and if I am mistaken some one will please correct me—Ulphilas, or Christianity among the Goths. I cannot treat this subject from that wealth of historical information possessed by your pastor; but I can at least speak from the heart. I feel that it is well for us to turn aside from the questions of the day, for the quiet consideration of such a character as Ulphilas.

"Ulphilas seems to me to be one of those characters we ought all to know more about. I shall not weary you by discussing the theology of Ulphilas or the details of his career. It would seem more fitting that these things should be left for another occasion. I shall proceed at once to the main lesson of his life. As briefly as possible let me state the historical situation that confronted him. It is immaterial for us to inquire where the Goths were at that time, or what they were doing. It is sufficient for us to know that the Goths at that time were pagans, mere heathen. Under those circumstances what did Ulphilas do? He went to the Goths. That one act reveals his character. If in the remaining moments of this lecture I can enforce the lesson for us of that one act, I shall feel that my coming here has not been in vain.

"But some one who has followed my argument thus far may say, 'All that you have said is true, lamentably true; but what has it to do with the Advancement of Woman?' I answer, it is the Advancement of Woman."

"How do you make that out?" I asked.

Bagster looked vaguely troubled. "There is no such thing as an isolated moral phenomenon," he said, as if he were repeating something from a former sermon. "When you attempt to remedy one evil you find it related to a whole moral series. But perhaps I did not make the connection plain. My address doesn't seem to be as closely reasoned as it did when I was delivering it. Does it seem to you to be cogent?"

"Cogent is not precisely the word I would use. But it seems earnest."

"Thank you," said Bagster. "I always try to be earnest. It's hard to be earnest about so many things. I am always afraid that I may not give to all an equal emphasis."

"And now that you have stopped for a moment," I suggested, "perhaps you would be willing to skip to the last page. When I read a story I am always anxious to get to the end. I should like to know how your address comes out,—if it does come out."

Bagster turned over a dozen pages and read in a more animated manner.

"Your chairman has the reputation of making the meetings over which he presides brisk and crisp. He has given me just a minute and a half in which to tell what the country expects of this Federation of Young People. I shall not take all the time. I ask you to remember two letters—E and N. *What* does the country expect this Federation to do? E—everything. *When* does the country expect you to do it? N—now. Remember these two letters—E and N. Young people, I thank you for your attention.

"The hour is late. You, my young brother, have listened to a charge in which your urgent duties have been fearlessly declared to you. When you have performed these duties, others will be presented to you. And now, in token

of our confidence in you, I give you the right hand of fellowship.

"—And do you know," said Bagster, "that when I reached to give him the right hand of fellowship, he wasn't there?"

We sat in silence for some time. At last he asked, hesitatingly, "What do you think of it? In your judgment is it organic or functional?"

"I do not think it is organic. I am afraid that your conscience has been over-functioning of late, and needs a rest. I know a nook in the woods of New Hampshire, under the shadow of Mount Chocorua, where you might go for six months while your affairs are in the hands of a receiver. I can't say that you would find everything satisfactory, even there. The mountain is not what it used to be. It is decadent, geologically speaking, and it suffered a good deal during the last glacial period. But you can't do much about it in six months. You might take it just as it is,—some things have to be taken that way.

"You will start to-morrow morning and begin your life of temporary irresponsibility. You will have to give up your problems for six months, but you may rest assured that they will keep. You will go by Portsmouth, where you will have ten minutes for lunch. Take that occasion for a leisurely meal. A card will be handed to you assuring you that 'The bell will ring one minute before the departure of the train. You can't get left.' Hold that thought: you can't get left; the railroad authorities say so."

"Did you every try it?" asked Bagster.

"Once," I answered.

"And did you get left?"

"Portsmouth," I said, "is a beautiful old town. I had always wanted to see it. You can see a good deal of Portsmouth in an afternoon."

The predicament in which my friend Bagster finds himself is a very common one. It is no longer true that the good die young; they become prematurely middle-aged. In these days conscience doth make neurasthenics of us all. Now it will not do to flout conscience, and by shutting our eyes to the urgencies

and complexities of life purchase for ourselves a selfish calm. Neither do we like the idea of neurasthenia.

My motion is that the twentieth-century man is morally solvent, though he is temporarily embarrassed. He will find himself if he is given sufficient time. In the mean time it is well for him to consider the nature of his embarrassment. He has discovered that the world is "so full of a number of things," and he is disappointed that he is not as "happy as kings"—that is, as kings in the fairy books. Perhaps "sure enough" kings are not as happy as the fairy-book royalties, and perhaps the modern man is only experiencing the anxieties that belong to his new sovereignty over the world.

There are tribes which become confused when they try to keep in mind more than three or four numbers. It is the same kind of confusion which comes when we try to look out for more than Number One. We mean well, but we have not the facilities for doing it easily. In fact, we are not so civilized as we sometimes think.

For example, we have never carried out to its full extent the most important invention that mankind has ever made—money. Money is a device for simplifying life by providing a means of measuring our desires, and gratifying a number of them without confusion.

Money is a measure, not of commodities, but of states of mind. The man on the street expresses a profound philosophy when he says, "I feel like thirty cents." That is all that "thirty cents" means. It is a certain amount of feeling.

You see an article marked \$1.50. You pass by unmoved. The next day you see it on the bargain counter marked 98 cents, and you say, "Come to my arms," and carry it home. You did not feel like a dollar and a half toward it, but you did feel exactly like ninety-eight cents.

It is because of this wonderful measure of value that we are able to deal with a multitude of diverse articles without mental confusion.

I am asked to stop at the department store and discover in that vast aggregation of goods a skein of silk of a speci-

fied shade, and having found it bring it safely home. Now, I am not fitted for such an adventure. Left to my own devices I should be helpless.

But the way is made easy for me. The floor-walker meets me graciously, and without chiding me for not buying the things I do not want, directs me to the one thing which would gratify my modest desire. I find myself in a little place devoted to silk thread, and with no other articles to molest me or make me afraid. The world of commodities is simplified to fit my understanding. I feel all the gratitude of the shorn lamb for the tempered wind.

At the silken shrine stands a Minerva who imparts her wisdom and guides my choice. The silk thread she tells me is equivalent to five cents. Now, I have not five cents but only a five-dollar bill. She does not act on the principle of taking all that the traffic will bear. She sends the five-dollar bill through space, and in a minute or two she gives me the skein and four dollars and ninety-five cents, and I go out of the store a free man. I have no misgivings and no remorse because I did not buy all the things I might have bought. No one reproached me because I did not buy a four-hundred-dollar pianola. Thanks to the great invention, the transaction was complete in itself. Five cents represented one choice, and I had in my pocket ninety-nine choices which I might reserve for other occasions.

But there are some things which, as we say, money cannot buy. In all these things of the higher life we have no recognized medium of exchange. We are still in the stage of primitive barter. We must bring all our moral goods with us, and every transaction involves endless dickering. If we express an appreciation for one good thing, we are at once reproached by all the traffickers in similar articles for not taking over bodily their whole stock-in-trade.

For example, you have a desire for culture. You haven't the means to indulge in very much, but you would like a little. You are immediately beset by all the eager Matthew Arnolds who have heard of your desire, and they insist that you should at once devote your-

self to the knowledge of the best that has been known and said in the world. All this is very fine, but you don't see how you can afford it. Isn't there a little of a cheaper quality that they could show you? Perhaps the second best would serve your purpose. At once you are covered with reproaches for your philistinism.

You had been living a rather prosaic life and would like to brighten it up with a little poetry. What you would really like would be a modest James Whitcomb Riley's worth of poetry. But the moment you express the desire the University Extension lecturer insists that what you should take is a course of lectures on Dante. No wonder that you conclude that a person in your circumstances will have to go without any poetry at all.

It is the same way with efforts at social righteousness. You find it difficult to engage in one transaction without being involved in others that you are not ready for. You are interested in a social reform that involves collective action. At once you are told that it is socialistic. You do not feel that it is any worse for that, and you are quite willing to go on. But at once your socialistic friends present you with the whole programme of their party. It is all or nothing. When it is presented in that way you are likely to become discouraged and fall back on nothing.

Now, if we had a circulating medium you would express the exact state of your desires somewhat in this way: "Here is my moral dollar. I think I will take a quarter's worth of Socialism, and twelve and a half cents' worth of old-time Republicanism, and twelve and a half cents of genuine Jeffersonian democracy, if there is any left, and a quarter's worth of miscellaneous insurgency. Let me see, I have a quarter left. Perhaps I may drop in to-morrow and see if you have anything more that I want."

The sad state of my good friend Bagster arises from the fact that he can't do one good thing without being confused by a dozen other things which are equally good. He feels that he is a mis-

erable sinner because his moral dollar is not enough to pay the national debt.

But though we have not yet been able adequately to extend the notion of money to the affairs of the higher life, there have been those who have worked on the problem.

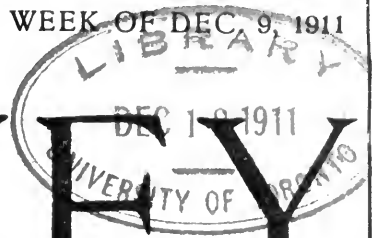
That was what Socrates had in mind. The Sophists talked eloquently about the Good, the True, and the Beautiful; but they dealt in these things in the bulk. They had no way of dividing them into sizable pieces for every-day use. Socrates set up in Athens as a broker in ideas. He dealt on the curb. He measured one thing in terms of another, and tried to supply a sufficient amount of change for those who were not ashamed to engage in retail trade.

Socrates draws the attention of Phædrus to the fact that when we talk of iron and silver the same objects are present to our minds, "but when any one speaks of justice and goodness, there is every sort of disagreement, and we are at odds with one another and with ourselves."

What we need to do, he says, is to have an idea that is big enough to include all the particular actions or facts. Then, in order to do business, we must be able to divide this so that it may serve our convenience. This is what Socrates called Philosophy.

"I am a great lover," he said, "Of the processes of division and generalization; they help me to speak and think. And if I find any man who is able to see unity and plurality in nature, him I follow, and walk in his steps as if he were a god."

Even in the Forest of Arden life was not so simple as at first it seemed. The shepherd's life which "in respect of itself was a good life" was in other respects quite otherwise. Its unity seemed to break up into a confusing plurality. Honest Touchstone, in trying to reconcile the different points of view, blurted out the test question, "Hast any philosophy in thee, Shepherd?" After Bagster has communed with Chocorua for six months, I shall put that question to him.



THE SURVEY

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THE PITH OF IT

The rare gifts and leadership of Josephine Shaw Lowell in the field of charitable and social advance are brought out in William Rhinelander Stewart's biography of Mrs. Lowell, reviewed in this number. P. 1342.

The School for Mayors is the sobriquet already given the school for civic science instituted by Mrs. Harriman in line with the desires of the great railroad builder. P. 1340.

Cincinnati was a veritable laboratory for the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education at its annual convention in November. P. 1328.

While other cities have been talking about it, Syracuse for six months has had a working team made up of representatives of the Chamber of Commerce, the Ministerial Association, the Associated Charities, and the Central Federated Union; it has carried out a quick social inventory and held a "Know your City" week. P. 1337.

In its decision on workmen's compensation, the Wisconsin Supreme Court applies what it calls the twentieth century attitude of mind to an eighteenth century constitution. P. 1327.

The campaign for a safe and sane Fourth has its counterpart in the efforts of the National Fire Protection Association to cut down fires due to Christmas trees, bunting, and lights. P. 1348.

Iowa, Florida, Minnesota, Missouri, Pennsylvania—five state conferences bring out current phases of charitable and correctional problems in different parts of the United States. Pp. 1333-1336.

On Monday of this week Judge William P. Martin of the Essex County Court of Common Pleas upheld the constitutionality of the New Jersey employers' liability law. The case will be appealed.

The pleas of "guilty" entered by the McNamaras throw into stark relief the fact that officials of a national group of organized labor, in an industrial field in which the contest between employers and employes has been sharpest, have resorted to dynamiting. In an interview, Harrison Gray Otis calls on organized labor to "purge its ranks of lawless methods, principles, purposes, and persons," and "act within the limitations of the law." Lincoln Steffens, who brought the trial to an end, turns the challenge around and asks, "What are we Americans going to do about conditions which are bringing up healthy, good-tempered boys like these McNamara boys really to believe, as they most sincerely do—they and a growing group of labor—that the only recourse they have for

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Edward T. Devine, Editor Graham Taylor, Associate Editor

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improving the conditions of the wage-earner is to use dynamite against property and life?" The reported action of Los Angeles citizens, in considering the outcome a release from an unnatural tension and alignment in American life, and setting about to establish fresh and more hopeful industrial relationships, is a call upon the country for ways and means to go about it. A symposium bringing out the positive and constructive bearings of the situation will be published in an early SURVEY. Prof. Taylor promptly reviews the case in this issue. P. 1339.

SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

PREJUDICES AGAINST ORGANIZED CHARITY

Denunciation of prejudice is easy, especially if the prejudice happen to be directed against yourself. Sympathetic understanding of the grounds of prejudice, especially if it be directed against yourself or against policies in which you believe, is much more profitable. Specific attacks upon particular societies or policies it may well be a clear duty to denounce and to repel with all possible energy. We are considering rather that receptive state of mind in any quarter which is often all that makes such attacks worthy of serious attention. That there has been this kind of latent hostility to organized charity in some quarters, giving an unnatural and exaggerated influence to criticisms and attacks which would otherwise be beneath contempt, is true enough.

Fortunately, various prejudices which are encountered are to a large extent mutually destructive, and to an even larger extent eventually self-destructive because of their inherent absurdity. If at the same time and in the same place progressives criticize organized charity as allied with privilege and reactionaries attack it as an instrument of social revolution, sober and sensible people are very apt to infer that there is probably not very much ground for either criticism, as in fact there is not. If superficial evolutionists suggest that organized charity is keeping alive the unfit, and on the other hand sentimentalists in the churches or in the essayist's or poet's study find it hard-hearted, statistical, unsympathetic, this again suggests that while both might conceivably be right, in fact both are probably wrong. Thus the instinctive antagonism of such different elements, so far from giving cumulative evidence that it is well founded, is evidence that a large part of it at least has no foundation at all except in a misconception which time and patience may be expected to remove.

The essential principles of organized charity are (1) painstaking inquiry into the facts so that assistance may be based upon knowledge, (2) co-operation on the basis of knowledge, whether this take the form of combined effort or division of work, (3) adequate, appropriate, persistent, and efficient action in individual cases, with a view primarily to the removal of the fundamental causes of dependence so far as they are personal, and (4) concerted attack upon the social causes of exploitation and hardship, such as unsanitary housing, child labor, extortionate charges by pawnshops, salary loan and chattel mortgage agencies, and uncompensated industrial injuries. We are not suggesting that all charity organization societies actually take part in all or even a large part of the movements which have for their aim the elimination of adverse social conditions. Their resources are limited and in a particular instance they may not be convinced of the wisdom or timeliness of plans which are enthusiastically advocated by others. But that there are social causes of dependence and degeneracy, and that it is a proper function of organized charity to lay bare these causes and to aid in removing them, is long since established beyond question.

The most persistent and mischievous of the criticisms of organized charity is based upon a popular misconception of its relation to material relief. Organized charity believes in relief and uses it—but only as a means to an end. The end is not the relief of distress, but getting rid of the need for it. Not the increase of the physical comfort of the poor but the increase of their strength is its goal. Not the relief of families in distress but family rehabilitation is the task which it sets for itself. Its visitors and volunteer workers are not engaged in “administering relief.” They are engaged in helping people to become able to do without relief. They are wrestling in a far more fundamental way than if they were almoners with the real difficulties which widows, deserted mothers, and the families of consumptives must solve if they are to make a success in spite of their handicap, if they are to give their children a fair chance notwithstanding their misfortunes. Those who pretend to think that poverty itself, *i. e.*, mere lack of income, is the only difficulty are as far astray as those, now happily for the most part silenced, who found the whole trouble to be some personal vice or weakness. The fact is that the troubles of the poor are not so simple as either their critics or their apologists would have us believe. They are complicated, involved, and varied. They do not reduce readily to simple formulae.

The Federal Court which is told to reorganize the Tobacco Trust has a simple task as compared with the problem that sometimes falls to the visitor in a family which is familiar with such disabilities as chronic illness, strong drink, overcrowding, and physical defects in the children. When after a year or two of the hardest kind of hard work in such a family, involving infinite patience and tact and ingenuity, involving co-operation with physicians, priests, and school teachers, involving the use of dispensaries, fresh air agencies, and a municipal department, involving perhaps an expenditure of fifty dollars besides what can be raised from employers or relatives and others who have a natural personal obligation in the matter, the situation is saved, the drunkard is put on his feet at least for the time being, the family is moved into a better and less crowded tenement, the sick patient is better cared for, and the children have their eyes and throats attended to—then, what happens? Why, then, some one in the legislature, or some anonymous critic through the mails or the press, repeats the old lie that it costs a hundred dollars to administer this fifty dollars of relief. This cost, when it is not pure fabrication, is calculated by adding up all that the society expends for any purpose whatever, even if it has not the remotest connection with relief. Organized charity cannot tell what it costs to administer relief because it has no agents or machinery engaged in that occupation. How can a school tell what it costs to administer the crayon and ink used in the education of pupils, or a doctor what it costs to administer his medicines, or an inventor what it costs to administer the supplies of his laboratories?

All these are incidents to the work in hand. Organized charity uses relief incidentally, precisely as the teacher, the physician, and the inventor use their supplies; but it is the teaching, the care of the sick, the thinking of the inventor, and the intelligent work done by the visitor that count. If this is once clearly understood by the public we may safely leave such attacks as have recently disturbed some of the friends of organized charity to run their harmless course.

THE COMMON WELFARE

WISCONSIN COURT FOR COMPENSATION

The Supreme Court of Wisconsin is the third state court of appeal to declare itself on the constitutionality of workmen's compensation—the second to answer the question affirmatively. Washington and Wisconsin are thus aligned against New York.

The Wisconsin test case—*Borgnis et al. vs. Falk Company*—presents peculiar features. Two employes working at hazardous occupations brought suit to enjoin this company from electing to become subject to the provisions of the state compensation law¹ on the ground that such election would work irreparable injury for which they would have no adequate remedy at law, because they would be obliged either to break their existing contracts or to lose their common law remedies for their employers' torts. The defendant company alleged that its election would work no such injury, on the novel ground that "Chapter 50, Laws of Wisconsin for 1911, violates the constitution of the United States and the constitution of the state of Wisconsin, and is therefore null and void." The grounds for this claim were set forth in detail. The circuit court of Milwaukee decided in favor of the plaintiffs, thereby indirectly asserting both the constitutionality of the law and the fact that the law may work hardship to the employe. The case was appealed, and to the Supreme Court was left the responsibility of throwing the law out or defending it as against both parties to the suit. This court reverses the decision of the circuit court on the ground that the election of compensation would work these employes no irreparable injury. Judge Winslow, who writes the opinion, holds that, in this case, where the contracts were written,

if their employer breaks his contract of employment because they decline to accept the new law they have adequate legal remedies for the recovery of damages. If, on the other hand, they elect to come under the law

themselves, they lose no vested or contract right, and are not damaged in the eyes of the law by the change in their remedies for future torts.

The complaint should, therefore, the court holds, have been dismissed on the pleadings. The major part of the decision addresses itself, however, to the task of combatting the arguments of the defense against the constitutionality of the law. Says Judge Winslow:

It is a matter of common knowledge that this law forms the legislative response to an emphatic, if not a preemptory, demand for a law that will offer an escape from the troublesome and expensive luxury of personal injury litigation.

A law of such importance, he argues, must be sustained if it passes the constitutional test. A written constitution has the disadvantage of being hard to adapt to changing conditions and ideals. This makes it necessary, in the view of this Wisconsin supreme bench—and here their approach to the matter is from the opposite angle to that manifested by the New York Court of Appeals last winter—this makes it necessary that, when no express words forbid a law, general constitutional provisions be interpreted as broadly as possible, in order to reconcile twentieth-century laws with eighteenth-century constitutions. As the Wisconsin law is not compulsory it comes into conflict with no express provisions of the constitution.

The most important charges brought against it are that removal of the defenses of assumption of risk and fellow servant's negligence is contrary to public policy; that it makes false classifications; that the principle of election is in reality a club over the head of both employer and employe; and that on the industrial accident board are conferred powers that are judicial.

Public policy, says Judge Winslow, is determined either by the constitution or by the legislature. The defences which have been withdrawn by this act were not given by the constitution but were evolved by the courts, and the passage

¹See *THE SURVEY*, October 14, 1911.

of this law by the legislature proves that their withdrawal is within the scope of public policy.

The classification under the act was objected to because it covers not merely hazardous but all trades, and because it excludes industrial establishments employing not more than three workmen. Limitation of such laws to hazardous occupations, says Judge Winslow, may be more persuasive legislation, but there is no constitutional objection to the inclusion by the legislature of all occupations, especially since, wherever an accident occurs, there is hazard. On the other hand the exclusion of enterprises employing few workmen is justified by the fact that in establishments where few are employed knowledge of dangers and consequent avoidance of accidents are comparatively easy.

The charge that the Industrial Accident Board is given judicial powers Judge Winslow denies, pointing out that health boards and many other such bodies are given like quasi-judicial powers to ascertain the facts and administer the law, but that as in all such boards, the courts are expressly given the power of determining whether this board is going outside of its jurisdiction and of reversing its decisions on this ground.

The objection that the system of election is a club over the heads of employer and employe Judge Winslow holds to be a matter of conjecture. He suggests the possibility that it may not work out to be a coercion but feels that the final decision on this and many points of detailed criticism can only be determined as special cases arise. This test case, he believes, can only settle the fundamental questions involved in the act. Noteworthy briefs in the case were submitted by the attorney general and the Wisconsin Industrial Commission.

CINCINNATI A LABORATORY IN INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education selected Cincinnati as the most appropriate place for its convention this year because of the many latter-day types of industrial education represented within its city limits. The first session of the recent convention was devoted to a pre-

sentation of the organization and results of these different institutions; the co-operative plan of the University of Cincinnati, the co-operative high school, the part-time school for apprentices, and the Ohio Mechanics' Institute. Among these institutions the description of the workings of the part-time school claimed the greatest interest on the part of the audience. This school represents a co-operative arrangement between the public schools and employing establishments by which apprentices in the machine and printing trades spend four hours a week in one of the public schools under a special teacher, receiving instruction in English, mathematics, drawing, and technical matters. The acute problems presented in securing the interest and confidence of the apprentice-boy type were vividly brought out by J. H. Renshaw, and strong endorsements of the school contained in letters from metal trades and printing employers and local labor unions were placed on the screen.

At the banquet in the evening about three hundred persons listened to discussions by H. E. Miles, Frank Duffy, and James P. Monroe upon the topic How Shall the Obligation to Provide Industrial Education be Met? Mr. Miles, who is chairman of the Industrial Education Committee of the National Manufacturers' Association and also president of the Wisconsin State Board of Industrial Education, urged the need of support for this work by the employers of the country and also the necessity for state aid and control. Mr. Duffy, who is secretary-treasurer of the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America, expressed the strong approval of organized labor in regard to the factors of the industrial education movement with the single exception of the trade school under private support, which attempts to turn out journeymen workmen through short courses of instruction. He argued that in view of the mobility of both labor and employment opportunities to-day the responsibility for support of industrial training should rest not only on the community but on the state and finally on the nation.

The professional session of Friday morning was devoted to a discussion of

what types of continuation schools are most needed in American conditions. A. L. Williston endeavored to show that the evening school and the day continuation school are not in opposition but are both necessary elements in a comprehensive continuation school program. He pointed out that the evening school is not an institution that will be set aside by the growth of the part-time school but one which has a permanent place—and that a very important one—in a scheme of industrial education. He admitted that the evening school is confessedly not the place for boys between fourteen and sixteen years, and that in the skilled trades, where conditions are favorable, we must expect that the apprentice problem will be increasingly cared for by part-time day schools; but, he maintained, given the general conditions prevailing in American life, the evening school must continue to be the main opportunity for supplementary education for workers above seventeen and eighteen years of age.

FEDERAL LEGISLATION ON VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Following this discussion the report of the committee upon national legislation, presented by David Snedden, commissioner of education of Massachusetts, was heard with much interest. This report, which represents the labors of a committee of five who have devoted a large amount of time and study to the subject, concerns itself, first, with an analysis of Senate Bill No. 3, commonly known as the Page Bill, and, second, presents a substitute bill which in the judgment of the committee guards against certain dangers in this bill. The points upon which the committee laid stress are as follows:

The encouragement and assistance of secondary vocational education in agriculture, industries, and household arts, in the various states, presents a problem of such magnitude that your committee feels that the proposed bill should confine itself to this field alone; and that provisions for increased assistance to an additional supervision of branch experiment stations and college extension work should be made in a separate measure.

So much uncertainty now prevailing as to what constitutes vocational education, your committee believes that the bill should con-

tain a series of definitions indicating the types of education contemplated and the standards applicable to its administration.

In order to insure an economical and efficient expenditure of the proposed grants, your committee believes that primary responsibility for approving plans and enforcing standards in the types of vocational education contemplated should rest on the one hand in a single national authority and on the other, as far as practicable, on a single authority in each state and territory. Only in this way, in the opinion of your committee, can efficiency be guaranteed.

At the annual business meeting¹ following a committee was appointed to urge upon other interested associations the support of the society's bill for national legislation.

The afternoon session of Friday was devoted to discussion of the question, What Can be Done for the Factory Worker Through Industrial Education? Almost all of the study and constructive programs in the past have aimed either at the preparation or the further development of the worker in the skilled trades, and it was the idea of the program committee that a very useful purpose would be served by stimulating further study of the great bulk of the factory workers in relation to industrial education. The presentation by Charles A. Prosser, deputy commissioner of Education of Massachusetts, was regarded as a genuine contribution to the subject. Of equal practical value with his constructive suggestions was his analysis of the many limitations which surround undertakings in this field. He held that in many low grade industries, such as candy-dipping, there is very little sub-

¹The officers for the ensuing year are: President, W. C. Redfield, vice-president of the American Blower Company and congressman from the Sixth New York District; Vice-President, Howell Cheney, of South Manchester, Conn.; Treasurer, Frederic B. Pratt, Brooklyn. The board of managers is constituted as follows: Class of 1914:—Frederick A. Geier, Cincinnati, O.; Jane Addams, Chicago, Ill.; F. J. McNulty, Springfield, Ill.; W. A. Layman, St. Louis, Mo.; Louis Rouillon, New York city; H. E. Miles, Racine, Wis.; Howard P. Eells, Cleveland, O.; Walter Laidlaw, New York city; Chas. A. Bookwalter, Indianapolis, Ind. Class of 1913:—James P. Munroe, Boston, Mass.; J. W. Lieb, New York city; V. Everit Macy, New York city; Frederick P. Fish, Boston, Mass.; Frank Duffy, Indianapolis, Ind.; Charles H. Winslow, Washington, D. C.; A. Lincoln Ellene, Boston, Mass.; Chas. R. Richards, New York city; George N. Carman, Chicago, Ill. Class of 1912:—John Golden, Fall River, Mass.; Magnus W. Alexander, West Lynn, Mass.; Chas. S. Howe, Cleveland, O.; John Mitchell, Mt. Vernon, N. Y.; Alexander C. Humphreys, New York city; Arthur C. Williston, Brookline, Mass.; Florence M. Marshall, New York city; J. W. Ferguson, Paterson, N. J.; T. W. Robinson, Chicago, Ill.

ject matter which can be made a basis for technical instruction, and that in these lines the possibilities for supplementary education must rest largely upon a better preparation for citizenship and the opening up of opportunities towards other careers.

Saturday morning brought out a debate on whether trade schools for youths above sixteen years of age should be provided at public expense. The affirmative side of this proposition was presented by Carroll G. Pearse, superintendent of schools of Milwaukee, who presented a strong array of facts from the workings of the Public Trade School for Boys supported by the city of Milwaukee. After his presentation George M. Forbes, president of the Board of Education of Rochester, argued that from all considerations—educational, social, and industrial—the industrial school for boys between fourteen and sixteen years of age possesses a prior claim upon public support, and that the burden of proof still rests upon the advocates of the trade schools for youths above sixteen to show economical results justifying the large expenditure involved in such schools.

FORWARD STRIDE IN LEGAL AID MOVEMENT

A permanent national association of legal aid societies is to be the outgrowth of a convention held November 10 in Pittsburgh. Although the New York Legal Aid Society has completed its thirty-fifth year, this Pittsburgh meeting marked the first attempt to bring together representatives of all organizations doing legal aid work.

Fifteen delegates represented thirteen organizations, ranging from committees of associated charities to a municipal bureau. Only two organizations doing such work were not represented: *viz.* the New Jersey Legal Aid Society, Newark, N. J., and the Los Angeles Legal Aid Society. A Washington organization was reported to be defunct. Samuel Scoville, Jr., of Philadelphia, and H. V. Blaxter, of Pittsburgh, who instigated the present gathering, were appointed a committee to report upon the "necessity, scope, and character" of a national organization. They will report

to Arthur von Briesen, president of the New York society, who will issue the call for an organizing convention.

To the West was generally accorded the distinction of presenting the most interesting and progressive idea of the convention. Kansas City, in the person of C. J. Fleming, advanced the postulate—apparently a novel one to a majority of the delegates—that legal aid to the poor should properly be a function of the city government.¹ Mr. Fleming represents the legal aid bureau of the Board of Public Welfare and was able to speak from practical experience of the work as a municipal undertaking. He ascribed the formation of the bureau to abuses of the "jack-rabbit" or aldermanic courts.

The principal discussions focused upon the two chief problems of all legal aid society work—the victimizing of foreigners, and the operations of loan sharks. Evidence was given that attorneys interested in the situation are reaching at least approximate agreement throughout the country upon the remedial measures necessary to protect the poor and ignorant. Mr. Blaxter and other Pittsburgh speakers offered striking information as to methods used to victimize foreigners. Delegates were told that Edgar Prochnic, Austro-Hungarian vice-counsel in Pittsburgh, estimated—after an investigation—that his people in the steel district were victimized in various ways to the extent of \$1,000,000 in the year 1910. Gino C. Speranza, deputized by the Italian government to investigate the victimizing of Italians in the Pittsburgh district, was reported to have found conditions equally bad among his fellow-countrymen. He placed the principal blame upon naturalized and English-speaking Italians who are appointed as constables and similar minor officials.

Leonard McGee, attorney for the New York Legal Aid Society, summarized the laws and methods, particularly in New York and Massachusetts, which have checked, in a measure, the aggressions

¹Bulletin No. 7 of the Milwaukee Bureau of Economy and Efficiency has just opportunely come from the press. The subject is Free Legal Aid, and the writer is Fred A. King. The report was prepared to support a bill before the legislature looking towards the "creation of a municipal bureau to furnish free legal aid and advice to persons financially unable to hire an attorney."

of loan sharks. His preliminary discussion of the extent of the evil and the extortionate rates charged gave force to his plea for immediate action. He cited the recommendations adopted by the conference on the loan shark evil, held in New York on May 18 under the joint auspices of the Russell Sage Foundation and the Merchants' Association of New York. A banquet, at which Judge John D. Shafer of the Allegheny county bench was toastmaster, was attended by the delegates and 170 business and professional men of Pittsburgh.

Visiting delegates and organizations represented were:

- Chicago—Legal Aid Society, Rudolph Matz, president; Mrs. William E. Boyes, superintendent.
- Cleveland—Legal Aid Society, Isadore Grossman, attorney.
- Cincinnati—Legal Aid Society, Frank E. Burnett, attorney.
- St. Louis—Legal Aid Committee, Bar Association, Charles R. Skinker, chairman.
- New York—Legal Aid Society, Arthur von Briesen, president; Leonard McGee, attorney.
- Buffalo—North American Civic League for Immigrants, Chauncey L. Hamlin, secretary.
- Boston—Legal Aid Society, William Sabine, attorney.
- Baltimore—Legal Aid Committee, Associated Charities, W. C. Coleman, chairman.
- Atlanta, Ga.—Legal Aid Committee, Associated Charities, Philip Weltner, secretary.
- New Rochelle, N. Y.—Legal Aid Society, W. G. C. Otto, attorney.
- Rochester, N. Y.—Legal Protective Committee, George S. Van Schaick, attorney.
- Philadelphia—Legal Aid Society, Samuel Scoville, Jr., attorney.
- Kansas City—Legal Aid Bureau, Board of Public Welfare, C. J. Fleming, attorney.
- Columbus, O. Associate Charities, Otto W. Davis.

THE DAY OF THE CITY EXPERT

Expert service in municipal affairs—its demonstrated need and its demonstrated results—may be said to have been the dominant note of the Richmond meeting of the National Municipal League. This fact was emphasized not only in Richard Henry Dana's paper on Anti-toxin for Municipal Waste and Corruption, and in the report of the league's committee on the subject of the selection and retention of experts, but also in a number of other reports, nota-

bly one from the committee dealing with the question of a model street railway franchise. In discussing the latter one speaker drew attention to the fact that if had been prepared by experts and had been discussed by experts, referring to Delos F. Wilcox of the Public Service Commission of New York city, Harry P. Nichols, franchise expert of the New York Board of Estimate and Apportionment, and F. S. Spence, member of the Board of Control in Toronto. Dr. Wilcox in giving point to the suggestions as to taxes, labor settlements, and human wear and tear to be embodied in a model franchise, said:

We have considered with care the question of compensation for franchise. In our judgment the car riders should not be taxed for the relief of the general tax rate. While there are strong arguments for the policy of requiring a franchise holder to pay taxes at the regular rate on the value of its property outside of the streets, we think that at least all compensation in excess of this requirement, whether in the form of general city taxes, car license fees, a percentage of gross receipts, or a division of net profits, should be applied either to the construction of extensions on the city's account or to the amortization fund, or should be remitted for the benefit of service or for the reduction of rates.

The public necessity of maintaining continuous service on a street railway is so great that in our judgment the franchise should provide some method for the arbitration of labor disputes so as effectively to prevent strikes. We have been impressed by observation and experience with the tremendous cost in human vitality represented by the time and energy wasted in transit. It is often true that a half-hour or an hour spent on a crowded, poorly lighted, badly ventilated street car at the end of a hard day's work is a greater tax upon a person's strength than an extension of the day's labor for the same time would be. The cost of transportation is not to be measured merely by the fares paid. The representatives of the city in framing a street railway franchise contract and in the regulation of street railway service should constantly keep in mind the conservation of human energy as well as financial considerations.

Efficiency in municipal work was another note that was struck in a number of addresses and especially in Prof. S. N. Gunn's paper on municipal health administration. Dr. E. C. Levy, chief health officer of Richmond, pointed out that economy does not always lead to nor mean efficiency, but that efficiency does mean and does lead to economy.

FRANKFORT-ON-MAIN A CITY OF PROPHECY

William Dudley Foulke's annual address as president dealt also with questions of efficiency, being devoted to a survey of the city of Frankfort-on-Main as an example of comprehensive and effective municipal government to the end of making life better worth living. In concluding his address Mr. Foulke quoted a man high in the Prussian service who had said: "You will finally be able to do what we are doing, but it will take you a long time—it will come by degrees." Pointing out the truth of this statement, Mr. Foulke said:

Municipal aptitudes are not made in a day, they grow with the development of municipal life. Our city governments have been the darkest stains upon our institutions. Things are beginning to improve. There has been a great moral awakening among our people; the necessity of better government is perceived by all. The desire is there, and we are gradually learning how we may obtain it. Not the least among the duties of the Municipal League is the duty of developing this sentiment of local patriotism. It might be unwise for us at this moment to attempt all the varied activities which are so successfully accomplished in Frankfort. We must content ourselves at first with smaller things. We have immense aptitudes in other directions, and we must make them available for the regeneration of our city communities.

SOCIALISM IN AMERICAN CITIES

The secretary of the league, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, in his annual review of the municipal situation, incidentally called attention to the fact that his first review, seventeen years ago, occupied eight and a half pages, while the one presented a year ago at Buffalo required eighty-two pages. The success of socialist candidates who ran for mayor in the November elections, of which the Rev. George Lunn's victory in Schenectady was perhaps the most striking, gave special timeliness to Mr. Woodruff's review at length of the growth of the socialist movement in the cities. He pointed out that at the several elections held during the year 1911 upwards of 500 socialist candidates have been elected to municipal office. In commenting on the general effect of socialist rule, es-

pecially in Milwaukee, Mr. Woodruff said:

Notwithstanding shortcomings in the way of community courtesies and life, the Seidel administration has been honest and fairly efficient. Although it has made some serious mistakes, as was to be expected under the circumstances, being entrusted with the administration of a great city in the face of high expectations excited by a long discontented people, it has adopted many useful, constructive measures. It is difficult to get at the real facts of the situation and estimate the value of the socialist contribution to municipal development. On the one hand the anti-socialist press are extreme in their denunciation of and criticism of the socialist administration, and unfair in the extreme in commenting upon its activities. On the other hand, the bitter abuse and constant insults that have appeared in the columns of the *Social Democratic Herald*, the recognized organ of the socialist propaganda, some of which have been over Victor Berger's own signature, indicate the animus of the administration that makes it impossible for other than socialists to support the candidates and propaganda in the future, unless the electorate should be confronted with a choice between serious evils—of which the support of the socialists might be the least.

The decisive effect of the socialist propaganda is illustrated in another direction. The socialist members of the last session of the Wisconsin legislature fought bitterly the non-partisan city government and majority-rule measures that were advocated by the civic bodies of the city, and eventually defeated them. Such an attitude, coming at a time when party lines are being broken down to a greater extent than ever before in municipal elections, and when party designations are being eliminated from the official ballots in a most satisfactory way, seems a step in the wrong direction.

It is really too soon to estimate at its true value the socialist movement in the city. The tendencies that have herein been indicated are dangerous ones, if allowed to go unchecked. However, if the socialists place the emphasis upon the many excellent features of their platform, and eliminate the idea of class distinctions, and will offer to work with all other citizens irrespective of party who have for their object the advancement high ideals in city life, they will contribute an earnestness and an aggressiveness of great value.

Simultaneously with the Richmond meeting announcement was made of the donation to the National Municipal League by "friends of good city government in Cincinnati" of \$500 to be used as a prize fund for the best annual essay written by a student in the University of Cincinnati on some subject bearing upon the municipal government or civic life of Cincinnati.

FLORIDA AND THE FUTURE

The old saw that a child can put questions which wise men cannot answer finds a modern version in the discussion of those phases of childhood which are recognized to-day as social problems. Prominent on programs, and often coming to the front unbidden, these questions ran through the sessions of five state conferences of charities and correction held last month. West, South, East, and North found themselves similarly engaged. Iowa asked: "Am I a good parent?" and reviewed her juvenile court and child labor situations; Missouri, holding two evening sessions with the Kansas City Child Welfare Exhibit, learned from a leader in the Men and Religion Forward Movement what is the social and religious value of the child; speakers at the Pennsylvania conference called strongly for the prevention of blindness in babyhood, and urged, though not without opposition, the forming of a state probation commission; in Minnesota there was outcry against the causes of high infant mortality and the menace of child labor, together with demand for saner treatment of backward children in schools, and a notice to the state that physical, mental, and moral defects which contribute to retardation and delinquency must be discovered; Florida told a tale of conditions of neglect where the state is responsible which set the teeth on edge, but also of new impetus given to forward movements, such as that to establish juvenile courts.

This last was Florida's first state conference, meeting at Jacksonville. There was desire, therefore, to gauge interest and to note how currents tended. "That the social workers of the state are alive and up and doing, that the people in this land of flowers are intensely interested in 'How The Other Half Lives,' and that Florida must be counted among the progressive states of the union along lines of social reform," was the meaning of the gathering as one Florida leader read it.

Reports from institutions brought out startling facts which are summarized by a correspondent as follows:

W. H. Milton, president of the State Reform School at Marianna, admitted that boys and girls are being provided for in the same buildings, and that because of lack of sufficient appropriations from the state inmates have not been properly clothed, fed, nor educated. The report from the State Hospital for the Insane revealed not only that Florida has no suitable place for feeble-minded and epileptic adults, but that in existing institutions little children are housed with inmates of these classes. Florida has nine state institutions: the State Reform School; the Insane Hospital; the School for the Deaf and Blind; four orphanages denominational in their work; and two orphanages not denominational. No specific provision has yet been made for the care of children who are feeble-minded, epileptic, backward, tubercular, or delinquent. The present system of caring for criminals was condemned in equally strong terms. The need of a State Board of Charities was brought out by Frances Anderson of the Jacksonville Woman's Club.

The immediate effect of the conference therefore was to help crystallize public opinion in Florida in demanding better care for the wards of the public. A joint meeting of the conference and the State Federation of Women's Clubs enunciated a broader program of social work for this newly awakened state, those in attendance expressing their determination to enlist the active fellowship of friends and citizens in a new vision of the commonwealth. The chief speaker was Edward T. Devine.

Judge Samuel Black, of Columbus, O., outlining the new spirit of justice to juvenile delinquents, urged the use of the family home in placing out dependent children. Florida passed a juvenile court law last winter, and Tampa, Pensacola, and Jacksonville early took advantage of it; the conference will, it is believed, lead to other courts for children throughout the state. Suggestion was closely followed by action in another field. Hardly had a resolution been adopted urging every city and town in the state to organize its charities, when three cities—Sanford, Arcadia, and West Palm Beach—took practical steps in this direction. Organized charity was described as the mother of recent American social movements by V. R. Manning, secretary of the Jacksonville Associated Charities. Mr. Manning told how, from its knowledge of the histories

of hundreds of families in the city, his society has helped to launch medical inspection of schools, a municipal tuberculosis pavilion, and two industrial schools. Dr. Charles Terry, health commissioner, told of the work of the force of trained nurses and physicians in the Jacksonville schools. Twenty per cent of the pupils have been found in need of special care. The social needs of the small towns throughout the state were emphasized and a strong plea made that one central society be formed in each to meet the needs instead of small separate organizations to deal with each problem.

MISSOURI SOCIAL WORKERS MILITANT

"One thousand members in 1912!" This ambitious membership slogan—requiring a three-fold increase—is an indication of the new spirit of doing things which has come over the Missouri Conference of Charities and Correction, and which to the minds of the members presages for next year a campaign for social legislation such as the state has never known. A note of revolt against the political and non-professional standards alleged to exist among public servants in the state's institutions was sounded at the outset of the meeting on November 9, at Kansas City. T. J. Riley, director of the St. Louis School of Social Economy, and president of the conference, put the question: "Why should four years' service by superintendents of charitable institutions disqualify them from continuing in their positions?" Henry Faxon, the man most responsible for securing the recent increase in the rate for county support of the insane in state hospitals, made a plea for improving the quality of service in public institutions, and Dr. M. A. Bliss proposed the merit system for selecting employees. The evening sessions in conjunction with the Kansas City Child Welfare Exhibit gave head to the movement for the establishment by the next legislature of a children's agency under the State Board of Charities and Correction. This year, for the first time, the almshouse superintendents demanded a place on the program. W. N. Wil-

son, president of the state association of almshouse officials, laid responsibility squarely upon the public for much of the good and bad in these institutions. This association, it was brought out, is doing constructive work. During the past year two-thirds of the almshouses have got out from under the lease system of operating county farms. At this announcement the conference voted to wage an active campaign until all counties should employ their superintendents on salary. Uniform financial and population records are being adopted, and a resolution was passed petitioning the governor and all interested organizations to demand the provision under the State Board of Charities and Corrections of an inspector who shall visit every almshouse once a year. No less significant were the promptings toward "curing the century-old jail evil" brought out at this meeting. L. A. Halbert, superintendent of the Kansas City Board of Public Welfare, described the municipal farm for work-house prisoners in that city. He contrasted this scheme of outdoor work for misdemeanants with the no-work-at-all régime which he declared is the rule in county jails. Mr. Halbert said:

I insist that work for prisoners should stand the same tests as work for free men. Up-to-date methods should be used, the work should be healthful and should have a direct connection with the support of the prisoner and his family. . . . Farm work avoids most of the criticisms lodged against other forms of prison labor. However, it should not be taken as a panacea, for there still remain the old problems of discipline and of moral uplift which can be met only by having officials of high character and ability.

Charles A. Ellwood, professor of sociology in the University of Missouri, whose investigations several years ago first brought to public notice the abuses in the jails and almshouses of the state, took up at this session the "worn-out and complicated fabric of criminal court procedure," urging the establishment of a Missouri branch of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology. Mrs. Raymond Robins of Chicago, president of the National Women's Trade Union League, and Mrs. Florence Kelley, secretary of the National Consumers' League, were the chief speakers

at the sessions devoted to the improvement of working conditions, at which the facts gathered by Ruth White, of the Board of Public Welfare (depicted in last week's SURVEY) were brought out.

The statement that out of 300 inmates of houses of ill fame in Kansas City, 154, or 51 per cent, received less than \$6.00 per week when engaged in honorable pursuits, and only 10 per cent as much as \$10.00 per week, was not the least thought-provoking of the points marshalled in support of the movement for minimum wage boards.

THE CHILDREN OF THE NORTHWEST

The call for the conservation of childhood was sounded quite as specifically at Duluth as at Jacksonville or Kansas City. Here Minnesota's twentieth conference was in session, November 9-12. As a probable result, writes one delegate,

We are soon to have a conference on child-helping service, looking to effort to co-ordinate all responsible and responsive agencies in co-operative service.

In his opening address, P. M. Ringdal, president of the conference and chairman of the State Board of Control, pointed out that delving for causes does not in itself answer the demands made upon charitable and correctional agencies today. There must be programs of action based upon classification of causes. By way of illustration he told of the work under the \$10,000 appropriation granted by the last Minnesota legislature for study of the causes of defectiveness, delinquency, and crime. A closer study of children through case diagnosis, with the object of discovering those physical, mental, and moral defects which contribute to retardation and delinquency, was urged by C. E. Faulkner, superintendent of the Washburn Memorial Orphan Asylum, Minneapolis. Said Mr. Faulkner in part:

The case diagnosis of the examining physician should be comprehensive and specific, and the first use to be made of the physician's findings should be by the court which is seeking to discover the duty of the state to the child. The state is morally bound to know

that its interference is helpful. It cannot dispose of city-bred boys who have an inheritance of graded schools, public libraries, industrial training schools, free gymnasiums, and public playgrounds to the farm without fair compensation for these advantages. If the state would make farmers of its children, it must open to them the schools where farming is taught.

Mr. Faulkner declared that in Michigan and Minnesota, which he described as the two states foremost in exemplifying the policy of direct state care for children who become wards of the public, children are sent to the farms without preparation, and that in neither state have these children found their way into the agricultural schools supported by their states for the benefit of all. Michigan could trace but one such pupil, he said, and Minnesota only two. He went on:

Our idea is to enlarge the work of the State Public School for Dependent and Neglected Children in a manner to permit the employment of trained instructors in agricultural science and the vocational callings best adapted by choice and fitness to the children dealt with. This policy would suit the education to the needs of this class of children, place those so dealt with under the supervising oversight of the state as a superior guardian, and permit the transfer to the state school from the co-operating institutions supported by private benevolence or other organizations.

Prof. J. B. Miner, psychologist at the state university, urged the abandonment of "the error of basing the legal age of a child on chronological instead of mental standards." The dunce in school, he said, should not be held to the same standards as others of his years; he is younger than they in mental development. Infant mortality and juvenile labor were other phases of the child problem brought out at Duluth. Minnesota through its last legislature amended its compulsory education law so as to abolish the issuance of labor permits on the ground of poverty to children under sixteen. From recent figures Eugene T. Lies, general secretary of the Associated Charities of Minneapolis, judged that the operation of the amended law will reduce by two-thirds the number of labor permits issued. He emphasized the need of providing scholarships for the few to whom the law might

work a possible hardship, and argued that these should be based on the need rather than on the earning capacity of the child.

PENNSYLVANIA SUBSIDIES CALLED A CORRUPTION FUND

"A frank attack on the state subsidy of charitable and educational institutions," writes an insurgent Pennsylvanian, was the feature of the conference held at Pittsburgh, November 14-16. With no mincing of terms, speakers told of directors of hospitals, of the heads of various charitable institutions, and of educators being forced to close their mouths and refrain from criticism of political corruption lest they endanger the state appropriations to institutions in which they are interested. It was charged that the appropriation "bug-bear" is used to chain the tongue of the college professor in Pennsylvania who displays too active an interest in reform movements; that the charitable appropriations are in essence a corruption fund. The attack upon the present system was led by Prof. Carl Kelsey of the University of Pennsylvania; W. H. Nibecker of Glenn Mills; Allen T. Burns of Pittsburgh; and William B. Buck of Philadelphia. In defense appeared President Francis J. Torrance and Secretary Bromley Wharton of the Board of Public Charities. An argument against the present system of appropriations, apparently new to the majority of the delegates, was advanced by Professor Kelsey when he asserted that state subsidies lessen private charity. Palliative measures suggested were the adoption of a system of measured service; the classification of institutions doing what might properly be considered the state's work; and the payment by the state of so much per case to appropriate institutions.

Ministers representing four denominations contributed four of the most stirring addresses of the conference. A plea to social workers to interpret to their respective communities the results of their experience was made by the Rev. R. M. Little in his presidential address. The church is ready and willing to do social work, declared Dr. Samuel Van Vranken Holmes, Buffalo, N. Y.,

but it does not know how. Church workers should be content to begin with individual cases in order that they may prepare themselves to deal with neighborhood and community problems.

Rabbi Rudolph I. Coffee of Pittsburgh ascribed the source of ideals in social work to religion. Dr. W. E. McCulloch of Pittsburgh emphasized the necessity of co-operative effort by all denominations.

Speaking on the topic of the Courts and the Child, Roy Smith Wallace of Philadelphia uncovered active centers of opposition to a plan for a state probation commission. The representatives of several counties voiced their hostility to the plan. Medical school inspection, public preventive medicine, and protection of the milk supply were phases of public health which proved of especial interest to the conference.

WHERE STATE CARE AS YET BREAKS DOWN

Perhaps the most caustic and sensational arraignment of the failure of American states as yet to think through from beginning to end their provision for delinquent, neglected, and dependent children was that made by an Iowa probation officer at the Iowa City conference. Childhood had come up for discussion under such headings as child labor, the juvenile court, and the consulting psychologist in the public schools. In answer to the question, "Is Iowa a good parent?" Henry E. C. Ditzen, probation officer of Davenport, scored the laws which prevent the admission of a pregnant girl into the state industrial school at Mitchelville, and at the same time make no other provision for adequately dealing with her. Mr. Ditzen said:

After confinement girls may be discharged if found to be pregnant, and this offers an inducement to them to become so. If the rule is correct, a girl in that condition can defy the law, because she knows she cannot be committed to the industrial school and her age will prevent her from being put into jail—she can neither be punished nor reformed.

Mr. Ditzen cited another case where the present scheme of state institutions

breaks down—that of a consumptive boy charged with delinquency:

The lad is refused admission by the industrial school on the ground that it is not a sanatorium, and by the state sanatorium on the ground that it is not a home for delinquents. He was expelled from the public schools as being dangerous to the health of the other children. The only institution willing to receive him was the public street, and there he was at last report an outcast. He has no chance to be reformed, no chance to be cured, no chance to be educated—except in the ways of the street. That lad may do anything he wants to, can be as criminal and tough as he pleases, for he cannot be put into jail, because he is less than sixteen years old and is not wanted at the industrial school.

Continuing, Mr. Ditzen declared that there is no state institution taking care of babies less than a year old. If an infant is syphilitic, he said, the state wants to care for it less than ever, although it may be the offspring of a couple the state has recklessly allowed to marry.

With its sessions conducted under the auspices of the state university and largely attended by instructors and students in the economics and philosophy departments, this Iowa conference, held at Iowa City, November 19-21, "was a manifestation," to quote a participant, "of the idea that the theoretical and the practical in the problems of human life must get together in the great campaign for higher living." The alignment of science and social action was suggested in Dr. Clarence Van Epp's plea for the sterilization of the defective, the insane, and the criminal, by vasectomy. Point was given to the discussion of county hospitals in relation to the general topic of public health by the fact that only within recent years have such hospitals for the care of tuberculous patients been permitted by the Iowa law. At the present time no county hospital in Iowa is open to such patients, although there are more than 10,000 people in the state suffering from tuberculosis. More than 1400 people died last year of the disease. The only sanatoriums for their care are the state sanatorium at Oakdale, a private hospital at Fort Dodge, and Ridge Camp Hospital, Des Moines. Not more than 200 people can possibly be cared for in the three combined.



THE KNOW-YOUR-CITY SURVEY IN SYRACUSE

It is estimated that 8,000 persons have studied Syracuse through "Know-Your-City Week" by attending the meetings. These 8,000 are the mediums through which the gospel of general city betterment . . . will be spread.

—This statement from the *Syracuse Post-Standard* on Saturday morning, November 25, came after a week of reports and discussions had brought out the result of investigations made by the Syracuse social survey. It shows something of the interest of the citizens of Syracuse in this preliminary inventory of social conditions and forces in their city.

Syracuse prepared for this week of introspection by beginning as far back as July to cast up its social accounts. A central committee of twelve, representing the Ministerial Association, Central Trades Assembly, Chamber of Commerce, and Associated Charities, under the chairmanship of the Rev. Murray Shipley Howland and the secretaryship of Paul E. Illman of the Associated Charities, began a preliminary study of things as they are. Just as a

business man takes stock every year, they wanted a stock-taking of the conditions that affect life and health and general progress within the Syracuse city limits; and from these human balance-sheets they purposed to draw out what immediate reforms were needed and what phases of the local situation needed more extended investigation. This rapid preliminary stock-taking under the direction of Shelby M. Harrison, who spent a month in Syracuse in midsummer, followed seven general lines:

- Health conservation and sanitation,
- Housing conditions among unskilled workers.
- Betterment agencies,
- Foreign population,
- Juvenile delinquency,
- Civic improvement,
- Labor conditions.

RESOLUTIONS SUBMITTED FOR A WORKING PROGRAM

With reports in hand on these subjects, the central committee formulated seven resolutions as a preliminary working program for the city, which would not be partisan, sectarian, nor sectional, but would aim at healthy industrial and social growth. In an eighth resolution this remarkable working group, representing forces which are not always in accord in city life, sent back to the bodies which created it, and which it jointly represented, a recommendation that they take action to see that the program is entered upon. The resolutions:

First—That the mayor and Common Council be urged to establish a City Planning and Housing Commission to secure a plan for the city's growth and development, and draw up a housing code such as would meet the needs of the city for some time to come.

Second—That the Board of Education be petitioned to consider and adopt a far-reaching plan for the education of the foreign population of the city by a larger provision of night schools, by the introduction of civics and industrial courses in night schools, and by the extension of vocational training to the grades.

Third—That the police and school departments be petitioned to enforce the child labor laws relative to the street trades.

Fourth—That the Board of Health should be petitioned to provide:

(a)—For the inspection of mercantile establishments and for the enforcement of those provisions relating to child labor, hours of

work of women, and sanitary conditions under which such people work.

(b)—For the publishing monthly of the milk score of all milk producers whose milk is sold in the city.

(c)—For more rigid inspection of tenements.

(d)—For the engagement by the city of the services of some sanitarian of national standing to study and report on the needs of the public health of Syracuse, as a basis for planning future health work.

Fifth—That the employers engaged in such industries as require the plant to be in continuous operation be urged to make such adjustments as to assure every laborer one day of rest in seven.

Sixth—That there should be among the betterment agencies of the city a closer co-operation expressed in some system, such as a United Charities, Social Service League, or an Associated Charities organized on broader lines than those in existence at present.

Seventh—That the city at large have some organization for the study of the city needs and development and to crystallize the findings of such studies in some yearly program such as this Know-Your-City Week.

Eighth—That to accomplish this end the Central Survey Committee recommend to the respective bodies represented in the committee the formation of a comprehensive and democratic body to study the problems and promote the adoption of the reforms suggested by the survey.

By no means the least interesting feature of this Syracuse undertaking was the co-operation which it enjoyed. The city seemed ripe for such a social revival. It was Syracuse townspeople and not outsiders who first found that out. Individuals and organizations investigated conditions, gave money and time to organizing the week of meetings, provided an educational moving-picture exhibit, arranged for literary, historical, and pictorial exhibits of Syracuse, made charts and drawings to display the findings of the survey, and carried through an essay contest on Syracuse needs among school children. State and national organizations cooperated on a volunteer basis. Speakers from out of the city who pointed the moral of local findings from the vantage point of a national perspective included Mrs. Florence Kelley, Neva A. Chappell, Edward T. Devine, Graham Taylor, William H. Allen, J. Horace McFarland, Paul U. Kellogg, Winfield Scott Hall, John Ihlder, John Daniels, Zenas L. Potter, William Kirk, Anna B. Fox, and Marcus A. Beeman.

 EDITORIAL GRIST

 THE McNAMARA CON-
FESSIONS

GRAHAM TAYLOR

The confessions of the McNamara brothers in the Los Angeles dynamiting tragedy are of the greatest public value. No conviction, however strong the evidence might have been upon which it was secured, could possibly have been ratified by such a unanimity of public sentiment as has been produced by this unexpectedly fortunate ending of these two trials.

For, despite the strength of the prosecution's case and the baffled attitude of the defense, both of which have been evident from the start, multitudes of sincere men, not only in Los Angeles but throughout the whole country, were firmly convinced of the innocence of these guilty men. This persuasion was due perhaps more to the suspicions aroused by the harsh, uncompromising, and unreasoning warfare so long waged against organized labor by certain employers and newspaper men in Los Angeles than to any actual knowledge of the case against the accused men or any personal loyalty to them. The tactics of this prolonged war, which was "without discharge" and without quarter, strengthened the suspicion that the McNamara brothers might be the victims of a "frame-up" by employers and detectives in conspiracy against organized labor. Unjustifiable and incredible as these claims of the accused were at once held to be in the editorial opinion of THE SURVEY¹, yet, as we then said in our plea for "Justice without Fear or Favor", it was none the less unfortunate to give color to these counter-charges by the unusual detective measures employed in the delivery of the prisoners to the California authorities, however extenuating, or even justifiable, they may have been under the circumstances of the acute situation.

Our confidence in the character and capacity of William J. Burns, well

known to us both as man and detective, proves now to have been amply justified in emphasizing the presumption that he must have regarded his evidence against the accused as conclusive. For his integrity as well as his consummate ability are attested incontrovertibly by the admission of the counsel for the defense that there was "no loop-hole" anywhere in the evidence against the men and that everywhere the defense faced "a stone wall."

On this account not only, but still more because of the general considerations involved, we called upon "labor officials higher up to do their utmost to see that justice is done not only to the accused men, but also to their own great cause; to do their utmost to stand with the American public in protecting life and property from the cowardly attack of the bomb-thrower and the dynamiter by fearlessly aiding the courts to find and deal with the facts, without respect to persons." This some of them at least have failed to do. In appealing for the defence fund, which it was their right and duty to do, they went much further than the cause of labor and the public welfare could afford to have them go in pre-judging the case pending in the courts. Certain of their officials and official newspaper organs, without evidence and without discretion, have not only declared for the innocence of the accused men, on their own barest and boldest assumption, but without a shred of attested fact or a hint of direct evidence have spread broadcast the most specific accusations of criminal conspiracy against men who are now cleared from all possible suspicion by the confession of the guilty prisoners. This stunning rebuke to such irresponsibility among the labor leaders and in the labor press is well deserved, and ought to put some of them out of commission.

As was to have been expected, the reaction from the rank and file, and from all the stronger, better men in the lead, has been instantaneous, unqualified, and decisive. There has been little or no equivocation or extenuation. The number of demands for the extreme penalty of the law, even the death penalty, which are reported to have been telegraphed to

¹THE SURVEY for May 6, 1911, page 214.

Los Angeles, is impressive. It means that at last the really responsible majorities in organized labor have learned the belated lesson of this bitterest experience which American trade unionism has ever suffered. It seems inevitable either that both the fanatical and grafting elements which depend upon the "strong arm" methods will be eliminated from the secret policies and the open leadership of the unions, or that their membership will gradually disintegrate by the withdrawal of loyal and law-abiding men. The latter contingency, however, is incredible in view of the economic necessity for the organization of labor and the essential value of legitimate unionism to the maintenance and progress of the American democracy. If, however, withdrawals from the trade unions were to take place on this account, the socialist party is the only organization ready at hand and waiting to receive such seceders. The bids of that party's press for such accessions are prompt and urgent. Many throughout the country are likely to respond, however many were deterred from voting the socialist ticket in the municipal election at Los Angeles. But far larger numbers would doubtless have been so recruited to the ranks of the socialist party, had not many of its papers been foremost in their unjust and untruthful accusations against everyone who has had to do a public duty in the detection, trial, and punishment of these atrocious crimes against life, property, and public welfare.

Whatever effect the efforts to mediate some pact of peace for progress, reported by Lincoln Steffens, may have had in securing the confessions, it seems certain that at least some prominent citizens of Los Angeles have at last been startled to see how much too far the class struggle has been carried there, and to what further lengths it may go if it is not pacifically dealt with now. Whether or no these efforts have had, or should have had, any decisive effect upon the administration of justice in the cases before the courts, opinions are sharply divided, but it is an auspicious token of a brighter future for all America that public-spirited citizens of high standing are moved to take advantage of this crisis

to bring together the contending parties in this desperate fratricidal strife upon some basis of equitable industrial relationship which will at least allow them to live and work together. There can be little doubt in the minds of sober men to whom the facts of the acute industrial situation on the coast have long been known that it is both untenable and extremely dangerous. Those who have bravely grappled with it should be undeterred in their efforts to promote a peaceful and just adjustment in the future, however the immediate issue of the present criminal prosecution may embarrass them. The supremacy of law and the meting out of even-handed justice constitute a separate issue which, for the moment, has the right of way. But however effectively justice has been administered, some more fundamental solution of the industrial problem must be reached than the detection of crime and the sentencing of criminals.

And now, when on this prime point there is an overwhelming unanimity on both sides of the industrial cleavage, it is a supreme opportunity, and no less an imperative obligation, for the organizations of both labor and capital not only to purge themselves from those who incite and perpetrate lawlessness and violence, but to get together to establish a broader and better basis for their working agreements and for the industrial legislation which involves the vital interests of both. We will fall far short of taking advantage of this supreme opportunity if we do not fearlessly discover and thoroughly deal with the conditions which make possible such crimes as the McNamara brothers have committed and which account for the motives which lead men to commit them.

A SCHOOL FOR MAYORS

JAMES P. HEATON

A school for mayors—that is what some call the project. If you would like to become an expert administrator of municipal departments, and enjoy a salary while being taught, this account should interest you. Mrs. E. H. Harriman has started a school where some of the pupils, if they are good

students and proficient in some specific thing, may receive salaries as high as \$4,000 or even \$5,000 a year. Her belief and that of her advisers is that the time has come to begin an experiment in training men for public service through doing work that needs to be done and getting information that needs to be obtained. For this purpose she has given \$80,000, while business associates and friends of the late E. H. Harriman have guaranteed \$120,000. Mr. Harriman believed that the cost of public service, particularly in our cities, could be reduced if officials paid the same careful attention to the problem that railroad managers give to the expense of transporting a ton of freight one mile. His last public utterance reiterated this belief. This interest in municipal investigation as a means for increasing governmental efficiency was shared by Hrs. Harriman, who has watched the work done in this connection by the New York Bureau of Municipal Research. In order to make possible a five years' test of the plan, Mrs. Harriman offered \$40,000 for the first year and \$10,000 a year for the succeeding four years, provided other contributions of \$30,000 a year for the second, third, fourth, and fifth years were obtained. These have been received from thirty of the wealthiest active business men of the country, whose actual interest and not a mere formal support has been persistently sought by Mrs. Harriman, who has thought out each step carefully and deliberately. George W. Perkins, C. A. Coffin, and Mortimer Schiff, as trustees of this fund, will assist Mrs. Harriman in its practical application.

Mrs. Harriman wished to learn how men familiar with governmental affairs would go about the problem of training men for public service to fill the constant demand for experts which the bureau has been called upon to meet. She consulted personally and by correspondence a number of business men, journalists, educators, and public officials as to the need of a new kind of school for the study and administration of public business. All replied that training for this work is necessary and that field service is required to supplement the work of the university and technical schools.

The school will be started in New York, but its scope is intended to be national. The curriculum will embrace the analyzing of budget estimates and all public expenditures, the drafting of city charters, the study of health problems, the standardization of salaries, contracts, and specifications, model municipal accounting, methods of assessing and collecting taxes, and the preparing of official statements for publication. The work will be supervised by the directors of the Bureau of Municipal Research. The field work will also be directed by experienced workers in the bureau or in some of the city departments which have volunteered co-operation.

The school aims to enroll four classes of applicants; college graduates who are anxious to go into public service or social work; accountants who wish to qualify for analysis of public business; superintendents of schools, secretaries of boards of trade, heads of civic organizations; post-graduate students of politics, economics, sociology, law, and journalism who wish practical field work to supplement academic training. Part of the funds will be used to make the results of special studies available for text-book and hand-book uses in colleges, high schools, and accounting schools; but the main object will be to give to tried and proved men of character, with different experiences and interests, careful training that will enable each to apply his peculiar capabilities to the best advantage in public service. The bureau will employ the applicants in practical work that needs to be done in New York and other cities, paying them salaries in the meantime, so that men of experience who are dependent upon their earnings may be able to pursue the course and at the same time render a return for their remuneration. The Bureau of Municipal Research anticipates that in future, besides its present function of investigation of city affairs, a most important part of its activities will be the training of the men who, throughout the country, will aid in the work of applying the tests of scientific management to municipal business, which has suffered from half a century of satisfaction with antiquated methods.

BOOKS

LILIAN BRANDT, Contributing Editor

THE PHILANTHROPIC WORK OF JOSEPHINE SHAW LOWELL. By WILLIAM RHINELANDER STEWART. The Macmillan Company. Pp. 584. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$2.18.

We venture the prediction that this record of Mrs. Lowell's life and work which the president of the New York State Board of Charities has given to "the ever-growing army of students of social subjects" will be reckoned as by no means the least of his public services. Undertaken "with a justifiable diffidence born of inexperience in literary work," it has occupied most of his leisure through the six years since Mrs. Lowell's death; and out of these two conditions has come something which, much more completely than Mr. Stewart in his modesty probably realizes, fulfills his ideal of what the book should be.

With a rare skill—for it is not an easy thing to accomplish even with the most sincere intention—the author has contrived to efface himself: not only by compressing "introductions and explanations in order to leave more space for Mrs. Lowell's writings"; but also by the simplicity, delicacy, and restraint of these "compressed" passages. One sees only Mrs. Lowell; no other personality obscures the picture.

"One of the most useful and remarkable women of the nineteenth century," Mr. Stewart calls her, and it would be hard to find any to disagree. From the early seventies to the close of the century she was clearly a dominating personality in shaping the policies of the charitable and correctional work of New York. The story of her interests and activities is to a large extent the story of the development of social work during those years. It is, however, not a chronological account of this development which the book gives, but, in chapters not very closely connected, the story of Mrs. Lowell's connection with the various achievements and movements in which she was most intimately concerned. Nor is it a complete and chronological story in each chapter, but rather a picture of how Mrs. Lowell felt about the problem, and samples of what she did about it. In the chapter on the Charity Organization Society, for example, there is no attempt to recount her many special interests and services; but extracts from letters show the energy and enthusiasm with which she went into the organization of it and the great amount of time which she gave to it; fellow-workers in the society contribute accounts of the impression she made; and over eighty pages are given up to writings of her own which formulated her ideals for the society and were influential in shaping its policies.

While this record is limited to Mrs. Lowell's "philanthropic work," enough of her per-

sonal history is given to afford a background,—and to make one wish for a great deal more.

"Hereditry was kind to Josephine Shaw, who, on December 16, 1843, was born at West Roxbury, Massachusetts; for both her parents belonged to New England families of distinction and culture." When she was only three years old the family came to Staten Island in order that Mrs. Shaw's eyes might be treated by a certain New York specialist. Except for this comparatively accidental circumstance, probably Boston, instead of New York, would have been the field of Mrs. Lowell's activities. A happy girlhood on Staten Island, broken by five years in Europe and ending with a winter or two at school in Boston, brought Josephine to her eighteenth year and to the outbreak of the Civil War, by which she was to suffer so grievously.

She entered on her first public service by joining the Woman's Central Association of Relief for the Army and Navy of the United States, a branch of the sanitary commission which covered several states. In this she worked with Gertrude Stevens (Mrs. W. B. Rice) and other young women with whom later she was associated in much of her social work. From a little diary which she began just after the battle of Bull Run and kept for sixteen months, the only personal record she left behind her, extracts are printed filling twenty-five pages. They are among the most interesting pages of the book. Her comments, concerned almost wholly with the public events, show how completely the family was absorbed in the progress of the war, and her own remarkable interest in national affairs. At the same time they reveal also the vigor, directness, impulsiveness which were to be characteristic of her more mature life. For example:

"George, also, is rather depressed and everybody generally wants Lincoln to change his cabinet. I don't see the use of being depressed." (George was her brother-in-law, George William Curtis, whom she admired profoundly, and who exercised a great influence on her mind during her most impressionable years).

Later, when she grew impatient waiting for the expected Emancipation Proclamation, she wrote: "Oh, that the Lord would only put it into Lincoln's head to do something strong and decided!"

Speaking of a visit from her soldier brother she says that it "seems almost like a dream. . . . Well, all human affairs are the same; the unhappy moments are long, the happy ones short. That's all bosh, though, for they all seem short to me."

One more quotation, a reflection which

sounds far beyond her years: "These are extraordinary times and splendid to live in. This war will purify the country of some of its extravagance and selfishness, even if we are stopped midway. It can't help doing us good; it has begun to do us good already. It will make us young ones much more thoughtful and earnest, and so improve the country."

The diary stops before the year 1863, which was to be so important to her personally. In the spring she became engaged to Charles Russell Lowell. In July her brother was killed at the head of his Negro regiment at Fort Wagner. On October 31 she was married. The winter of 1863-4 she spent with her husband in camp at Vienna, Va. When in July, 1864, Colonel Lowell was ordered into more dangerous duty she returned to her father's home on Staten Island, and to her there in October came the news of her husband's death. There her daughter was born a few weeks later and there she lived until 1874, when she moved to the house in East Thirtieth street which was her home for most of the rest of her life.

It was not two years after her husband's death before Mrs. Lowell was actively identified with a committee of the Freedmen's Association, going to Virginia with Ellen Collins in the winter of 1866 to visit a number of the schools which had been established for colored children. Her more active public life, however, began with 1872. In that year the State Charities Aid Association took shape from the visiting committees for public charitable institutions which, under the leadership of Louisa Lee Schuyler, had been organized after the war to utilize for the permanent social problems in New York city and state, the interest and devotion and public spirit aroused by the temporary problems of the war. From the beginning Mrs. Lowell was one of the most active members of the association. She began, characteristically, by specializing on the Richmond county poor-house, near her home on Staten Island. In 1876 she was appointed by Governor Tilden to the State Board of Charities, being the first woman commissioner, and here she served for thirteen years. Out of her work on the State Board of Charities grew the Charity Organization Society which she founded in 1882, and to which she gave a large proportion of her time until her death.

The reforms which she had especially at heart and which she was especially influential in securing during the years from 1872 to 1890 were the fundamental and elementary ones of improving the almshouses, getting out of them the insane, the feeble-minded, the children, the vagrants, and giving decent care to the old and infirm who should remain; securing state reformatories for women and police matrons in New York city; providing state care in a custodial institution for feeble-minded women and improving the treatment of the insane.

When Mrs. Lowell withdrew from the State Board of Charities in 1889 it was in order that she might have time to give to the

problems of industrial conditions. In one personal letter at this time she says that what she wants to do "is, with others, to try to prevent strikes, by various means already successfully tried elsewhere, and here ignored by both employers and unions." In another letter she explains that she is impressed that the condition of 500,000 wage-earners is more vital than that of 25,000 dependents: "if the working people had all they ought to have, we should not have the paupers and criminals. . . . Exactly what I can do I do not know, but I want the time to try."

Some of the ways she did find in which to express this interest were in assisting the formation of the Working Women's Society, and later of the Consumers' League, of which she was the first president; organizing the East Side Emergency Relief Work in the winter of 1893-4; helping the sweated tailors in their strike in 1894; writing papers about arbitration and conciliation in industrial pursuits, and compiling a book on this subject; giving quick appreciation to the suggestion that the Charity Organization Society should enter into the field of housing reform by establishing a Tenement House Committee; and sympathizing with the broadening of its scope to include active work in other ways for the improvement of social conditions.

From 1894 on Mrs. Lowell spent no small part of her time in efforts to improve municipal politics. She organized the Woman's Municipal League to assist in the campaign for electing Mayor Strong, and in various addresses and publications enlisted the interest of women in good government. In 1894 also she first found time to give active attention to civil service reform, a subject which had been a latent interest since her girlhood, and which she furthered by forming a Women's Auxiliary to the Civil Service Reform Association, and by preparing a series of able papers and making many public addresses. The last paper she wrote, just before her death, was her report as chairman of the committee on Civil Service Reform of the State Federation of Women's Clubs.

This is by no means a complete list of her interests. For that, and for her way of looking at things, it is necessary to go to the book—to the letters and other writings which are there reproduced; to the bibliography of her reports and papers (a hundred and fifty or more) which fills ten of the large pages; to the tributes paid to her after her death.¹

One closes the volume wishing not only that there might have been more personal information about Mrs. Lowell herself, but also that more of her searching comments on friends and associates might have been included. The reasons for not including more of both are obvious and convincing; but this, for example, is the kind of observation which makes very entertaining reading: "Gertrude (a lady now prominent in the philanthropic work of New York) is a most satisfactory person to work with, very efficient and full of

¹See also the memorial volume published by the Charity Organization Society in 1906.

sense, and no personal feelings to interfere." And the following, from a letter dated early in 1885: "On the train coming from Albany Thursday, I had a long talk with Theodore Roosevelt about politics. He acknowledges that the best part of the Republican party supported Cleveland, and I think his reasons for voting for Blaine are rather mixed, but he is so young that he will get over the bad effect and will do good service yet. He said he couldn't help wishing he was 'in the fight' when he goes to Albany. . . . He is going to work in the State Charities Aid this winter and do some writing. He has quite a literary turn, you know."

THE WIDTH AND ARRANGEMENT OF STREETS. By CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON. *The Engineering News*. Pp. 200. \$2.00; by mail of *THE SURVEY*, \$2.12.

To know this book thoroughly opens one's eyes in the highways and byways of towns and cities even more amazingly than to take a forest trail for the first time in company with one who knows woodcraft. The average city-dweller who reads it will be astonished to find out how very little he knows about the commonplace subject of streets. He will have once more a revelation of the importance and wealth of interest to be found in the commonplace. For the citizen who would take an intelligent interest in town planning, or who comes from any angle at the problem of improving the conditions of city life for the poor as well as for the better-to-do, the information and suggestions here put simply and concisely at his disposal are most valuable. The subject is approached from an analysis of the varied functions of streets. The folly of standardization as to width and other things is pointed out clearly. Constructively, the adaptation to serve the various functions is discussed with valuable concrete illustrations, particularly from the progressive work that is being done in England. The chapter on "excess condemnation" and other methods for financing street widening puts in a few pages the main points which most readers would have to search widely for, and applies with equal force, moreover, to other improvements along the line of fundamental city planning. The greatest value of the book is for those who are in a position to shape the development of the newer residence portions of our rapidly growing cities; but its information and spirit afford us all a point of view which until now has not been adequately expressed, and which is important not only for city planning but for all who concern themselves with community life.

TAXATION OF LAND VALUES IN AMERICAN CITIES. By BENJAMIN C. MARSH. Privately printed. Pp. 112. \$.75; by mail of *THE SURVEY*, \$.81.

Mr. Marsh's new book is really a brief for the bills introduced into the New York legislature last spring by Senator Sullivan and Assemblyman Shortt, providing for the gradual reduction of the rate of taxation on buildings until it shall be only one-half the rate on land. Mr. Marsh's interest in taxation is

indicated by his sub-title, the Next Step in Exterminating Poverty. He believes that "adequate taxation of land values will reduce the cost of living by twenty dollars per family up," and that it will lighten "many of the tasks of organized charity"; that it is the fundamental essential in dealing with congestion and bad housing conditions. Bolton Hall writes that no one can afford to ignore this book, because its arguments "will be thrown at us by our friends in conference and pounded into us by our opponents in debate."

THE LABOR QUESTION. By WASHINGTON GLADDEN. *The Pilgrim Press*. Pp. 209. \$.75; by mail of *THE SURVEY*, \$.82.

A good presentation of the fundamental principles of unionism, especially for the man who has known of labor problems only in a general way and may be puzzled about certain things, and especially for people in small towns and on farms, who through natural individualism and lack of contact with industrial conditions have been opposed to unionism. The different chapters originally appeared in the *Outlook* and have been brought together without any change in their pleasant, informal style. Dr. Gladden discusses both the evils and the advantages of unionism, reaching the conclusion that its evils are not inherent and that some form of it is absolutely necessary. He makes his strongest appeal in the final chapter, in which he urges the church to bear its share in bringing about justice in economic relations.

LABOR LAWS AND THEIR ENFORCEMENT. By CHARLES E. PERSONS, MABEL PARTON, MARIE MOSES, AND OTHERS. Edited by SUSAN W. KINGSBURY. Longmans, Green, and Company, Pp. 419. \$2.00; by mail of *THE SURVEY*, \$2.21.

This volume, although concerned chiefly with Massachusetts, comes nearer than anything else to rendering the service in America that the History of Factory Legislation, by Hutchins and Harrison, has rendered in England. The first part relates the early history of factory legislation in Massachusetts, which, since Massachusetts was the first state to enact factory laws of any importance, means the early history of factory legislation in America. Original documents have been consulted and quoted, so that for the first time the student has within easy reach the important records leading up to the final passage of the ten-hour law in 1874. There are also important chapters on the unregulated conditions in women's work; the weakness of the Massachusetts child labor law; a digest of the labor laws in Massachusetts; and a discussion of the standing of the state in the administration of its labor laws. The methods employed in testing the efficiency of administration are open to criticism, and the conclusions seem based on incomplete evidence; but so far as the evidence goes it would seem that Massachusetts can make little boast of having reached a resting-place in her attempt to protect the most defenceless portion of her citizenship from unjust labor conditions.

MISS 318. By RUPERT HUGHES. Fleming H. Revell Company. Pp. 128. \$.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.83.

In this story, which appeared last December in the *Saturday Evening Post*, the various kinds of exploitation involved in our observance of Christmas are personified in the members of two large families. "No. 318," the intelligent, resourceful, generous, and pathetic department store "saleslady," is the central character, but there is also an expressman, a "scrub-lady," chocolate-wrappers, paper-box makers, messenger boys, and cash girls, all victims of the Christmas rush. It may be inartistic to crowd these characters into two families living in the same house, but in spite of that the picture is impressive. Mrs. Kelley has said: "I wish that a million copies of this lively book might be given as Christmas presents this year."

THE COMMON GROWTH. By M. LOANE LOGGANS, Green, and Company. Pp. 304. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$2.10

Another discriminating and delightfully entertaining even if somewhat discursive account of the daily home life of the poorer portion of the working class of England is given by Miss Loane in *The Common Growth*. This visiting nurse has the ability to place before the reading public attractively the pith of the picturesque and pathetic incidents which she encounters in her daily work. The incidents which she gleanes from her service supply her with material which she interprets with considerable skill, for she is no mean psychologist, and from them she draws naturally and easily as morals of her tales some of the cardinal rules of modern relief work. Twenty-two independent chapters deal with such subjects as Hospitality, Working-Class Widows, Holidays, Looking Backward, The Question of Dress, Family, Socialism, and For Better or Worse. Most of these start with a short statement of fact or summary of the author's conclusions on the subject; but this introduction melts away into a series of delightful and often whimsical incidents, happenings, or stories that she has met with in her work. Some chapters, such as *A Woman Super-tramp*, consist entirely of the life story of one family. Others, like *Thomas Kirkup's Day's Work*, are interpretative and illustrative accounts of the life of a certain class in society. Thomas Kirkup is the four-year-old son of an agricultural laborer. The book as a whole deals more with the lot of the women and children than it does with that of men, which is natural in the record of what a visitor learned as she went from home to home, usually during the time when the father, if the woman was not a widow, was at work.

HERSELF: TALKS WITH WOMEN CONCERNING THEMSELVES. By E. B. LOWRY, M.D. Forbes and Company. Pp. 208. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.08.

Apparently these "talks" about the physiology and health and the duties of women were originally oral. In a book of this kind that is a recommendation, for it means that

they have been tried out. The language is simple and direct; as far as a layman can judge, the advice is good; the tone is sensible and wholesome.

GIRLS AND EDUCATION. By LE BARON R. BRIGGS. Houghton Mifflin Company. Pp. 162. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.07.

The president of Radcliffe knows how to make wholesome and sensible things seem the most attractive in the world, and these four addresses to girls in different circumstances would be helpful to most girls of sixteen or over and suggestive to those who have girls under their care.

HEREDITY. By WILLIAM E. CASTLE, Professor of Zoölogy, Harvard University. D. Appleton and Company. Pp. 180. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.61.

Professor Castle's photographs of successive generations of engaging guinea-pigs, who show in their own coats exactly the proper distribution of blackness and whiteness, roughness and smoothness, required by Mendel's law of inheritance, will probably make that law a reality to many who have thought of it, if they have thought of it at all, as a mathematical or philosophical hypothesis. The text, moreover, is as clear and careful as possible, and can be followed with interest as well as profit by the general reader who is willing to make a moderate intellectual exertion. While Professor Castle had in mind principally the application of scientific knowledge to the production of new and improved breeds of animals and plants, the full title of his book being *Heredity in Relation to Evolution and Animal Breeding*, the same scientific knowledge is of importance in connection with certain social policies, and the reader whose interest is in social problems can make his own applications.

MANUAL OF PSYCHIATRY. By J. ROGUES DE FURSAC, M.D. Translated and edited by A. J. ROSANOFF, M.D., second assistant physician, Kings Park State Hospital, N. Y. John Wiley and Sons. Pp. 484. \$2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$2.65.

The third American edition of this standard manual has increased interest, for those whose concern is with the social aspects of mental disorders, because of new sections, added by the editor, on the topics of race psychopathology, the relation of the Mendelian laws to heredity in insanity, the influence of parental alcoholism on offspring, and the prevention of insanity and hygiene of the mind. The original introductory chapter, with the additions which have been made to it, is an excellent summary of the research that has been made, and the conclusions that have thus far been reached, as to the causes of mental diseases. A curious instance of aberration is offered by an English catalogue which classifies this book under the head "Occultism."

INFLUENCES OF GEOGRAPHIC ENVIRONMENT. By ELLEN CHURCHILL SEMPLE. Henry Holt and Company. Pp. 683. \$4.00; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$4.25.

Miss Semple expected, when she began work on this book over seven years ago, to

make it merely a simplified paraphrase of Friedrich Ratzel's *Anthropo-Geographie*, which "is difficult reading even for Germans," and which the author himself realized "must be adapted to the Anglo-Celtic and especially to the Anglo-American mind." She modified her plan materially, however, and while her book is "on the basis of Ratzel's system" it represents an immense amount of research on her own part to test and verify her master's conclusions, to fill up gaps in his treatment, and to eliminate the influence of repudiated theories. The resulting volume is in no sense a popular one. It is a deeply serious and wide-embracing treatise which no student of the influence of the earth upon man can afford to overlook.

MEN WANTED. By FRED B. SMITH. Association Press, New York. Pp. 223. \$.75; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$.83.

Mr. Smith has been for some years the secretary of the Religious Work Department of the International Committee of Young Men's Christian Associations, and he is now the campaign leader of the Men and Religion Forward Movement. His book, which is certain to be an important part of the campaign literature of this movement, has grown out of his past experience. It gives, in a word, his conception of the kind of men who are "wanted": men who rightly appreciate work, who are honest and loyal, who have initiative and perseverance, and who are truly religious.

THROUGH THE MILL. By "AL PRIDDY." The Pilgrim Press. Pp. 304. \$1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.50.

This is a graphic recital of the experience of a mill boy from the time he was eleven years old until, as a young man of about eighteen, he suddenly broke away and went to a middle western college. There is no attempt at dramatic effect; and the author seems almost devoid of a sense of humor, and also of any clear appreciation of the great awakening known as the "labor movement." It is the absence of these qualities which contributes more than anything else to an impression that the story is genuine and that it presents precisely the point of view the child laborer would have.

THOUGHT AND FACT FOR TO-DAY. By CLAY MACCAULEY. Kelly and Walsh, Limited, Yokohama, Shanghai, Hongkong, Singapore. Pp. 95. \$.40; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$.45.

A plea for world-peace, within nations and among nations.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE THIRD NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON CITY PLANNING, MAY 15-17, 1911. Pp. 293. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.62.

See THE SURVEY, June 3, 1911, for review of the conference.

THE SPIRIT OF SOCIAL WORK. By EDWARD T. DEVINE. Charltes Publication Committee. Pp. 240. By mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.00.

For the dedication "To social workers" and a list of contents, see the advertisement facing page 1266, in THE SURVEY for November 25.

TWENTY YEARS AT HULL HOUSE. By JANE ADDAMS. The Macmillan Company, Sixth edition. Pp. 460. \$2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$2.50.

Miss Addams's autobiography has run into six editions in a year, besides large sales of a special edition in the Chautauqua courses last summer. It is the "best seller" of books for social workers, ranking in popularity with the volumes which made Jacob Riis known in every village in the country.

HYGIENE AND MORALITY. By LAVINIA L. DOCK. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Third edition. Pp. 200. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.35.

Four thousand copies of Miss Dock's book on the causes and consequences of the social evil have been sold. The *Woman Voter* announces that Miss Dock has given her royalties to the woman suffrage movement.

AN AMERICAN RAILROAD BUILDER: JOHN MURRAY FORBES. By HENRY GREENLEAF PEARSON. Houghton Mifflin Company. Pp. 196. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.37.

The story of the man who, having made a fortune in China before he was twenty-five, became the builder of the Michigan Central and the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy railroads. He stood for honest railroading in the era of the Erie raids and the Credit Mobilier scandals.

THE MAN WHO LIKES MEXICO. By WALLACE GILLPATRICK. The Century Company. Pp. 374. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$2.19.

A lively and well illustrated narrative by a leisurely traveller, who was less interested in politics at the capital than in the people of Mexico. He has as keen eyes for both the good and the bad in the Mexican peon as he had for the boys of New York's East Side when he was headworker of Chrystie Street House.

FOUR MONTHS AFOOT IN SPAIN. By HARRY A. FRANK. The Century Company. Pp. 370. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$2.18.

Another entertaining book by the young man who, supplied with one hundred dollars, a camera, a working knowledge of many tongues, and a pair of sturdy legs, made a Vagabond Journey Around the World. The trip to Spain covered two thousand miles by third-class rail and one thousand by foot and cost \$172. This traveller has a faculty for getting close to the people in city nooks and remote villages.

THE TRUTH ABOUT AN AUTHOR. By ARNOLD BENNETT. George H. Doran Company. Pp. 154. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.08.

Whether or not this is the truth, meaning the whole truth and nothing but the truth, about this particular author, at any rate it might be and it is extremely entertaining. Any one who has ever tried to write for publication in the humblest way, as well as those who are in the midst of "the bright auctorial career," will find in it statements that are stimulating or suggestive or consoling. For example: "I have come to the conclusion that the chief characteristic of all bad reviewing is the absence of genuine conviction."

THE TREND OF THINGS

A dozen magazines, of all kinds, from religious to "popular," have given THE SURVEY a glimpse into their plans for 1912, and the tables of contents presented show that matters of social importance are counted upon today to hold both religious and secular readers.

Of the general magazines, the *Century*, *Lippincott's*, *McClure's*, the *Atlantic*, and the *American* have plans to announce. In the *Century*, Edward Alsworth Ross will have a series on the social, political, educational, and other traits which make the Middle West distinctive, and Clayton Sedgewick Cooper, who has before this written on college conditions, will offer five studies of the life and character of the American under-graduate. Two articles on race questions are promised by *Lippincott's*: Passports for Alien Women, by Alexander Otis, and Indian Traits, by Charles Warren Currier. *Lippincott's*, too, offers articles by Forbes Lindsay on conditions in Cuba and Panama.

* * *

Another tropical or semi-tropical country is described by Ray Stannard Baker in the *American*. This is Hawaii, whose sugar industry, developed and controlled by white men, many of them descendants of missionaries, dominates the life of the island. In the *American* will appear also Ida M. Tarbell's studies of the "woman question," and La Follette's autobiography. The striking feature of *McClure's* for the year is Jane Addams's series, *An Ancient Evil and a New Conscience*. *Today's Magazine*, a Middle West periodical published at Canton, O., offers, besides single articles, a series on various social movements by Constance D. Leupp. The *Atlantic* offers a wide and interesting choice, including:

The Abolition of Poverty, by Jacob L. Hollander.
English and American Democracy, by L. T. Hobhouse.

An American Town, by Randolph S. Bourne.
The Third Dimension of Land Tenure, by William D. Parkinson.

Home Rule at Last, by Edward Porritt.
Non-restraint and Insanity, by Charles Whitney Page.

The Real Reason for the Small Family, by W. S. Rossiter.

* * *

Country Life in America proposes to continue its last year's series, *Cutting Loose from the City*. These true stories by people who for health, happiness, or some other reason have given up city life and work, and actually succeeded in making a living from the soil, have attracted so much attention and apparently inspired so much confidence in the matter as to make timid ones go and do likewise. It is evident that they meet a real need. "The number of letters that we have received," says the managing editor, "leads us to think that it appeals to a numerous class of city people and therefore represents a real, widespread sentiment that amounts almost to a movement."

December 9, 1911.

Through the columns of the *Congregationalist*, one of the most influential religious papers in America, Al Priddy will present a study of the factory workers' struggle for character, to which his personal narrative, *Through the Mill*, as published in the *Outlook*, was a picturesque introduction.

* * *

L. M. Montgomery, a Chicago settlement worker, will present a cross-section of life in her stories of the tenements. The *Continental*, a Presbyterian publication, will offer a series of articles on social matters by Mary E. McDowell, headworker in the Chicago University settlement, and a study of social and religious conditions in the South by its field editor, William T. Ellis; these will be supplemented by an article on race prejudice and Christianity by Edward A. Steiner.

* * *

The *Outlook* will take up those aspects of social conditions which find expression in the political situation in a series of preëlection statements by representatives of different political groups—among them La Follette, Taft, Harmon, Bryan, and Woodrow Wilson. To a subject today closely allied with the political situation, namely, business conditions, Francis E. Leupp will devote a series based on answers, by representatives of business, of labor, and of the United States Treasury, to the question, "What's the Matter with Business?"

* * *

The *Woman's Journal*, pioneer publication of the suffrage movement, offers some twenty articles which will be published after their appearance in the *Journal* as pamphlets in answer to the question, "What Will Women do with the Ballot?" Those already arranged for are Fire Prevention, by Arthur E. MacFarland, the Abolition of Child Labor, by Mrs. Florence Kelley, Reasonable Postal Laws, by James S. Cowles, and the Abolition of the White Slave Traffic, by Clifford E. Roe. W. E. Burghardt du Bois, Rheta C. Dorr, and others will contribute articles specifically on the franchise.

Good Housekeeping, another "woman's journal," and a progressive in household technique, will offer a series on health, by Woods Hutchinson, and will continue its series on sex hygiene with articles by Felix Adler, G. Stanley Hall, Prince A. Morrow, and Maude E. Miner.

* * *

The *School Review* (University of Chicago) shows, by the choice of articles it offers, how wide is the scope of education. Here are six:

The Disintegration of a High-School Class: by Freeman E. Lurton, superintendent of schools, Anoka, Minn.

Salesmanship in the High School of Commerce: by Leonard B. Moulton, Boston High School of Commerce.

The Humanities and Modern Education; by William Gardner Hale, professor and head of the Department of Latin, University of Chicago.

The Last Vestige of Puritanism in the Public Schools of Massachusetts; by J. M. Andress, Instructor in School Hygiene and Psychology, State Normal, Worcester, Mass.

Some Aspects of the Child Welfare Problem in the High School; by Benjamin C. Gruenberg, Commercial High School, Brooklyn.

L'Ecole des Roches; by Henri Marty, professor at the Ecole des Roches, Verneuil, France.

* * *

Among the juvenile publications the *Youth's Companion* is striking out into many subjects of social importance. The Boy Scouts will be described by their founder, General Baden-Powell; Governor Harmon will contribute a succinct and interesting outline of the functions of a governor; and Jacob A. Riis will tell little stories, grave and gay, of the Big Brother movement. Frank W. Leavitt will write in behalf of vocational education, taking the ground that our present method of education, in trying to fit all for something better than industrial work, leaves many fit for nothing else. E. Dana Durand, director of the census, will analyze the incomes of American families; and W. T. Stead will write on great men, the greatest in point of impressing his character and ideas on his generation being, in his estimation, none other than General Booth, founder of the Salvation Army.

* * *

The Christmas-Peace Number of the *World's Work* contains a symposium setting forth the opinions on world peace of great men from many countries. In addition, Simon N. Patten writes of the World's Peace in the Making, showing how the calculating (economic) man of today finds war against his interests. Norman Angell brings the Great Illusion in regard to the economic need for war up to date with the striking illustration of a financial crisis in Germany following automatically on that nation's indication of a warlike attitude toward France, and President Taft writes on the arbitration treaties. The symposium ends with a prophesy from Maarten Maartens which hits off a thought that is in the minds of many: "The promise of the future is manifestly less war between nation and nation, more war between class and class."

* * *

In the November *Painter and Decorator*, organ of the union of these trades, Charles R. Brown sums up the disintegrating effect of child labor on mental development and character: "The boy," says Mr. Brown, "who is thrust too soon into the factory among whirling machinery where he must look sharp or get hurt, or upon the street as a newsboy or other street vender, may gain rapidly a certain alertness and shrewdness. But the unnatural excitement and nervous irritation are bad for him. He needs the wholesome unfolding in the quiet hours of the schoolroom and the joyous hours of the playground. Under the abnormal stimulus, when he is forty years old, and should be in the

glory of his early prime, he is apt to be nervously broken down and worn out. The boy or girl compelled to monotonous work in the mill feels himself ill-used by society. He develops the anti-social spirit which is good soil in which to sow seeds of lawlessness and crime. Denied the wholesome recreations which belong to adolescence he is apt, when released at night from the grind of toil, to enter readily upon those forms of vicious indulgence which are most accessible."

* * *

In its last three issues the *Gospel of the Kingdom* (American Institute of Social Service) is addressing itself to its task of applied Christianity by spreading knowledge of unsanitary occupations and conditions. Sanitation and Hygiene is the subject of the second (November) studies, tuberculosis of the December studies, together with the discussion of protection against fire by drill, the latter a signed article by H. F. G. Porter.

* * *

The *Holiday Bulletin* of the National Fire Protection Association, 87 Milk street, Boston, is a series of precautions and "do not's," warning stores, churches, and homes against a "mercantile sacrifice to Christmas decorations." The leaflet is simple and effective and should be spread widely. Copies can be obtained from the association at ten dollars per thousand.

Here is the pith of the pamphlet:

WARNINGS FOR STORES, CHURCHES, AND BAZAARS.

Holiday fires in these while filled with people are usually holocausts.

Light, inflammable decorations makes fires easy to start and easy to spread. A match, a gas flame, or an electrical defect may do it.

Watch gas jets! Decorations may be carried against them by air currents.

Watch smokers! Do not permit them to light cigars inside buildings.

Do not make the slightest change in electric wiring without consulting electrical inspector.

WARNINGS FOR THE HOME.

Every year in America many children are burned to death by fire from Christmas candles.

Do not decorate your Christmas tree with paper, cotton, or any other inflammable material.

Use metallic tinsel and other non-inflammable decorations only, and set the tree securely so that the children in reaching for things cannot tip it over.

Do not use cotton to represent snow. If you must have snow use asbestos fiber.

Do not permit children to light or relight the candles while parents are not present. They frequently set fire to their clothing instead. The tree itself will burn when needles have become dry.

Do not leave matches within reach of children at Holiday time. Candles are meant to be lighted, and if the children can get matches they will experiment with them. They imitate their elders.

THE 1911 CHRISTMAS SEALS.

Few people have any conception of the magnitude of the Red Cross Christmas Seal Campaign. Already 85,000,000 seals have been printed, and practically that entire number distributed to agents. Probably 15,000,000 more will be needed. Advertising circulars, posters, cards, etc., to the number of several million, have also been distributed. It is estimated that the army of paid and volunteer workers engaged in selling the seals will number over 100,000. The advertising and publicity donated to the campaign will amount to several hundred thousand dollars. Every effort is being put forth to sell 100,000,000 seals, or about one for every man, woman, and child in the United States. Spencer H. Miller, a ten-year-old boy of Meriden, Conn., has sold, single-handed, 50,000 Red Cross seals, establishing a record for individual sales. Prizes valued at over \$100,000 are being given in various parts of the country for selling Red Cross seals. These prizes consist of vacuum cleaners, pianos, drinking fountains, books, and a variety of other articles, down to a button bearing the Red Cross seal.



CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

DECEMBER CONFERENCES.

- Dec. 12, 1911. *Council of Jewish Women*.—Philadelphia, Pa. Executive Secretary, Sadie American, 448 Central Park West, New York city.
- Dec. 13-15 *American Civic Association*.—Washington, D. C. Secretary, Richard B. Watrous, 914 Union Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.
- Dec. 27-30 *American Economic Association*.—Washington, D. C. Secretary, Prof. T. N. Carver, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
- Dec. 27-30 *American Sociological Society*.—Washington, D. C. Secretary, Alvan A. Tenney, Columbia University, New York city.
- Dec. 27-30 *American Political Science Association*.—Buffalo and Toronto (Dec. 30), Secretary, W. W. Willoughby, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.
- Dec. 27-30 *American Historical Association*.—Buffalo, N. Y. Secretary, W. G. Leland, 500 Bond Bldg., Washington, D. C.
- Dec. 27-30 *American Association for Labor Legislation*.—Washington, D. C. Secretary, John B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York city.
- Dec. 27-30 *American Statistical Society*.—Washington, D. C. Secretary, Carrol W. Doten, 491 Boylston St., Boston, Mass.
- Dec. 27-30 *American Association for the Advancement of Science*, Section I on Social and Economic Science. Secretary of Section I, J. Pease Morton, Yale University, New Haven, Conn.

LATER MEETINGS.

International.

- Feb. 19-24, 1912 *Pan-Pacific Congress*.—Honolulu, Hawaii. Secretary, H. P. Wood, Honolulu, Hawaii.
- Sept. 4-13, 1912 *Chemistry, Applied*.—Congress on Washington, September 4, and New York, September 6-13. Secretary, Bernard C. Hesse, M. D., 25 Broad street, New York city.
- Sept. 23-28, 1912 *Hygiene and Demography*.—Fifteenth Congress on. Washington, D. C. Secretary, Dr. John S. Fulton, Army Medical Museum, Washington, D. C.
- Sept., 1912 *Labor Legislation*.—Association for, Zurich, Switzerland. Secretary, Stephen Bauer, Basel, Switzerland.
- 1913 *Fight Against Unemployment*.—International Association for. Ghent, Belgium. American corresponding officer, J. B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York city.
- 1915 *Prison—Quinquennial Congress*. London, England. Secretary, F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

- 1915 *Relief*.—Committee on Public and Private. London, England. Secretary, Charles S. Loch, Charity Organization Society, London.

National.

- Jan. 19-20, 1912 *National Consumers' League*.—New Haven, Conn. Secretary, Mrs. Florence Kelley, 105 E. 22nd street, New York city.
- Jan. 25-28, 1912 *National Child Labor Committee*.—Louisville, Ky. General secretary, Owen R. Lovejoy, 105 E. 22nd street, New York city.
- March 12-14, 1912 *Religious Education Association*.—St. Louis, Mo. General secretary, Henry F. Cope, 332 South Michigan ave., Chicago, Ill.
- June, 1912. *National Probation Association*.—Cleveland, O. Secretary, Arthur W. Towne, The Capitol, Albany, N. Y.
- June 9-12, 1912 *National Conference of Jewish Charities*. Cleveland, O. Secretary, Rose Sommerfield, 225 E. 63rd street, New York city.
- June 25-July 8, 1912 *Women's Clubs*.—General Federation of, San Francisco, Cal. Corresponding Secretary, Mrs. Frank Shiek, Wheatland, Wyo.
- Sept., 1912 *Catholic Charities*.—National Conference of, Washington, D. C. Secretary, Rev. Dr. William J. Kerby, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.

State and Local.

- Jan. 15, 1912. *Colorado Association for the Prevention and Control of Tuberculosis*.—Denver, Colo. Secretary, S. Poulter Morris, State House, Denver, Colo.
- Jan. 25, 1912 *New York Peace Society*.—Hotel Astor, New York city. Corresponding officer, William H. Short, 507 Fifth Ave., New York city.
- Jan., 1912 *Nebraska Conference of Charities and Correction*.—Omaha, Neb. Secretary, Ida V. Jontz, City Hall, Omaha, Neb.
- April, 1912. *New Hampshire Conference of Charities and Correction*.—Place not chosen. Secretary, Mrs. James W. Romick, 80 School St., Concord, N. H.
- April 3-4 1912. *American Academy of Medicine*.—Lehigh University, South Bethlehem, Pa. Secretary, Charles McIntire, M. D., Easton, Pa.
- Autumn, 1912 *Massachusetts State Conference of Charities and Correction*.—Secretary, Parker B. Field, 229 Tremont street, Boston, Mass.
- Oct. 29, 1912 *Massachusetts No-Licence League*.—sixth annual conference. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Robert H. Magwood, 310 Equitable Bldg., Boston, Mass.

Classified Advertisements

ADVERTISING RATES ARE: "Want advertisements," under the various headings, "Situations Wanted," "Help Wanted," etc., five cents for each word or initial, including the address, for each insertion. The first word of each advertisement is set in capital letters without additional charge. Other words may be set in capitals, if desired, at double rates. Replies will be forwarded by us to the advertiser.

Orders and copy for Classified Advertisements must be received with remittance ten days before the Saturday on which it is intended the advertisement shall appear. Address Advertising Department, THE SURVEY, 105 East 22nd St., New York City.

HELP WANTED

Cottage Mothers

Wanted: Jewish women of culture and refinement, twenty-five to thirty-five years of age, as cottage mothers for the HEBREW SHELTERING GUARDIAN ORPHAN ASYLUM OF NEW YORK. The new cottage home institution is situated in Pleasantville at a distance of one hour from New York City; forty trains daily. Training course for cottage mothers commences March 1st, 1912, for six weeks, during which period trainees will receive full compensation. Good salary and splendid opportunity for constructive social work. Apply in writing to Dr. L. B. Bernstein, Superintendent, Broadway and 150th Street, New York City.

PUBLICITY and membership secretary wanted by national organization with headquarters in New York. Good salary, interesting work. Write, giving experience and references, to J. B., c/o SURVEY.

AN Experienced worker to fill the position of probation officer at the Juvenile Court Answer P. O. X. Y. Z., Irvington-on-Hudson, N. Y.

SITUATIONS WANTED

Domestic

HIGH school student, Jewess, desires position with family, Jewish or Gentile, as domestic servant, out of school hours in exchange for board and room. Willing: Exceptional ability: Highest personal references. Address E. D., 39 Pierrepont St., Brooklyn.

SOCIAL WORKER, young woman with six years' experience, desires position in Chicago. Address D. H. O., c/o SURVEY.

YOUNG man of ability and education wishes responsible executive or investigative position. Has investigated various child problems,—amusements, labor, milk stations, etc. in N. Y. City and State. Is thoroughly capable of organizing and directing new work. Social Worker, c/o. The Survey.

SITUATIONS WANTED

Governess

VISITING Governess, reader, companion, German, seeks employment 9 to 3 daily. Address Governess, c/o SURVEY.

PRESENT superintendent of a noted children's institution in the East contemplates change and desires to qualify to those seeking a superintendent. Address 1000 Survey.

YOUNG Man or Woman for part of time each day as clerk for Baptist church in Brooklyn. Some knowledge of business methods and typewriting required. Address Clerk, c/o SURVEY.

POSITION as superintendent of an orphanage desired by an experienced man. Address 1001, SURVEY.

THE SURVEY OF OCTOBER 21
We are short of this issue and will thank subscribers who do not preserve their copies, for the return of it. Subscription Department.

Work With Boys

Published by the
Federated Boys' Clubs

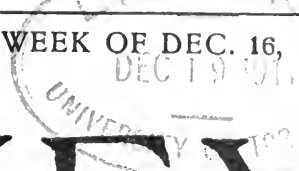
SOCIAL WORKERS:

Read "WORK WITH BOYS" an illustrated monthly magazine—a record of what is being done in America and elsewhere to develop the moral, mental, physical and social life of boys.

Send for the September number which contains a much discussed article on "The Physical Awakening of the Boy" by DeWitt G. Wilcox, M. D. of Boston University.

Subscription \$1.00 a year

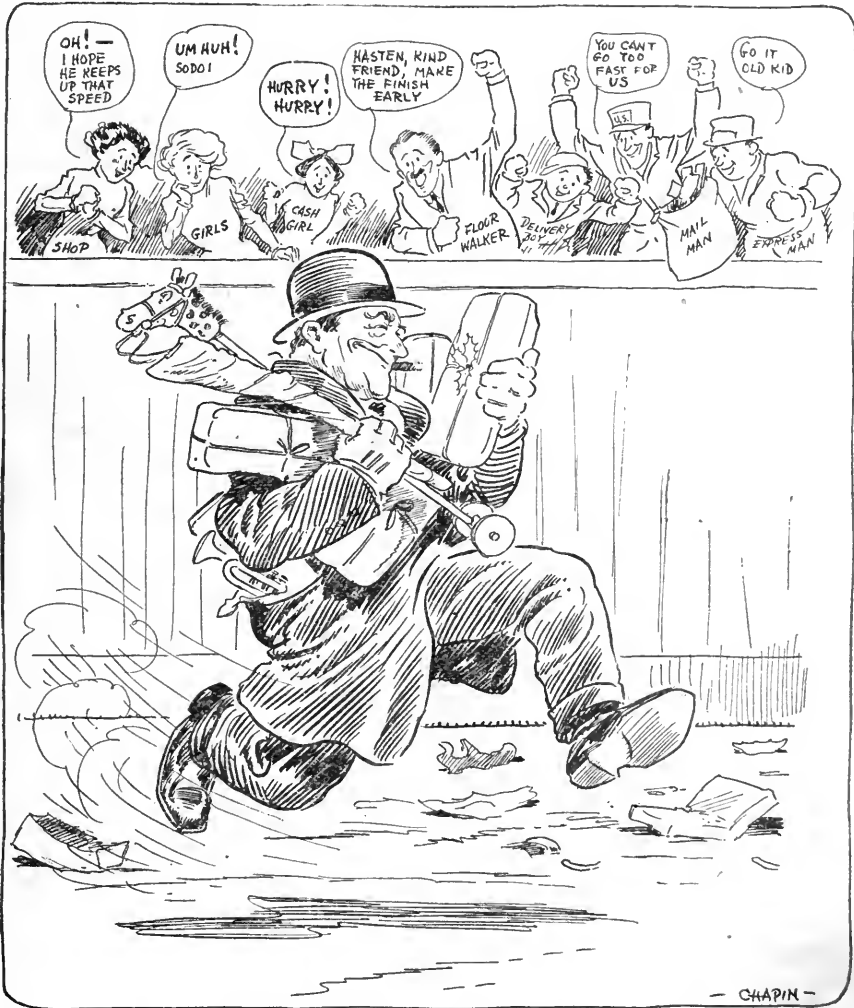
"WORK WITH BOYS" Norwood, Mass.



THE SURVEY

SOCIAL CHARITABLE CIVIC

THE SHOP EARLY CARTOONS.



Drawn for THE SURVEY by Chapin of the Kansas City Star.
THE GREAT ANNUAL CHRISTMAS MARATHON.

THIS ISSUE TEN CENTS A COPY :: TWO DOLLARS A YEAR

105 EAST 22D ST., NEW YORK

31 WEST LAKE STREET, CHICAGO

INFORMATION DESK

The following national bodies will gladly and freely supply information and advise reading on the subjects named by each and on related subjects. Members are kept closely in touch with the work which each organization is doing, but membership is not required of those seeking information. Correspondence is invited. Always enclose postage for reply. *Continued on next page.*

Child Labor

National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d St., New York. Owen R. Lovejoy, Sec'y. 25 State Branches. Where does your state stand? How can you help? List of pamphlets and reports free. Membership fee nominal.

Child Helping

Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, 105 East 22d St., New York.

Correspondence and printed matter relative to institutions for children, child placing, infant mortality, care of crippled children, Juvenile Courts, etc.

Recreation

Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Ave., New York City. Howard S. Braucher, Sec'y.

Play, playgrounds, public recreation. Monthly magazine. *The Playground*, \$2 a year.

Children

National Conference on the Education of Dependent, Backward, Truant, and Delinquent Children. Conference reports \$1 each, including membership in conference. Address Elmer L. Coffeen, Sec'y and Treas., Westboro, Mass.

Recreation

Dept. of Child Hygiene of the Russell Sage Foundation, 400 Metropolitan Tower, New York City. Lee F. Hamner, Associate Director, Division of Recreation.

Research and the promotion of activities favorable to the physical and social welfare of young people.

Probation

National Probation Association. The Capitol, Albany, N. Y. Arthur W. Towne, Sec'y.

Advice and information; literature; directory of probation officers; annual conference. Membership, 50 cents a year.

National Health

Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Executive Secretary, Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York.

To unite all the government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

Tuberculosis

National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d St., New York. Livingston Farrand, M. D., Exec. Sec'y. Reports, pamphlets, etc., will be sent upon request. Annual Transactions and other publications free to members.

Sex Hygiene

American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, 29-33 W. 42d St., New York. H. P. DeForest, Sec'y 18 affiliated societies.

Report and leaflets free. Educational pamphlets, 10c each. *Journal of Social Diseases*, \$1 per year. Membership, annual dues \$2, includes all literature.

School Hygiene

American School Hygiene Association. Pres., David L. Edsall, M. D., Washington University; Sec'y., Thomas A. Storey, M. D., College of the City of New York, New York.

Yearly congresses and proceedings.

Mental Hygiene

National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 39 Church Street, New Haven, Conn., (Clifford W. Beers, Sec'y). Write for pamphlets on mental hygiene, prevention of insanity, care of the insane, social service in mental hygiene. State Societies for Mental Hygiene.

Working Women

National Women's Trade Union League, 127 N. Dearborn St., Chicago. Mrs. Raymond Robins, President.

Information gladly given. Official publication, *Life and Labor*, three months' subscription, 25c.

Women in Industry

National Consumers' League, 105 East 22d St., New York. Mrs. Florence Kelley, Sec'y. Annual Report and other literature free. Minimum wage boards, protection of women workers, pure food, sweatshops, etc.

Labor Legislation

Workers' Compensation; industrial hygiene; Labor Laws.

Official publication: *American Labor Legislation Review*, sent free to members.

American Association for Labor Legislation, Metropolitan Tower, New York City. John B. Andrews, Secretary.

White Slave Traffic

National Vigilance Committee, 156 Fifth Ave., N. Y. Information as to the traffic acted on. Special library for free use. Publishes *Vigilance* monthly, 50c. a year. Book on White Slave Traffic, \$1.

Young Women

National Board, Y. W. C. A., 125 East 27th St., New York City. Pres., Miss Grace H. Dodge. Gen. Sec'y., Miss Mabel Cratty; the advancement of physical, social, intellectual and spiritual interests of young women. Official Publication, "The Association Monthly" \$1; free literature.

Remedial Loans

National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, 105 E. 22d St., N. Y. Arthur H. Ham.

Reports, pamphlets, and forms for societies free. Information regarding organization of remedial loan societies gladly given.

Prison Labor

National Committee on Prison Labor, 27 E. 22d St., N. Y. City. Thomas R. Slicer, Chn.; E. Stagg Whitin, Ph.D., Gen. Sec.; R. Montgomery Schell, Treas. Prison labor conditions throughout the U. S. examined with recommendations for constructive reform. Pamphlets free to members. \$5 a year.

Delinquents and Prison Reform

National Prisoners' Aid Society, 135 East 15th St., New York City. O. F. Lewis, Sec'y. Membership, \$1 annually, including monthly sixteen page magazine *The Review*, a digest of the field of delinquency. Parole, prisons, probation, vagrancy, farm colonies, prison labor, etc.

Short Ballot and Commission Government

The Short Ballot Organization, 383 Fourth Ave., New York City. Woodrow Wilson, President; Richard S. Childs, Sec'y. National clearing house for information on these subjects. Pamphlets free. Publishers of *Beard's Loose-Leaf Digest of Short Ballot Charters*.

Municipal Problems

National Municipal League, 703 North American Bldg., Philadelphia. William Dudley Foulke, Pres.; Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Sec'y. Charters, commission government, taxation, police, liquor, electoral reform, finances, accounting, efficiency, civic education, franchises, school extension.

Civic Improvement

AMERICAN CIVIC ASSOCIATION, Union Trust Building, Washington, D. C. J. Horace McFarland, Pres.; Richard B. Watrous, Sec'y. Parks; Recreation Centers; Bill-board, Smoke, and Fly Nuisances; Preservation of Scenic Wonders.

City Planning

National City Planning Conference, 19 Congress St., Boston, Mass. Frederick Law Olmsted, President. Flavel Shurtleff, Secretary. A Seminar for the Discussion of City Planning Problems. Publishes Annual Proceedings. Membership at \$5 a Year Includes All Literature.

THE COMMON WELFARE

ATTACK ILLINOIS TEN-HOUR LAW

The Illinois ten-hour law for working women is again being attacked. After the bitter struggle immediately following the first enforcement of the law, in which the whole strength and influence of the Illinois Manufacturers' Association was exerted to disprove the law's constitutionality, it was supposed that this question was permanently settled. The arguments at that time on behalf of the law were made by W. J. Calhoun, now minister to China, and by Louis Brandies, whose brief for the case attracted nation-wide attention.

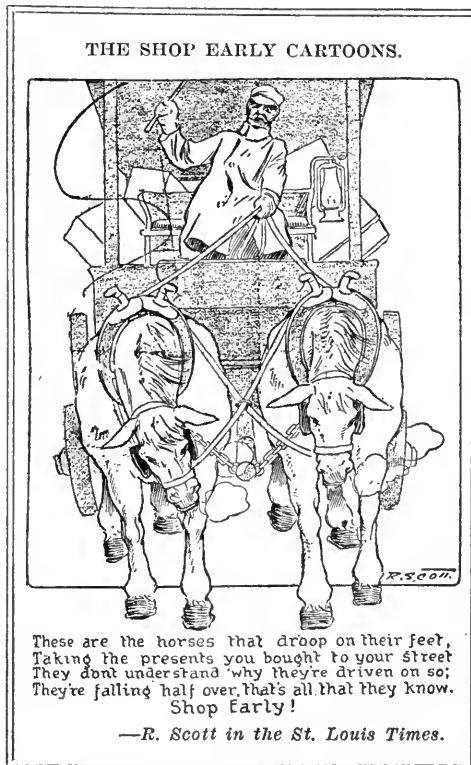
The present attack comes from interests brought within the scope of the law by the amendments enacted at the last session of the Illinois legislature. These include hotels, restaurants, telegraph and telephone offices, places of amusement, persons, firms, or corporations engaged in express or transportation or public-utility business, common carriers or public institutions.

The proprietor of a hotel in Charleston, backed by the Hotel Men's Association of the town, filed a bill for an injunction to restrain the enforcement of the law so far as it applies to women employed in hotels. Judge J. C. Harrah refused to issue the writ and the matter was taken directly to the Supreme Court of the state. December 5 was set as the last day on which briefs

might be filed, but Attorney-general Stead secured an extension of time. At his invitation, and through the co-operation of the Women's Trade Union League and the Illinois Association for Labor Legislation, outside counsel has been secured to assist in the defence of the law, Edgar A. Bancroft, of Chicago, consenting to act as such.

The brief filed by the hotel men is said to contend that kitchen work is not arduous, and it is cited that women on farms are employed sixteen hours a day and rear healthy children. The supporters of the law feel sure that the arguments on which the Supreme Court sustained the constitutionality of the law—that long hours of labor for women affect injuriously the mothers of future generations and that society has a right to protect them—will prove equally convincing in the present case.

One hundred thousand leaflets explaining the law have been distributed by the Women's Trade Union League in its efforts to inform working women as to the conditions which the law declares should prevail. The amendment covers mercantile establishments as well as the industries above mentioned. Especial effort is therefore being made to secure its strict enforcement in department stores during the holiday rush. The situation in the Chicago department stores is being watched by the state factory inspector, and already viola-



tions are being reported. The co-operation of the general public throughout the state, but especially in Chicago, is sought by the Women's Trade Union League. Christmas shoppers are urged to make inquiries and report any cases in which girls or women are employed more than ten hours in each twenty-four.¹

THE SETTLEMENT MOVEMENT A QUARTER-CENTURY OLD

Last week saw the celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the launching of the settlement movement in this country. When Dr. Stanton Coit, stimulated by a short residence in Toynbee Hall, took up quarters in August of 1886 in a Forsyth street tenement, he had no notion that twenty-five years would see the beginnings of over 400 similar ventures in America. Yet when one listened to Felix Adler, Hugo Münsterberg, Jane Addams, and others who gathered to commemorate the founding of the University Settlement, the inevitability of its spread was not far to see. From Dr. Coit's settling on the east side grew the Neighborhood Guild the year following. In 1891 this was reorganized as the University Settlement Society.

That the settlement represents a "quarter of a century's successful prosecution of a sound idea" was the way Nicholas Murray Butler, president of Columbia University, put it. Dr. Adler suggested that the settlement might find its chief task that of uniting social classes in a closer harmony. In this performance its work would be that of interpreting to each the needs, capacities, and modes of life of the others. He hoped that the settlement may more abundantly as the years go by become in truth the "House of the Interpreter." Miss Addams recalled the early days of the settlements, when college students used to come wanting to help some individual in need. Then they came wanting to investigate something. Now they do not come in such numbers as formerly. This, she thinks, is partly due to

the student volunteer movement, and partly to the view that the settlement has become an established, conservative influence in city life, no longer so attractive as before to ardent youth with path-finding ideals. Professor Münsterberg declared that the time has come for the philanthropist to grasp the facts and laws of the mind. Our psychological laboratories have turned in recent days with new vigor, he said, to problems of life. Yet the social worker, untrained in psychology, is often our chief reliance, through his vision and sympathy in interpreting the needs, ambitions, and fears of those with whom his work brings him into contact. Other speakers were Seth Low, first president of the University Settlement, Henry W. Taft, and Herbert Parsons. A settlement near Central Park for the purpose none other than that of studying conditions among the rich was suggested by James Speyer, treasurer of University Settlement, who said:

Perhaps workers there would find that while the east side families are too large the uptown families are too small for real happiness, and that while the east side boy and girl get into trouble because they do not have enough opportunity for play and amusement the uptown boy and girl get into trouble because they have too much of such opportunity. Perhaps also they would find that while the east side boy is too much in the streets the uptown boy is not enough in the street and does not learn to appreciate other boys.

FIRST BOARD NAMED FOR FARM COLONY

The make-up of the board of managers of the first farm colony in America for tramps and vagrants was announced November 29 by Governor John A. Dix of New York, just four months to a day after the act creating the board received his signature². Upon this board falls the pioneer task of justifying an experiment in dealing with a costly and numerous class of delinquents along lines which have been demonstrably useful in several foreign countries, notably in Holland, Belgium, and Switzerland. The work at Witzwil, a penal farm in the canton Berne, was described by Prof. Frank A. Fetter in *THE SURVEY* for Feb-

¹Information as to such violations may be sent to the Women's Trade Union League, 331 S. La Salle street, Chicago, or to the state factory inspector, Security Building, Madison street and 4th avenue, Chicago.

²See *THE SURVEY* for April 9, 1910.

ruary 4 last. The new board consists of Orlando F. Lewis, secretary Prison Association of New York, who made a special study of the European farm colonies during the past summer; Judge Joseph Beal, attorney, Oneida, N. Y.; George F. Warren, State College of Agriculture, Cornell University; Samuel Untermyer, attorney, New York city; Frederic Almy, secretary Charity Organization Society, Buffalo, N. Y.; Michael J. Drummond, commissioner of public charities, New York city; John G. O'Keeffe, retired banker, director Catholic Home Bureau, New York city.

The legislative campaign leading up to the passage of the bill was conducted largely by the joint committee of the Charity Organization Society and the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, composed of Johnston deForest, chairman, W. Frank Persons, John A. Kingsbury, Charles E. Merrill, Jr., Robert Shaw Minturn, Leonard E. Opdycke, and Charles K. Blatchly, secretary. Mr. Blatchly had charge of the aggressive publicity work carried on.

The board is empowered by the act creating it to select a site (under approval of the governor) of not less than 500 acres, the purchase price not to exceed \$60,000. Such action must be reported to the Legislature not later than March 1, 1912. It has been estimated that twenty thousand tramps and vagrants cost the commonwealth of New York \$2,000,000 annually. This, it is pointed out, however, is but the financial expression of a distinct problem of human conservation which, left to local and fragmentary treatment, has led to bitter waste.

MAJOR MEETINGS OF THE HOLIDAYS

The American Economic and the American Sociological Societies, the American Statistical Association, the Association for the Advancement of Science (Section I, on Social and Economic Science), and the American Association for Labor Legislation are all to meet this year at Washington, from December 27 to December 30. On these same dates the American Historical Association and

the American Political Science Association will be holding a joint meeting at Buffalo. The American Economic Association will hold the majority of its sessions in conjunction with the four other societies. Its separate gatherings will be given up to the following discussions: economic investigation as a basis for tariff legislation (to be opened by Prof. Henry C. Emery, chairman of the Tariff Commission); a proposal for an international commission on the cost of living (led by Prof. Irving Fisher); industrial efficiency and the interests of labor (Prof. H. S. Persons of Dartmouth). At a joint meeting with the sociologists, President H. W. Farnam will speak on the economic utilization of history, and Prof. Franklin H. Giddings, of the sociological society, on the quality of civilization. A second joint session will be given up to the subject of immigration.

The economists and statisticians, on the other hand, with E. Dana Durand, director of census, in the chair, will discuss rural conditions in the South, and the decline of the rural population of the United States. Finally, the economists, with the help of the American Association for Labor Legislation, will take up questions of safety and health in mining, with papers on the Federal Bureau of Mines by the director, Dr. Joseph A. Holmes, and on a federal mining commission by John Randolph Haynes. So much for the economists, who by the end of the week ought to feel that they have rounded out the year's work and jammed down the lid ready for January 1.

Sociology also has its dynamic aspects and its indefatigable program-makers. Four independent sessions of the American Sociological Society will be held. The first morning's session will deal with the city as a socializing agency, with papers by Frederick C. Howe on the city plan, by Howard B. Woolston on the urban habit of mind, and by Paul U. Kellogg on the city and industrial cleavage. In the evening Jane Addams and C. W. Hetherington, of the Joseph Fels Endowment in Play and Educational Athletics, will



discuss recreation as a public function. A round table meeting will discuss the "function of the newspaper in the evolution of intellectual solidarity"—which may be merely the way the social psychologists have of asking how the baseball reporters came to coin "bone head." At a final meeting Jerome Dowd of Oklahoma University will report for the committee on the teaching of sociology. J. L. Gillin, of Iowa State University, will speak on the social survey in small communities, and A. F. Woods, dean of the Department of Agriculture, University of Minnesota, on agricultural education in its relation to rural sociology.

The American Association for Labor Legislation are the opportunists of these scientific groups and their Washington sessions will have a close bearing on the work of Congress and the state legislatures in the opening year. They take up at the first meeting the relation of state to federal workmen's compensation and insurance legislation. Prof. Henry R. Seager, president of the association, will deliver the introductory address; John H. Wallace will open the discussion on state accident insurance, I. M. Ru-

binow on accident compensation for federal employes, and Ernst Freund on the constitutional status of workmen's compensation. The meeting on the following morning, which will be held in conjunction with the statisticians, under the chairmanship of Charles P. Neill, commissioner of the Federal Bureau of Labor, will be devoted to the subject of uniform reporting of accidents. An afternoon session, under the presidency of Secretary Nagel of the Federal Department of Commerce and Labor, will deal with the unemployment problem in America. At this meeting William Hard will speak on unemployment as a coming issue, William Leiserson, director of the Wisconsin State Free Employment Bureaus, on the work of those bureaus, and Charles R. Henderson on recent advances in the struggle against unemployment.

HISTORY AND POLITICAL SCIENCE AT BUFFALO

At Buffalo Judge Simeon E. Baldwin, governor of Connecticut and president of the Political Science Association, will speak on the progressive unfolding of the powers of the United States, and at the same meeting William M. Sloane, president of the Historical Association, on the substance and vision of history. Another joint meeting of timely interest will deal with Spanish America. Before the Political Science Association, E. S. Corwin of Cornell University will open a discussion on the relation of the courts to legislation, J. Q. Dealey on the trend of recent constitutional changes, K. C. Babcock on the proposed constitution of Arizona, and J. P. Dunn on that of Indiana. The relation of city and country governments is another topic, and the reorganization of state governments will be discussed by Herbert Croly, whose book, the Promise of American Life, provoked much discussion a year or more ago.

At Washington, on December 27, the American Economic Association will give a luncheon to President Taft, at which the president will speak on the Federal Budget.

FOR THE CHILDREN OF BROTHERLY LOVE

Electric lights on the City Hall blazoned forth the municipal backing of the Philadelphia Child Welfare Planning Conference and Exhibit, November 20 to December 2. The exhibit was housed in a corridor on the second floor, occupying very limited quarters as compared to those which have been held in New York, Chicago, and Kansas City. The one agency which deals with more of Philadelphia's 460,000 children than any other, the public school system, was not represented, nor were a number of important private agencies, such as the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, and the Society for Organizing Charity; while others, as for instance the Children's Aid Society, were somewhat formally represented by a few photographs and a number of apparently stock leaflets and small posters under glass. Aside from the displays of the Overbrook School for the Blind and the Public Library system and perhaps one or two others, the exhibition lacked the many graphic and realistic features that so abounded in the New York Child Welfare and Budget Exhibits. Some of these confessed limitations were at least partly due to the refusal of the municipal councils to appropriate the \$1,500 requested for the purpose by the mayor. Crudely lettered placards and other evidences of haste were perhaps due to the effort to have the exhibit mark the close of Mayor Reyburn's term of office on December 3; but one result of holding it at such a time was that the attention of the city was largely centered upon the political reversal which had just taken place. The speakers at the final meeting had to compete with the bands of the enthusiastic Keystone party marchers just outside.

The conference itself consisted of a series of afternoon and evening meetings. One of the best attended of the meetings, at which many were obliged to stand, was that on sex hygiene, though in some sense the feature event was the public dinner held at the Bellevue-Stratford, at which Governor Tener and May-

or-elect Blankenburg promised their personal help to further child welfare plans. The final meeting, at which less than fifty people were present, was devoted to reports from the various committees. After introductory addresses by Ex-mayor Reyburn and John C. Delaney, chief of the state bureau of factory inspection, John Thompson, city librarian, made suggestions for better co-operation between the schools and the libraries; Mrs. George K. Johnson urged that the city buy a farm training school; S. J. Russell spoke of the need of more accurate and complete institutional records; William S. Bennett declared that one or two judges instead of several should preside over juvenile cases and that they should be tried at the house of detention without preliminary hearings before magistrates in the city hall; and Dr. Walter S. Cornell of the Bureau of Health expressed the hope that the city would acquire the Lazaretto property at Essington to aid in housing feebleminded children.



—Boardman Robinson in the N. Y. Tribune.
CARNEGIE—HOOTS! JOHN, I BEAT YE TO IT!

The conference was brought to a close with an address by Mrs. Frederick Schoff, president of the National Congress of Mothers, who was credited by Mr. Reyburn with being the originator of the undertaking.

BLANKENBURG: HIS CABINET

The appointments which Mayor Blankenburg has made to his "cabinet" positions are the subject of congratulation among the social workers of Philadelphia, and to their minds presage an era of constructive co-operation in public affairs. In the first place, in response to widespread demand, Mayor Blankenburg has retained in office the director of public health and charities, Dr. Joseph S. Neff, whose department has been regarded as the most efficient of those directly responsible to the city administration. To the directorship of public safety, the ranking position in the cabinet, Mayor Blankenburg has appointed George D. Porter, who for fifteen years has been known for his practical idealism and active work in reform politics. For one term he was a reform member of councils. A banker in business hours, in his leisure time he is, for one thing, Boy Scout commissioner for Philadelphia. George W. Norris, who becomes director of wharves, docks, and ferries, is a member of the board of directors of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, is vice-president of the City Club, and is chairman of the housing commission. He recently resigned from partnership in one of the most influential banking firms in the community, in order to give his time entirely to the study of municipal problems and problems of transportation, in both of which subjects he was already recognized as an expert. Morris Llewelyn Cooke, who becomes director of Public Works, is one of the "Taylor group" of efficiency engineers, and was recommended for the position by Mr. Taylor himself. He is the author of the report on the efficiency of the teaching of physics in our universities, prepared for the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Learning. Herman Loeb, who becomes director of

supplies, has been long identified with reform activities.

Cyrus D. Foss, Jr., is secretary to the new mayor, an active member of the National Civil Service Reform League, and one of the civil service commissioners of Philadelphia during a preceding administration. He was one of the founders of the City Club, of which all of the appointees, with one exception, have been active members.

SOCIAL SERVICE AND THE INSANE

The Manhattan and Central Islip state hospitals, the two largest institutions for the insane in this country, have taken the lead in this field in establishing hospital social service work. The New York State Commission in Lunacy has authorized the appointment of an agent to assist patients discharged as recovered from these state hospitals, and to do such work in connection with the patients and their homes as may assist the physicians in dealing effectively with the patients, and in establishing their cure. Such work has been carried on for nearly six years by the State Charities Aid Association, the first to undertake the after-care of the insane in this country. The association's Committee on After-Care, appointed in February, 1906, subsequently named Committee on Mental Hygiene, has employed an agent who has devoted most of her time to becoming acquainted with the needs of the recovered insane, and furnishing suitable employment, opportunity for rest, if needed, and friendly aid and counsel for those requiring such assistance. It is this agent, E. H. Horton, who has now been appointed after-care agent for the two state hospitals receiving patients from the city of New York. These hospitals, which together have a population of about nine thousand patients, annually discharge as recovered about six hundred patients. Most of these patients go to homes where they can receive proper care, and be prevented, if possible, from suffering a recurrence of their mental disease. There is a considerable proportion, however, who need assistance in

readjusting themselves to life in the world, and careful supervision during the difficult months when they are re-establishing their relations with their homes and friends and fellow-workers.

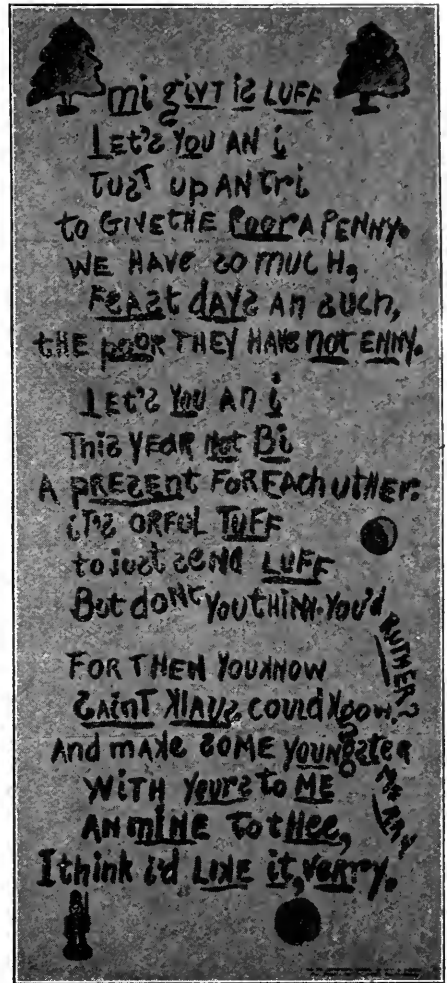
The experimental work carried on for the past five years by a private society has thus reached a stage of demonstrated usefulness where the state authorities are willing to undertake the responsibility for its continuance. The beginning made in connection with the Manhattan and Central Islip state hospitals is of course, a small and inadequate one, for no one agent can possibly do all that needs to be done for the very large number of patients treated and cured by these enormous institutions. But it is a beginning, nevertheless, and those who are concerned with the progress of American work for the insane regard it as probable that within the very near future each of these hospitals will have a corps of workers, and that it is a presage of the development throughout the country of systems of hospital social service in connection with institutions for its insane.

EDITORIAL GRIST

CHRIST'S BIRTHDAY CLUB

GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR

The spirit which has so widely enlisted shoppers, newspapers, and stores in the holiday season "shop early" campaign is carried perhaps still more searchingly into our celebration of Christmas by a comparatively new organization—"Christ's Birthday Club"—which originated in Chicago, some two years ago. The club is a group of people held loosely together by the common belief, rapidly spreading, that Christmas has become a burden to many. Members pledge themselves only to a consideration of the nature of the Christmas celebration. It is the aim of the club to stimulate the formation of small local groups who shall work out in their own way a more rational, simpler, and genuine observance of the Christmas spirit. It calls attention not only to the rush of Christmas shopping, with its intolerable strain upon the workers, but also to the



POSTER OF CHRIST'S BIRTHDAY CLUB.

Copies, while they last, may be obtained from the club, 4823 Lake Avenue, Chicago.

lavish expenditure of time and money on useless and impersonal "gifts." In their stead, it urges few and simple gifts for close friends, the thoughtful personal remembrance of the many through giving pleasure that satisfies without implying obligation, the wise expenditure of money where there is real need, and above all a celebration of the day as a joyous home festival.

Much of the stress and strain of present-day Christmas is sheer thoughtlessness; some of it is custom. But if they give it thoughtful attention, there are few who would not appreciate more fellowship and good will shown in the

cordial greeting, the letter or note, the visit or invitation, instead of the blind stampede to get something of a certain value for everyone on one's list. For too many people the holidays mean, first of all, a desperate struggle up to Christmas eve to make things to give away, and then a great feeling of relief that it is over for another year, the joy of giving quite overshadowed by the toil and obligation. And how many white elephants cumber the mails!

In these days of festival revival, that feature of the celebration scarcely needs emphasis. With its world-wide appeal, its wealth of legend and dramatic potentialities, and its happy significance, the Christmas season, of all others, needs only a little imagination and ingenuity and a general participation to make it a real festival.

In its efforts for a Christmas of greater good will, good cheer, and personal thoughtfulness all along the line, we can all cordially wish the Christ's Birthday Club Godspeed.

NATIONAL IMMIGRATION CONFERENCE

JOHN DANIELS

North American League for Immigrants

Substantial promise of cooperation between the federal government, the states, and semi-public agencies, in the systematic distribution and assimilation of immigrants, is afforded by the first meeting, held at Washington, of a body now permanently organized as the National Conference of Immigration, Land, and Labor Officials, with membership limited to such officials.

The meeting was called by the Division of Information of the Department of Commerce and Labor. Secretary Nagle made an opening address expressing his special sympathy with the purposes in view, and emphasizing the need of protection during the journey to the destination. T. V. Powderly, chief of the division, presided at the sessions. Thirty-seven delegates, representing immigration, agricultural, and labor bu-

reaus of twenty-seven states, attended.¹

There was no prearranged program. That every delegate was loaded to the nozzle with statements of the needs of his state and with concrete suggestions for meeting these needs was evident at the outset.

Discussion of the need for more farm laborers and farmers developed into the question of the general industrial distribution of immigrants from congested centers into not only agricultural but other channels. And, finally, clear enunciation was given to the necessity of combining with a plan of distribution a program of assimilation, as the only means of overcoming and preventing the growth of foreign colonies and un-American and undesirable conditions.

The second day the conference went into executive session, formed a permanent organization² representative of North, East, South, Center, and West, outlined objects, and laid plans.

The committee on resolutions, of which Miss Keller was chairman³ submitted resolutions which were adopted as practically a preliminary constitution.

The general purpose of the organization was stated as follows:

I: To arouse public sentiment:

1. favoring increased congressional appropriation, enabling the Federal Division of Information of the Bureau of Immigration of the Department of Commerce and Labor to induce admitted foreign-born and native people to leave congested population centers and go to agricultural and other industries;

¹The states represented were: New York, Massachusetts, Oregon, Montana, New Jersey, North Dakota, Maryland, Arkansas, Washington, Nebraska, California, Texas, Tennessee, West Virginia, Illinois, Wyoming, Wisconsin, Iowa, Utah, Colorado, Ohio, Louisiana, Delaware, Minnesota, Kansas, District of Columbia, and Hawaii.

²The officers elected were: Honorary president, T. V. Powderly, chief of the Division of Information, U. S. Bureau of Labor; president, Prof. John R. Commons, of the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin; vice-president, A. P. Sandles, secretary of the Board of Agriculture, Ohio; treasurer, Charles F. Gettemy, director Bureau of Statistics of Labor, Massachusetts; secretary, Frances A. Keller, chief of the Bureau of Industries and Immigration, New York. The executive committee consists of these officers and the following four additional members: J. F. Denechaud, secretary Board of Agriculture and Immigration, Louisiana; F. B. Haynes, special commissioner, Nebraska; R. N. Lynch, vice-president Development Board of California; R. A. Pearson, commissioner of agriculture, New York.

³The other members were A. E. Nelson of Minnesota, J. B. Haynes of Nebraska, Austin Cunningham of Texas, and John D. Tenor of Hawaii.

2. favoring the creation of state bureaus of immigration and information, with representatives at ports of entry, and appropriations therefor by the several states;
3. favoring the extension of the activities of such bureaus for the protection, education, and assimilation of immigrants;
4. favoring the fullest co-operation between the several state bureaus and between the state bureaus and the federal division of information in the above objects.

II: To enlist the aid and co-operation of commercial, civic, philanthropic, and other organizations in the above objects.

By way of immediate action toward the carrying out of this purpose, it was voted to

recommend the establishment of state employment bureaus in the various states, and the enactment of laws safeguarding laborers in search of employment and the establishment of immigration bureaus in states now without them;

and to instruct the executive committee

to prepare, in co-operation with the chief of the division of information, amendments enlarging the powers of said division to deal with interstate problems affecting the distribution, protection, and welfare of admitted aliens, and enabling the said division to establish branches at such centers of redistribution as may be desirable.

The division of information, it might be said, is a federal labor bureau. Its New York city branch office, the only active one which its meager appropriation has permitted, last year distributed 4,283 laborers to thirty-five states. The action of the conference contemplates, first, the extension of the number of branches of the division and, second, the extension of the division's functions to include measures for the general welfare of immigrants.

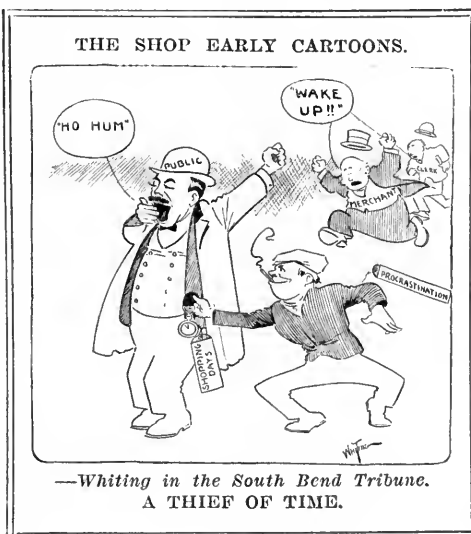
The distribution of native immigrants, between states, as well as of admitted

aliens, is included in the scope of the conference, and all questions having to do with admission or exclusion of immigrants are outside its scope and are not to be dealt with in any way.

The possibilities of achievement through this organization are tremendous, not only in close, concrete, and determined cooperation between the federal government and the states, but in the same sort of cooperation between federal and state agencies and such commercial, civic, and philanthropic bodies as are working along parallel lines. The Distribution Committee of the North American Civic League for Immigrants, in particular, has for some time been promoting concerted action designed to facilitate the distribution of immigrants from New York city, and to obtain at New York city a central bureau of information for the whole country. It is to be hoped that a plan of effective co-ordination between that committee and the conference will be worked out and such a bureau realized.

The chief immediate problem before the officers of the conference is to obtain the necessary funds to open, equip, and make effective one or more offices. The hope is that at an early date offices can be opened at New York, Pittsburgh, and Chicago, at least. As no state or federal appropriation for the purpose is available at this time, though, as the

work becomes known, such governmental support will undoubtedly be given, the funds needed must be obtained from philanthropic sources until the states have something to show for their demand for appropriations. It is another opportunity for philanthropy to show the government the way and to get it to take up its responsibility toward the distribution and assimilation of immigrants.



RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION

II

THE HUMAN POINT OF VIEW

GRAHAM TAYLOR

Old John Bunyan describes each individual life as "the citadel of man-soul." He thus speaks as though each human being is a field for the conquest of religion and a force with which it is to win its way in all the world. From the human point of view, the religious spirit may best be seen on its way into the citadel to save, and on its way out to serve. Two simple stories drawn from close human experience will point both ways.

OUT OF THE DEPTHS

A baby lay dead. Over its little form hovered the grief-calmed mother and the sorrow-distracted father.

"I told him," she said, "that he is too good a man for his job."

"What is it?" was asked.

"Well, I am a gambler," the man replied. "But I hate the thing, the place, and those who frequent it, and I wish I need never go near it again."

"If you do," he was warned, "you go from the light you now love into the darkness you dread, with your eyes wide open."

"I'll see," he said, and lapsed into silence.

Then followed the baby's funeral. A few days after the father stood pitifully alone on the threshold of his new life. So lonesome was he that he carried in person a letter which he had addressed and stamped to mail. For he thought that if he came with it, it might open to his empty heart something of human fellowship for which he hungered. And it did, as such a letter could hardly fail to reach the heart of anybody who had one:

SIR AND FRIEND:

I have determined not to go back into the old business, come what will. But you must know that I have great anxiety for the future. I trust that there will be an opening so that my wife and child will not starve. I do not know that I am under any special conviction of sin, but I do long to associate with good and Christian men and women. I

am starved for that association. If I could have it, I believe I could soon be willing to leave all to God. You can hardly imagine the darkness, almost despair, that at times I have been in. But for years I had no one to talk with, as I now do with you, and I have had to bear all, alone, without human help. Words cannot tell you how I long to be out from all low and wrong associations. They none of them have any pleasure for me and I do not believe that I shall be compelled to have any more of them.

With loving respect,

STARVING FOR BETTER ASSOCIATIONS

Here, then, was a man "starving" for association with good men and women. Back there under the shadow lay his evil associations and his bad associates. Out here he had come into the trailing light left streaming into his tear-dimmed eyes by the disappearing life of the little baby whom he had passionately loved. If he was to stay out and follow on he must find new associations, other places to be in, better things to do, "good and Christian men and women" to associate with. Religion meant to him changed relationships. And the change of associations was the condition, if not the equivalent, of his conversion. To find the good God, he was seeking better men and women. Not only to him, but to those of us who knew him, the one hope he had of the divine companionship was in finding men and women who were companionable with his new-found life. The very existence of his new ideals depended upon his finding human conditions and relationships which were at least compatible with them.

But scarcely had this former gambler found his own place among the kinship of his new spirit than "the way of life" led him through the valley of the shadow of death. Stricken by an occupational disease in the only employment which opened to him, his manhood stood the supreme test of sacrificing all for the highest and the best. When asked whether he would rather be as he had been, in

the more prosperous ways he had forsaken, than stand at the end of his new life's hard struggle, he exclaimed, "Let me be, I would have lost my crown."

APPROACH TO THE CITADEL OF MAN-SOUL

In this instance, at least, the new emphasis upon the social conditions and relationships of life was born out of the old "burden for souls." It is shortsighted to ask whether you should work for the individual or for his surroundings and relationships. You cannot work for one without working for the other. You are not shut up to such a dilemma. You ought to work both ends of the line at once if you expect to meet the real man in the middle. For the approach to the innermost self lies through some one or more of the concentric areas in which each one of us lives, moves, and has his being. "Eye-gate, ear-gate, touch-gate" are the avenues of sense which lead to the spirit. And just behind these senses lies the thinking mind, the whole area of the heart's emotions, the moral judgments and sanctions of conscience; still deeper, the religious feelings; and, towering above all, the imperious will, that citadel to which, as to imperial Rome itself, all roads lead. All around and about the body, mind, and spirit of every one of us also lie the human relationships, the social surroundings, the civic frame-work, the hereditary and historical antecedents which go far toward making us what we are. Through all these areas everything that influences us must pass, before it reaches our outer gate and enters in to the citadel of our selfhood.

So identified are we with our surroundings, which yet we strangely transcend, that the modern man is less and less able to consider himself apart from them, or to consider religion real if it does not embrace them. No man wants anyone to tell him he loves his "soul" if he does not love him. If you love my soul and do not love me, it means nothing. I do not and cannot take it to be love, if you do not care about my life, or whether my wife can stay at home to take care of the babies instead of going out to work to help me eke out the living which I have no

fair chance to earn for my family; or whether my children can have enough schooling to get a good start in life; or whether I have a hovel or a decent house to live in; or whether the city is given over to corruption, so that I cannot bring my children up safely. What do I care, if you care for my soul, and do not care for me and mine? For what is my soul? Is it anything less than myself? Is it not all I am or can become?

ANOTHER HUMAN INTEREST STORY

And this is the way that same spirit, after it has become the conquest of religion, goes forth to serve its fellows. Listen to this other man's quest for the Holy Grail:

DEAR PASTOR:

In the first place, when we try to help a fallen brother, the odds against us are too great. Last night I believe that man was in earnest. When he said, "I am tired of sin," he meant it. He wanted freedom, peace, happiness. What were the odds against him and those new-born impulses? He went out from God's house, away from those commissioned to do his work. Where could he go but out into the cold, friendless streets of a great city? Then what? He had no home to go to, no friends to cheer and wish him God-speed, so he must walk the streets. Were there no warm lighted rooms to welcome him? Yes, but he was to shun the dram shop. He did this. He passed by seven, with the struggle which God only knows. The door of the eighth stood open. It did look warm and comfortable within. So he finally went in, and going apart from the motley crowd of hangers-on he removed his hat, and took from it the little card containing the time and place for meeting the new-found friends the next day. Alas, there and thus I left him. Perhaps I ought to have done something with him or for him. But what could I do? Where could I have taken him? Cannot something be done to lessen these odds, to even things up, to give the Lord a fair show with a man who wants to be saved?

Thus on the field, in personal work, the individual emphasis and the social emphasis are seen to be two sides of the same thing. When men rise up in response to the religious appeal and say, "If you knew how I live and have to live, and where I work and have to work, and how I earn my livelihood, you would not be quite so sure that I could accept this doctrine of the pure heart quite so readily," they may not be

believed, but at least we can look to see whether the living and working conditions are such that the way of making a livelihood is the "way of life," or the way to death; whether the ways in which young people seek their pleasure lead them up or down; whether our municipal conditions and city government make it easier to do right and harder to do wrong, or easier to do wrong and harder to do right.

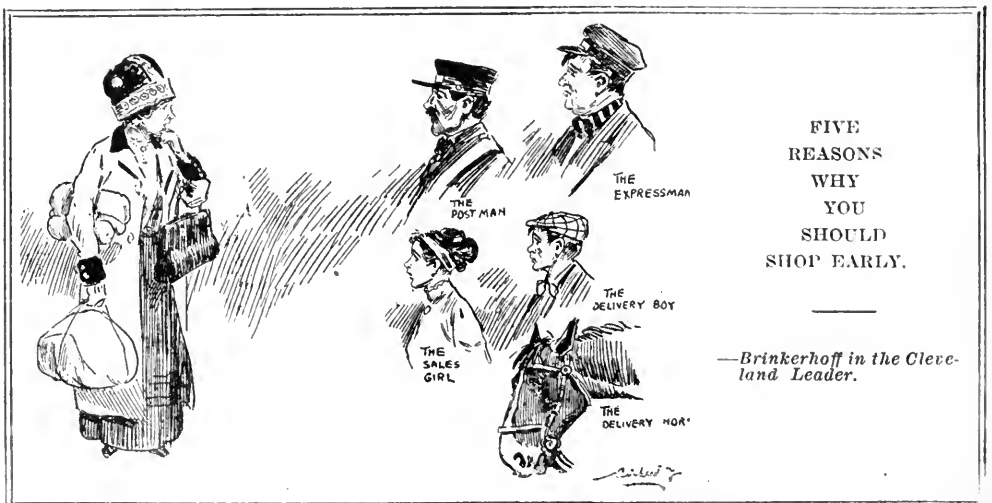
TWO SIDES OF THE SAME SHIELD

You cannot have a saved life survive always in unsaved surroundings. You cannot have a saved soul in a lost body. You cannot be half saved, inside and not outside. You must save a larger and larger part of the world's and man's human relationships, and make his surroundings at least compatible with the ideals of life which you are holding out to him, if he is ever to realize those ideals. The undoing of "evangelized" souls by unevangelized surroundings and relationships is the tragedy of modern religious experience. It is often due, not to the lack of the desire to be religious, but to the lack of that atmospheric pressure to protect and promote right living which every community ought and can assure everyone who enters upon the religious life. Law has been finely defined as the "steady pressure of divine love." Every one of us needs that pressure and the steadiness of it. Remove it from those of us who have never known what it is to be without it, and who of us knows what would

happen to him? A foot-soldier in the Civil War said that the carnage of the battle, the crushing of the bones of the wounded under the cannon wheels, the agony of the dying were not so appalling as the collapse of character, when men were taken away from the atmospheric pressure of the restraints and impulses, to which they had been accustomed at home.

In his *Consular Sketches*, Hawthorne describes the appearance of an American clergyman who came to the consulate to request him to keep his mail until called for. After the captain of the vessel on which he was to return home had been compelled to sail without this passenger of his, the man returned to the consulate so changed in appearance that he was scarcely recognizable. He re-introduced himself and asked for his mail. Then Hawthorne, taking the part of a faithful friend, told the man he need not explain; that he had not known how weak a man he was until he had found himself alone, away from home, and lost in the crowd of a great strange city; and that he should never again trust himself away from the restraints and supports of his home surroundings, to which he was advised to betake himself without delay.

From the human point of view, the social emphasis, therefore, is just as personal as religion is, and that is about the most personal thing there is. And, on the other hand, the individual emphasis is just as social as is the life of a mortal man.



CIVICS

THE BOARD OF PUBLIC WELFARE OF KANSAS CITY

FRED R. JOHNSON

Superintendent Research Committee

Mr. Johnson's article on the Board of Public Welfare is in no sense a critical appraisal or analysis of the work performed by this branch of the municipal government of Kansas City. It sets forth the scope of its activities and the principles by which it aims to be guided. Henry Bruere, a director of the Bureau of Municipal Research, New York city, has said of a bulletin issued by the department in connection with the recent Kansas City Child Welfare Exhibit that it "is one of the most interesting expressions of a social program that I have seen announced by any municipal agency. It is not because what the document says is so significant, but that it should be said and thought by a duly constituted public body working not under the auspices of a private board but for a city government. With the possible exception of some work now being done in Milwaukee and the program of the fusion Board of Estimate and Apportionment in New York city, the program of your board of public welfare, in my judgment, is the most progressive program in America."

The Board of Public Welfare is a part of the regular city government of Kansas City, and consequently is supported by public funds. Composed of five men appointed by the mayor, it is absolutely non-partisan. The members are not balanced between the two leading parties, as supposedly non-partisan boards frequently are, but are appointed without any reference to party affiliation.

The board has supervision of the general charitable and correctional problems of the city, and to this extent corresponds to the customary boards of charities and correction; but its powers are much broader in scope. A committee appointed early in 1910 by the mayor of Kansas City was charged with the duty of "working out and recommending for adoption a plan calculated to cover in a comprehensive manner the city's obligation towards the unemployed, the poor, the sick, and delinquent." It was as a result of their recommendation that the Board of Pardons and Paroles, founded in 1909, became the present Board of Public Welfare, with powers to carry out the ambitious policy mapped out.

Certain principles were laid down at the very beginning which have served as a guide. Among these may be mentioned the following:

1. The board lays emphasis on justice rather than charity and on prevention rather than cure.

2. It believes that social action should be based on accurate knowledge and that investigation should both precede and accompany all efforts to improve social conditions.

3. It strives for harmonious co-operation with all existing agencies, both public and private, and does not duplicate the work of any.

4. The board gives no public outdoor relief except in cases where the bread-winner of the family is a city prisoner, and then only on the basis of actual destitution.

Trained social workers are relied upon by the board to carry out the details of these policies. They have been largely recruited from those who have had previous experience in private charitable enterprises and who have also had specialized college training in social work.

There are at present ten divisions of work, as follows:

1. District Superintendence.
2. Social Service Department.
3. Department for the Homeless and Unemployed.
4. Welfare Loan Agency.
5. Municipal Farm.
6. Women's Reformatory.
7. Parole Department.
8. Recreation Department.
9. Legal Aid Bureau.
10. Research Bureau.

The Social Service Department is conducted in close co-operation with the Provident Association, the local representative of organized charity, and the Department for the Homeless and Unemployed in co-operation with the Helping Hand Institute, a private organization which has been unusually effective in caring for homeless men and women. A municipal employment bureau and a municipal quarry, both operated by this department, assist in providing work for the unemployed. The Welfare Loan Agency is conducted by the Board of Public Welfare, but its funds are furnished from private sources. During the first five months of its existence this agency made 482 loans, aggregating \$24,817.47. The number of loans at present exceeds 100 each month.

Originally, as the Board of Pardons and Paroles, devoted to the treatment of misdemeanants, it is along this line of work that the most progress has been made. Three departments co-operate in the treatment of the delinquent: the Municipal Farm, the Women's Reformatory, and the Parole Department. All male city prisoners have been removed to the municipal farm located outside of the limits of Kansas City. The average number of prisoners confined here exceeds 200. All the able-bodied are supplied with work. Some are engaged in construction work, others in tilling the fields, while still others build roads and perform necessary duties about the farm. While confined at the workhouse within the city, it was not possible to provide sufficient work for all the men. The new departure has supplied healthy work for all. The men are not shackled, and physical restraint is reduced to a minimum. There is ample evidence that the new environment has not only been of benefit to the men physically, but that it has assisted in their moral reformation.

Kansas City has repudiated the theory that the community should punish the wives and innocent children of men who have committed some offence by withdrawing their only means of support. Where investigation discloses that families are in want because of the imprisonment of the chief breadwinner, the Board of Public Welfare pays a certain amount towards their support. What the misdemeanant earns is thus applied towards the support of his family.

When the last male prisoners were withdrawn from the workhouse in June, 1911, this building was converted into a women's reformatory. Those detained are not only provided with work and medical attendance, but are also given industrial training and the privilege of attending night school. Every assistance is afforded towards reforming the delinquent women and making them independent and self-supporting upon their release.

The Parole Department works hand in hand with the Municipal Farm and with the Women's Reformatory. Present laws in Missouri do not admit of the indeterminate sentence. The only system of punishment for city offences in Kansas City is by means of fines, with imprisonment as an alternative if the fines are not paid. Paroling prisoners in part makes up for this deficiency. During the last fiscal year, 1660 paroles correspond-

ing to about one-half of all commitments, were granted. Only 10 per cent have been returned for violation of their parole. The average weekly earnings of men reporting on parole during 1910-11 were \$10.46.

The parole officers keep detailed records of all convictions and all the evidence brought out in the police court. They have a bureau for registration of crime in Kansas City to assist them. All information as to the conduct of the men while on parole is entered on these records and in cases of recidivism it is not difficult to deal justly with the men.

The police courts refer a large number of non-support cases directly to the Parole Department. Some cases of this kind are handled without even the formality of an arrest. Men paroled when charged with non-support must promise to turn over their earnings to the parole department for the benefit of their families. In this way \$8,346.21 was collected and applied during the past fiscal year, and the next year will show a very considerable increase.

The Recreation Department of the board maintains supervision over all public dances in the city. Licenses must be secured for all such dances, and an inspector is present to see that dance hall rules are complied with. These rules bar the sale of liquor, provide that dance halls be properly lighted, forbid "shadow" and "moonlight" dancing, stipulate that all dances must close at twelve o'clock unless a special permit is secured, and provide that no girls under seventeen shall attend public dances unless attended by parent or guardian. Failure to comply with these rules results in a revocation of the dance permit. During the first year of inspection, more than 300 young girls were sent from dance halls and their parents notified. That inspection has resulted in raising the standard of the dances is attested by the owners of dance halls themselves. It has also increased instead of diminished the attendance at these dances.

The Legal Aid Bureau is a new departure in the field of social work. Legal assistance is furnished free by the city itself to those without funds. Cases are taken into the courts when it is found necessary. Wage claims constitute the largest class of cases handled. These are all for small amounts, which as a rule would not be collected were it not for this bureau. During the first eight



SUPERVISING DANCING AT A TYPICAL DANCE HALL.

months of its existence, 1095 wage claims were handled and \$6,046.40 was collected. The number of new cases at present averages fifteen every day. Desertion cases form an interesting class. Where fathers desert families with small children, they have been brought back by this bureau at the expense of the Board of Public Welfare from points as far remote as Wheeling, W. Va., and Sheridan, Wyo.

The Research Bureau is engaged in a social survey of the city. Investigations of unemployment, the social evil, and the charitable situation in the city have been made and the results published. Investigations of housing and the wages and working conditions of men and women in factories and mercantile establishments are under way. The results of these have not yet been published, but were displayed, in so far as the work had progressed, in, the Kansas City Child Welfare Exhibit.

Classified under the work of this bureau for purposes of convenience are found the Registration Bureau and Endorsement of Charities. These two services make possible a unified system of charity work and promote co-operation. Both, without exception under private control in other cities, are public agencies in Kansas City. Registration of cases is not limited to relief agencies but

includes social settlements, day nurseries, medical agencies, and all the various forms of social welfare activities.

Forty-one institutions were endorsed and thirteen refused endorsement during the past fiscal year. A "white list" was published and mailed to all members of the Commercial Club and to others interested. Supplementing this, a detailed directory or handbook has been prepared to provide the basis for intelligent giving. Several organizations, nationwide in scope, which as a rule have been temporized with by endorsement bodies elsewhere, have been refused endorsement in Kansas City. No attempt has been made to curtail the activities of those not endorsed, beyond giving information concerning them to all inquirers. The effect of non-endorsement has, however, been very marked.

The question naturally arises as to how the above activities, so many of which are nominally conducted by private organizations, can be undertaken publicly without being crippled. A full answer involves familiarity with the local situation. Among contributing causes, however, may be mentioned the ever growing political independence of the West. Kansas City is thoroughly progressive. Its city departments, including the Board of Public Welfare, were recently placed on an effective civil service basis. The board it-

self, as already noted, is absolutely divorced from politics. The two men recently chosen to replace the retiring members of the board were nominated by representatives of the private philanthropies of the city and were immediately appointed by Mayor Brown. There is a firm belief in Kansas City that the public conscience is aroused to such an extent that a public board devoted to the cause of securing justice and fair treatment for those who are in misery or who are pressed down by adverse conditions will never be made the football of partisan politics.

HOUSING REFORM IN HUNGARY

The need for providing sanitary and comfortable dwellings for the agricultural laborers who contribute so largely to the prosperity of the country has been realized in Hungary. Private enterprise did not meet the widespread want. Experience also showed that the parish authorities were unwilling or unable to make adequate provision.

Dr. Daranyi, the minister for agriculture, decided that the welfare of the nation demanded that the state should bring its resources to bear upon the question. He included in his budget provision for aiding the work of supplying suitable and hygienic dwellings for agricultural laborers. The annual expenditure for this purpose from 1901 to 1905 was \$12,090.

In some cases the laborer received newly built cottages ready for occupation; often, however, the authorities supplied him with a plot of land and building materials at preferential rates, prepared plans, and superintended the work of building. The laborer himself made the bricks. The cost of each dwelling varied from \$165 to \$185, which the prospective owner undertook to repay in annual instalments extending over a period of from ten to twenty years.

The demand for cottages became much greater than could be met with the sum granted by the state. In 1906 the annual grant was increased to \$63,000, but even this proved to be altogether inadequate. Accordingly Dr. Daranyi, in 1907, introduced a bill in which he asked the Hungarian Legislature to sanction the conversion of the sum of

\$63,000 already ear-marked in the budget for aiding the erection of agricultural workers' dwellings from *capital* into *interest*. By using the grant as capital only about six hundred cottages annually could be built, but by treating it as interest about fifteen hundred could be erected. The bill was passed in August, 1907, and at once became operative.

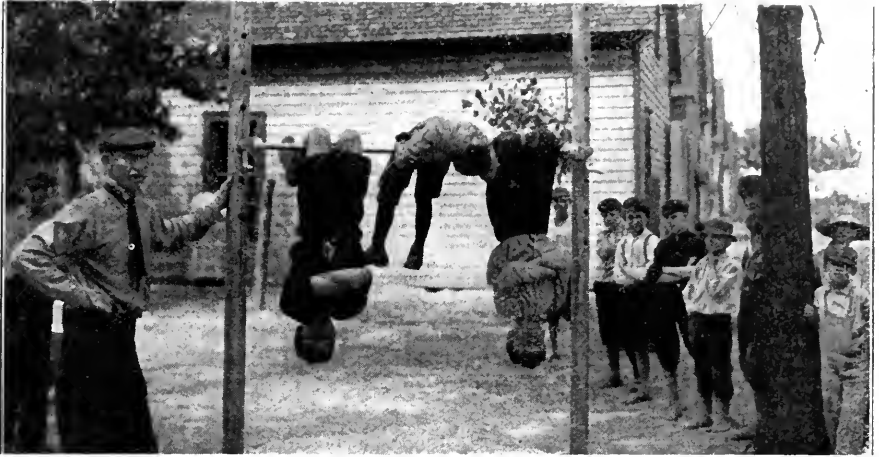
Its main provisions are as follows:

If any local authority sells real estate to agricultural laborers for building purposes, the minister for agriculture may make at state cost all the necessary surveys, plans, and contracts. The interests of the workers are safeguarded in several ways. The estate selected for cutting up must be suitable as regards soil, air, and drinking water. The operations must serve the public interest, and have no speculative tendency. The conditions of the sale or loan, the terms of loan, and the general plan must be favorable from the point of view of the agricultural laborer. During the period covered by the repayment of the loan, the property cannot be taken in execution for ordinary debts, nor can it be divided, encumbered, alienated. Complete exemption from taxation is granted for twenty years, during which period *no alcoholic beverages are allowed to be sold on the property*.

The minister of agriculture gives preference to the applications from such parishes and local authorities as make a free grant of land on which to build the house, or of ground suitable for gardens. The materials required for the purposes of the act are forwarded at cost price on all the railways owned or worked by the state. State aid is granted only for buildings designed to accommodate one family. Each cottage is erected on a plot of 1,000 to 1,200 square yards, at a cost of from \$155 to \$310. This is redeemed by annual payments of from \$12 to \$20, extending over twenty to thirty years. Thus a laborer can become the possessor of a freehold, brick-built, healthy, and well ventilated cottage in a garden at an outlay of not more than the rent of one room. In one year, under the provisions of this act, 10,943 cottages were built for agricultural laborers in various parts of Hungary.



THOROUGHFARE TUNNEL AT BUDAPEST.



PLAYGROUND OF NATIONAL TUBE COMPANY, LORAIN, O.

CIVIC IMPROVEMENT

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON, Contributing Editor

A STEEL COMPANY'S PLAYGROUND

The accompanying playground photographs are of special interest, for they illustrate the workings of the heart of a steel company—an organ which in some cases has appeared to be all but atrophied. The playground is situated in Lorain, O., and both the equipment and maintenance are paid for by the National Tube Company. The ground is located in a section inhabited by recently arrived immigrants. The average daily attendance during the summer was 210; and the fathers of 200 of the children, it was found, were employed in the steel works. The city, through the interest of a playground association which is an offshoot of the Board of Commerce, helped to secure the lots, and provided wire-fence, shelter, and drinking fountain. The National Tube Company furnished the apparatus, paid for supervision throughout the summer, and then retained a kindergartner for the autumn. A similar playground was put by the company at the disposal of the Pittsburgh Playground Association for the use of the neighborhood about one of its Pittsburgh plants. Even larger work is planned for next year.

CITY PLANNING

The secretary of the National Conference on City Planning—Flavel Shurtleff, 19 Congress street, Boston—has issued in a dignified volume the Proceedings of the meetings held

in Philadelphia last May. The papers discuss a wide range of topics, generally with considerable authoritativeness, so that the book in a measure makes up in breadth for what, as a collection of convention papers, it lacks in correlation and exhaustiveness. It gives plain evidence that city planning is very earnestly and very practically considered by a great many people, and that it consists of much more fundamental things than simply clever drawings of what may be called municipal art conceptions.



FUN FOR LITTLE TOTS.

A PAMPHLET ON PLAY

C. P. Cary, state superintendent of education in Wisconsin, has issued a valuable pamphlet on Plays and Games for Schools. Its 100 pages, in which are interspersed some photographs, diagrams, and a little music, are full of information which is made readily available by well devised indices. It may astonish some old folks to learn that about a hundred and fifty different games are described. Yet the author says that his purpose has been "to prepare a suggestive selection of games rather than a comprehensive collection." In making the selection, the needs of rural schools have been kept in mind, and the children of the elementary schools considered rather more than those in high schools. Other features of the pamphlet are references to books on the subject and a considerable collection of striking quotations, old and new, on the value of play.

AN OLD-TIME LEADER

One of the most notable civic organizations in the country passes out of existence as the result of the birth of a new and mighty Chamber of Commerce in San Francisco. This is the Merchants' Association; and as it does not die, but enters by merger into the new chamber, we may expect that its civic spirit will go marching on, attaining to larger life and greater influence. The San Francisco Merchants' Association was one of the first of the large organizations of business men to interest itself in civic matters. For sixteen years it has been at the forefront of almost every good movement in San Francisco that could be called civic in scope. Its monthly *Bulletin*, as a record of progress, has been an interesting paper. The high position thus early taken and so long held has been largely due to three men: F. W. Dohrman and Frank J. Symmes, its first two presidents, and L. M. King, its secretary.

PARKS AND SHADE TREES

The seventh annual report of the Newark Shade Tree Commission has been published in illustrated pamphlet form, and as usual it is an interesting work. If any one wants to know how to interest children in street-tree work, and the gain to the city from interesting them, he should send for a copy. But the reports of the commission have so often been used here as a text for telling of good street-tree work that it seems wise this time to select a quotation on quite another subject. The Newark Shade Tree Commission is charged also with the care of the city parks, and this comment upon them is one that may be echoed in other cities and towns throughout the land: "The city parks grow from year to year in beauty and in favor with the people. Greater numbers than in any former year used these pleasant open spaces. At ruddy morn and dewy eve,

through all the hours between, and when night had fallen on the city, these green areas were frequented by the multitude, men, women, and children—demonstrating again their utility in furthering the public health and contentment and in promoting good order and good citizenship. These parks are a most important factor in endearing Newark to its people and, as a consequence, in deepening and enlarging civic patriotism." As to the trees, to go back for a moment, one of the reasons that the Newark commission has been able to do such exceptionally interesting and satisfactory work is that it is invested by statute with "exclusive and absolute control and power to plant, set out, maintain, protect, and care for shade trees in any of the public highways" of the city.

A USEFUL ORGANIZATION

The most significant feature of the *Year Book for 1911* of the Civic League of St. Louis—a substantial pamphlet of a hundred pages—is a summary of the good things which the league has to its credit. One is struck by the number of enterprises in the list which the municipality has taken up after the league started them and proved their value; and that is one of the most useful functions which a civic league can have. For example, the league started the playgrounds; it initiated the free public baths, and maintained them until the city assumed control; it conducted vacation schools for two years when, their worth having been demonstrated, the city became responsible for their maintenance; it organized the school gardens, and kept them going until the city relieved it; and the movement which ended in making the centennial celebration an official event was begun by the league. In addition to this kind of work, the league has fathered a large body of useful legislation. This includes: certain health ordinances; the creation of an official city plan commission; the establishment of the Municipal Reference Library at the city hall; the creation of the office of city forester; the act enabling the city and county to establish an outer park system; the one establishing an improved system of garbage collection and disposal; the legislation securing the appointment of the Kingshighway Commission; the voting of several large appropriations for constructive work of one kind and another; and finally the billboard ordinances which are now before the courts. Further it has prepared and published a number of valuable expert reports, such as those on the disposal of municipal waste, the smoke nuisance, tenement house conditions, street lighting, public comfort stations, the city charter, etc. As one reads the list, one begins to wonder what St. Louis would be without the Civic League, or how any city can get along without such an organization.

HEALTH

CONFERENCE ON INFANT MORTALITY

J. W. SCHERESCHEWSKY

U. S. PUBLIC HEALTH AND MARINE HOSPITAL SERVICE

The second annual meeting of the American Association for the Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, held in Chicago, Nov. 16-18, 1911, was marked by the quiet yet thoroughgoing enthusiasm of an organization which has found itself. The year which had elapsed since the Baltimore meeting had brought about a crystallization of ideas and a tendency was manifest to disregard non-essentials and to reduce factors to the ultimate analysis.

The section on city milk supplies distinguished itself by the adoption of a resolution predicting the course of action which, I believe, will at no distant date be taken by all municipalities which profess solicitude for the welfare of their citizens. Professor Mazyck P. Ravenel, of the University of Wisconsin, gave an able exposition of the evidence by which we are forced to conclude that at least 30 to 40 per cent of tuberculosis in city children has its origin in bovine sources of infection, and that milk is the intermediate carrier by which it is disseminated. By reason of this and Dr. W. A. Evans's paper on pasteurization, in which it was shown that the danger of causing infantile scurvy in the destruction of tubercle bacilli and other pathogenic organisms in milk by efficient pasteurization is largely imaginary, the section passed the following resolutions—not, however, without some opposition.

I. Resolved, that we recognize the danger to human beings, and especially to children, from the bovine tubercle bacillus. We therefore demand protection against this danger by the enactment and enforcement of laws requiring the tuberculin testing of all cows furnishing milk for human consumption.

II. Resolved, that until such time as the tuberculin test of cattle is efficiently applied, we recommend the pasteurization of city milk supplies under municipal, state, or national control.

It is the second portion of this resolution, namely, that referring to the pasteurization of city milk supplies under municipal, state, or national control, that is significant. For it involves the recognition that we are con-

fronted with a condition, not a theory; that, while the universal tuberculin test of cattle is a counsel of perfection, the practical difficulties in generally introducing and efficiently controlling such a measure are still very great; that, more than this, the milk supply of a municipality is a public utility, the proper safeguarding of which is properly the function of the state. By this resolution, pasteurization is no longer a process to be left to the milk handling company, to be accomplished with any apparatus and in any manner it may elect. It is at all times to be subject to such expert control as to render the process efficient in its true sense, with the resulting destruction of the accompanying infection. It is evident that from control in this sense to the pasteurizing plant owned and conducted by the municipality is but a step.

Unfortunately, at the general meeting of the association, the opposition which was overruled in the milk section again made itself felt, with the result that the resolutions were referred to the executive committee for future consideration.

In the housing section the sinister effects of overcrowding and bad housing conditions upon the welfare of mother and child were abundantly shown. A paper by Prof. C. E. A. Winslow, of the College of the City of New York, dealt with the relation of bad ventilation to infant mortality. He showed that from 15 to 20 per cent of infant deaths are due to "bad-air diseases,"—namely, bronchitis and pneumonia—and that the distribution of infant mortality corresponds to the overcrowded quarters of the city. Yet he realized, he said, that the chief means by which we can get at the real facts, namely, accurate statistics, are lacking, and that one valuable service the association might perform would be the collation of related data by means of the workers connected with the numerous child-saving agencies which are now at work. The resolutions passed by the housing section

indicate that private and unofficial agencies can only assist in procuring improvement in housing conditions, and that the institution of deep-going reforms is essentially the province of the state.

The great English mathematician, Pearson, has shown in his studies of human mortality that, while the mortality curves of the various ages of man present well marked maxima and minima within the span of their respective periods, in the case of the infants such is not the case. If we are to find the maximum ordinate of the infant mortality curve we will not find it to be for the period subsequent to birth, but it must be sought in the prenatal period of existence.

Among other papers in the section on eugenics, Dr. Prince A. Morrow, of New York, showed convincingly the part played by syphilis in this ante-natal mortality of infants, for syphilis is the only disease ever transmitted with its full virulence to offspring, either killing them outright or blighting their development. When the father alone is infected 30 per cent of the children perish and when the mother is diseased the mortality averages 60 to 80 per cent. Moreover, congenital syphilis, even when not immediately fatal, predisposes to disease; for the chances that a syphilitic will contract typhoid fever are nearly two and one-half times as great as for the non-syphilitic; for measles three and one-half times; for diphtheria, seven times. Thirty per cent of children with tubercular hip-disease, 40 per cent of the cases of gastro-enteritis in infants, and 60 per cent of the cases of tubercular meningitis are syphilitics. So, while it is doubtful that haphazard methods of human reproduction can be replaced by scientific selection, still, in the elimination of the "social diseases," namely, syphilis and gonorrhoea, we have a powerful means of eugenically benefiting the human race.

Issue might well be taken with the preamble to the resolutions passed by this section, which states that "under present conditions the efforts for infant conservation must necessarily work some anti-eugenic results." This statement rests upon the supposition that, as the human race is eugenically served by the elimination of the unfit, and since the conservation of infant life results in the preservation of many, presumably weaklings, who would otherwise perish, the interests of eugenics and those of the pre-

vention of infant mortality are conflicting. In this presumption, however, the fact is lost sight of that, while under natural conditions the elimination of the weakling makes for a higher standard in the survivors and their offspring, under modern living conditions, on the contrary, we have to deal with an essentially man-made and therefore artificial environment which results in the indiscriminate elimination of both the strong and the weak without bringing them into natural competition with each other. Moreover, under these adverse conditions, while the weakling is almost immediately exterminated, the originally strong may survive, but survives as a weakling. If, on the other hand, we prevent undue infant mortality by improved social conditions, the originally strong remains strong and tends to mate only with the strong, while the weakling is eliminated by a process of natural selection. From this standpoint the movement for the conservation of infant life will produce anything but "anti-eugenic results."

Another phase of ante-natal and intra-natal mortality was dealt with in the section on midwifery, namely, the practice of obstetrics, especially by midwives, and its relation to the mortality of infants. Not only the midwife but the medical practitioner also became the subject of investigation. Dr. J. Whitredge Williams, of Johns Hopkins University, presented a paper which was the result of the circulation among the professors of obstetrics at medical schools throughout the country of a questionnaire containing some fifty queries concerning obstetrical education and the midwife problem. The analysis of the answers received showed a most deplorable condition of affairs. The medical schools were found generally deficient in clinics, in the qualifications of the obstetrical teachers themselves, and in the hours devoted to the study of obstetrics. The students leave improperly equipped to practice obstetrics, and they do not repair this default later. One-half the answers state that ordinary practitioners lose as many women from puerperal infection as do midwives, while three-fourths of the answers indicate that more annual deaths result from obstetrical operations improperly performed by practitioners, than from infection in the hands of midwives. Dr. Williams concludes that reform is urgently needed and can better be effected by a radical improvement in

medical education than by the almost impossible task of greatly improving the status of midwives.

Dr. Huntington, of Boston, read a joint paper by himself and Dr. Emmons in which it was shown that, by the extension of outdoor obstetrical facilities by lying-in hospitals, the midwife, as a problem, has been practically eliminated in Boston, less than 1 per cent. of the women in that city being delivered at their hands. He also pointed out that in Germany, where midwives are subjected to close and intelligent supervision, backed by a police power more stringent than can be exercised in this country, the status of the midwife question is far from satisfactory. Dr. Huntington concluded that as the presence of the midwife involved the existence of a dual standard of obstetrics, and as supervision of her had proved unsatisfactory both in Germany and England, she should be abolished in this country and the extension of outdoor obstetrical facilities be made to take her place.

The section passed resolutions to the effect that the teaching of obstetrics in medical schools of the United States is grossly inadequate and that no time should be lost in raising the standard; that the study of local midwifery conditions be urged as a means of collecting facts with which to direct public opinion in regard to this important subject; and, finally, that the extension of outdoor, dispensary, and hospital obstetric facilities be advocated as a most efficient means of obviating this source of maternal sickness and death and a high infant mortality rate. These resolutions were adopted at the general meeting of the association.

A diametrically opposite view prevailed in the section on Nursing and Social Work, as shown by the passage in this section of the following resolutions:

That the nursing profession extend its field of usefulness by including the practice of midwifery for normal cases. Further, that a minimum standard of training be required for all who are permitted to practice midwifery, and that all midwives be under state or municipal control.

The discussion on these resolutions, at the general meeting of the association, was very interesting, Dr. Caroline Hedger, of Chicago, speaking against the resolutions and Dr. Rachel Yarros of the same city defending



them. The resolutions were finally referred to the executive committee.

It would seem that the midwife need by no means be regarded as a necessary evil in this country. It is true that in Europe she has become entrenched by the use of centuries. The midwife in our cities is mainly employed by the foreign-born population; yet it does not therefore follow that the alien mother will not avail herself of more competent services if they are provided. The immigrant comes to this country ready to be divested of preconceived notions, and there are good grounds for the belief that, were the midwife problem to be attacked by the provision of more and better outdoor and dispensary obstetrical facilities, the midwife would very soon by her elimination cease to be a problem. This plan would also have the important advantage of furnishing a means by which mothers could be induced to bring their infants more generally to consultations for nursing, conducted in connection with this outdoor service, thus greatly increasing the number of children under medical supervision during their first year, with the corresponding reduction in the infant mortality rate always effected by such medical supervision.

The president-elect of the previous year, Dr. Avery L. Wilbur, of the Bureau of Vital Statistics, Washington, D. C., duly assumed his office, and Dr. L. Emmet Holt of New York, was chosen as president-elect. The next meeting of the association will be held in Cleveland, O.

BLINDNESS AND MIDWIFERY

Measures looking toward a solution of the problem of the untrained midwife as related to unnecessary blindness among infants was one of the special features of the past year's work of the New York Committee on Prevention of Blindness. At the annual meeting early this month, which was attended by representatives from the various groups of workers which bear upon the midwifery problem, health officers, obstetricians, ophthalmologists, pediatricists, instructors in nursing, and social workers, Carolyn Van Blarcom, executive secretary of the committee, reviewed the activities of the twelve months and presented the conclusions of the committee resulting from its midwifery investigations.

Since it is believed by the medical profession that blindness from ophthalmia neonatorum would practically never occur if the eyes of all new-born infants were properly cleansed, and if prompt and efficient medical attention were invariably administered upon the appearance of the early symptoms of this disease, it was seen that the services of midwives, who attend such a large per cent of births, bear an important relation to the prevention of blindness. Moreover, earlier studies by the committee, and by other organizations and individuals had revealed the very prevalent unfitness of midwives to practice under present conditions; illiteracy, very advanced age, ignorance of prophylactic methods, and uncleanly habits all figuring in their indictment. Obviously then, if the diseases which are estimated to be responsible for something like 10,000 blind persons in this country to-day are to be scotched in their dark ravages upon eye-sight, something must be done regarding midwifery. Two things have been attempted in various states and countries; either the absolute elimination of the midwife, or the requirement of a higher educational standard and state control.

The committee's study of elimination led to the conclusion that such a program was well-nigh impossible, the reasons, briefly, being that the large immigrant populations in America cling through custom and deeply rooted tradition to the midwife; that the midwife is an economic necessity to those whom she attends, for from her the patient is able to secure both medical attention and nursing care at a cost which does

not exceed a doctor's fee for medical attention alone; that the midwife acts not only as a visiting nurse but as a general adviser and woman friend, neither of which functions are usually expected of the doctor. Moreover, in places where the practicing of midwives has been made illegal, there have been strong indications that the law was flagrantly violated. This conclusion having been reached, the next step was a study of the results of better training and state control.

In the year just closed the committee made a study of the laws relating to midwifery training and control in sixteen European countries, together with curricula from foreign midwifery schools, and has secured opinions and criticisms from obstetricians, midwives, and public health workers in these countries. Through the New York state Department of Health, copies of laws, acts, and ordinances providing for state, county, or municipal control of midwives in the United States have also been collected. It was found that in thirty-three of the forty-nine states and territories there is no law restraining the practice of midwifery. In three midwives are actually allowed by law to practice unrestricted; while in the remaining thirteen states there are laws purporting to require examination before licensure to practice, although there is a total absence in these states of adequate provision for midwifery training.

By an act of parliament entitled "An act to secure the better training of midwives and to regulate their practice," a Central Midwives Board was established in England in 1902, and the supervision and control of midwives was placed under it. The seemingly successful working of the law, and the fact that conditions in England before the passage of the Midwives Act were closely similar to those existing in New York to-day, led the committee to commission Miss Van Blarcom to visit England during the late summer, for the purpose of making a detailed study of the workings of the act. This investigation included a study of the legislative history of the act; the power and organization of the Central Midwives Board, its method of examination, licensure, and control of practicing midwives; the training of midwives carried on in hospitals and out-patients departments, and by physicians and certified midwives; and a study of the administrative methods of local health officers,

together with records of the work done by midwives under their supervision. These various aspects of the midwifery work in England were studied in cities and towns of various sizes and in rural districts, and among midwives and inspectors of varying grades. Both midwives and inspectors were frequently accompanied on their rounds, thus affording an opportunity for close observation of their practical work.

In her report Miss Van Blarcom states:

"The impressions received during the six weeks devoted to this study were very convincing. There seemed little room for doubt that in England the training and intelligent supervision of midwives in their practice exerts a powerful influence toward the preservation of life and health of mothers and babies. Better medical attention is secured for this class of the sick poor, and in a larger number of cases than in the old days when the "Gamps" held sway uncontrolled. Not only have maternal and infant mortality declined, but in the opinion of many obstetricians and public health authorities in England the morbidity of mothers and babies has been reduced at least partly as a result of the better medical and nursing care secured through the administration of the Midwives Act."

The committee believes that there is a very necessary function for midwives to perform, and that the fact that thus far they have not adequately measured up to that function is not a more logical reason for their elimination than for their elevation through education and proper state supervision. The deplorable status of the midwife in this country seems to reflect discredit upon the American public rather than upon the profession of midwifery itself. Just as recent investigations showing the failure of obstetricians to produce the kind of results that may be reasonably expected have led physicians and others to recommend not the elimination of obstetricians but better standards of education for them; so the committee would urge the education and state control of midwives, not for the sake of encouraging them to encroach upon the medical profession, but rather to fit them to give nursing care to their patients, and by virtue of their training to recognize symptoms of abnormalities and secure adequate medical attention. As the standard of the midwifery profession in England has been raised, the percentage of cases in which midwives have summoned medical assistance has increased proportionately. It would seem that the better medical and nursing care thus insured would operate strongly against unnecessary blindness and other preventable maladies among mothers and babies.

The committee, in its endeavor to secure state legislation affecting the training and control of midwives, has been working in close co-operation with the New York state

and city Departments of Health, and has secured the assistance of important medical societies as well as of influential members of the medical profession. Resolutions favoring the training and control of midwives under state authority were adopted during the year by the New York State Medical Society, the Homeopathic Society of Western New York, the section on Obstetrics and Gynecology of the New York Academy of Medicine, two county medical societies, the American Association for the Conservation of Vision, the American Nurses' Association, and the American Society of Superintendents of Training Schools for Nurses. Sections or committees on midwifery have been appointed by the American Society for the Conservation of Vision, the American Association for the Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, and the American Society of Superintendents of Training Schools for Nurses.

One tangible result of the committee's efforts to better midwifery practice in New York has been the establishment of a training school for midwives in connection with Bellevue and Allied Hospitals. The report states this to be the first school of its kind in America, and that it was opened as a result of co-operation offered to the committee by the president of the Board of Directors of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals. The school is under the immediate supervision of the general superintendent of nurses of these hospitals, and its curriculum embraces instruction in practical nursing, care of pregnant and parturient women, care and feeding of infants, conduct of normal labor, symptoms of complications and abnormalities, and the rudiments of anatomy, physiology, hygiene, and dietetics.

At the close of the annual meeting, the following resolutions were adopted by the committee:

"That this committee shall endeavor to secure legislative action which shall provide for a higher standard of education, and for the examination, licensure, registration, supervision, and control of midwives, by state and local authorities, throughout the state of New York;

That to this end the Sub-committee on Midwifery is hereby authorized and directed to cause a bill to be drafted or amendments to existing law to be prepared and introduced during the coming session of the legislature, and to endeavor to secure the enactment of such proposed legislation."

SEX EDUCATION

MARCUS M. MARKS

President Parents' and Teachers' Conference of the Ethical Culture School

We have all been giving time to the consideration of many relatively unimportant matters affecting the lives of our children. For example, the subject of table-manners has received more or less attention daily. Sex education, however, though it is one of the most important questions affecting this

and future generations, has been pushed aside and hushed, on account of a feeling of mock-modesty which is an unfortunate characteristic of our present civilization. Untold misery has already resulted on account of the ostrich-like attitude of many parents who bury their heads in the sands and have not the courage to look physical facts in the face. But men's and women's minds are now being directed to the serious consideration of the problems of sex education. The Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis has been doing excellent service in this cause, and other agencies are beginning to impress their warnings upon the public and dispel some of the false sentiment which has enveloped the subject. More enlightenment on the subject is imperative.

There are several methods of sex education, all of which, if adopted, should be used in intelligent co-operation. One is the general education of parents by physicians, the purpose being to enable parents to be the medium of the sex education of their own children. The second is education of children directly through physicians by public lectures and the dissemination of literature. The third is education of individual children directly through their family physician. The fourth is education of children directly through school teachers in connection with biology and ethics courses.

After considerable discussion the Parents' and Teachers' Conference of the Ethical Culture School adopted the first mentioned method about a year ago. A great deal of care was used in beginning the study of this delicate subject. It was deemed wise not to call the parents together in a large gathering. It was further decided, in deference to the views of those who thought it best to take no possible chance of offending the most sensitive, to have the physicians address the fathers and the mothers of the school children separately. Therefore round-table conferences were arranged for small groups of fathers on certain afternoons and evenings and for small groups of mothers on other afternoons. After an hour's discourse, usually by Dr. Ira S. Wile, a well-known expert on child hygiene, questions were asked by the parents and answered by the physician. The most intimate questions were asked and satisfactory replies given. Parents expressed themselves as being deeply interested and vastly benefited by these conferences. They are being continued with parents of newly-admitted children.

The school officially gives sex education, up to a certain point, in its physiology and biology classes; the ethics course also naturally touches on some of the problems of sex; but in neither of these courses is there that heart-to-heart touch which can be given to the child by its parent. There is, of course, no absolute rule. Each child has a different nature and a different development. The parent knows the child, but at times the teacher knows the individual child even better. Therefore the teachers of the Ethical Culture School are included in these round-

table conferences; they too, thus receive the benefit of an expert's advice and have some of their doubts removed as to the best way of approaching the subject of sex education. This article is written to report highly satisfactory experience with the method of parents' and teachers' conference in studying the important problems of sex education.

JOTTINGS

WANTED DAILY: 105 BARRELS OF AIR

Dr. W. P. Northrup of New York, the well known specialist on children's diseases, in an interesting bit of autobiography in the November *Journal of the Outdoor Life* gives some of his pioneer experiences in the fresh-air treatment of disease. Seven years ago, when he dared to go against current methods of treating pneumonia, and placed the child in the open air, he was called "crazy" and "a faddist," but when he had demonstrated, after months of labor, that fresh air was the best medicine for those suffering from pneumonia, measles, whooping-cough, and even for weak, sickly babies, balconies began to appear here and there, until now almost every large hospital in New York has open-air sleeping provisions.

In the same issue, Dr. Thomas H. Hay emphasizes the blood's constant need of oxygen, in an article on the Physiology of Fresh Air. The average amount of air taken into the lungs during ordinary quiet breathing is about thirty cubic inches at each single inspiration. At the rate of eighteen breaths a minute, there would thus pass in and out of the lungs 777,500 cubic inches, or 450 cubic feet, every twenty-four hours. With an average of seventy beats a minute, the heart delivers to the lungs for aeration five ounces of blood at every beat, or nearly 3400 gallons a day. In other words, the lungs handle in twenty-four hours 105 barrels of air and 125 barrels of blood. "In view of the stupendous task which the respirating apparatus has to perform," says Dr. Hay, "the necessity of a supply of absolutely pure air becomes apparent." Dr. Thomas S. Carrington, writing on Fresh Air in the Home, unites with Dr. Hay in declaring that the superstitious prejudices against night air and draughts are absolutely without foundation.

The January issue will be the first of two numbers dealing expressly with the specific treatment of tuberculosis, and will contain three main articles by specialists of wide medical experience and recognized authority.

WATCH THE BAKERIES

The New York City Board of Health, at one of its meetings the latter part of November, issued nineteen public nuisance orders and eleven vacation orders against premises occupied as bakeries in Brooklyn. These orders are part of a program of the department to supervise all places in the city where food is prepared and sold. Several of these orders were a result of investigations made recently when the commissioner personally accompanied the inspectors on a night tour of certain bakeries in Brooklyn.

INDUSTRY

WHAT THE GOVERNMENT FOUND WHEN IT BROADENED OUT ITS INTEREST IN BOLL-WEEVILS AND BEGAN TO STUDY CHILDREN

MARY BROWN SUMNER

The following bits of life give glimpses of reasons why children leave school to go to work, the subject of Vol. VII¹ of the Federal report on women and child wage-earners.

Two children, eleven and thirteen years old, were found working in the mill. Their mother, a widow, worked there also, and so did the two older children, aged sixteen and eighteen. The mother was up at three o'clock in the morning, did the cooking for the family, and left cold victuals prepared for her very youngest—two little ones still under eleven years who were supposed to go to school, but were in reality left to their own devices. Had the mother tried to live on her own earnings and those of her children over sixteen years, the weekly per capita income of this family of seven, when rent and sickness expenses were deducted, would have been but \$1.02 per week.

Cecil, aged eleven, tired of school and his father decided not to force him to go. So he fitted up a little cabin next door as a store, stocked it with groceries and candies, and left it to the boy to manage. Cecil stayed out of school a year and a half, in which time he paid off the mortgage on his store and increased the stock. He is now attending secondary industrial school, which he likes very much, and is taking in \$100 a month at his store, 40 per cent of which is profit. This he uses in increasing his stock, fixing up the store, etc. The weekly per capita income of this family with the same deductions as in the other case is \$7.11.

Seven children in Columbia, S. C., went to work because a mill superintendent gave preference to men who could bring their children to work in the mill with them. In Columbus, Ga., like company pressure was shown in one mill by its rent scale; old and new houses, one hand at work, renting at \$1.25 per room per month; new houses, two hands at work, renting at 80 cents; new houses, three or more at work, at 75 cents per room.

Edgar, a spinner nine years old, went to the cotton mill at six o'clock in the morning; attended school from one o'clock to quarter

to three, then returned to the mill until six, working fifty-one hours a week and earning \$1.90. Working and schooling at the same time, he was burning the candle at both ends. He and his sister Pamela, eight years old and already working in the mill, two poor little listless children with pasty skin and dull eyes, were sitting on the steps resting when the agent called. Edgar said he didn't know how to play, just sat still and whittled a stick. He usually went to bed when he got something to eat. The father of this family was sick and earned \$4 a week. The weekly per capita income with deductions as above was 19 cents.

These concrete examples show the range of the government's study, which covered 622 working children—269 of them girls—found in seven industrial centers distributed as follows:

Rhode Island, two; Pennsylvania, two; South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama, one each. Two general lines of investigation were followed, namely: the reasons for leaving school, and the industrial experience of the children. The families studied were not chosen on any particular plan, but were, if we take the bureau's word for it, "in nowise different from their neighbors." Sixty per cent were noticeably intelligent, neat, capable, ambitious, and pleasant. They included 1355 wage-earners in addition to the children at work. The average income was \$10.10 per week; all but ninety-three had a male head whose average contribution was from 42 to 66 per cent of the total family income. The average contribution of the children studied in the different localities was from 10 to 20 per cent, the largest percentage being in a southern town. The average size of the families is not given. The commonest age of beginning work in the South was twelve, in the North fourteen.

Taking the home explanation—in many cases a random statement of only a part of the truth—in conjunction with the agent's study of home conditions, the three main classes of reasons for the work of children were found to be (a) poverty, (b) dissatisfaction with school, and (c) the habit of considering work the normal condition for the young as for adults. The habit is one borne in upon these low-income families by the constant sense that at any moment some part of the household support may be cut off.

Need of the child's earnings was pleaded in 359 cases. The report assumes that a per capita income of \$2 per week per

¹REPORT ON THE CONDITION OF WOMAN AND CHILD WAGE-EARNERS IN THE UNITED STATES. Prepared under the direction of the Commissioner of Labor, Washington, 1911. Volume VII: CONDITIONS UNDER WHICH CHILDREN LEAVE SCHOOL TO GO TO WORK. Prepared under the direction of Special Agent E. H. Wilkinson.

adult male (and for other members proportionately) left over after emergencies, rent, and earnings of children are deducted, is sufficient to supply the necessities of life.¹ Of these cases 186 were found to have an income of less than this amount.

In others, a present income of over \$2 represented change for the better in the family's conditions subsequent to the time the child began work. For example, a boy had gone to work during the illness of his father when the family income was practically nil. Since then, both father and mother secured work, and the per capita income was at the time of the investigation well over \$2. Furthermore, emergencies are not accounted for in the \$2 standard and no less than 426 families had been recently visited by sickness or death. One boy, for example, was working to pay off the debt for his own illness.

But, even so, there was left a fair proportion of cases of alleged necessity, which should rather be grouped under one or both of the other two main causes. These families did not, in the language of the report, "value further schooling as they did the acquisition of property—and the greater sense of independence and security arising from the possession of a financial reserve." From a general study of incomes on the \$2 minimum for comfort basis, the report finds 250 cases—sixty-four more than named this cause—where need must have been one cause of the child's work. In the analysis of incomes the report brings out many interesting things. One of these is the small percentage of fathers who shirked work (2.8 per cent), or who deserted their families (2.3 per cent). One hundred and seven mothers supplemented the family income by their work, but only thirty-two of these were widows. The remaining sixty-one widows had apparently chosen to have their children work for wages rather than do so themselves.

Dissatisfaction with school, or preference for work—the same thing in another form—was given as the cause of leaving school by 221 children. In 60 per cent of these necessity could not have been a subsidiary cause. In some places, as in Plymouth, Penn., the "intense hatred of some of the children for school was startling." Some light is thrown indirectly on this hatred by the fact that at Hazelton, Penn., and at Columbus, Ga., where a good system of manual training prevailed, only a small proportion left for this reason; whereas in Plymouth the school course was particularly stereotyped and academic. Taking all places together, over one-fifth of the children said they would have remained in school if manual training had been offered. Retardation accounts for some of the dislike

¹This digest does not attempt a statistical review of the bureau's report. In the discussion of family income it is a trifle disturbing to find a bibliographical footnote referring to various magazine sources, but no reference to Prof. Chapin's volume, *Mrs. Moore's Wage-earners' Budgets*, Miss Byington's *Homestead*, or to the recent British Board of Trade reports; that is, the titles making up our present literature on the cost of living.

for school, over 83 per cent of the whole group of children being older than their classmates. This cause was particularly noticeable in Pawtucket, R. I., where the children of French Canadians are at a disadvantage because of their ignorance of the language.

In the South alternation of work and study is so common up to twenty years of age that the belated child is not so noticeable; he is one of many. Three-fourths of all the children studied left school below the seventh grade; 47 per cent below the fifth, and 27 per cent left school at the age of fourteen, below the sixth grade. Sixteen children could not read nor write, and 163, or almost one-quarter of the total number, could speak, read, or write English either not at all or very little. Thus, though whim probably accounts for a certain percentage of those who leave school because they dislike it, retardation and the lack of a course adapted to their needs appear to be the two most important causes.

Fourteen per cent gave as their reason for going to work that it was the normal thing to do. "Why shouldn't he work? He's of age," said one mother. The facts that 192 fathers and 217 other members of families were each unemployed for an average of one hundred days in the year, and that 426 families had to bear expenses for illness and death, taken with the fact that "there is a strong and steady demand for young workers," give impetus to this tendency to expect children to work. Besides those parents who voiced this view toward work for their children, it was undoubtedly in the background in many cases where another reason was given. It may account for many of those who spoke of necessity that was not apparent to the investigators, as well as for those who let their children drop out of school with no particular complaint to make. With the families of many unskilled laborers, whose wages at best are low and who have little chance to lay by for a rainy day, it is by itself and of itself sufficient grounds for putting their children to work, without casting about for any other reason or explanation.

These are the main causes assigned by the government's staff as to why these children, described as an average group, dropped out of school and into the work of the world. Their industrial experience is also representative of that of vast numbers of other American working children of the current decade. Few of them found that they had any need of more schooling for their "chosen work." The nature of this "choice" was interesting, as only seventy had really planned out and been able to put in effect a plan by which their work might be educational and give them a skilled trade later on. The majority drifted into "the first thing that offered" or "something near home," and this was in many cases from no lack of ambition, for 50 per cent had definite ambitions; 25 per cent attended night schools in the hope of getting somewhere in the world, and fully 44 per cent desired such training. Many of them could not get it. Lack of opportunity, or lack of knowledge

of opportunities, seems to have been the causal factor why these and no doubt many others drift into the mill, the mine, or the work of running errands. The majority will in all probability never—through their present work, at any rate—get the opportunity they desire. A would-be turner of fifteen was working as cleaner in a mill; a mill hand of fourteen wanted to be a farmer; and a fifteen-year-old door-tender in a mine, "working in solitude and darkness at as uninteresting and mechanical a task as the mind of man can conceive," longed to be an electrician.

Only 3 per cent of these children were working at occupations in which the maximum wage was \$15 or over, 90 per cent were in trades where adults earn less than \$10. The children's opportunities for advancement without a change of employment were slight, and in many cases advancement in pay ceased automatically at sixteen years, showing that the work was schemed for children alone, giving no opportunity for educational or financial growth—the dead-end occupations which

blight youth. Five hundred and twenty out of the 622 children received less than \$5.50 a week, 374 out of the 520 received under \$5. Few of the children—less than 4 per cent—worked less than nine hours a day; half of them worked ten hours or over.

In spite of long hours and deadening work a good half of these children were, as has been said before, ambitious, and all but 15 per cent had an interest in life, if not in their work. This 15 per cent, however, had neither interest nor desire to live. They were of the type of Edgar and Pamela, or the laundry worker of fifteen, who was "too beat out for to be amused when she gets home after her day." As Edgar and the other half-timers burned the candle at both ends, so does this girl. She does the family wash on Saturdays (the off-day of a commercial laundry) and irons the home clothes in the evenings. No wonder that she "has grown weaker and paler since she began work" and that she wants "to get to bed as fast as she can, and hopes she will die soon."

SOME METHODS IN SAFETY ENGINEERING¹

III

GUARDING PUNCHES, PRESSES, ROLLS, AND GRINDING WHEELS

JOHN CALDER

GENERAL MANAGER REMINGTON TYPEWRITER WORKS, ILION, NEW YORK.

Punch and press machinery probably rank next to woodworking tools in frequency of accident, though usually the operative escapes with less serious injury. The mechanical engineer cannot be too careful in seeing that these tools are in good repair, particularly the actuating gears. Automatic roll-feeds, sub-presses, magazine, hopper, gravity slides, Fig. 1, and push slides feeds, Fig. 4, have done a good deal to eliminate the dangers of feeding such presses by hand, but much work already blanked must still be handled in this way in subsequent punching and pressing operations.

The increasing use of compressed air in mechanical industries permits of light pieces being blown off the die at the end of the operation by a cam-operated blast properly directed and timed, Fig. 4. The ordinary spring ejector serves the same purpose for heavier work. Yet there are many punches and presses running today without the efficient safeguards here illustrated, and even where they are to be found the principles are not carried out consistently at all necessary places.

Fig. 4 is an example of a convenient fly-wheel guard, ordinarily locked in position, which the author arranged for a large series of small bench power presses worked by females. Provision is made in it for the tool

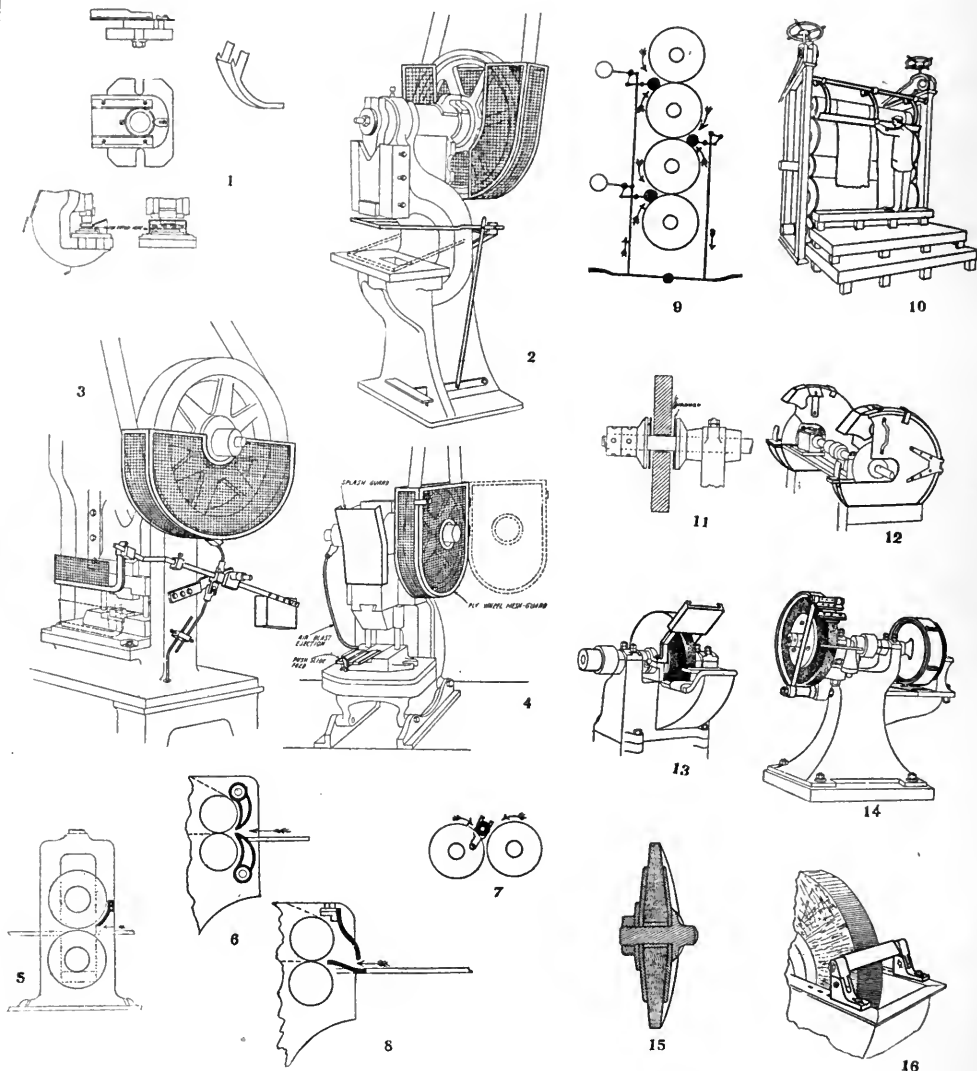
setter having ready access for moving the flywheel by hand without detachment of the safeguard and resulting failure to replace it. The work in this machine is fed in by a push-slide and removed by a cam-actuated air-blast. Figs. 2 and 3 show two forms of press guards, screen and bar respectively, which are timed to descend upon the operator's fingers, if in a position of danger, and secure their withdrawal before an accident occurs.

HAND-FED ROLLING AND GLAZING MACHINERY.

The third class of special apparatus essentially dangerous at the operating point is hand-fed rolling machinery of every description. A few of the safety suggestions which can be contributed by the mechanical engineer for this accident risk are illustrated in Figs. 5 to 10. At powerful hand-fed pressing and calendering rolls the injuries are usually very severe.

In the case of a single pair of large rolls, such as are used for paper glazing, Fig. 5, comparatively thin sheets of material are fed in, and it is possible, by having the feed-table level with the top of the lower roll and placing a bar, plate, or screen across the bottom of the upper roll, to guard effectively the dangerous intake by arresting the operative's hand when accidentally traveling towards it on the work. Fig. 8 shows this plan applied to rolls used for burnishing sheet metals. In Fig. 6, hinged guards, preferably of mesh-work, are used where the in-

¹From the *Journal of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers*. Two preceding articles by Mr. Calder were published as follows: I. Guarding Transmission Machinery, October 21; II. Guarding Woodworking Saws and Cutters, November 16.



GUARDS FOR PUNCHES, PRESSES, ROLLS, AND GRINDING WHEELS.

1. Gravity Slide Press-Feeds and Screened Punch
2. Automatic Bar Guard for Press
3. Automatic Screen Guard for Press
4. Guarded Flywheel, Splash Guard, Slide Feed, and Air-Blast Ejection on Bench Press
5. Guarded Paper-Glazing Rolls
6. Guarded Metal Roll Guards
7. Laundry Press Safety Roller
8. Guarded Metal Burnishing Rolls
9. Calendering Machine Safety Rollers
10. Calendering Machine "Starting In" Lever
11. Safe Mounting of Grinding Wheel
12. Adjustable Heavy Armor for Disc Grinders Subject to Rapid Wear and Shock
13. Safety Adjustable Hood for Disc Grinder
14. Safety Adjustable Hoods for Disc and Face Grinders
15. Safety Cone-Formed Grinding Wheel
16. Releasing Grindstone Rest

take of the rolls must be at all times visible and instantly accessible. The fixed forms of roll guards, however, wherever possible, are the safest.

It is found in practice that the chance of accident from hand-fed vertical rolls is considerably reduced when a feeding-table is used which keeps the operator at a safe minimum distance from the roll intake and necessitates a conscious effort to reach it. When rolls are operating on plastic materials, for example, in color-mixing and baking machinery, easy access for cleaning and scraping the rolls is essential, and a suitably placed rod attached to the top roll housing and rising and falling with it takes the place of the plate and mesh-guards already illustrated.

In laundry and cloth-finishing machinery such forms of protection are not practicable on the rolls, owing to the nature of the work. To meet such cases a light, smooth, auxiliary hardwood roll, Fig. 7, is substituted as a guard. It is pressed constantly against the main rolls by springs and is driven by them, but it fills the dangerous intake and arrests any part of the hand accidentally traveling towards the latter and in danger of being crushed.

In compound power-fed rolls with continuous webs of work, such as heavy paper and cloth-calendering machines, multiple floating guard-rolls as above described, Fig. 9, can be used, controlled and released by a system of levers whenever a break in the web necessitates restarting by hand-feeding. Fig. 10 shows a method of starting in by hand the feed of a cloth-calendering or similar web-pressing machine. A counter-balanced beveled board is used which ordinarily swings up and out of the way. With this the operator can with perfect safety push the cloth or other web home till it is gripped by the rolls.

EMERY AND OTHER GRINDING WHEELS.

Emery wheels, grindstones, and other abrasive tools when over-speeded or when strained or shocked while in motion within the limits prescribed by the makers sometimes burst with great violence and spread death and serious injury in the path of their flight. Various methods for confining the wheel fragments to the machine casing or at least rendering their velocity harmless have been worked out, and some of these are illustrated in Figs. 11 to 16. In all of them ample side clearance between the wheel and its casing is a primary requisite.

Fig. 11 shows the method of safely mounting the wheel and avoiding all initial stress due to wedging, keying, and driving it into the spindle. Fig. 15 is the cone-sided wheel so shaped that fragments due to a fracture starting at the wheel center cannot escape beyond the washer plates. Figs. 13 and 14 show various forms of armoring successfully used to retain fractured wheels on disc and face grinders.

December 16, 1911.

Fig. 12 is especially armored for large wheels subject to shock. It has hinged sides of plate steel and a strong cast-steel front guard, also hinged. The guard as a whole can slide parallel to the plane of the wheel to take care of reducing diameter due to wheel wear and the hinged front guard can be dropped to meet the same condition. Whels have been tested to destruction under all the guards illustrated without projecting fragments. Fig. 16 is a form of releasing grindstone rest which prevents accidents due to tools catching between the usual fixed rest and the stone.

JOTTINGS

A BUSINESS MEN'S GROUP

From a desire to see in practice the business ethics for which its society stands, the Business Men's Group of the Society for Ethical Culture was started last year. It has just issued a report of its year's work and a program of some intended activities. As described in *THE SURVEY* for December 31, 1910, this group "is an outgrowth of the ethical philosophy which, briefly put, teaches that the individual born into this world is surrounded with social duties; that these duties center in the paramount obligation to aid in the harmonious, all-embracing development of human society; and that the performance of these duties constitutes the chief object of existence."

This is the group's own statement of its objects:

"(a) To collect information on the best methods of improving industrial and business conditions and establishing right relations between employer and employe; (b) to inform the members of the group, to provide expert advice, and to put into practical operation the most practical things needed."

Says the report:

"The work of the group during the year 1910-1911 was elementary. First, a series of lectures was given by men and women prominent along various lines of industrial betterment. Secondly, the appointment of an expert in methods of industrial betterment as advisory secretary gave the group a unified and permanent character which it would not otherwise have had.

"As a result of this work some of the members have made definite beginnings in their own plants. In one factory a novel and successful library has been installed, another has adopted the suggestion system to the mutual benefit of employer and employe. Still another employed a woman of superior training to take charge of the female employe, etc.

"During the year 1911-1912 the group offers a series of lectures by the best authorities who can be secured. In addition to the lectures, the executive committee, together with a limited number of persons who are especially interested, will meet regularly each month. These meetings will be held as informal

round-table discussions, not only to consider the previous lectures, but also to discuss problems raised by members of the group."

LABOR NEWS LETTER

The weekly *News Letters* of the American Federation of Labor during November reported among other things that the membership of that body has reached the high-water mark of 1,756,735—an increase within the year of almost 200,000.

—At the recent Atlanta convention an exhibit in behalf of union label goods showed collars and cuffs, neckties, ladies' underwear, men's underwear, hosiery, knit goods, children's wear, and jackets.

—On March 1 a new law goes into effect in the city of Boston under which municipal laborers can be retired at half-pay after twenty-five years' service, if they have reached the age of sixty. Retirement at seventy is to be compulsory.

—The telegraph operators of the Southern and the Baltimore and Ohio Railways have come to an amicable agreement with the railway officials by which the employes of the Southern are to receive a wage increase of 12 per cent with fifteen days' vacation; of the Baltimore and Ohio, an increase of 6 per cent and a reduction in hours.

—The United Textile Workers' Association has taken steps toward affiliation with the American Federation of Labor.

—At a recent convention of Baptist ministers in Duluth a resolution was adopted in favor of a minimum wage of \$700 a year for unmarried, \$900 a year for married ministers.

GERMAN UNION CONDITIONS

A review by Hans Schlinger (*American Federationist* for December) of wages and hours of labor since 1905, compiled by the general commission of Trade Unions of Germany, contains the following table of wage increases:

Groups of Trades.	Number of persons affected.	Total amount of increase per week.	Average amount of increase per person per wk.	
			Marks	Marks
Building trades	396,489	1,100,543	2.78	
Metal trades	125,560	171,099	1.36	
Printing and kindred trades	10,332	15,185	1.47	
Wood working trades	96,114	178,210	1.85	
Food and drink trades	42,504	72,014	1.59	
Clothing and textile trades	66,541	113,630	1.71	
Transport and retail trades	41,213	87,523	2.12	
Other trades	66,816	107,112	1.60	

The large increase in the building trades is mainly the result of an agreement following a great lockout in those trades. It is interesting to note in this connection, that, taking all trades throughout this period of time, 73 per cent of the people whose wages were increased had not been locked out nor

on strike. In some cases peaceful negotiations ended in increases, in others several groups profited by the strike of one. The average number of hours' increase in the trades affected is three and one-third. The number of people affected by wage increases in 1910 is 829,376, by reductions in hours 345,684—in both cases the largest number in any single year. The majority are trades unionists.

CHICAGO STENOGRAPHERS ORGANIZE

The *Union Labor Advocate* reports the organization of three hundred girls in the Chicago local of the Stenographers' Union. They are aiming at "ten thousand members within a year, and a minimum wage, after one year's experience, of \$12. Other features of the union are a free employment agency, a night school in subjects bearing on their work, physical culture classes, a free medical bureau conducted by women physicians, and a fund for out-of-work pay.

NEW YORK MERCHANTS' ASSOCIATION

The annual report for 1910 of the Merchants' Association of New York, just issued, brings out the part of this association in bringing the express strike to an end last year. Another activity, in which the express companies and indirectly the cost of living are involved, were the steps taken by the association leading up to the express rate conference and ultimately to the thorough investigation by the Interstate Commerce Commission now going on. Locally the association has taken an active part in the movement for fire prevention, for the extension of the subway system in New York city, and for the protection of New York harbor against pollution from untreated sewage.

WISCONSIN BAKE-SHOP RULES

John B. Andrews, secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation, calls attention to an error in a paragraph published in this department in *THE SURVEY* for November 18, criticizing the Wisconsin "Bake Shop Rules. The provisions criticised as omitted from the rules are all provided for in the statutory law on the subject. Sections 1636-61 to 1636-67 of the Wisconsin Statutes include provisions in regard to water-closets, sanitation, cleanliness, and the use of cellars as bakeries. In addition, to operate a bakery in Wisconsin it is necessary to procure a license, and the law gives detail specification as to necessary sanitary requirements before the license may be given. "While the Wisconsin Industrial Commission may not be the final word in this field," writes Mr. Andrews. "I think we all feel that it is at least a step in the right direction."

A COOPERATIVE MINE

A recent issue of the *United Mine Workers' Journal* tells of a mining company formed by trade unionists in alliance with the Farmers' Union. All shares are owned by unionists; coal will be mined and hauled by unionists, and sold to unionists alone. The company is named the State Coal Company

and capitalized at \$200,000. The mine, which is situated at Erie, about seven miles from Louisville, undertakes to furnish fuel on twenty-year contracts at less than current rates. Years ago John Jarrett wanted the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers to own and operate a plant, so that in their bargains with the big employers of the trade the unions would know the truth as to market conditions and would also know more of the employers' administrative difficulties.

NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE

The second annual report of the National Employment Exchange (New York city) shows a deficit of \$9,699.46, which is about \$1,000 less than that of the preceding year, notwithstanding that both mercantile and manual departments have been moved, the latter to a much more expensive headquarters. The mercantile department shows the most tangible results as compared with last year, 1331 persons having been placed, as against 537 in the nine months covered in the preceding report, and, with 25 per cent less loss. In the manual department the actual number placed, 2398 men, is proportionately smaller than those placed, 4120, in the previous sixteen months of its existence. In general the exchange reports a difficult labor market, from its standpoint, as "during the winter months, orders for men were lacking and the unemployed were sadly abundant, and when in the spring work opened in the canal and elsewhere employers did not need assistance in finding men." Last year the majority of laborers were placed in contract groups. This year the exchange has undertaken the far more difficult and expensive task of placing single men, and a whole floor has been equipped as a waiting room—a "morning market"—where employers and men can meet.

THE AMERICAN MINING CONGRESS

At the session of the American Mining Congress this fall in Chicago the scope of the congress was widened so as to include coal operators as well as the men interested in metal mining. In the course of the organization's efforts for the establishment of the National Bureau of Mines, the co-operation of coal mining men was secured, so that the demand could be pressed in the name of the entire industry. The merger of the branches of the industry was a natural outgrowth of this associated activity. The congress endorsed legislation for just workmen's compensation and called upon the national and state governments for its enactment. A movement was started to secure federal appropriations for the maintenance of mining schools in the several states analogous to those for agriculture. The strengthening of the work of the bureau of mines was urged, including increased appropriations for experiments and the life-saving work of the bureau and for experimentation in the reduction of low-grade metal ores. The practice of "shooting off the solid" in coal mining was condemned, not only because

it increases the amount of fine coal, which is of little relative value, and requires the use of more powder, but also because it greatly increases the liability of "blown-out shots," which are destructive of life and property. This practice is prohibited in every European mining country, the law requiring that the coal be either undercut or sheared at the sides by hand or machine; but save in those American states which have recently legislated against it, the method is extensively used in the United States.

MIGRATORY WORKERS' UNIONS

In his address before the Atlanta convention of the American Federation of Labor, President Gompers reported progress on the resolution of the last annual convention, demanding the organization of migratory laborers, which was followed some months later by Andrew Furuseth's vigorous circular letter on the subject. President Gompers reports that he has himself investigated migratory labor on the Pacific coast and believes that, especially in view of probable increase of immigration to that part of the country with the opening of the Panama Canal, it would be well to establish a department for migratory workers in the American Federation of Labor. Austin Lewis, writing in the *International Socialist Review*, reports that since Furuseth's letter the United Laborers' Union has come into existence and is already affiliated with the federation. By far the largest and strongest organization of this character is, however, that of the Industrial Workers of the World, which is made up of lumber jacks and "blanket stiffs"—the typical migratory workers.

MINIMUM WAGES FOR TAILORS

The *London Daily News* reports that the British Minimum Wage Boards are at work fixing rates in a fourth sweated trade, tailoring. In chain-making and lace-finishing the new rates are in actual operation, and in paper-box making scales have been arranged. The present proposals of the Trades Boards would give a minimum of 14s. 10d. a week for women, 25s. 6d. for men. The vast majority of women tailors to-day receiving less than that. About a quarter of the women employed in shops are earning less than 10s; those employed at home-work earn still less. The rates fixed in the earlier industries affected only about 40,000. The rates in the tailoring trade will affect several hundred thousand.

THE RICHMOND VOTE

The labor papers feature, as the striking event of the recent convention of the American Federation of Labor, the resolution introduced by the United Mine Workers' delegates, demanding the resignation of union men from the National Civic Federation. The resolution was defeated by a vote of 11,849 to 4,559. This minority vote is regarded by many as a gauge of the radical and socialist elements in the labor movement.

SOCIAL AGENCIES

THE GROWTH OF THE BERRY SCHOOL IDEA

MARTHA BERRY

FOUNDER AND DIRECTOR OF THE BERRY SCHOOL, MOUNT BERRY, GA.

Next month the Berry School celebrates its tenth anniversary. It will be a homecoming time for the thousand boys who have gone back from this school to the country districts of Georgia. It will of course be a season for stock-taking on the part of the friends and graduates of the institution, so that the institution itself may continue to be an experiment station for further pioneering in meeting the educational needs of the neglected rural districts of the southern states. For, after all, the work this school has been able to carry forward among the poor boys and girls who have come to it is only part of the story. Its influence in leading the southern commonwealth to take up the educational needs it has revealed is of wider significance and is of more direct public concern. The state of Georgia has established eleven schools modeled after the Berry School. Visitors come from all parts of the country and we show them our schedule and our methods of grappling with problems we are endeavoring to solve. These are helpful to them in their own fields of endeavor. Schools in Virginia and the Carolinas have followed the Berry model.

Anniversary day, January 25, will be a time for re-telling the story of our beginning. Twelve years ago I was spending a Sunday afternoon for rest and recreation at my home place in the mountainous northwest of Georgia. Some small white children were wandering in the woods. They were poor and neglected.



THE SEED.

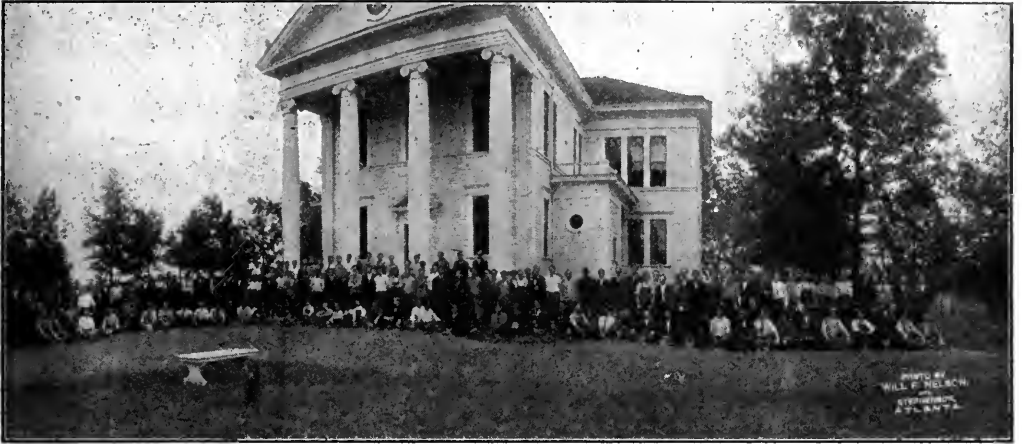
In this Cabin the first class was held.

receive an elementary education, be trained in useful arts and crafts, and come into personal contact with people of large vision and enthusiasm. It was up-hill work, but I set myself to the task of teaching those who came to the school how to read and how to work. It was no easy matter to get these children of the mountains to come with clean hands, and I resorted to a little stratagem. I brought a microscope that I had formerly used in botanical work and invited them to examine their finger nails under the glass. The result was that they soon began to vie with one another in having the cleanest hands and the neatest nails. In this, as in many other ways, I endeavored to inculcate the lesson of self-respect. Contact with these children of the poor white "renters" showed me that there was excellent material to work upon. They had none of the advantages enjoyed by the off-spring of the well-to-do.

I found here a hitherto untilled field and

To my inquiry, "What do you do on Sunday?" I received the answer "Nothing." Further questioning brought out that they had many brothers and sisters—in some cases as many as ten. I said that if they would come to this place next Sunday, I would tell them some stories from the Bible. They came, with their brothers and sisters and in some cases their parents.

My experience with this Sunday school work showed me the urgent need for a day school where these little children could



RECITATION HALL.

One of the buildings which show the growth of the Berry School.

determined to open the door of humanity to these ignorant and neglected children, in order to make them workers and participators in human activities, lifting them up and teaching them not to lean on others but to be self-supporting and self-respecting members of the community.

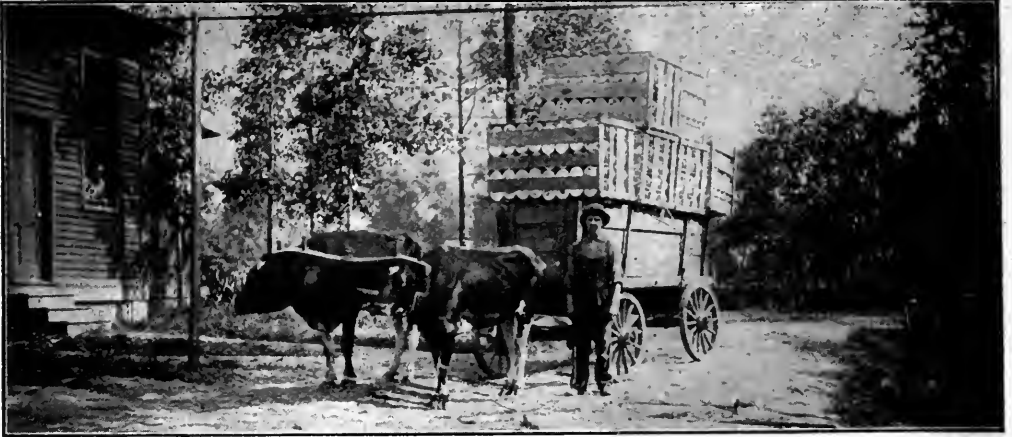
Soon after this work was begun, I started a day and Sunday school at Possum Trott, in which I had the assistance of a teacher. I afterwards opened several other small schools in various parts of the county. After two years' experience in this work I realized that the great need was for an industrial school, where children could be taught to work and come under the influence of cultured men and women.

Failing to interest my friends in this project, I went one day to a safe deposit box and took out a deed that had been given to me by my father when I was twelve years old. To a board of trustees I deeded the small school-house in which this work began, a dormitory that I had erected at a cost of \$2,000, and 150 acres of land, part of my heritage. My purpose was to give these poor white boys of the mountains an opportunity to gain a good education, and in turn to become teachers among their own people, pointing the road to improvement and uplift. My aim has been to introduce such a *morale* among the students and teachers alike that they shall carry out the high ideals on which this work was founded and built up. In a word, I have

striven to teach children in an industrial boarding school, amid elevating environment and in a Christian home atmosphere, how to live, work, and study, and how to make their own homes better and brighter places to live in. With a friend who volunteered her services for a year, I left my home and went to live in this industrial school.

At first we had only boys, about whom I learned much from a study of their habits and modes of thought. One washing day, I remember, none of them wanted to do the washing until I told them that I would have to do it myself if they did not. Then they cheerfully started in and took pride in doing the work well. Similarly in all departments I have found that the way to get boys to put forth their best effort is to kindle their pride in efficiently performing whatever task they have in hand.

The school thus started with 150 acres of land has now 2000 acres and a plant valued at \$200,000. There are now two schools, one for boys and one for girls. Scientific agriculture, farming, fruit culture, stock raising, and dairy work, as well as building and road making, are taught in the boy's school. The students do all the cooking, laundry, and housework required. The primary aim in the instruction of the girls is to make them home-makers. They are taught the scientific management of the home, the care of children, nursing, cooking, laundry work, gardening, weaving, and basketry.



A STUDENT.

Using yoked oxen to haul cans made at the school to the market.

We have now 200 boys and twenty teachers. In the girls' school, located a mile away, there are seventy-five girls and four teachers. In addition to other studies and useful arts they are taught to raise vegetables and do dairy work, such as making butter. We have also a settlement school, with fifty children. These are taught nursing, a most useful thing because of long distances from doctors and hospitals in that section of the country.

The Berry School is essentially a poor boy's school, one for country boys, the curriculum being arranged for them. No rich man's son can enter. As large a sum as a thousand dollars has been refused from one who desired to place a city boy in the institution; but no matter how poor a country boy may be, provided he has "grit" and will persevere, the door of opportunity is opened to him through the Berry School, although on account of lack of room many hundreds have had to be turned away.

The work has been built up by small gifts from many people throughout the United States. We have never had a paid field agent. I have gone about the country telling the simple story of this work. The first thousand dollars was left to us by the will of a New England woman who had lived in a small town and whose name was not on our list of donors. The tenth anniversary will be "Endowment Day," and an effort is being made to raise a permanent fund of \$100,000. Former teachers of the school have raised a thousand dollars as an endowment for a "Teachers' Day."

Many of our students have attained positions of trust and responsibility, and become potentialities for good in state and nation. One boy, Jim Hay, graduated last May and obtained a position in a creamery in Tennessee at fifty dollars a month. When he came to us four years ago he was worth about fifty cents per day. On Thanksgiving day four of the employes went off on "a spree." Jim set to work to accomplish their work as well as his own and by strenuous effort and by toiling far into the night he succeeded. When his employer heard of it, he signified his intention to raise his salary, at the same time expressing wonder at the quantity of work that had been done by Jim single-handed. Jim's explanation was characteristic. He said that he had learned always to make good if possible, always to win success if hard work and persistence could do it, and that he had simply carried the lesson from the school into practical life.

Another graduate, John Wade, was asked to give a drink of whiskey to every customer who was willing to vote for his employer's candidate for public office. He refused to do this, lost his job, and suffered considerably from long unemployment, but he remained faithful to the precepts of the school.

One of our students is a county superintendent in Alabama and has a hundred and twenty teachers under him. He puts heart and head into his work and is one of the

ablest superintendents of schools in the country.

We have turned out in ten years over one thousand boys, who are making their influence felt in the communities in which they live. This can be clearly traced in better roads, cleaner houses, and higher moral living. The teachers and students who have felt the purpose of our institution are moulding the lives of others and helping to spread the community spirit of service to one's fellow men. This has resulted in development among the poor white people of the South that only a few years ago would have been deemed impossible.

CHILDREN'S JUDGES FOR CHILDREN'S COURTS

Haltingly, one peg at a time, New York is nearing the stage when, like most of the other leading cities of the country, it will have children's court judges who are specialists in dealing with children, and who will give their time to this work and this alone, consecutively. Up to 1910 a different magistrate sat on the bench every month. Last year came an improvement, for the Chief Justice of the court of special sessions assigned only nine judges to the four children's courts, so that not more than four different judges sat in any given court during the year. Only New Yorkers, who knew something of the inertia which had to be overcome in getting the schedule down to this basis, could take comfort in such a sausage-link scheme of judicial service to the children. It is like putting a procession of general practitioners in charge of a babies' hospital.

At first glance, the assignments announced by Chief Justice Russell for 1912 seem an advance over those of last year. The total number of judges assigned to the children's courts is seven instead of nine, and it can well be assumed that this reduction was made by the chief justice in a desire to put the courts more fully in line with progressive practice. Yet a closer study of the calendar shows that the gain is not so substantial as it at first appears. When the sittings are analyzed, it is seen that at least two of the judges likely to be appointed have never done any children's court work, that there will be an average of three different judges in each of the four children's courts during the year, and that the average length of time that each judge will sit will be only two months. In other words, none of these men will be giving their whole time and energy to the children.

Clearly a judge who sits in the children's court but a few months in the year will not have the vital interest in that work that a man will have who is devoting his whole life and energy to the cause. A judge who hears hundreds of cases and can devote but a few minutes to each case will never fathom the

causes of juvenile delinquency; and unless there is continuity of service, some one man who can be held responsible for conditions and devote his entire time to the work, this method of handling cases will continue to be rushed and inadequate. Under the recent enactment of the Page law which runs:

"The chief justice shall have regard for the fitness of the justices so assigned and as far as practicable shall make such assignments for substantial periods to the children's courts," the law not only makes it possible but distinctly encourages the chief justice to assign justices to the children's courts who shall devote themselves exclusively to that work.

There are four courts in Greater New York, one in Manhattan and the Bronx, one in Brooklyn, one in Queens, and one in Richmond. It is therefore possible to appoint four judges, one for each court. By letting them alternate in these courts, the work of the more difficult court, that of Manhattan and the Bronx, need not fall entirely on one man, but these men would nevertheless be engaged exclusively in children's court work. In practically all the leading cities of the United States where there are children's courts there are special children's court judges. None of these cities would think of going back to the old method of having criminal court judges sit in the children's courts.

There are many improvements to be made in the equipment of the New York children's courts, for there are very grave and serious defects. There are many people engaged in this work who are striving with heart and soul to remedy these defects; so that it is not for lack of effort that more has not been done, but rather because most of the reforms needed can only be brought about by legislation and increased appropriations. There is, however, one way in which the children's courts in New York could at once be greatly improved; and this reform, which could be accomplished without legislation or increased appropriations, could be brought about as has been indicated by the assignment of judges who already under our present law are, or who are willing to become, specialists in children's court work, men who would devote themselves exclusively to that field. Herein lies Chief Justice Russell's opportunity; on his use of it hangs the well-being of thousands of boys and girls.

A NEW SETTLEMENT IN BOSTON

DANIEL BLOOMFIELD

Like all other specialized settlements, the Boston Music School Settlement, which was organized in November, 1910, and which has been remarkably successful, is an indication of the rapid growth of the social conscience. The North End of Boston, with its population of 35,000, chiefly Italians and Russians, is showing its appreciation of this settlement, which is at 110 Salem Street. by the hearty response it is giving to the work. It is not a mere

music school, although musical instruction plays the greatest part in its program.

The school is open to children of limited means, and the charge for instruction, including class work in sight-singing and musical theory, is \$1 per month. Scholarships are given to needy pupils who show that they can profit by the instruction. Among its activities, the school numbers a Wage-earners' Orchestra, which is to play in prisons and hospitals; a musical club for children; parents' meetings; lectures on health, civics, and music; excellent roof-garden concerts in summer, and recitals in winter. All are open to the public without charge.

The settlement has the services of Dr. L. R. G. Crandon, one of the best physicians in Boston, for its members and their relatives. He has operated on six children for adenoids and enlarged tonsils, and these and twenty-one others were given a two weeks' vacation in the country by Mrs. A. Lincoln Filene, the treasurer. A trained nurse took care of the children, teaching them the essentials of hygiene. The personal history and home conditions of each family are carefully investigated, the settlement co-operating with the social agencies of the city. The settlement is successful in reaching the parents because most often they can only be reached through their children, in whose advancement they are intensely interested.

The object is to instill a love for the best in music among the people of the immediate vicinity and adjacent neighborhoods. It is not the ideal musician who is placed before the child, but the perfect man and woman, whose education music rounds out. Through contact with the sympathetic workers of the school, the children are made to realize that their visions may extend beyond tenement walls and that squalor need no longer have a hold on them.

Mrs. Quincy A. Shaw, of whose benefactions Boston is so proud, gave new force to the work recently by donating a piece of land assessed at \$30,000, provided a sufficient sum for a suitable building is raised. If the plans for the new building materialize, there will be provision for fifteen class-rooms, residents' rooms, shower baths, a roof-garden, which could serve as a playground in winter, and a large hall to be used for educational motion pictures, public meetings, dances under supervision, and neighborhood dramatics.

HOME-MAKING IN TENEMENTS

ÉVA B. PALMER

District Agent Cleveland Associated Charities

The section of Cleveland known as the Haymarket is the most densely populated in the city; it produces the most cases of juvenile delinquency; the death rate is high, and the whole region seems hopeless to one who looks only on the surface. There is a constant movement of its people to better neighborhoods, their places being quickly filled by newly arrived immigrants. This foreign population is conglomerate, with Italians and Slavs predominating.

The Associated Charities has for six months been experimenting with selected families in the Haymarket to determine whether, given extreme poverty, two or three rooms, and a large family, a real home could be created. The educational housekeeper was introduced only into families where the charities agent had through long acquaintance established the most cordial relations and where she felt that the woman of the house could be benefited by her. The housekeeper is a woman of tact, who has had long experience in practical housekeeping, and who has an intense desire to help poor people. Her salary is paid by Calvary Presbyterian Church, which also furnishes her with additional money to provide such essentials for making an attractive home as she thinks best; but she works entirely under the direction of the Associated Charities.

The educational housekeeper never takes up so many new families that she cannot do thorough follow-up work with the old. The plan is, first, to create in the whole family, and especially in the mother, pride in the home. A start is often made with the walls. Wall-paper has been gladly donated by many firms and the housekeeper shows the members of the family how to put it on. The women are usually anxious for the improvement, but the men often demur at the work. In one place, the walls through years of neglect were almost black; the woman was induced to wash them, and later some blue paint and a brush were provided. The two little rooms were soon re-made.

When the housekeeper returned the next morning she found almost the entire contents of the two rooms out in the tiny yard. To her chagrin, everything had been painted blue—beds, chairs, and even the image of the Virgin.

"It was awful dirty," explained the woman.

The families were also given or induced to buy, if that was possible, white oil-cloth for the table from which they ate; a good quality of white cheese-cloth for sash curtains for all the windows; blacking for the stove, and, in some instances, spreads for the beds. The housekeeper worked with the mother at curtain-making and gained her confidence at the same time. She saw that a scrubbing-brush and a mop were part of the household equipment, and often had to provide lye to remove the dirt of years.

The housekeeper, using only such utensils as the home afforded, gave instructions in bread-making and plain cooking. She taught the women to systematize their work, and she was in their homes enough to enable her to plan with them a routine for each day's labor.

The girls from ten to fourteen years of age took a lively interest in the changes being wrought in their homes. They had heard the theory and seen some of the practice at school. "This is the first time in my life that I have wanted to stay home evenings," one young fellow of sixteen said. A good reading lamp and plenty of the magazines that are so easily solicited had been provided in his family.

THE TREND OF THINGS

Two verses on childhood, published in two Chicago newspapers, have enough of the same theme to be published here together:

THE VOICES OF THE CHILDREN.

—S. E. Kiser in the Chicago *Record-Herald*.

I find no rest upon the wide, blue sea,
For little children ever call to me—
The little ones I might have helped to save,
The starving ones to whom I never gave.

I find no rest when I lie down to sleep,
For ever I can hear the children weep—
The little ones who served me in their need,
The children whom I stunted in my greed.

I find no rest upon my rich domain,
For always I keep hearing them complain—
The children left to sicken and despair
Because I selfishly refused to care.

HAVE YOU PAID THE BOY?

—W. D. N., in the Chicago *Tribune*.

You have paid the boy for the toll you bought;
He has had the price of his weary days
When he crushed the dreams that would come
Unthought,

When he heard the call of the woodland ways,
And the endless drone of the whirring wheels
Held the subtle surge of the blurred refrain
Of the mumbling bees in the grass that steals
Through the meadow fence and along the lane.

And his eyes that strained as he did his task
Felt the weight of dreams, till mirages came
And the dust-grimed walls were a sullen mask
Of the far fair hills where the flowers flame,
And the cluttered floor was a thing to fade
To sweep of land with its velvet sod
And a laughing brook where a boy can wade
By the banks where drowsy blossoms nod.

You have paid the boy. Have you paid for all?
You have paid him fair for the work he gave.
But the pictures hid by the gloomy wall,
And the coaxing hands that the treetops wave,
And the country road where the wreathing dust
Marks the flying feet of a happy lad—
You have paid the boy, and your course is just;
Can you pay for the fun that he never had?
For his ways today are the ways of man
And his face is set with the lines of age
Tho' the years of his are a little span—
Was he paid for this when he got his wage?
You have paid the boy—but he paid you more
Than the days of toll that he gave to you,
For he wasted all of the untold store
Of the wonder dreams that he never knew.

* * *

In an article in a recent *Atlantic* George W. Alger analyses the mental attitudes toward law, democracy, and industry that on the one hand criticises, on the other defends, our courts. Among recent concrete counts against the courts he instances the bake-shop decision and the compensation law decision by the New York Court of Appeals. The latter was a tuning-fork which last winter set going a chorus of adverse magazine comment on our judicial system, much of which is only now appearing in the general periodicals. The ingenuous remark recently credited to President Taft, in an Idaho address, "I love judges and I love courts," has added the point of humor to the magazine criticism. Leaving out of account the *Appeal to Reason*, whose campaign against the courts is perpetual, the list of critics is formidable. Chief among them is *LaFollette's*, which has been running a series of

THE SHOP EARLY CARTOONS.



—Nelson Harding in *Brooklyn Daily Eagle*.

A MESSAGE FROM SANTA CLAUS.

fifteen articles by Gilbert E. Roe on Our Judicial Oligarchy. *The Public*, whose editorial vivisection of the courts has been one of its fighting assets, has now, apropos of the clause in Congressman Berger's Old Age Pension Bill providing against interference by the Supreme Court, set up a weekly column on How to Pull the Supreme Court's Teeth; *Pearson's* is running a series by Allen L. Benson on the Usurped Power of the Courts. More disemboweling to judicial complacency than any of these is Gustavus Myers's serial History of the Supreme Court, appearing in the Sunday magazine section of the *New York Call*. As in his treatises on the amassing of great fortunes, the author presents budgets of documentary material on the personal and class leanings of the judges.

* * *

"It is a question if it would not be better for the employer and employe if some form of national legislation were passed, or uniform legislation sought, in the states, providing a fixed scale of compensation for accident and injury, a percentage of the burden to be borne by the employe, the balance by the employer. The prevention of accident should be made a matter of mutual interest, and employe and employer should be organized into associations under government regulation for this purpose."

—This statement of P. A. Myers, chairman of the committee on legislation of the National Implement and Vehicle Association, ex-

presses the small employer's genuine conviction of inability to meet the full burden of compensation. It explains the support given by such associations as the National Association of Manufacturers to a scheme of national insurance carried on through employers' and workmen's mutuals.

* * *

A recent issue of the *International Moulders' Journal* was moved to go outside its field, and publish photographs of the work of Charles Haag, the Swedish sculptor who for the past two years has been living at Winnetka, Ill. The *Moulders' Journal* finds in him an artist who can interpret the struggle for existence spiritually; who "touched by the bitterness of labor's unremitting toil and inspired to tell the truth in its pathos or hideousness," gives to the world masterpieces of realism.

* * *

The *Union Labor Advocate*, organ of the Chicago Central Labor Union, recently had a leader on tree planting in cities. Twelve reasons for planting trees in the cities are, says the *Advocate*, that

Trees are beautiful in form and color, inspiring a constant appreciation of nature.
 Trees enhance the beauty of architecture.
 Trees create sentiment, love of country, state, city, and home.
 Trees have an educational influence upon citizens of all ages, especially children.
 Trees encourage outdoor life.
 Trees purify the air.
 Trees cool the air in summer and radiate warmth in winter.
 Trees improve climate, conserve soil and moisture.
 Trees furnish resting-place and shelter for birds.
 Trees increase the value of real estate.
 Trees protect the pavement from heat of the sun.
 Trees counteract adverse conditions of city life.

* * *

COMMUNICATIONS

STRIKES IN PUBLIC SERVICE

TO THE EDITOR:

As you point out in your editorial for November 18, there is a fundamental necessity for keeping the street cleaning and other public services in continuous operation. The remedy you propose is to extend the military law to cover those employed in such public services. As the military law is considered pretty drastic in its interference with the civil rights and liberties of the citizens employed and is only justified by most persons on account of its apparent necessity and its very limited application, let us consider how general a feature in the lives of the people this proposal of yours would make the military law, what the objections to it are from the point of view both of its general repugnance to our feelings of liberty and of its economic bearing on the lives of those affected, and also whether the continuous operation of the public services cannot be secured by means less drastic.

You would have the law apply "in the public service certainly and probably in the public service corporations." The purpose, of course, is to prevent interruptions in the furnishing of public necessities. For this purpose, every reason which can apply to extending the law to employes in electric light companies (which belong in the class of "public service corporations") would more than apply to extending it to employes in bakeries (which are not "public service corporations"). I presume no one will deny that bread is as much a public necessity as electric light. The reason for the distinction in law between a bakery and an electric lighting company is that the latter has certain public privileges which prevent rivals from furnishing the same service and it is therefore necessary to compel the company by law to

give the public the same benefits which competition is supposed to secure in the case of the bakeries. But furnishing labor for the lighting business is no more a monopoly than furnishing labor for the bakery business. If a number of electric light employes leave, their places can be filled as easily as can those left by bakers; the peculiar reasons that make the electric lighting company more of a public service than a baking company (namely the practical impossibility of securing a competitor in case the company shuts down or charges exorbitant prices) have no application when it comes to treating the lighting employes in a different manner from the bakeshop employes. A general strike of bakers will leave the public as helpless as a general strike of electric light men. In order that the law against striking may really protect the public, then, it must extend to almost all of the working class. By a strange coincidence, the *Call* which appeared the same day as your article (November 17) contained an editorial on the same subject in which it denounced such attempts to forbid strikes in the public service as efforts of the capitalist classes to entrench themselves against the day they are already beginning to foresee, and some of them to advocate, when "State Socialism" shall make everything a "public service."

Now as to the question of liberty. I am quite aware that the word has been used so often by our courts as a pretext for vetoing any legislation which savored at all of paternalism that arguments based on it look suspicious to those interested in social affairs. The statutes thrown out by the courts in the name of liberty, however, have been statutes which restrict a man's freedom only by forbidding some positive act, such as working more than a certain number of hours a day; the law you propose does not merely forbid some positive act—it commands the per-

formance of hard labor on terms set by outsiders, which is a very real deprivation of liberty. I am a free man even though certain acts are forbidden me (unless, indeed, those acts are essential to my life); I am not a free man when for any length of time I am required by law to do work against my will. If your proposal were to be carried out and extended pretty generally, as it would have to be to accomplish its purpose, most of the working class would be deprived not of some mythical right existing only in the mind of a judge, but a substantial liberty. We should have reached what Hilaire Belloc in his new and stimulating London weekly, the *Eye-Witness*, calls the "Servile State," a state which in spite of what he calls the "Security and Sufficiency" it guarantees to the working classes deprives them of their manhood.

You may answer that all this is purely academic, inasmuch as under your plan the workmen will be given such good conditions that, while in theory "compelled" to work, they would in reality be working voluntarily and on terms as good as or better than they could get by keeping their right to strike. Let us see. Your test of right wages is that they should be determined roughly "with some reference to the cost of living and of maintaining the prevailing standard of life." In the absence of such regulation, when wages fall below this standard, what is the reason? It is either that the men are at a disadvantage in bargaining and hence do not get all that their individual labor is worth, or else that, on account of the great abundance of that kind of labor on the market, that which each man can offer is worth less than it costs to keep him decently alive. In the first case, fixing a minimum equal to the full value of the labor supplied by each, either by law or by union action, is a perfect remedy; in the second, the only permanent remedy is to decrease the supply of that kind of labor without decreasing the amount each individual commands—either by limiting the birth rate of that class or by opening the doors of opportunity for members of it to go into more favorably situated trades. Short of this, raising the wage by compulsion to a point higher than each man's labor is worth will necessarily diminish the demand for that class of labor and cause unemployment—which may or may not be worse for the community than the previous state of low wages. Any attempt to keep up the demand by law must fail ultimately in case of competition; for if the employers are not allowed to diminish their forces they will presumably continue to turn out the same output, which of course they could not sell if they should raise prices; presumably, too (we are assuming a state of competition), before the advance in wages was decreed they were making only enough profits to keep them going; hence the loss due to the payment of higher wages will compel some of them to close down and the demand for that class of laborers will thus ultimately be decreased. If a monopoly were compelled to pay higher

wages and forbidden to discharge men, the legal increase of wages to a point beyond the value of the service rendered by each man might conceivably be brought about without causing unemployment.

But now suppose a case where, in the absence of regulation, some class of workers gets *more* than a living wage. (I am considering not the total income but merely the wage or salary). In the extreme cases, such as the \$100,000 salaries paid to presidents of corporations, the condition may be due partly to an advantage over the employer in bargaining power (the president may control the stockholders who vote him his salary) or to scarcity in the supply of that sort of labor, which renders the amount which any individual can furnish very valuable to the community. If the scarceness of this sort of ability is not due to any unpleasant feature connected with exercising it, it is not justice which makes this salary so much higher than a living wage, but the brute fact that this individual does control in his own person a quality of much greater value to us all than any that most of the rest of us possess. If it were possible to induce him by force or otherwise to use that quality for the common good, without taking its full value in return, the result would be more, just except in so far as it involved making him a slave. If the high pay of a certain kind of labor is due, however, not to scarcity of people able to do it, but to scarcity of those willing to do it, it must be that the job has disagreeable features as compared with others less scarcely supplied with labor, and there is no injustice if those performing it get the full value of what their individual services are worth, even if this is quite considerably higher than the cost of living. To lower these wages, even if they are still left above the cost of living, is in this class of labor to work a positive economic injustice, in addition to the human injustice of depriving men of their freedom not to work under compulsion. This very point in fixing wages your commission would most likely ignore, being intent only on the irrelevant inquiry as to the prevailing standard of life—an irrelevance exhibited in the expatiations of Mayor Gaynor and Commissioner Edwards on the magnificent remuneration of the street cleaners with their pensions and the rest, leaving wholly out of account the consideration that perhaps the emptying of heavy and dirty garbage cans alone at night may be a service which only wages even more munificent than those given can induce men to do without compulsion. Whether or not such is the case, if the present employes are dissatisfied with their work, can only be determined by a strike or by a satisfaction of the men's demands. If the bargaining power of the individual men were equal to that of the city, it could be determined by one man leaving; then, if his services were worth more than the old wages, no one would offer to take his place and the city would be forced to raise wages all round till they were equal to

the value of the services rendered by each. But, as a matter of fact, one man cannot leave and fight his employer even if in the end he *could* win; for meanwhile he would starve. No; the right to stop work in a body with his fellows is the only guaranty a man has that he can secure the full value of his services when that value is above the wages necessary for his standard of life; and securing that full value is, when the work is disagreeable, a matter of plain justice. It is most emphatically not true that, "When security of employment has once been established, and wages are determined . . . with some reference to the cost of living and of maintaining the prevailing standard of life, the strike loses its justification and becomes unnecessary."

Before establishing a law which would work the above-named injustices, we should be very sure that no other expedient will suffice to prevent interruptions in furnishing the necessities of life. Two plans suggest themselves to me offhand. One is to grant the demands of the men pending an effort to get *bona fide* substitutes on the old terms. Another is to forbid striking without giving say a week's notice pending the same effort on the employer's part—at the same time forbidding the employer to make the conditions of labor more onerous (as by a change from day to night labor) without giving the men time to strike before this change takes effect. If the city cannot get enough substitutes it proves that the service rendered is greater than the wages offered; otherwise it proves that that kind of labor is so common as not to be worth more than the old wages. Forbidding a strike without notice would, it is true, involve compulsory labor for a week, but it is labor of the same kind as the men had been doing voluntarily a week before, and one week of forced labor is not particularly repugnant to our feelings of liberty—it is no worse than when a man is drafted for jury duty. It is perhaps needless to add that an effort by an employer to secure *bona fide* substitutes for strikers is not the same thing as the temporary importation from distant cities of strike-breakers, brought here on Heaven knows what representations made to them by irresponsible agencies, on much easier terms than those the strikers had objected to. That sort of thing is as unjustifiable as is the practice of a trust in selling goods temporarily below cost until it has driven a rival out of business.

If then it be possible to secure continuity of our necessary services without depriving the great mass of the working classes of the fundamental liberty of selling their labor at their own price rather than at a price which would work them an economic injustice, let us by all means preserve for them that liberty.

ROBERT L. HALE.

New York.

[We agree that it is very desirable to secure continuity of necessary services without depriving those who render them of the right to strike, and we heartily welcome discussion

of alternatives. Neither of those suggested appears to us offhand to be fully adequate, and the plan of an impartial inquiry by an independent authority possessing public confidence appears to us more likely to secure a redress of substantial grievances, including even such an injustice as that of requiring night work for day pay.—Ed.]

TO THE EDITOR:

I have carefully read your article on the late New York strike affecting the street cleaning department, and confess to considerable surprise that not a word that I can find in it condemns the murder of Ferdinand Budnitz or the injuring of the twenty-six other men which you report. You do condemn the mayor of the city of New York for his action in not resorting to some other method than he did in connection with this crisis. You did not charge him, however, with any breach of the law or of the peace in any of his official acts. I should like to inquire whether you expect peaceable and law-abiding citizens to feel that you are fair or unbiased in your treatment of this subject.

GEORGE VAUX, JR.

Philadelphia.

[Mr. Vaux refers to Common Welfare paragraphs in the issue for November 25, 1911. Signed articles, editorials, and communications are THE SURVEY'S departments of comment. The Common Welfare is made up of facts and interpretations close to the facts from which readers make up their own judgments. Mr. Vaux is right in saying that these paragraphs did not condemn the murder of Ferdinand Budnitz; but a second reading will show him that neither did they condemn Mr. Gaynor for the methods he employed in dealing with the men. The killing of a strike-breaker in a street riot, that the strike hinged on peremptory decisions of the mayor's, and that his message was in striking contrast to methods employed by Colonel Waring were objective facts and treated as such.—Ed.]

TO THE EDITOR:

Every thoughtful citizen who has the welfare of his family at heart and would prevent a pestilence should demand that all reeking piles of garbage in uncovered receptacles, or dumped in vacant lots and on the streets, must be covered with a heavy layer of ashes for sanitary reasons as well as to hide from view the offensive and disgusting sight. Thus, while awaiting removal, the lye and potash in the ashes would act as a disinfectant and for a reasonable length of time preserve the garbage from decaying. In order to prevent the ashes from being scattered until the city provides properly covered carts (not a sail cloth, which is only put on after the wagon is fully loaded) every barrel of dry ashes (often thirty at one apartment house) should be moistened sufficiently to keep the ash dust from flying about. Surely this simple remedy must appeal to every householder.

FLORA SPIEGELBERG.

New York, December 11, 1911.

VOLUME XXVII, No. 12

THE

WEEK OF DEC. 23, 1911

SURVEY

SOCIAL CHARITABLE CIVIC



NOT IN THE NORTH WOODS

But on the roof of Hull House Boy's Club, the Third of the Elizabeth McCormick Open Air Schools for Tuberculous Children.

Page 1397

THIS ISSUE TEN CENTS A COPY :: TWO DOLLARS A YEAR

105 EAST 22D ST., NEW YORK

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THE PITH OF IT

"Know thyself!" Preaching this old Delphic message, the Men and Religion Forward Movement is spreading the gospel of social service among our modern cities, and awaking them to self-knowledge. The scheme and scope of the work: P. 1393.

In his annual report, Attorney-general Wickersham recommends a federal investigation of jails and reformatories.

The walk-out of New York's street cleaners and a year of strikes in the federal railway mail service make the Australian scheme of utilizing civil service commissions as a court of appeals in adjusting grievances in government employment worth looking into. P. 1402.

Jewish Farmers are no longer to be classed with horse manes and unicorns, and an agricultural convention in a crowded city is not a joke, so Professor Loeb holds. He describes the Federation of Jewish Farmers as an example of serious effort at self-help on the part of the scattered owners of small farms. P. 1403.

That loan shark companies operating under Maine laws "have their fingers on the throats of 200,000 wage-earners in New York alone" was one of the startling things said at the state conference of charities at Augusta this fall. A state board of charities proposed: P. 1399.

Competition with five-cent melodrama is the latest industry of a Boston settlement. P. 1401.

An anaemic child in the open air does in two-thirds of a minute what a normal child takes one minute to do in a stuffy school-room—that is what the experience of the Chicago open-air schools goes to show. P. 1397.

An occupational census of their graduates every five years, and modified entrance requirements to allow for the education demanded by modern life are some of the things wanted from colleges by New York alumnae. P. 1400.

William H. McClain, for the past eleven years general manager of the St. Louis Provident Association, and one of the best known charitable workers in the country, died December 7, in his sixtieth year. Bright's disease, hastened by over-work, had kept him from his office for months.

With a report in prospect from the special committee of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment on the relations between New York city and charitable institutions, the question of public subsidies is likely to become a live issue in New York as it is in Pennsylvania. Mr. Devine takes his stand against them in Social Forces. P. 1391.

THE SURVEY

Edward T. Devine, Editor Graham Taylor, Associate Editor

A Journal of Constructive Philanthropy

PUBLISHED WEEKLY BY

THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

Robert W. deForest, President; Otto T. Bannard, Vice-President; J. P. Morgan, Treasurer; Edward T. Devine, General Secretary

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SOCIAL FORCES

Private Charitable Corporations and Public Funds
Edward T. Devine 1391

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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

PRIVATE CHARITABLE CORPORATIONS AND PUBLIC FUNDS

Amos G. Warner, as clear headed and fair minded a man as ever put pen to paper in expressing an opinion on charitable issues, was vigorously opposed to all subsidies to religious and other privately owned and managed institutions. As superintendent of charities for the District of Columbia he had had personal experience with the workings of congressional appropriations to private charities in the city of Washington, and he had studied the operations of similar plans in New York, Maryland, and Pennsylvania. In his book on American Charities he states fairly the considerations, apparent or real, in favor of subsidies: economy, the better effect upon inmates by making possible dogmatic religious instruction, freedom from the blight of partisan politics and the spoils system, and the avoidance of the stigma of pauperism.

Against these considerations, however, he urged the much stronger arguments that private institutions receiving public money promote pauperism by disguising it; that its economy is only apparent, for the number of dependents increases so rapidly that eventually the charge upon the public is greater than if the alternative policy of caring for public dependents by public agencies were pursued; that the appropriating body is constantly subjected to special pressure, involving the risk of offending some powerful sect or nationality; that the subsidy system instead of taking the charitable institutions out of politics drags them into politics in a new and unfortunate way; that the system tends to dry up the sources of private benevolence; and that frequently it does positive harm to the charitable institutions themselves and may even wholly destroy their usefulness.

Warner points out that several states and municipalities have entered upon this policy of subsidizing private charities without ever deciding to do so, and even without perceiving that a decision was called for, each request for an appropriation being treated as a matter of administrative detail without significance as a precedent. Taking the care of dependent children in New York city as an illustration, he declares that it was about as business-like as though the city should try to get its streets paved by announcing that any regularly incorporated association that should pave a given number of square yards of street—location, time, and method to be decided by itself—should receive a given amount from the public treasury.

Since Warner wrote, seventeen years ago, the subsidy system in New York city has been changed for the better. Mandatory acts of the state legislature no longer require appropriations by the local authorities; except in the case of a few institutions, payment on a per capita and per diem basis has been substituted for annual lump appropriations; the city through its own investigations decides in advance on the acceptance of inmates as public charges; bills are audited to see that charge is made only for those who have thus been accepted; inspections by the State Board of Charities have been made more efficient; and certain rules and regulations have been adopted by the municipal Board of Estimate and Apportionment which are made a condition of including any given institution in the list of agencies entitled to receive public funds. During the past year

a very full official inquiry into the present relations between the city and charitable institutions has been made by a special committee of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. The results of this inquiry have not yet been made public, but it is evident from numerous indications that this committee has been finding some very unsatisfactory conditions. As it is the Catholic institutions which are most numerous and important, and as representatives of the institutions of that faith in advance of the publication of the report have seen fit to attack in the daily press the methods of the investigation and the rules which the board has already adopted, it is not amiss to point out that both Controller William A. Prendergast and John Purroy Mitchell, president of the Board of Aldermen, who constitute the special committee of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, are themselves adherents of the Catholic church, so that quite aside from the commanding place which both of these officials hold in the respect and confidence of the community, it will be difficult to try to convict them of bigotry, prejudice, or fanaticism against the institutions of that particular faith.

We do not assume that the report will criticize or attack individuals or individual institutions, much less any great religious body. We do not even assume that it will go to the root of the matter and recommend the total abolition of the subsidy system. We believe that system to be thoroughly unsound and un-American in principle. We believe that reformatories, hospitals, and children's institutions which are maintained by public funds should be owned and managed by the state or city, and that private corporations should be supported wholly by voluntary contributions. The excellent moral training given in the state institution at Industry, New York, and in similar institutions elsewhere, is a standing refutation of the contention that the subsidy system is necessary even in children's institutions.

This radical reform, however, is not now in question. We firmly believe, personally, that it is the only ultimate solution, but we have no idea that Messrs. Prendergast and Mitchell share our views. What they have probably discovered is the need for a more thorough inspection of financial accounts and a more adequate safeguarding of the city's interests. The rules of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment are reasonable and should be maintained if, as we assume, the subsidy system is to be continued. They make no change in principle in the relations between the city and the institutions, but simply make it possible for the first time to enforce the policy to which the state and city were fully committed when Senator Stranahan recognized the principle of home rule in securing the abolition of mandatory appropriations, when Controller Coler established his bureau of charitable institutions, and when the State Board of Charities, under its constitutional and statutory powers, adopted its rules concerning payments for inmates to private institutions.

It has been threatened that if the new rules are insisted upon the institutions will refuse in future to receive inmates as public charges. If, on this initiative of the institutions themselves, the axe could be laid at the root of the subsidy system, there would be no insuperable difficulty, in our opinion, in reintroducing in New York the healthier relations between charitable corporations and the public treasury which prevail and always have prevailed in the majority of our American commonwealths.

THE COMMON WELFARE

CAMPAIGNING WITH THE MEN AND RELIGION TEAMS

It will take time to count results or even things undertaken in the social operations of the Men and Religion Forward Movement. That is characteristic of all social movements in process, especially so of these quick, rousing manifestations of them which people have come to call "campaigns." Twenty American cities have now each felt the awakening impulse of an eight-day's visitation by one or another of the three teams carrying the message of the movement. Fifty or sixty more will feel it before the end of April. A fourth team enters the field in January.

This seven months' sweep of the country started at Minneapolis, Minn., and South Bend, Ind., early in October. First bearing down toward the Gulf of Mexico and then turning to the Atlantic seaboard, it will countermarch across the continent to the cities of the Pacific coast. Final campaigns will be conducted April 8-14 in Chicago, Toronto, New

York, and Brooklyn. During the week following a Conservation Congress will be held, and April 28 will be celebrated as Conservation Day in all participating churches.

But the activities of the movement, which aims at religious and social quickening of American community life, are not confined to these winter months of 1911-1912. It will be remembered that the plan was originally conceived over five years ago by Harry Arnold, at that time secretary of the International Committee of the Young Men's Christian Association, and was at first discouraged because it was regarded as too large to be attempted. The movement was definitely launched in May, 1910, with the appointment of a National Committee of Ninety-seven composed of men of affairs throughout the country, with James G. Cannon, of New York, as chairman. The conduct of the campaigns was placed in the hands of Fred B. Smith, then head of the religious work department of the International Body of the Young Men's

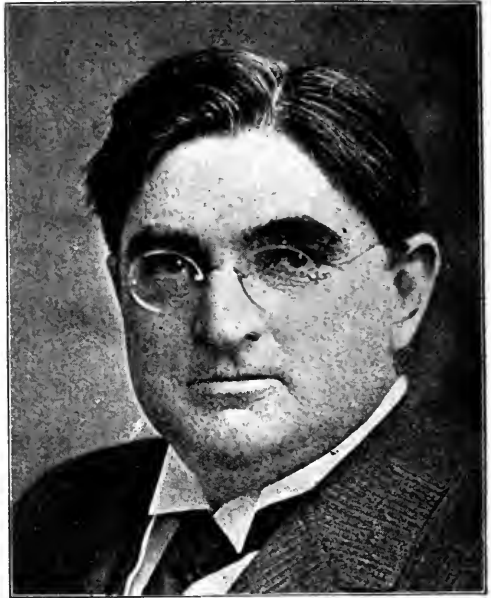
THE SHOP EARLY CARTOONS.



Drawn for THE SURVEY by Charles Winner of the Pittsburgh Post.
THE ELEVENTH HOUR RUSH.



JAMES G. CANNON.
Chairman National Committee of Ninety-seven.



FRED B. SMITH.
Leader in charge of campaign.

Christian Association. Thirteen church brotherhoods took up the movement.

Although the teams of specialists will conduct their campaigns in seventy or eighty chief cities, the plan has been to spread the impetus of the movement out from these centers, so as to reach, through local co-operation, every town and hamlet in the country. The task of rousing these focal points in the fight for better living and better conditions is thus but the beginning of the undertaking.

THE WEEK AT DES MOINES

Each city, before a team visits it, is given from four to seven months for a quick survey of local religious and social conditions. These inventories are usually conducted by the churches and are in most cases necessarily of a fragmentary sort. Sufficient data is gathered, however, to give the travelling teams points of contact in applying their regenerative gospel, and the visiting specialists reach down into the situation. The work of three teams is divided under five heads:

social service, boys' work, evangelism, bible study, home and foreign missions. Each field is represented by an expert. With the help of interdenominational committees of local men, broken to team work before the arrival of the outside leaders, this visiting staff carries forward its educational work through the medium of lectures and institutes delivered in churches, public halls, shops, railroad yards—wherever men and boys congregate..

In Maine, not yet reached by a travelling team, the Men and Religion Social Service Committee is preparing to fight the loan shark. In Kansas City, Mo., they are taking up the boy problem. In Grand Rapids, municipal censorship of moving pictures has become an issue. These are fragments of accomplishment—straws which show the drift; and that some of the currents set in motion will be deep and searching the past records for fearless social democracy and spiritual zeal of several of the team leaders is indicative. In Des Moines Raymond Robins stirred the churches to an intensive survey of the values and reach



RAYMOND ROBINS.

A Chicago citizen who has stood aggressively for democracy in industry, civics, and education.



CHARLES STELZLE.

Superintendent Department of Church and Labor, Presbyterian Board of Home Missions.

of their own work. As former head of the Chicago municipal lodging house, Robins was able to drive home the neglect by the town of the needs of its homeless men, made it see the drama and appeal in the out-cast and foot-loose and down-and-out, in the young boys and inarticulate drifters headed no man cared how, without practical means held out to salvage them, much less to understand. The head of the Calvary Baptist Church immediately took the train for Chicago to inspect the municipal lodging house there, while a report was made on city and county jails. This drew from the council an appropriation of \$25,000 towards such a lodging house in Des Moines, and the local committee has followed the matter further by taking up plans for the establishment of an industrial colony for vagrants. Steps are being taken also for the formation of a joint social service registration bureau, which will receive reports from all of the charitable organizations of the city. Another committee is at work to secure legislation making possible fuller vital statistics than are now available.

December 23, 1911.

Union labor in Des Moines has long been planning the erection of a labor temple. The "forward" week has brought the project to a head.

UP-FROM DALLAS

The story of what the Men and Religion campaign meant to Dallas, Tex., and of the methods adopted, is told for THE SURVEY as follows by the Rev. Charles Stelzle, dean and social service specialist of Team I, who led the fight. Dallas was subjected to a searching inquiry with reference to its social conditions during the Men and Religion campaign in that city. Not only was the social service expert of the team and the local committee on the job, but it happened that during the week of the campaign several social investigators were in town to stir up the people in regard to their specialties:

The city took us all seriously—and gracefully. The fact that the officials of the town gave so much attention to the subjects under discussion is a matter for congratulation.

Like many another fast-growing city in



DR. J. L. LANSING.
Social service specialist for Team II.

the South and West, Dallas had not realized that it needed the machinery of a modern American municipality. It has no housing laws, no garbage collector, no inspector of water nor meat, scarcely an adequate inspection of milk, and the laws with reference to the social evil were not enforced on account of the evident laxity of public opinion concerning the matter. The churches as a whole are conservative in their attitude toward social problems, but as a result of the Men and Religion campaign a decided advance has been made. The social workers themselves are not adequately organized. One of the recommendations made by the social service specialist of the movement was that the social workers of the city adopt a standardized program regarding the problems common to all.

During the campaign several important conferences were held with various groups interested in social questions, and at least half a dozen platform meetings of great value were conducted. On the first Sunday afternoon a mass meeting for workmen was held in one of the leading theaters. Considerable enthusiasm was aroused by the presentation of the ethical and moral values of trades unionism and the relation of the church to these questions, a plea being made for "a square deal" for the worker as well as for the church. The Social Service Institutes each afternoon were very largely attended, the interest in the discussions being most intense. The whole thing seemed new and fresh to many of the men who had for so long a time been occupied almost exclusively with the study of purely theological subjects.

But the greatest meeting of the week was that held in the Dallas Opera House on the last Sunday afternoon of the campaign, when 1,500 men listened for more than an hour to a presentation of social conditions in the city. During all of the previous week special investigations were made, and the findings were plainly and frankly discussed. At times the feeling became so strong that the speaker could scarcely proceed. At the conclusion of the address the great audience applauded for several minutes, and rising one by one practically the entire crowd of men stood and cheered, in the intensity of their desire to see something done.

During the progress of the address the recreational life of the people was discussed, a plea being made for a constructive program as well as a negative attitude with reference to the saloon, the motion picture show, and the social evil. Housing conditions were talked about. It was discovered that 3,451 families live in houses that rent for less than \$10 a month, and 4,178 families pay from \$10 to \$15. The unsanitary state of many of these houses was depicted, specific cases being mentioned. One of the immediate results of the story was a quick cleaning up campaign by the city authorities.

When the social evil was discussed, the statement that a carpenter who owned seven small houses in the "Reservation", or red light district, would not rent them for immoral purposes brought forth tremendous applause, in strong contrast with the feeling displayed when mention was made of the action of a number of men and women of wealth who had no principles in the matter. Every one of the carpenter's houses were vacant.

A campaign of education was urged upon the audience and the city as a whole, the more general use of the public schools and the public library was recommended; numerous other suggestions were made, among them for the appointment of a vice commission—similar to those appointed in Chicago and Minneapolis—the appointment of a bureau of municipal research and efficiency, a closer cooperation between the churches and social workers, an open forum for the discussion of social and economic problems, the exchange of fraternal delegates between the ministers' association and the central labor union, and the appointment by the churches of a committee on legislation. Some of these recommendations will be put into effect at once.

DEATH MATCHES ARE UP TO CONGRESS AGAIN

Perhaps it was the old instinct to fear the Greeks bearing gifts which prevented the passage last winter of the Esch bill, which proposes to add the United States to the ranks of the nations which have joined hands in a world-wide fight against poisonous phosphorus. At all events, when the council fires of Con-

gress are lighted again this month, the poisonous phosphorus will be found again among the kindlings for debate.

Chairman Underwood has notified Congressman Esch of Wisconsin that the hearing on his bill will be held before the Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives the morning of January 10, 1912. This bill aims to prohibit the manufacture and sale of poisonous phosphorus matches by taxing them off the market under the internal revenue powers of the federal government. It is expected that the friends of the bill will have a large representation at its hearing.

It is over a year ago that the American Association for Labor Legislation began its campaign to induce Congress to pass a measure calculated to protect match workers and the public. Largely as a result of an investigation of the match factories, by John B. Andrews, secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation, which showed the dangerous effects of current methods and which was published as a report of the Federal Bureau of Labor, the Diamond Match Company made overtures for granting licenses to its smaller rivals for the use of sesqui-sulphide of phosphorus, the most used of the harmless substitutes for the white (poisonous) phosphorus. The right to this compound was held in the United States by the Diamond Match Company. Although the smaller companies were not averse to doing away with white phosphorus, they were slow to come to terms with a rival, big enough to be known as the match trust, which might, through its ownership of a patent for robbing phosphorus of its perils, be seeking to gain a monopoly control.

After several successive steps taken by the Diamond Match Company to overcome this fear, the company finally, in response to publicity and the appeal of President Taft, cancelled its patent so that Congress might abolish "phossy jaw" free from misgivings. Thus the trust made every possible concession. It could not, however, force the harmless substitute (which even it did not use) upon its competitors; and as the safe way to make matches costs more than the unsafe way, and as match-manufac-

ture is largely a local industry—not to be reached by the interstate commerce laws—the only way open to bring the whole trade in the United States up to the standard of the other civilized nations remained through that form of compulsory legislation used by the federal government with respect to banks.

When the bugaboo of "monopoly" was thus met Congress had reached the confused hour of adjournment and, partly owing to a deadlock between the conferees of the two houses, no definite action was taken. In the intervening months, however, further investigations have been made into phosphorus poisoning, and several recent deaths in the most sanitary factories tend to prove that prohibition of the poison is the only remedy. Several of the match companies have now experimented successfully with the sesqui-sulphide formula, and although the poison is still used in every American match factory, at least two factories are producing safe matches for public sale. But, in the view of those studying the problem, so long as the old style match is slightly cheaper to manufacture and so long as it is a little easier to strike, it will continue to be asked for and sold, unless bad matches are put out of existence by the long arm of the federal government.

STILL ANOTHER OPEN-AIR SCHOOL

Educators, campaigners against tuberculosis, and philanthropists the country over who have been following the pioneer work of the open-air schools in Chicago will be interested in the latest advance step—the establishment of Elizabeth McCormick Open-Air School No. 3 on the roof of the Hull House Boys' Club. This school will be maintained, as are the other two of the same name and the six "open-air rooms" in the Chicago public schools, jointly by the Board of Education and the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund, the board supplying the teacher and the regular school equipment, and the fund furnishing the clothing, medical supervision, food, blankets, and cots. At the opening exercises the results already attained in the

fresh-air schools and the pressing need for an extension of the work were strongly brought out in addresses by Ella Flagg Young, superintendent of school, Jane Addams, Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen, Dr. Theodore B. Sachs, Dr. James A. Britton, Health Commissioner Young, and Sherman C. Kingsley, director of the McCormick Fund.

The results of the schools so far established show that the pupils can in the fresh air accomplish in two-thirds the regular study time as much as normal children ordinarily accomplish when they put in full time under the usual unsatisfactory ventilation conditions of school rooms, and when their habits out-

side of school hours are without supervision. And this in spite of the fact that the children, by the very evidence of their selection, are physically weak. The nine schools now in operation can accommodate 300 children. These are only a small fraction of the number needing this treatment. To show how pathetically urgent is the further need, Dr. James A. Britton told how, with accommodations at the new school for only twenty-five, he had to sift and sift the 200 applicants for the cases which most needed the chance. He reduced the number to thirty consumptive, crippled, anaemic children whom nothing except constant medical attention and plenty of fresh air and good food could save. Still there were five too many. Selecting these was like passing a death sentence upon them.

Mr. Kingsley's report on the McCormick Fund called attention to the far-reaching possibilities of the work. He said:

Delegations from all over the country come to learn what we are accomplishing, and many similar schools have been established as a result. The most valuable work now being done is that at the conferences of physicians and nurses in charge of the schools to bring out the results of their observations as to the best method of selecting and feeding the children and the most practicable school routine. In this way we hope in a few months to have gathered a body of data which will be of value not to Chicago alone, but to the whole country, in the proper care and training of both normal and sub-normal children. As these open-air laboratories continue to prove what handicapped children can do under proper hygienic conditions, they will become more and more graphic arguments for the development of similar methods



FOUR OF THE OPEN-AIR SCHOOL CHILDREN.

Mrs. Cyrus H. McCormick standing beside them. Mr. and Mrs. McCormick, the donors of the Elizabeth McCormick fund, backed the Child Welfare Exhibit in Chicago last spring.



AT THE DEDICATION OF THE OPEN-AIR SCHOOL.

From left to right: Ella Flagg Young, superintendent of schools; Sherman C. Kingsley, director of the Elizabeth McCormick fund; Dean Walter T. Sumner, member of the Board of Education; Health Commissioner Young; Cyrus H. McCormick; Mrs. Cyrus H. McCormick, Sr.; Mrs. Cyrus H. McCormick, Jr.; Jane Addams.

in our public schools on grounds of economy and efficiency as well as humanity. Most important of all is the attention which these efforts center on the whole school problem—the necessity of knowing the physical as well as the mental individuality of each child, and of securing right ventilation and hygiene for all school children.

**MAINE FOR A STATE
BOARD OF CHARITIES**

One positive thing done this fall at the Fifth Annual Maine State Conference of Charities and Correction was the launching of an active campaign for a state board of charities. This step was not on the program; but when Jeffrey R. Brackett, director of the Boston School for Social Workers, described the conditions frequently found in local almshouses, and told what classes of inmates now housed in them should be removed to state institutions for special care, the Rt. Rev. Robert Codman, bishop of the Episcopal Dioceses of Portland, roused the meeting with a strong appeal for such a board. "I mean one that will serve without pay," said Bishop Codman. The executive committee was thereafter empowered to appoint a committee to work for legislation to this end. At present thirty-two states and the District of Columbia have such boards, or

bodies with similar functions. A consciousness of state needs ran through the discussions at this Augusta meeting. Thus, William R. Pattangall, state attorney general, while expressing satisfaction with the child labor legislation of the state, which forbids employment of those under fourteen years of age and provides a certain amount of schooling for all between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, said that he saw in the demand on the family side for the employment of children the evidences of social maladjustment. In nine cases out of ten, he said,

the labor of children of tender age in mills is due to extreme poverty of the parents. Safeguard the lives of the children by bringing about the sentiment that no industry has a right to exist which does not pay a living wage.

E. Stagg Whitin, general secretary of the National Committee on Prison Labor, reviewed the state use system instituted in New York by a constitutional amendment in 1894. This provides that the labor of the prisoners shall not be sold nor leased but that the state itself shall produce what the state itself can consume in hospitals, schools, and other governmental activities. Though adopted *in toto* in but four other states, this

system has led, he said, to modifications in methods in thirty more. The speaker summarized the practical philosophy behind prison labor reform as follows:

The feeling is abroad today that it is the state's duty not only to provide labor for its convicts but labor of such a character as in no way to penalize the free artisan; that while the prisoner should not be exploited for private gain he should be worked efficiently, so that his greatest productivity shall result in the remuneration to the state of the full amount of his cost to it and so that his wife and children shall be supported by the sweat of his brow, on that standard of decency which will ensure that his offspring be not forced by economic pressure to remain in the criminal class in which inheritance has placed them. We ask that the prisoner be educated by his work in a type of industry in which he can be employed upon release and that his wife and children have the same protection and the same rights as are guaranteed to the wife and children of an untainted man. We point to the opportunity placed before the governor and legislature of the state to be the model employer and board of directors over these prison industries and at least to sustain that standard of high public honor and unselfishness which they through legislative act have been demanding from the employers of free labor.

INTERSTATE BLACK-MAIL

In an address on how loan shark operations carried on from Portland impoverish New York's wage-earners, Arthur H. Ham, as representative of the Russell Sage Foundation, made a presentment against the Maine laws. He said:

The laxity of former legislatures in dealing with the question of usury and the small loan evil has attracted within the borders of Maine fifteen of the most successful loan shark operators of New York. These men, knowing that a borrower can set up the defence of usury in New York if the lender's business methods become too oppressive, and knowing that any rate of interest is legal in Maine under contract, and believing that a contract made in one state is enforceable in another, have elected to make the city of Portland the scene of their operations. Ordinarily Jersey City is the favored rendezvous of shysters who make a business of operating in the fertile field of New York, yet even New Jersey has enacted laws strict enough to discourage the loan shark from plying his trade there, and he deems it wiser to come to Portland. The loan shark business has created a system of slavery more frightful in its effects in many instances than the serfdom of Russia or the conditions once existing in our southern

states. And yet the old state of Maine, from which emanated the message that played such an important part in the abolition of slavery, is today perhaps unwittingly assisting in the continuance of another system of slavery that has its grip on the throats of 200,000 wage-earners in New York alone.

Another challenge to the state came in the form of a demand for a state-wide campaign against tuberculosis. "A strange apathy exists toward this problem in Maine," declared Dr. Vincent Y. Bowditch, of New York. The amount appropriated by the state for stamping out a recent epidemic of glanders among horses and that given to stop the spread of tuberculosis were contrasted by Dr. A. A. Downs, of Fairfield, who explained it this way:

When a man in the woods has an employe incapacitated by tuberculosis he can get another to take his place, but in the case of a pair of horses it is a dead loss of \$200 to him.

In its statement of accomplishment (as in the discussion of visiting nursing and of the incorporation of hand work and medical inspection as part of the state educational policy), no less than in its frank canvass of state neglect and needs, there was evidence of social awakening in this Maine gathering.

THE COLLEGE WOMAN AND THE VOCATIONS

A new note was struck at the recent annual session of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae which met this fall in New York city. Vocational guidance and vocational opportunities are, if not new phrases in the councils of the association, new at least in emphasis and in their revelation of the power with which a changed educational view-point is forcing itself upon the public mind. Said one active in the work of the body:

Since its foundation in 1882 the association has devoted itself to the establishment and maintenance of the highest standards in the liberal education of women. It is noteworthy, therefore, that without in any way losing sight of this purpose it is meeting the needs of the day by turning its attention to the results and uses of such an education in the world of industry and affairs.

Two years ago the association created

a standing committee on vocational opportunities other than teaching for the trained woman. This committee prepared from the registers of graduates issued by the different colleges a classified card catalogue of college women in non-teaching occupations, and sent schedules to nearly 1,500 of these women, calling for specific information as to the work in which they are engaged. It plans during the coming year to begin the preparation of a bulletin listing all existing opportunities for training and apprenticeship in non-teaching occupations open to women, and also to supply concrete vocational information to the college press. It is conducting its investigations in close relations with the two employment agencies for trained women who wish work in lines other than teaching—the Appointment Bureau of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union of Boston, opened in 1910, and the Intercollegiate Bureau of Occupations in New York, opened in October, 1911. Both agencies are under educational rather than purely business auspices; both are managed by college women, and have advisory boards made up of college authorities; both are organized to carry on research studies in vocations for women as well as to make placements. The New York Intercollegiate Bureau of Occupations is under the direct management of local alumnae organizations, representing eight of the leading institutions for the higher education of women.

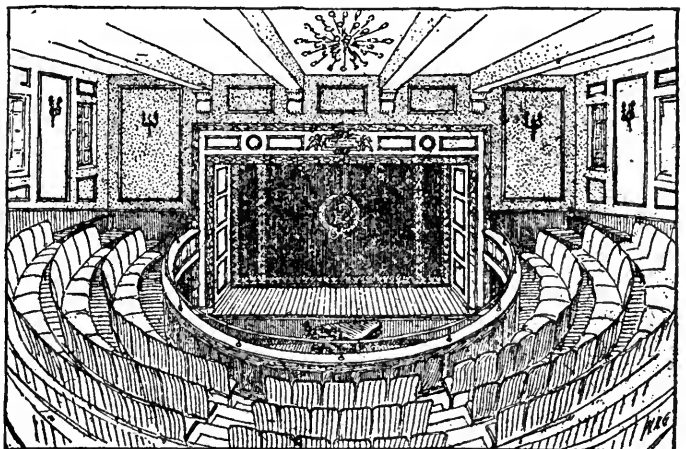
One open session was devoted to the discussion of vocational opportunities and vocational guidance; and an appointment bureau conference was held, at which representatives of various institutions admitting women discussed the practical problems involved in recommending college graduates for paid positions. Possible modifications in the entrance requirements and curricula of the

women's colleges, and the education demanded by modern life were other topics on the program bearing indirectly, if not explicitly on the question of vocations.

At the appointment bureau conference the matter of more exact and uniform occupational records of college women was discussed, and it was suggested that the colleges be asked to co-operate in making an occupational census, to be issued every five years, the schedules to be prepared with the advice of statistical experts, so that the results might be compared with the returns of the United States census regarding the occupations of women in general. The need for fuller cooperation and for more exact and more readily comparable information appeared to be generally recognized, and the differences of opinion concerned themselves with practical ways and means. The representatives of several of the western universities were especially alive to the importance and the scope of the work that might be legitimately done by the colleges in assisting their students, both men and women, in the finding of the right sort of occupation.

A SETTLEMENT THEATER VS. "NICKEL THRILLERS"

The problem of community amusement for young and old has been carefully considered in the plans for the new Elizabeth Peabody House in Boston; and next year, when the building is completed, the residents of the west end will have a completely appointed theater as



PROSCENIUM ARCH AND STAGE. ELIZABETH PEABODY HOUSE.

a counter-attraction to the cheap shows which now partially supply the amusement demand. The auditorium, occupying the entire first floor of the new building, will be a welcome addition to the community life of the district, which has long been handicapped because of inadequate facilities for neighborhood meetings. The new theater, in balcony and orchestra, will seat about 400 people, and the comparatively small size of the hall will make possible the close relations between audience and stage which are out of the question in larger auditoriums.

Nor is it the plan that the audience is always to stay in front of the footlights; for the new theater is to be a real neighborhood center, where the residents are to entertain themselves, as well as be entertained by others. Gaelic, Yiddish, and Italian dramas, together with numerous folk plays, will help keep alive the interest in the old country; and stage-settings and costumes will, as often as possible, be provided by the people of the neighborhood. English plays, including Shakespearian drama, will also be produced, and it is expected that dramatic groups from private schools and church clubs will be glad to "go on the road" for perhaps a week's stand in the west end theater.

Moving pictures, which will play a large part in the program, will be supplemented by first-class vaudeville and occasional stereopticon lectures. How widely the theater in Elizabeth Peabody House will attract its audiences from the "nickel thrillers" which abound in the community will be watched with more than local interest.

EDITORIAL GRIST

THE PROPOSAL OF THE POSTAL MEN

MARY BROWN SUMNER

Two recent events call attention to the lack of any machinery in important branches of government employment in the United States by which groups of employes may secure a hearing on mat-

ters upon which they feel the rulings of their departmental heads work them an injustice. These are the strike in the Department of Street Cleaning of New York, which followed the refusal of mayor and commissioner to act favorably upon the application of its drivers for discontinuance of night work, and the series of strikes throughout the federal railway mail department the past year, following the failure of the men to get through an appeal to the postmaster general certain substantial changes in working conditions which they held to be intolerable. Without any other channel through which they could act, the garbage men struck and were discharged wholesale from the municipal service, before either they or the public formulated any demand for a more impersonal method of settling grievances. Not all dissatisfied postmen have, however, been cleared out of the post office department as a result of the sporadic strikes running through the past year; and two of the most powerful and conservative organizations among the employes in the department, the United National Association of Post Office Clerks and the National Association of Letter Carriers, passed resolutions at their recent annual conventions asking for amendment of the federal civil service law to provide a court of appeals under the jurisdiction of the Civil Service Commission, to which all grievances of employes might be referred. Such a court would mean a very wide extension of the power of the commission, which now passes only upon cases which involve alleged infraction by the heads of department of the rules established by the commission.

The Public Service Boards of four Australian states furnish examples of the extension of the powers of civil service commissions in these directions. American commissions possess the power of conducting examinations and determining eligibility of candidates; of establishing certain classes of rules and ratifying rules made by departmental officials; of passing on appeals involving allegations of violation of these rules; and of extending the scope of the civil service restrictions to include new

groups of government employes. To these powers the Australian boards add not only the power asked for the federal commission by the postmen—to decide on all complaints and appeals of subordinates from the decisions of departmental heads—but they supervise and investigate the work of all departments, make promotions, regrade the service from time to time—at least once in ten years—and readjust salaries on the basis of the cost of living and the wages prevailing in industry. Members of boards are appointed by the governors and can be removed only by vote of both houses of the state legislatures. American executives would doubtless look askance at such complete control of their administrative forces by an outside board; but certain phases of the Australian plan may well afford experience which will be serviceable in judging of the plan which the American postal employes have set out to make a live question.

THE JEWISH SETTLERS

MORRIS LOEB

The recent third convention of the Federation of Jewish Farmers, at the Educational Alliance, has been treated more or less as a joke by the public press; there were doubtless many readers who deemed it a fantastical exhibition, incident to an artificially stimulated movement. It is true that there is an apparent anomaly in holding agricultural conventions in crowded cities, though the idea of making propaganda among their coreligionists to abandon the sweatshop for the farm was doubtless a factor in selecting the place of meeting. But the time has gone by when it was proper to class Jewish farmers with horse marines and unicorns. Probably as the very result of governmental inhibition of land ownership abroad, the land-hunger of the Russian and Roumanian Jew is a very real thing, and the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society has long since abandoned the idea that missionary work is needed to tempt city-dwelling immigrants on to the land; for its resources are severely taxed to warn off the unfit and to guide the fit into proper channels of

farming activity. To illustrate this assertion, the society has, for the past ten years, done all it fairly could to discourage settlement in the semi-arid northwestern states by persons without considerable means and previous farming experience. Yet there are now upwards of three hundred Jewish farmers—not to speak of the hundreds who have given up their claims in despair—tenaciously clinging through incredible privations to Dakota lands, to which they were lured by the fallacies of the Homestead Act.

Again, the remarks of some of the speakers at the public session of this Jewish Farmers' Convention are apt to be interpreted as an apology for the Jewish immigrant, in the sense that these farmers are offering themselves as a sacrifice to appease the Ellis Island Moloch, in order that their brethren may be admitted as probable agricultural laborers. Aside from the fact that the immigration restrictionist shows remarkable agility in changing sides in his argument, now lamenting the overcrowding of factories through the immigrants, and anon lamenting that the immigrants are crowding the New England farmer off farms which he is selling chiefly because *his* sons and daughters have crowded into the factories, it would be twaddle to assert that between fifteen and twenty thousand people have constituted themselves a forlorn hope, for the purpose of smoothing the paths of immigrants to whom they are only tied by ideal bonds. Were it indeed the true motive, as Joseph Lee and his friends choose to believe, they would have to admit that the proportion of self-immolators exceeds that of the Pilgrim Fathers, upon whose heroism they base the claim for exclusive possession of American soil.

Long-continued, careful observation has brought the writer to the conclusion that this motive did, indeed, actuate a considerable part of the early settlers in south Jersey; just as quite a number of cooperative communities that are now seeking to establish themselves are led by ardent Zionists, who wish to fit themselves and their friends for agricultural life in Palestine. But the great bulk of

the Jews who are purchasing farms today do so from less altruistic motives, and they are likely to succeed in proportion as they have faced actualities in making their choice. Four important causes seem to influence this unmistakable trend toward agricultural life among the Jews from eastern Europe: first, the land-hunger already referred to, combined with previous familiarity with agricultural conditions as agricultural laborers, grain-dealers, and drovers in the Danubian and Black sea districts; second, the intense individualism which seeks freedom from the domination of an employer; third, impaired health due to labor under debilitating conditions; last, but by no means least, anxiety to remove their children from the contaminating influence of the tenements and city streets. The deterrent features are the hard manual strain, the absence of good schools, and the remoteness of religious opportunities. In proportion as these difficulties are alleviated, the current will flow more strongly toward the open country, not from any renaissance of the pastoral characteristics of the Maccabean period, but as a conscious withdrawal of the family from the disintegrating influences of urban factory life.

To the sociological student at large, this Federation of Jewish Farmers should be chiefly interesting as an example of serious effort at self-help of scattered owners of small farms. Coming late, and possessed of small means, they have been forced to settle in districts where strong local farmers' associations do not exist: they have formed their own and strengthened them through the greater federation. The purchase of seeds, fertilizers, and implements, on a strictly cooperative basis, to the extent of \$30,000 in a single year, indicates the practical value of such association; its moral value is infinitely greater. The local credit unions are a new experiment in this country, and it is too early to draw any inferences from those just established among Jewish farmers. If they succeed, however, a distinct service will have been rendered to the cause of American agriculture. It is curious that Massachusetts alone has enacted a law

whereby such agricultural credit banks can be worked along the lines that have proved so successful in all the European countries and also in Canada; the regulation of those established by Jewish farmers in Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey has been seriously hampered by the lack of such a law.

The agricultural bank, good rural schools, intelligent local cooperation for purchase and sale, were the subjects of discussion at this convention of Jewish farmers: add to them sanitation, a state constabulary for the protection of property and person, and satisfactory means of travel and communication in the open country—and a program is presented which should occupy the attention of all those interested in the promotion of agriculture. It is true that these are less attractive to the occasional visitor than the elephants made of apples, cows milked by electricity, and grain grown on Alaskan glaciers recently shown at Madison Square Garden; but they would mean more to the real settler. When shall we realize that a glittering promise can lead a man to a farm, but the removal of obstacles is required to keep him there?

NEW YORK'S MUTILATED BUDGET

The aldermen of New York city, with the concurrence of Mayor Gaynor, have made reductions in the budget as adopted by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. As predicted they eliminated the item of \$220,000 for investigating the Board of Education, the Department of Charities, and the standardization of grades and salaries in all branches of the city service, and replaced it by one of \$12,000 for contingencies for the Board of Estimate. Upon this decision hung such vital matters as the admitted abuse of under-pay for hospital helpers, as the Board of Estimate refused to grant further funds to amend conditions without an accurate study of present methods and pay rolls in the charities department. Significant, if considered in conjunction with the above cut, is the reduction of \$21,399 made in the appro-

priation to the Municipal Civil Service Commission. Social workers are concerned also in the elimination of appropriations for \$151,000 for special teaching in the schools, for the police squad for the Tenement House Department, and for twenty-four dentists for the Department of Health.

JOTTINGS

TWO NEW PITTSBURGH COMMISSIONS

In line with laws passed last spring as result of extensive agitation, two new municipal commissions have been appointed in Pittsburgh. One is on municipal art and the other on city planning. Both may be said to have their roots in the missionary work done by the Pittsburgh Civic Commission, which last winter brought out Frederick Law Olmsted's intensive report on the city's thoroughfare system.¹ In membership, however, they are the choice of the city administration, and, while the names are prominent ones locally, Mayor Magee's selections with two or three exceptions are of men who have displayed little previous activity in these lines of civic endeavor. This is not the case with the president of the municipal art commission, John W. Beatty, who as director of the department of fine arts of Carnegie Institute, and chairman of the Municipal Art Committee of the Civic Commission, had a large part in bringing about the creation of the body. In addition to a Pittsburgh artist, a business man, and three architects, the commission includes two New Yorkers, John W. Alexander (a native of Pittsburgh), president of the National Academy of Design, and Henry Atkins MacNeil, president of the National Sculpture Society. The mayor and the director of the department of public works are members of the commission *ex-officio*. In the main the commissions are given advisory powers by the legislative acts creating them. The approval of the Municipal Art Commission must be secured on plans of public structures and decorations, and on the erection of poles, etc., by public service corporations. William Flinn, former state senator and Republican leader, has been made temporary chairman of the City Planning Commission. The line of work first to be undertaken is indicated by the list of problems suggested by Mayor Magee for the consideration of the commission at its first meeting. They include plans for the Bloomfield Point and other city bridges, the proposed new city hall, and the proposed monument to Mary Schenley, the donor of Schenley park, the city's largest recreation area.

LABOR LEGISLATION PUBLICATIONS

The Academy of Political and Social Science prints as a document of social importance the last annual report (year ending

February, 1911) of the National Consumers' League. A particularly valuable feature of the reports of this body are reprints of legislation affecting labor. The present report contains the text of the Minimum Wage Law pending in the Minnesota Legislature, and the decision of the Supreme Court of Michigan in regard to the constitutionality of the state law regulating the hours of women's work.

A CHRISTMAS PRESENT OR AN APRIL FOOL

The general public is doubtless unaware that typewriters used by telegraph operators are not supplied by the telegraph companies. Each operator required to use one must furnish it himself. The employees contend that there is no more reason why this burden should be put upon them than that stenographers in the ordinary business office should be required to supply their own machines. For many years telegraphers have felt that the cost of typewriting machines should be included in the operating expenses of the companies.

The last issue of the *Commercial Telegraphers' Journal* reprints a letter issued last April by the Western Union Company, which advised employes "in order that they may not be led to incur an expense for replacing machines which can possibly be continued in use for the present," that "the company had under consideration the question of supplying typewriters, as a part of the regular equipment of offices." This notice breathes a thoughtful consideration. But the *Commercial Telegraphers' Journal* calls attention to the time which has elapsed since April and expresses the hope that the company will place the new plan in operation as a Christmas surprise.

THE LUSTY CITY CLUB OF ST. LOUIS

The City Club of St. Louis, organized in July, 1910, has experienced the most rapid growth of any semi-public organization in the city. Adopting the catchy phrase, "A social club with a civic purpose," a small committee of young men promoted the plan; and now, on the completion of the first year, announcement is made that the limit of membership, 1,000, has been reached; that the club has spacious, well equipped quarters, including excellent kitchens, occupying a floor of a fine large building in the heart of the downtown district; and that, aside from this prosperity in numbers and material comfort, the organization is "already the power-house for the city's civic activities." Moreover, it has drawn the offices of other semi-public organizations into the same building or into others near at hand. Like the Boston City Club, the St. Louis Club is prevented by its constitution from endorsing any man or measure, the chief object being to provide an open forum for the discussion of public affairs. Dr. Woodrow Wilson put tersely the value of such a forum when he said before the club, "Democratic government means government by discussion."

TRIPLE ALLIANCE IN GRAND FORKS

An interesting arrangement in Grand Forks, N. D., is a triple agreement of the city, county, and Associated Charities to maintain a relief agent through whom all applications are to go before relief is given from public funds. The salary of the agent is paid jointly by the city and the county, the Associated Charities furnishing offices, stationery, and co-ordination of work.

PITTSBURGH ASSOCIATED CHARITIES

Friends of the Associated Charities of Pittsburgh have double ground for rejoicing. The secretary, Charles F. Weller, after a year broken by illness, is in better health than for years previous. At the same time, the treasurer reports that in spite of the handicap suffered by the absence of the society's executive the fiscal year closed without the borrowing of a cent and without the

incurring of a deficit, an exceptional showing, in view of the difficulties which even the long-established societies have had the past year in making both ends meet. The report of the president, Wilson A. Shaw, shows that nearly 4,000 families have been befriended during the year by the employed agents of the society and the 529 volunteer workers, while 25,200 families have been confidentially registered by co-operating organizations and individuals.

BUSINESS MEN OVERSEE DONATIONS

The St. Paul Association of Commerce has recently organized a committee on donations to pass upon all enterprises of the city which seek the financial support of members of the association. The plan of work is similar to that which has been so successful in Cleveland for a dozen years. Buffalo, N. Y., is now employing the same system.

HOW THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK SPENDS ITS MONEY

A Summary of Its Financial Report for the Year Ending September 30, 1911.

FIRST:—At 105 East 22d street, there is a large busy central office, the mainspring of its many activities, conducting its general work in Manhattan and the Bronx, a great growing territory.

The cost for the year was . . . \$44,942.37

To this should be added:

The Bureau of Advice and Information	9,029.00
The Application Bureau where homeless men and emergent cases are received	5,941.12
The Registration Bureau where records of cases from all the districts are kept	6,560.87
The Investigation Bureau where investigators are ready to start for any part of the city	5,426.73
The Special Employment Bureau For Publications	2,580.03
The District Offices with all their employes and equipment and expenses	47,689.54

Total \$125,369.66

This represents the original and fundamental operation of the society in the care and treatment of families in a territory with approximately three millions of people, and in this connection there should be mentioned also the woodyard, the laundry, the Penny Provident Fund, and kindred developments, which are self-supporting.

SECOND:—The *School of Philanthropy* of this society, endowed by the late John S. Kennedy, is an educational institution separate and apart in the nature of its work from the general objects of the society. It graduates students fitted to fill executive positions in philanthropic work. Its income is met by

endowment and tuition and is not solicited from the public and should not be confused with the first statement above.

The disbursements of the school last year were \$71,724.57.

THIRD:—In 1907, a new and distinct department was organized by the Charity Organization Society for the *Improvement of Social Conditions*, Tenement House Reform, Prevention of Tuberculosis, Improvement of Criminal Courts, and many other kindred problems for attacking the causes of poverty and seeking to prevent illness and consequent pauperism are dealt with in this department. It organizes educational crusades, advocates state legislation, municipal ordinances, budget appropriations, and requires for its staff experienced intelligent experts. This department has nothing to do with the care and treatment of families. It has a large and useful field of its own which should appeal to every one who appreciates what has already been accomplished in digging at the roots of our troubles.

The cost of operation of this department for the year was \$48,929.20, of which \$28,450.21 was spent in the tuberculosis movement alone.

FOURTH:—In addition to the above disbursements, the society collected from its friends and spent \$78,543.89 for the *material assistance of the needy* in rent, fuel, medicine, clothing, food, transportation, temporary pensions for the aged, for widows with young children, etc. Relief giving is a subordinate function of the society, but it does not hesitate to take care of a family with relief temporarily, until it works out a plan for *making the family self-supporting*. The latter often costs more than the former and is usually a wiser use of money.

THE COMMON WELFARE

FEDERAL INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION URGED

People of the Atlantic coast struck hands with those of the Pacific when a petition signed by a group of New York social workers was presented this week to President Taft, asking that the federal government create a commission with competence, staff, and resources as great as those of the Interstate Commerce Commission to investigate the larger bearings of the Los Angeles incident. The text of the petition, published on page 1430, urges an immediate inquiry into industrial relations in the structural iron trade, and urges, as its larger task, such fundamental research into the relations of employers and employees generally as will gauge the breakdown of existing laws under the pressure of industrial development, and will form the basis for a constructive public program.

An illustration of the need for such an inquiry is the fact that, while the newspapers have been filled with the McNamara trial, very little information has been brought out as to the structural iron trade, which, rather than Los Angeles, has been the seat of the dynamitings. The industry is widely scattered in its operations, so that an extensive investigation would be necessary to get a clear idea of the situation of which the *Times* Building explosion was an offshoot. Some fragmentary factors in the situation are worth bringing out. Of these two in especial seem to have largely escaped public notice.

One is that the construction of modern steel-framed buildings is an industry that dates back but little over twenty years. It is a new industry, manned on the side both of the employers and the employed by men of the pioneer type—men inclined to disregard the finer aspects of personal safety—aggressive, reckless.

The other thing to remember is that, young as the industry is, it is bound up

closely with an old industry—the industry of blast furnaces, puddle mill, Bessemer converter and roll. In this older industry labor policies have been taking shape for well-nigh a century, and the labor conflict has been on for fifty years. As a result steel making is to-day non-union; and the employers are in absolute control save on the fringes of the industry.

The first steel-frame office building of the modern type was erected in New York, and the first recognition by employers of any union in the structural iron trades in this vicinity occurred in 1898. A National Association of Bridge and Structural Iron Workers had been formed two years earlier, though various house-smiths' unions had existed sporadically for thirty years previous. The movement toward unionism in these trades became strong in 1900, when the International Association of Bridge and Structural Iron Workers was formed. This included Canada, where there are now five locals, as compared with 116 in this country. In Pittsburgh and New York substantial progress was made by the union up to 1905, when there arose a conflict with the American Bridge Company, a subsidiary of the United States Steel Corporation. As a member of the National Erectors' Association, the American Bridge Company was party to an agreement between the eastern district of this association and the union, signed January 1, 1905, and binding for one year. Several articles in this agreement are important. One read that in case the union failed to supply a sufficient number of workmen, "the employer shall be at liberty to employ such other men as may be found by the employer or his representative to be satisfactory as to character and competence.

This was a modified closed-shop plan. Another clause read:

"In case of misunderstanding or dis-

pute arising between an employer and his workmen, the matter in question shall be submitted to arbitration locally, without strikes, lock-outs, or stoppage of work, pending the decision of the arbitrators."

This was modified by a later clause: "None of the definite articles of these rules shall be subject to arbitration."

THE BEGINNING OF THE TROUBLE

The American Bridge Company had been employing union labor and in 1905 they furnished a large amount of structural material to the National Tube Company, another subsidiary of the United States Steel Corporation. The tube company was at that time building a new plant in McKeesport, Penn., and was putting up its plant with non-union men. The union insisted that the American Bridge Company persuade or compel the National Tube Company to employ union iron workers upon this work. This the company refused to do.

A few months prior to this, according to union statements, the American Bridge Company sublet three contracts in New England to the Boston Bridge Company, a firm employing non-union men. The union demanded that the American Bridge Company force the Boston company to use only union men. This was refused, and a strike was called against the American Bridge Company in all parts of the country. The latter contended that this was a violation of the agreement to arbitrate all disputes, but the union for its part cited the clause that no definite articles should be subject to arbitration and insisted that the employment of union men, when they could be furnished, was a definite article within the meaning of this clause.

The National Erectors' Association claims that in the negotiations for settlement after the strike was begun, F. M. Ryan, president of the Structural Iron Workers' Union, demanded that the American Bridge Company and the other members of the United States Steel Corporation manufacturing steel, should, as in the case of the National Tube Company, refuse to deliver any structural steel whatever to any contractor who

did not propose to erect it with union men. This demand closed all attempts at settlement.

The American Bridge Company early in 1906 adopted an anti-union policy.

The National Erectors' Association adopted the same policy in May, 1906.

Since that time the war has been on. Following the walkout against the American Bridge Company in the fall of 1905, an investigating committee appointed at the Philadelphia convention of the Structural Iron Workers' Union (held in September) decided that the New York firm of Post and McCord was a subsidiary of the American Bridge Company, and a strike of its employes was called. The Joint Arbitration Board existing under the agreement of January 1, 1905, determined that the union had no cause for its strike against Post and McCord, and demanded that it return its members to work. The union refused and again declined to recognize any arbitration of the question involved.

The National Erectors' Association claims that during this strike in New York city, which stretched on into the spring of 1906, there occurred "an almost unprecedented series of assaults, destruction of property, intimidation, and other like methods. In two months alone, nearly seventy-five assaults, some of the most serious character, were committed in New York city upon the non-union men."

Since that time, according to the National Erectors' Association, there has been a continuance of this policy. Following the arrest of the McNamara brothers, statements made by Detective Burns in *McClure's* magazine were to the effect that this dynamite

epidemic started in 1905, when attempts were made to destroy several railroad bridges in the neighborhood of Peoria, Ill., which were being constructed by the American Bridge Company. In the year 1906 a policeman was killed in the Plaza Hotel in New York city, an American Bridge Company's watchman was killed near Pittsburgh, and several explosions took place in Newark and Cleveland on work of the Pittsburgh Construction Company. In 1907 there were a large number of similar accidents, and 1908 was virtually a reign of terror among steel constructors. In that year there were twenty big dynamite explosions on different works, besides four that ended unsuccessfully. These accidents

took place in such widely separated places as Cleveland (O.), Elsdon (Ill.), Clinton (Ia.), Perth Amboy (N. J.), Bradshaw (Md.), St. Louis, and Kansas City.

Although the favorite object of attack was the railroad bridge, steel buildings, steamship piers in the city of New York, and structural material in the Pennsylvania Railroad yards at Philadelphia were other things that were dynamited. It was only by the barest chance in many of these outrages that there was not a great loss of human life. Thus, on the night of July 1, a bridge was blown up on the Lehigh Valley Railroad at Buffalo, just a few minutes before a passenger train was stopped within two hundred feet of plunging into the wreck and killing the passengers. In 1909 and down to September, 1910, there were thirty-five destructive explosions, three other unsuccessful attempts, and several assaults on workmen. All these years the employers had been working hard to find out who was committing these crimes. They had spent hundreds of thousands of dollars upon detectives, without result.

SOME OF THE DYNAMITINGS

Last week, various newspapers published under an Indianapolis, Ind., date line a list of eighty-seven explosions and attempted explosions said to be under investigation by the Federal Grand Jury in that city and "believed to have been planned and carried out under John J. McNamara's direction." The dispatch stated that

there are many others for which he is believed to be responsible, but which cannot be traced directly to him. In every case there was a reason why organized labor should have a grudge against the sufferer from the dynamiting plot. Usually it was a case of the open shop, the purchase of material made in such a shop, or the employment of men who were not members of a union.

Two days after the McNamaras confessed in Los Angeles, C. E. Cheney, secretary of the National Erectors' Association, gave out the following list of twelve assaults, committed in New York vicinity alone, which he laid to the union:

December 7, 1905—Derrick on the Altman Building, at Fifth avenue and 35th street, under construction by the Post and McCord Company, tampered with so that its use would have meant serious injury to several men.

December 19, 1905—Dynamite bomb thrown in window of Allied Iron Trades Association's offices at No. 7 East 14th street, where strike breakers employed by Post and McCord were meeting. Several injured, and building badly shaken.

January 9, 1906—Dynamite exploded under

derrick on Bliss Building, at No. 304 East 23rd street, under construction by the Post and McCord Company. Derrick wrecked.

July 11, 1906—One special policeman killed and two left for dead after their escape had been cut off by the removal of ladders on the eighth floor of the Plaza Hotel, under construction by the George A. Fuller Construction Company.

March 25, 1908—Bridge of the New York and Long Branch Railroad at Perth Amboy, under construction by the Pennsylvania Steel Company and the McMullen and McDermott Company, wrecked by dynamite. Damage estimated at \$50,000.

April 6, 1908—Dynamite exploded under hoisting crane on Chelsea Piers, North River, between 16th and 17th streets, under construction by the McClintic-Marshall Company. Crane wrecked.

May 21, 1908—New steel bridge of New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad Company, at Baychester, badly damaged by explosion of dynamite.

March 31, 1909—Dynamite exploded under concrete pier of steel viaduct connecting Hoboken with the heights of Jersey City and West Hoboken, under construction by the McClintic-Marshall Company. A score of non-union men injured. Damage to structure estimated at \$1,000 and to neighboring houses at several times that amount.

August 16, 1909—Dynamite exploded under concrete pier of New York, New Haven, and Hartford bridge over Whitlock and Garrison avenues, the Bronx, under construction by the Pittsburgh Construction Company. Damage trifling.

May 24, 1910—Structural material in Interborough storage yards, at 223rd street and Broadway, belonging to the Pennsylvania Steel Company, blown up by clockwork dynamite bomb. The lives of many employes sleeping nearby endangered.

July 8, 1910—Two charges of dynamite exploded under the Lehigh Valley's freight viaduct, east of the Greenville section of Jersey City, under construction by the Phoenix Bridge Company. Two columns wrecked.

September 3, 1911—One pier of the New York, Westchester, and Boston's viaduct, just east of Columbus avenue, Mount Vernon, completely wrecked by an explosion of nitroglycerine. Damage estimated at \$1,000.

As a factor in this conflict, the bitterness existing between the National Erectors' Association and the Structural Iron Workers' Union has been extreme. In New York, for instance, the building at 30 East 20th street, where non-union men apply for jobs to the National Erectors' Association, is commonly known among union iron workers as "Snake Hall." The union men call it "an employment bureau for scabs" and

Walter Drew, counsel for the Erectors' Association, they call the "\$12,000 a year strike-breaker." The fact that practically every other building trade in New York is organized, and the employers treat with the unions, is a factor in the feeling.

THE ERECTORS' ASSOCIATION

The National Erectors' Association is an organization including a large number of employers engaged in the business of erecting structural iron and steel all over the United States. The most important of these companies are the American Bridge Company, the Pennsylvania Steel Company, McClintic-Marshall Construction Company, the Fort Pitt Bridge Works, the Pittsburgh Steel Construction Company, the Phoenix Bridge Company, the Hinkle Iron Works, and the Wisconsin Bridge and Iron Company. Representatives of these companies constitute an executive committee which has entire charge of the government of the association: the fixing and collection of its assessments, and the carrying on all business. The executive committee usually holds meetings once a month. The American Bridge Company is its most influential member—a factor of especial importance in view of the well known and long standing warfare between the United States Steel Corporation and unions.

The National Erectors' Association, to use its own words, has adopted the open shop

as the fixed and permanent policy of the association. By this is meant that workmen are employed irrespective of membership in any organization, and without discrimination. An effort is always made, however, to give employment to loyal independent workmen who accepted employment during the struggle with the union caused by the open-shop declaration of the association. Any preference in employment is given to these men.

It is to be learned, also, from a booklet put out by the National Erectors' Association, that it maintains employment bureaus in several of the large cities of the United States. During the first few months after the beginning of the fight against the union, it had a large

number of employment bureaus in cities scattered over the country:—

In time of acute trouble, the association has organized and operated a guard service for the members with greater efficiency, and much less cost, than that of the ordinary service of the detective agencies.

The association asks for the co-operation not only of erectors of structural iron and steel but of all those engaged in allied building branches. It

has many times lent material aid in the open-shop movement of other building trades, and stands ready to lend its whole power and influence to the open-shop cause in any of the other building trades.

The National Erectors' Association also urges everybody, producer or consumer, to join a movement against the closed shop. Says the booklet:

It takes two to close a shop, the employer and the union, and a shop can stay closed only with the tolerance or acquiescence of the general public which consumes its product. The day when the employer had no choice but to grant a closed shop is rapidly passing, if it ever really existed. *Do not be a party to a closed-shop agreement, do not ask for closed-shop clauses in your building contracts, and do not patronize a closed-shop builder if there is an open-shop one in your community.*

THE IRON WORKERS

The rapid expansion of building operations which have made a great demand for experienced labor in this field is one factor in the continued existence of the Structural Iron Workers' Union in spite of the policy of the Erectors during the past six years to refuse to treat with them as an organized body. While the union is nominally on strike against the Erectors, men carrying union cards are employed on their work. The *Bridgemen's Magazine* for October, 1911, gives 12,230 as the average total membership of its 121 locals in this country and Canada for the year ended July 1, 1911. The total average membership of the nine locals in the New York district is, on the same authority, 3,165. According to officials of the union this is as great a numerical strength as the union has ever known. It is claimed that 95 per cent of the structural iron workers in New York and

vicinity are members of the union. The result is, say the union officials, that union wages and hours are maintained by all firms erecting structural steel and iron in this vicinity, whether these firms employ non-union men or not. As a matter of fact, union officials declare, many firms supposedly following the open-shop policy do not and will not employ non-union men. There is a sort of silent, unwritten agreement between them and the union. It is claimed that two-thirds of the union members are employed on work where no non-union man can get a job. This they attribute to the efficiency of the union organization in the New York district.

Many firms which live up to union schedules in New York, however, pay smaller wages and work their men longer hours in localities where unionism in the structural iron trades is not so strong. It is admitted also by the union officials that there is doubtless a loss of strength to any union which cannot command written agreements with employers in the trades in which it is organized.

It remains to note what conditions as to hours and wages have governed under the two régimes in these trades. The big advances in labor standards came during the period of union recognition.

When the structural iron workers in New York were first organized, in 1896, they were working ten hours a day for 24 cents an hour. In 1898 they first secured recognition and introduced a scale of \$2.50 for an eight-hour day. In 1905, when the last written agreement was made, it was for \$4.50 and an eight-hour day.

In Pittsburgh, in 1900, skilled workmen were receiving 27½ cents per hour for a ten-hour day. They established a nine-hour day in 1901, and an eight-hour day in 1902. In 1906 they were getting \$4.00 per day, or 50 cents an hour, and were striking for 56½ cents an hour when the employers succeeded in introducing the open shop.

Since 1906 the National Erectors' Association's policy has been one of standing pat. To use their own words, "they have not reduced wages nor lengthened hours."

In the six years of their control in

New York, wages have advanced from \$4.50 to \$5.00 a day. The eight-hour day still stands, but it may be significant that one of the educational pamphlets issued by the National Manufacturers' Association is an attack upon the eight-hour day, on economic grounds, by Walter Drew, counsel for the National Erectors' Association. Further, an official of the association told a representative of THE SURVEY that undoubtedly any employe of the erectors' association who might try to re-organize a union would be discharged.

A FREE HAND TO OPERATE

An illuminating transcript of the labor policy of a fighting employers' organization which, like the Erectors' Association, operates in a field subsidiary to iron manufacture was afforded by the fifteenth annual convention of the National Founders' Association. This met in New York November 15 and 16.

"One of the striking features of this meeting," says the *Iron Trade Review*, "was the almost entire absence of the discussion of labor difficulties, notwithstanding the fact that this society was formed for the purpose, primarily, of dealing with the labor troubles of the founders in the United States and Canada."

Since 1906, President Briggs stated, the Molders' Union has lost as much as 60 per cent of its membership; not only that, but, he stated, they are much less aggressive in strikes than they formerly were; have greatly increased their membership dues, and are now devoting themselves with much greater energy to attempts to win back their membership than to win strikes. Secretary Hutchings, in his report, declared that since 1906 it had cost the Founders' Association \$327,937.14 in fighting strikes, while the Molders' Union, on the other hand, had spent \$1,841,000 in the same strikes.

Commissioner A. C. Clintock, in his report, said that "while this association tends to form an uncompromising position for the open shop, it also stands for the making of the open shop a better place to work in than a workman can hope

to obtain by depending on the union." Going on, he declared that he had found, in travelling about the country, that the members of the association were making great progress in the way of light, ventilation, sanitary equipment, and accident prevention. President Briggs is quoted as saying on the one hand that "our employes are our strongest allies," and on the other (referring to a number of strikes for the eight-hour day) "it is a pleasure to report that, from a present viewpoint, these efforts of the union are a failure."

EDITORIAL GRIST

CONSERVATION AND INDUSTRIAL WAR

PAUL U. KELLOGG

The outcome of the McNamara case threw into relief the fact that the officials of a national group of organized labor, in an industrial field in which the contest between employers and employes has been sharpest, had resorted to dynamiting as a deliberate policy. In an interview given out the day of the confessions, Harrison Gray Otis called on organized labor to "purge its ranks of lawless methods, principles, purposes, and persons," and "act within the limitations of the law." Lincoln Steffens turned the challenge around and asked:

What are we Americans going to do about conditions which are bringing up healthy, good-tempered boys like these McNamara boys to really believe, as they most sincerely do—they and a growing group of labor—that the only recourse they have for improving the conditions of the wage-earner is to use dynamite against property and life?

At a time when the general run of comment has been perhaps naturally enough that of reproach, betrayal, and condemnation, these two obligations, thus stated, growing out of the Los Angeles

incidents, make requisition upon the broadest statesmanship of those who know conditions of life and labor first hand—the group whose experience and outlook THE SURVEY voices. Moreover, the reported action of Los Angeles citizens in considering the outcome a release from an unnatural tension and alignment in American life, and setting about to establish fresh and more hopeful industrial relationships, was a special call upon the country for ways and means to go about it.

In asking a representative group of men and women for constructive suggestions, THE SURVEY put two questions:

What should be demanded of organized labor in putting its house in order?

How should we overhaul the law (or governmental machinery) so that the wage-earner who singly or collectively acts within it shall be strong and not weak in securing for himself substantial justice?

The remarkable symposium presented in this issue is the result. A trend is noticeable, running through the pages, calling for fresh scrutiny of our laws and methods of industrial adjustment, and culminating in the clear recommendations of the petition presented to President Taft asking for a federal commission on the "crucial boundary line between industry and democracy."

The situation is too much freighted with the public well-being to be left to contending forces to keep striking false balances. The responsibility for sovereign and regulative action rests upon the whole people. We must give structure to fair play; reality to justice; and buttressed channels to those economic forces which, when they work at cross-purposes, jam up the currents of our national life. Even in so doing, they illustrate the restless human energies which America as yet fails to conserve for creative purposes. In the same way that we have let our water powers stand neglected, have let our forests of matchless trees crouch down into stumpage, and have let the freshets waste our farm lands, we waste our human strength.

LARGER BEARINGS OF THE McNAMARA CASE

CONTRIBUTORS TO SYMPOSIUM

- VICTOR L. BERGER [Congressman Fifth District, Wisconsin] p. 1422.
- ANITA MCCORMICK BLAINE p. 1420.
- LOUIS D. BRANDEIS ["Attorney-for-the-People" in a number of national causes] p. 1428.
- ROBERT W. BRUERE [author, journalist] p. 1422.
- GEORGE BURNHAM, JR. [former vice-president Baldwin Locomotive Company, Philadelphia; president City Club] p. 1414.
- RUDOLPH I. COFFEE [Tree of Life Synagogue, Pittsburgh] p. 1421.
- W. B. DICKSON [former first vice-president U. S. Steel Corporation] p. 1416.
- EDWARD A. FILENE [chairman Board of Directors Boston-1915; chairman Metropolitan Plan Commission] p. 1417.
- JOHN M. GLENN [director Russell Sage Foundation] p. 1423.
- EMIL G. HIRSCH [Rabbi Sinai Congregation, Chicago] p. 1429.
- ROBERT L. HOXIE [professor of Political Economy, University of Chicago] p. 1425.
- FLORENCE KELLEY [secretary National Consumers' League] p. 1419.
- PAUL KENNADAY [secretary New York Association for Labor Legislation] p. 1414.
- MEYER LONDON [attorney for Ladies' Garment Workers' Union] p. 1421.
- MARY E. MCDOWELL [headworker University of Chicago Settlement] p. 1416.
- J. HOWARD MELISH [Church of the Holy Trinity, Brooklyn] p. 1413.
- H. E. MILES [manufacturer, Racine, Wis.; chairman Committee on Industrial Education, National Manufacturers' Association] p. 1416.
- H. F. J. PORTER [industrial engineer; secretary National Society for Promoting Efficiency] p. 1427.
- JAMES BRONSON REYNOLDS [assistant district attorney, New York County; investigator Chicago stock yards under special commission, President Roosevelt] p. 1418.
- EDWARD A. ROSS [professor of Sociology, University of Wisconsin] p. 1425.
- WM. JAY SCHIEFFELIN [President Schieffelin and Company; president New York Lally League for Social Science; chairman Citizens' Union] p. 1424.
- HENRY R. SEAGER [professor of Political Economy, Columbia University, New York] p. 1414.
- EDWIN R. A. SELIGMAN [professor of Political Economy, Columbia University] p. 1419.
- CHARLES STEZZLE [superintendent Department of Church and Labor, Presbyterian Board of Home Missions; dean and social service specialist Team 1, Men and Religion Forward Movement] p. 1428.
- ROSS FRANCIS TUCKER [Member American Society of Civil Engineers; former chairman Executive Committee General Arbitration Board of the New York Building Trades] p. 1427.
- BOUCK WHITE [author of the Call of the Carpenter] p. 1423.
- BRAND WHITLOCK [author; mayor of Toledo] p. 1424.
- JOHN H. WIGMORE [professor of law, Northwestern University] p. 1424.
- ROBERT A. WOODS [headworker South End House, Boston] p. 1418.

FOUR ALTERNATIVES

It is the contention of numbers of citizens that modern industrial society is in a state of war, that capital is arrayed against labor, and that labor is arrayed against capital. They hold that the fight is unequal because all the laws which govern the contest are in the interest of one party and are enforced in the interest of one party; that capital has made the laws, controls their administration, and influences their interpretation. Those men argue from this that when they come to know the origin of the laws they "retain absolutely no respect for the property rights of the profit-takers." By theft, robbery, arson, wilful destruction of property, or similar acts, so the inference may be drawn, though no writer is frank enough to say, the battle must go on. They draw parallels between industrial America and political Russia.

Another group of citizens is contending that, although there is a conflict between capital and labor and although the laws of property are made and enforced by capital, nevertheless the parallel between Russia and America is false and there is no necessity for a resort to lawlessness. Russia has no machinery for the expression of public opinion; it has a political despotism, not a representative government as has England, nor a democracy based on manhood suffrage as has the United States. If the working class is unjustly treated, these men bid the working class go to the polls as a class, capture the machinery of government, and use it in the interest of their class. They are teach-

ing that only through political action can the workers attain their economic freedom.

The third group of people are teaching that the working men are to discard both these positions and choose in their place submission to their employers. They hold that their employers have a right to organize for purposes of profit, but that workingmen have no right to organize for purposes of profit. The right of organization on the part of working men is limited to benevolent societies. They hold that a trades union designed to barter with the organization of capital is without justification. Each individual working man is to sell his labor in an open market; he is to submit, and his organizations are to submit, to the laws of the competition of supply and demand.

The fourth alternative before working men of America and advocated by a vast number is the organization of labor on a basis where it can effectively bargain with organized capital. It is held by the advocates of this position that our industrial democracy can be maintained only as organized capital will recognize organized labor. It is further held that if the moral force of good-will, fair play, and mutual consideration shall be added to the recognition of labor organizations, these two forces will work out harmonious co-operation between capital and labor. What is needed now, these advocates affirm, is enlargement and strengthening of the labor organizations with a frank avowal of ethical principle, and on the side of capital a reconsecration to the same ethical standards.

These are the four alternatives which confront the American workingman. I believe that it is possible for the federal government to conduct an investigation which will show the average man that the way out of the condition in which he thinks he is placed is not by way of violence, is not limited to political action, is not submission, but lies through a combination of economic and ethical reorganization of society and political action.

J. HOWARD MELISH.

Brooklyn.

THE MORES OF THE PEOPLE

The confession of the McNamara brothers has caused both relief and concern to everyone who views with sympathy the efforts of American wage-earners to improve their condition through organization. Since there was no question but that the crimes of which they were accused had been committed, their conviction on their own confession has gone far to clear up a situation tense with even more serious possibilities. Had it been based on any but the most conclusive evidence, millions of well-meaning and law-abiding wage-earners all over the country would have continued to regard them as victims of a capitalistic conspiracy. On the other hand, had the evidence against them proved insufficient for conviction, hundreds of thousands of employers would none the less have deemed them guilty men. Either outcome must have further embittered the strained relations between employers and employes. As regards this aspect of the matter, therefore, their confession, since they were guilty, is the best solution that the situation admitted of. It is not only a vindication from the charge of conspiracy of those concerned in their prosecution, but to some extent evidence that in their criminal operations they had few, if any, confederates outside of their own organization.

The ground for concern is that this last fact may not be conclusively proved by the searching inquiry that is now in progress. Public opinion is wavering in the balance. By declaring their willingness to co-operate in trying to bring about the conviction of the confederates of the McNamaras, if they have confederates, as several organizations have already done, the labor unions of the country can turn the scales in their favor. On the other hand, if they put themselves on the defensive, and continue to make light of the nation-wide demand for the suppression of lawlessness in connection with labor disputes, as some of their leaders seem disposed to do, they will turn the scales the other way and retard the movement for better conditions which it is their purpose to advance.

It is undoubtedly true, as socialists are fond of affirming, that there is going on to-day, as there has been going on in the past, a class struggle. This McNamara incident and the reaction of public opinion which it has called forth bring out the equally indisputable fact that more fundamental than the class strug-

gle are those elementary convictions and habits of thought which are shared by all classes, and which the late Professor Sumner called the *mores* of a people. In the *mores* of the average American there is no place for the dynamiter. Lawlessness of this kind must be suppressed; and, until it is suppressed, efforts to bring about a liberalization of our law with reference to labor organizations, as the English law has been liberalized, or to extend the field of labor legislation, will fail to command that sympathy and support from the average American which they deserve. The best friends of labor in this crisis are, in my judgment, those who urge the labor organizations to place themselves squarely and unequivocally on the side of law and order.

HENRY R. SEAGER.

New York.

CALL TO THE CITIZENSHIP OF LABOR

The outcome of the McNamara trial points conclusively to the fact that some labor organizations have employed methods in obtaining their ends that are not only condemned by people generally, but must be utterly against the wishes of the great majority of their own members. It is not conceivable that the majority of the members of such unions really desired to commit such crimes. If this is a true analysis of the situation, organized labor should put its house in order by getting possession of its own government. It is, perhaps, a difficult matter to prevent the control of such organizations from falling into the hands of the personally interested and the unscrupulous, since these men are "always on the job," and the average working man is disinclined to burden himself with the politics of his association; but it is incumbent on him, nevertheless, to assume this burden if the management of the association is to be kept fairly representative and to command the respect of the public.

GEO. BURNHAM, JR.

Philadelphia.

UNLESS

The workers have been driven until at last even they are turned. And now that they have been shown how easy it is, after all, to avenge their wrongs and to attack their masters at the one vulnerable point, property, we shall have more of murder and arson before we shall have less—unless those who control the courts and the legislatures, and warp public opinion as they will, shall come to realize that the American workingman will not stand much longer this our present fashion of turning out "get-rich-quick" at one end of the scale, and consumptive, poisoned, maimed, and penniless workers at the other.

Whether or not we are to have the industrial revolution in open conflict—our little army of "regulars" and strike-breaking militia defending property on one side, on the other, a vast industrial army fighting for liberty and decency and the right to enjoy the values it has created—rests with the captains of industry and the comfortable and contented men

and women who profit by the ways of modern business. There are signs seeming to show that the forces are getting ready; that the workers of this country, of the stock of Kossuth, of Garibaldi, and of Washington, will not be afraid to take up arms if driven much longer. The wonder is that they have been so long-suffering with all this talk of Christian love of fellow man; that they have listened so patiently to this preaching from the housetops that tuberculosis is preventable, while they have seen it unprevented; that any of them have been content with pretty flower-beds and welfare phonographs.

It is wages which is the crux of the matter, but not minimum wages fixed by those who shall decide how little will keep a man and woman efficient machines. Nor is arbitration, voluntary or compulsory, the panacea. In actual practice the workers find that their representative is more than offset by the more skillful employers' representative, and that the "impartial third person" presiding is one whose whole bringing up and class bent leads him instinctively to a one-sided employ-ing-class view of the merits of each case.

The irrepressible conflict will go on until these, our masters, give up as too dangerous this silly opposition to collective bargaining, and until the wage-earners so unite for political as well as industrial action that a true democracy shall have been established.

New York.

PAUL KENNADAY.

EFFICIENT LABOR UNIONS

I suggest the following as a means of replacing our present-day criminal unionism, with its quarter-century record of misdeeds and failures, by unions that shall be among the most powerful organizations of the kind in the world, and of utmost service in advancing the interests of their members—and the happiness and prosperity of the nation:

1: Insistence on the part of every citizen, whether in unions or out, upon the equal and impartial observance and enforcement of the law. Law breaking is now condoned on all sides.

Labor must be organized. The power of the individual in a country as great as ours is inconsiderable: men must act in groups. The world has been made by labor; it belongs to labor, not to an excepted and privileged group, but to all who labor, whether by hand or brain, and in their relative proportions. We so believe in labor organizations that we have coddled them, coddled them even in their crimes, as a foolish parent coddles a naughty child. The American public is for this reason *particeps-criminis* in no small degree in the Los Angeles murders.

2: Industrial education, as in Germany, Belgium, France, and Australia: that is, education in the trades and in citizenship.

All who go into the industries do so at the age of fourteen, which is psychologically the time when mechanical pursuits are most inviting. Boys who stay in school after fourteen insist on a white-collar job. One-half of all the children in the United States, (2,500,-

000 each year) leave school in the middle of their courses, mostly at the end of the sixth grade, aimless, mostly discouraged, schooled only in how to fail, wholly uneducated, because they have acquired only the three R's, and the three R's are not education, but only the means whereby real education may be acquired. These children enter the factories and the cursory occupations.

Continental countries require these children to leave their work in factories and elsewhere for from five to twelve hours a week and to attend continuation schools (*i.e.*, schools where their education is "continued.") In these schools they are taught the science and art of their trades, and made to be successful, skilled, happy workmen. They are likewise taught citizenship, their rights and obligations to themselves and their fellows, and the way upward through honest effort, skill, and the ordered processes of society and the law. All our American-born mechanics are our uneducated boys grown up, abandoned educationally at fourteen by the state.

Wisconsin has just introduced the European system adapted to our conditions. It will correct in the course of years the ideals and methods of our workmen, and make them twice as efficient in advancing their own interests and the nation's.

A delegation of English moulders, investigating the condition of German laborers, reported: "We have frequently been asked, 'Wherein lies the cause of the better social conditions of the Berlin brass workers?' The answer is summed up in the words, 'Duty, responsibility, discipline, work, order, and method.' These qualities are much in evidence among the officials and employers of labor and the work people." A delegation from the American moulders' union would "fall dead" at a sight like that.

American workmen are naturally as high-minded as any in the world. They are remarkable for their force, intuitive insight, quickness of perception, and speed. They have been robbed of their birth-right in not having received at the hands of the state in youth and early manhood this education that would arm them for most successful accomplishment. Four-fifths of American workmen are outside the unions, and in that sense have all along repudiated the unions because of their lawless methods and inefficiency. We must have the other sort of unions, with most laborers in, not out, and a membership of 6,000,000 or better 10,000,000, instead of its present 1,750,000. No force could resist them; no force will wish to, for whatever is to the interest of our countless millions of working people is to the interest of the nation.

3: Better leadership. The leaders of labor in this country as abroad must be real students and true laboring men before and after election to office. They must study with heart and head, to the utmost of their ability, the great problems of housing, sanitation, better representatives in Congress, accident

compensation and prevention, industrial education, right wages and conditions of labor, etc. They will have the cordial assistance of all good people, and there should be no difficulty in putting our laboring people and our labor laws abreast of those of Germany. We are now infinitely behind, chiefly because labor has been badly and unintelligently led, and, when it has made demands, has usually made unreasonable and short-sighted demands.

H. E. MILES.

Racine, Wis.

LABOR AND STATESMANSHIP

You ask for my views on certain questions prompted by the McNamara case. I can best illustrate them by the following extracts from an address which I made to the employes of one of the subsidiary companies prior to my resignation from the United States Steel Corporation:

"The question of organized labor is one of the most serious issues confronting the American people. I am not among those who condemn the idea as being inherently vicious. No thoughtful man will question the abstract right of working men to organize for mutual defense against the unfair or tyrannical employer. In fact, the very nature of our modern industrial life would seem to demand such action if the individual workingman is not to be left to measure his puny strength and resources against his giant opponent. Nevertheless, while fully recognizing these facts, we must as practical men remember that, in the words of President Cleveland, it is a condition and not a theory which confronts us.

"To-day, with the exception of some railroad employes, the Steel Corporation has no union labor. Personally, I cannot feel that these conditions are permanent, because they seem to place too much power in the hands of the employer. I do not hesitate to say, however, that we are fully justified in the position which we have taken. Until labor organizations demonstrate beyond question their willingness to abandon their fallacious theories and practices, such as the limitation of output, the dead level of wages regardless of efficiency, the closed shop, the sympathetic strike, and the boycott, to say nothing of their crowning shame, *i. e.*, their readiness to resort to violence on the slightest provocation, we must refuse to be hampered by their arbitrary and unreasonable restrictions.

"Some day a real statesman will arise out of the ranks of labor, who will accept the leadership only on condition that the unions pledge their entire resources, financial and otherwise, to the work of stamping out the anarchistic element which has made the very name of union labor a reproach in the eyes of the American people. When that day comes (as I believe it will, for to think otherwise is to despair of our civilization) nothing on earth can prevent the enactment of legislation preventing any discrimination against employes because of their member-

ship in labor unions; and such a law will be effective for the only reason which makes any legislation effective: because it will be the crystallization of public opinion."

W. B. DICKSON.

New York.

A LARGE HOUSE TO BE SET IN ORDER

"What should be demanded of organized labor in putting its house in order?" I must say I am not certain that I know how to answer your question, but I do know that there is a larger house and a bigger family than just organized labor that also needs to put itself in order.

If the house-cleaning to which recent events have startled organized labor is to be an efficient job, it must not only put out the men of violence, but it must make it impossible for such men ever again to secure leadership. This is the same problem of democratic management that the nation is wrestling with in politics and corporate affairs. It centers in the shirking of duty by the rank and file. Here as elsewhere, publicity is a vital factor. There must be no more un-itemized expense accounts. On labor books as on corporation books such accounts are indications of improper methods. Behind their scanty cover of assumed ignorance there is not room for any honest man to take refuge. The members of all labor organizations must demand the most detailed accounting for all expenditures. Such details can be made public, in such a manner as to destroy any suspicion of organized violence.

These men have, like many others in America, been fed with the poisonous philosophy of "get ahead" no matter how—any method that will bring results—a belief that has led corporations to buy franchises, steal streets, corrupt legislatures—practices as dangerous to the nation as the dynamiting of buildings by ignorant fanatics. Subtler social sins of omission and commission on the part of the manufacturers' associations need also to be brought to the bar of public opinion. It is a question how far the bitter fight against the right of labor to organize has stirred the brute in labor ranks. Is this to continue? If it does, then the power of the brutish will continue.

America has also the right to ask the manufacturers' associations to stop fighting legislation for the protection of women and children, and that they now lead in securing acts for the benefit of the victims of industry.

If the state does not want the worker to put loyalty to his organization above loyalty to the state, then it must adapt its machinery to modern industrial conditions; it must not leave him with his trade organization as his only defense. Particularly is it dangerous for the state to leave the worker with his trade union as the sole means of enforcing the fundamental demand of life—the bread demand. England had just been emphatically told that the group of toil cares no more for the food supply of the public than the

public has cared for the food supply of the toilers, and is consequently realizing that the state, which requires the worker to consider the public order, health, and comfort in his struggle for life, must provide some means for the enforcement of his just demand for a proper living. The minimum wage is the first step. After that must come such public machinery for the determination and enforcement of just conditions of work and wages as shall convince the workers that the state is a means of protection, without destroying their power of initiative.

The immediate necessity is for such an understanding of the needs of labor by those who control public opinion and action as will cause the industrial workers to feel that their demands are being received by the body politic not with indifference, impatience, nor hostility, but with sympathetic intelligence. Then perhaps the necessary practical measures can be developed out of a common consciousness, on a common ground.

The labor union is the school of democracy; in it the members learn self-government, and to the immigrant this is the only school. To this end trade unions as well as political parties and corporations need a new and practical faith in democracy, and a social consciousness as well as a social conscience. Education is needed within the unions to prevent fanaticism. The narrow policy of craft unions that have little knowledge of other crafts leads to wrong and selfish policies when old tactics are found ineffectual against powerful corporations. In the end all organizations must come before the American public opinion, for that in a democracy must be the governing power. America will not stand for "direct action" nor "sabotage" in Socialists, trade unionists, nor corporations, but she will have to stand for the right of the worker to look after his own interests by association and by political action. Society has a right to demand that labor clean house in every corner and crevice, and labor leaders must realize that nothing should be hidden. Cleaning up by passing resolutions will not do; rascals and fanatics must be put down and sane, intelligent, socially conscious men must come to the top and are now coming fast.

It is not too much to ask that the Socialists quit their academic flights and come down to the plane of the common working man, and give to him a constructive industrial and sane political education. I found the labor headquarters in the German and English cities were civic and social as well as labor centers. The fact that they had their own political party made them alive to civic betterment as well as to state and national questions. They were intelligent on municipal methods because they had their own representatives in the city government. They had a constructive educational program which lifted them from that sordid plane where wages was the all-absorbing issue, for the right to organize was not uppermost as it has been in America for the past few years. In

England the labor representative was acknowledged by the community and had as legitimate a place as had the Liberal and Tory members. We, of course, believe that the machinery of the state must stop violence; but it must also put peaceful weapons in the hands of labor, that they may protect themselves and secure a living wage for those who have not power to help themselves. Only through organization, education, and democracy can we hope in America to down ignorance, fanaticism, and violence.

MARY E. McDOWELL.

Chicago.

REMEDIES FOR VIOLENCE IN LABOR DEMONSTRATIONS

I think that perhaps I can be of more use to the symposium by bearing evidence to the real attitude of the leaders of organized labor toward the matter under discussion than by keeping too closely to the questions you have outlined. At a dinner given to John Mitchell at the Boston City Club on April 27, 1911, at which such labor leaders as James Duncan, John Golden, Henry Sterling, Henry Abrahams, and Arthur M. Huddell were also guests, I said in regard to the dynamite outrages:

"I have been intimately associated, permit me to say, with union leaders for a great many years. I doubt whether there are many men among the employers in Boston who have known the labor leaders here and throughout the country any better than I have. In the Civic Federation, in many meetings, and in arbitration deliberations I have sat with labor leaders, and where we differed we differed as men ought to differ—expressing our regret and trying to agree—and out of it all I have come away with the firm conviction that the labor leaders try just as hard as any other class of men I know anywhere to do what is right and fair. There are devils and renegades in every walk of life, and it may be possible that evidence will bring out the fact that the McNamaras have resorted to this horrible means. The past of labor legislation and of labor evil is not wholly effaced even in heredity. Whenever you meet a balky, vicious horse you know that somewhere—somehow—he has been maltreated; and so with men.

" . . . In this connection I want to tell you something that I was told at first hand by an employer. I never repeated it because it is too horrible, and I sincerely hope there is nothing else like it to relate. A man told me this thing, not realizing what he was telling and telling it laughingly. He said that he had a gang of woodcutters cutting trees down in the forests in the North here and they began to get troublesome, were dissatisfied, and threatened to go out on strike and leave him with his contracts unfinished. He added: 'I got them, however; they did not go out that winter.' I said 'How?' He answered, 'I sent a smallpox patient into camp and then I told all the villagers about it; there was only one

road out of the woods, and after I told the villagers there was smallpox in the encampment in the woods they made a bargain with me agreeing not to let one of those men get out of the woodchoppers' camp that winter.' And then he added, as a saving grace: 'I sent a doctor in and had them all vaccinated.' I tell you that incident to show that there are devils among us employers as well as among the labor men. . . .

"I am not excusing outrages nor would any of these labor leaders excuse them. The important thing is that if it should turn out that dynamite outrages were committed by labor men, there are no men in this country who will denounce it more than will our labor leaders."

This statement was strongly confirmed by the other speakers in their addresses. Mr. Mitchell, while protesting against the kidnapping of the McNamaras, said:

"If I believed—and in this I speak for every responsible labor official in this country—if I believed that the success of the trade union movement depended in the slightest degree upon the commission of illegal acts, I should not hesitate one moment in severing my connection with it."

Mr. Duncan said:

"I don't believe in force. . . . I am sure that, if deliberation is given, whoever is guilty, if so found, will be given punishment in accordance with his deeds. No labor man will stand for destruction of property of any kind."

Mr. Abrahams said:

"It is very hard for me to believe that any member of a trade union would blow up a building and destroy the lives of his fellows. Hence I came out in the paper and so declared, and I want to say now that I don't believe in the guilt of the accused; but Brother Duncan, the first vice-president of the American Federation of Labor, has voiced the sentiments of organized labor on that matter. If the men are guilty they should be convicted, and, if they are convicted, suffer for the crime; but they should be given a fair trial."

This communication is perhaps already overlong for your purpose, but if there is room to say a word as to the remedy, I would like to say that I do not believe it is so much a matter of law as a matter of education—both on the part of labor and capital. From the beginning labor has had to fight the enemy not only from without but from within as well, and this because from the very nature of its cause it has had to take in all kinds of working people, no matter whether they were fit or not—no matter whether they were newly arrived immigrants with no idea of trade union policies nor the real needs of labor. Capital has made this difficult situation still more difficult by the attitude which it adopted toward the labor organizations. We employers have thought that it was an element of strength for our

own cause to keep the unions weak, and to that end we have kept out of the labor organizations our best and strongest employees. It is my conviction that it will be to the advantage of every employer who wishes to do his share towards solving the issue between capital and labor to encourage the better and stronger class of his employees not only to join the labor organizations but to take active and effective part in their work. From unions so constituted much help will come for the rightful settling in the most lawful way of the great questions involved in the relation of employers to employees.

EDWARD A. FILENE.

Boston.

CALL TO CITIZENSHIP OF EMPLOYERS

The irreconcilable employer and the irreconcilable labor leader—each causing and caused by the other—from now on belong to the past. They are each in their way a tragic failure.

Every influence which serves to eliminate the McNamara type, in all its various shadings, will to the same extent eliminate the Otis type. The historic scene is set for employers and trade unionists who shall see their stake in a deliberate and unswerving policy and program of conciliation, as between the two sides of a business bargain.

We are at a national crisis. Such a crisis always calls for its man. That man is the co-operative-minded employer who shall be moved by patriotic and human if not by far-sighted business considerations to go a little more than half way to meet the co-operative minded labor leader, who is at this moment in a peculiarly susceptible emotional state. The good sense of the country looks to such employers to enter with such workmen into the common administration of great industrial interests which have been ruthlessly sacrificed by the false leadership of the irreconcilable. A look back, ten years from now, will show that many employers, smaller and larger, will have heard and acted upon this call; and that such action had contributed much to bring forward the day when the organization of capital and the organization of labor shall together constitute the organization of industry.

Meanwhile, could anything make it more clear that every person who, claiming to be building higher the moral structure of society, makes a convenience of any of the great sanctions which hold its deep foundations together, is a traitor to all that is human?

ROBERT A. WOODS.

Boston.

SOME PERTINENT QUERIES

In the explosion of many voices how many have uttered the one clear call of first importance—the call for the truth, the whole truth regarding both sides, the truth without fear and without favor? If labor leaders have committed acts of violence, the trail

of blood-guiltiness should be followed wherever it leads, and the guilty should be punished by the firm but not vindictive hand of the law. Physical violence is a war measure, and resort to it is destructive of the best interests of all classes, and most of all of those of the laboring class.

But what about the other side in this conflict? Has the violence of the McNamaras and perhaps of others been the blind striking back of labor against the provocation of capital? Has there been violence of capital—only more secretly directed, and better hidden? Has the vindictiveness of labor to any extent been justified as natural retaliation for the ruthlessness of capital? If labor has been indifferent to the loss of life from bomb explosion, has capital been indifferent to the loss of life through reckless exposure to accident and death? Have private detectives and strike-breakers also their death-roll of blood-guiltiness?

Have both sides in the long conflict between employers and workmen in the structural iron industry acted in disregard of the constitutional rights and personal liberty of the other? Until there has been a searching inquiry as to the provocation given for the 113 (more or less) dynamite explosions laid to the door of the iron workers, no one can answer these questions fairly or justly. Let us have the whole truth about both sides in this struggle before we pass final judgment upon either.

I doubt if either employers or workmen are looking for advice just now; but it would be well if both sides were told that intelligent, fair-minded people abhor equally reckless sacrifice of life by workmen and the ruthless crushing of rights of organization and of self-protection by employers. Let us have a fair, complete view of the conflict of the last five years between the structural iron workers and their employers. I do not know who is the more guilty during the whole period—who does? "Ye shall know the truth and the truth shall make you free" seems to me the wisest thought to be offered for all parties at this moment.

JAMES BRONSON REYNOLDS.

New York.

THE REACTIONARY AND THE RADICAL FANATIC

There are two obvious lessons to be learned from the occurrences of the last two weeks. The first is that no civilized community will tolerate destruction of life as a method of securing an improvement of economic status. No end, however desirable in itself, will warrant such an infringement of the fundamentals of civilization. Until our labor leaders not only realize but emphasize this fact, not much can be hoped for in the way of solving the labor problem.

On the other hand, it is equally obvious that the self-confessed criminals who have sought to justify their violence on the score of principle represent a type of mind that

has begun in this country to despair of equality of economic opportunity, and that is being driven into violence because of the conviction that no other kind of action is possible. For this state of mind two classes in the community are responsible—the extreme conservatives in the capitalist class who push their individualism to the point of opposing labor unions as such, and who are endeavoring wholly to eliminate organized labor from the industrial field; and, on the other hand, the extremists in the labor ranks, like the Socialists, who incessantly preach the inevitability of class conflict and the coming of the social revolution. Both extremists are sincere and enthusiastic. The Socialists think that they have discovered a constructive program with which to regenerate society; the extremists in the capitalist ranks think that they alone are in a position to preserve the dearly bought achievements of the human race during the long struggle toward civilization. What is needed is a realization of the fact that both sides have something to learn; that, while we must strongly repress the violence that leads to anarchy, we must not less vigorously object to the other causes that are creating the anarchistic spirit. We must realize that the path of progress lies in the direction of mutual understanding rather than of mutual recrimination, and that this understanding must be found on the part of the "haves" as well as on that of the "have nots."

When the reactionary ceases his intolerant opposition and learns to recognize the wisdom of sane social reform, the radical fanatic will preach to deaf ears and violence will be as rare as progress will be sure.

EDWIN R. A. SELIGMAN.

New York.

JUSTICE THE ONLY PREVENTIVE

No light can be shed upon the present situation by treating it as an isolated episode. It is an integral part of the whole texture of our national life, and any constructive action in regard to it must, in order to serve a helpful purpose, be based on recognition of this fact.

In a modern, industrial democracy, the only preventive of violence is justice—political, social, industrial. As a people we do not practise justice, and we pay the penalty in recurring violence in diverse forms.

We deny justice to wage-earners, as we exemplify in the case of the Triangle factory fire. What penalty has attended the taking of the lives of 146 young workers in that fire? What indemnity reaches the dependent members of their families, deprived of breadwinners? All legal provision for assured indemnity had been rendered impossible in advance by the decision of the Court of Appeals of the state of New York. Death by fire is death by violence. But when inflicted upon wage-earners in the course of their work, it is so far countenanced that systematic, statutory provision for charging a

teaching of religion which emphasizes brother-love. The Old Testament, the New Testament, Socialism, and all forms of religion preach this doctrine; yet how little is it practised! This failure must be charged to the church and synagogue, whose duty it should have been to teach the capitalist that the workingman is his brother, and to explain to the laborer the true respect for honestly acquired wealth. The Bible offers inspiration enough to the clergymen, and bids them champion the cause of the needy. But the church in the past has not seen its duty to do this. Let the ministers of all denominations preach real religion, to care for the day laborer, and live it by standing together, regardless of their creeds, in opposition to the modern form of slavery, and see how quickly the forces of evil will vanish. Then will the capitalist see mutual benefit through aiding labor, and the workingman will respect the just claims of capital. Both will realize that neither is independent, each needs the help of the other.

RUDOLPH I. COFFEE.

Pittsburgh.

SOCIALISM VS. SABOTAGE

QUESTION: What should be demanded of organized labor in putting its house in order?

ANSWER: There can be no doubt that trade unionism and organized labor as such cannot be held responsible for the McNamara case. On the other hand, there can be no doubt that the tactics of the old-line trade union leaders will sometimes lead to catastrophes of that type—even against the will of these leaders.

And in view of the fact that some old-line labor leaders are trying to divert attention to themselves by attacking the Socialists, we must point to the fact that the McNamaras belong to the ultra-conservative wing of the trade union movement and have been the devout followers of these labor leaders.

We defended the McNamaras because we believed them innocent—as we will defend other workmen again under similar circumstances. A man who is accused has the right to be considered innocent until proved guilty either by the court or by his own confession.

But the truth is that a "pure and simple" trade union leader is often only a step removed from syndicalism, sabotage, slugging, and violence. With the conservative labor union the result of a strike is everything. The members of such a union know no other weapon than the strike or the boycott. If they lose a big strike, then the existence of the organization is in danger. In order to avoid this danger, the leaders must sometimes go to extremes.

The Socialist view of the class struggle is different. With the Socialist, a strike or a boycott is simply a little incident in the great struggle for the emancipation of labor. And the lost strike is often much more useful than the strike that was won by foul means.

It will in every instance arouse the dormant class-consciousness. It naturally points to the law-making machinery as a means to better the condition of labor. It shows that brains are more effective than brick-bats, especially in a political democracy.

In Germanic countries, thanks to Socialism, the anarchist tactics never got a foothold. And even in the Latin and Slavic countries the anarchists are held down by the Socialists.

In this respect the McNamara case may, after all, help to clarify and enlighten the labor movement.

But organized labor must put its house in order by dispensing with such leaders as still adhere to the old tactics, which readily lead to terrorism whenever the strike is in danger of being lost. Organized labor must learn that the scene of the battle has very largely shifted from the economic field to the political field, and that the workingman must also resort to the ballot in order to improve his condition.

QUESTION: How should we overhaul the law (or governmental machinery) so that the wage-earner who singly or collectively acts within it shall be strong and not weak in securing for himself substantial justice?

ANSWER: This is a difficult question for a man who is not a lawyer to answer. Before anything practical can be done, the working class must have at least some hold on the law-making machinery. The workingman cannot reasonably expect laws in their favor from their opponents, nor from the men who represent their enemies, the capitalist class, in the legislatures.

VICTOR L. BERGER.

Washington.

ONE ANSWER

For a Socialist, there can be hardly more than one answer to the questions proposed by THE SURVEY as to the labor movement after the McNamara case: the wage-workers can serve themselves and the country best by uniting in a political party that defines their group interests and through which they can make their demands effective at the polls.

Their only alternative is the strike, supplemented on the one hand by lobbying either at the doors of legislatures in which they are unrepresented or at the insidious banquets spread for them by their masters, and on the other by such unsocial and ineffective guerilla warfare as has just flared to a sensational climax in the confession of the McNamaras.

The strike, indispensable in the past and still often indispensable, is at best a crude instrument in a democracy; it bears heavily and wastefully upon the workers themselves and upon the community at large, and as a sole reliance is incapable of reaching the underlying causes of industrial hostility.

The only effective instrument for the attainment of substantial justice in a democracy is the political party. The strength of the manufacturers has been in their control

of political parties, the strength of the merchant traders has been in their control of these same parties; the weakness of the wage-workers, including the rapidly growing group of salaried employes, has been and is in their failure to develop a political party through which they might have adequate representation in the councils of the nation.

So long as the wage-workers acquiesce in political and therefore in economic dependency, so long as they are content to rely for the advancement of their interests upon their ability to appeal to "the good-will of the wealthy" or upon intimidation, so long as they fail to assume their full responsibilities as citizens in a democracy and hold aloof from the political party which represents their cause and which they should develop and control, their prospects of securing social and political justice will be very little greater than those possessed by the chattel slaves before the Civil War.

ROBERT W. BRUÈRE.

New York.

THE HOUSE DIVIDED

The vital and arresting point in this affair is its disclosure of a state of internecine war in our civilization. In America there is not one nation but two, as in every other country where modern industrialism has brought forth its perfect work—roughly, a mudsill nation at the bottom, with a privileged, a leisure nation at the top. And this lower nation of America feels more closely at one with its mudsill comrades of Europe than with the upper nation here. A class struggle exists—a fact glaringly obvious except to them whose eyes are bleared by self-interests. An idle class is more effectually sundered in its mental and moral outfittings from a worker class than are two diverse nationalities. And this discrepancy is being augmented daily by economic laws at work, ruthless and impersonal as a force of nature. Political democracy, married to an industrialism owned by the few, is illegitimate union, basely unnatural, and will have none but a bastard progeny. To-day some live without working, while others work without living—a posture of affairs grotesquely impracticable in a state whose corner-stone flares forth the affirmation that all men are born free to become equal. In an echo of words spoken by one of our country's wisest, America cannot exist part idle and part industrial; for all idleness is at the expense of industry, and this the industrious are beginning to discover.

BOUCK WHITE.

Brooklyn.

THE PUBLIC AND INDUSTRY

It is fortunate when dynamiters are forced to confess by irresistible evidence so that other men who would plot to destroy property and life in the dark may know that they cannot expect to escape detection. But had as dynamiting is, it is a comparatively small

feature of our present-day history. We must not allow it to divert attention from the continuous processes and methods that are daily depressing our vitality and standards. The responsibility does not rest merely on employers and employes. The general public seeking to get the most for their money, satisfied with a narrow passive righteousness, and carelessly lacking in interest in their neighbors except when stirred by direct attack on their own supposed rights, only dimly realize the extent of growing evils which threaten national life.

Labor questions must be dealt with in an intelligent and practical way or our national vitality, physical and moral, will be sapped. They affect every one of us; we all must share in the responsibility for the harm that is being done; no one of us can shift the burden by pleading ignorance. The startling sins of the wicked few are as nothing in comparison with the sins of omission of the many who think themselves righteous.

The first step toward any improvement is knowledge of facts. Those who know what is happening must persistently work to get the whole truth and nothing but the truth widely spread in simple form and in a way that will command attention. At this time there is no department of government that is of greater importance than that which deals with labor questions. Only government can get at the whole truth through its power to compel testimony and enter private premises. All who want improvement in labor conditions on a basis that will be fair to all concerned—to employers and employes and the general public—should concentrate effort on the establishment of departments in every state that will thoroughly and impartially study labor conditions, inform the public, enforce the laws. These departments must be under the direction of commissions, in order that a fairly all-round point of view may be insured, and the public must insist that they shall be manned by fearless, fair-minded, sensible, unselfish leaders. With a single head such a department is likely to be controlled by partisan or political influence. Liberal appropriations must be made so that these commissions may have adequate and efficient staffs for law enforcement, investigation, and publicity. Without adequate equipment they will merely encourage in the public a sense of security; we are too easily satisfied with putting good laws on the statute book and not providing the means for proper enforcement. I believe that only by commissions shall we learn comprehensively the real truth as to labor conditions and lay a foundation for discovering proper remedies.

Wisconsin has set a good example in establishing her industrial commission with three commissioners. If it is boldly supported and keenly watched by the whole people, whom it is created to serve, it will be one of the most powerful agents in the state's spiritual growth.

JOHN M. GLENN.

New York.

THE PREFERENTIAL SHOP

The crime of the McNamaras vividly illustrates the distorted view and the perperate extreme to which some of the union labor men have felt themselves driven. While it for the time discredits the unions, it certainly raises the question as to whether the wisest policy of the employers is not to recognize the rights of their employes with a sympathy born of knowledge of their wants.

In any large industry, dealing with the workmen must be done collectively, and it is to the interest of employers to encourage the formation of unions and then closely cooperate with them, as is now being done in the cloak-making industry of New York. The plan under which they are operating, known as the preferential shop, concedes the right of the men to organize and to ask for union hours, union rates of wages, and union sanitary conditions; moreover, the employers, recognizing the necessity of a strong union, agree to prefer union labor when engaging workers, and to urge those who do not belong to the union to join the union. On the other hand, the rights of the non-union man are recognized in that he may be employed in the shops where union labor is preferred, and that when so employed he is to receive the same pay and to work under the same conditions and the same hours as the union man. This plan, which was suggested by Louis D. Brandeis, and which has been in successful operation for over a year, has made good feeling take the place of distrust and hatred. It has led to a great improvement in the sanitary conditions and the safety of the workmen, and has produced a stability of the utmost value to the industry.

May the tragedy at Los Angeles turn our minds to this kind of a solution of the labor question, humane and brotherly, and economically sound.

WM. JAY SCHIEFFELIN.

New York.

THE LAW AND THE COURTS

Only on THE SURVEY'S second question have I any first-hand knowledge and therefore an opinion to express. That opinion is as follows:

Lincoln Steffens's assertion that "conditions are bringing healthy good-tempered boys to believe that the only recourse for improving the conditions of the wage-earner is to use dynamite against property and life" is incorrect so far as concerns conditions of the law and the courts—and so incorrect as to be grotesque. Such supposed conditions might be due either to the state of the law or to the personnel of the courts. (1) As for the law, there is today in no field a discrimination against the laborer, the employe, or the labor-union. The one exception is the law of employers' liability for industrial injuries; and this injustice, inherited from a past generation, is being cured by legislation as rapidly

as careful thinking will permit. Another exception might have been found, twenty years ago, in the boycott law; but it has now disappeared substantially everywhere, under the peaceful "light of reason." Legislation on factory hygiene is still needed; but so is other hygiene legislation. There is no discrimination in the law of arrest; the outcry about the Indianapolis "kidnapping" was baseless; the same law and method of arrest applies and is proper in all cases. (2) As to the courts, there were once many and are still a few judges who have strong prejudices against union labor. But there are also judges with prejudices against capitalists and employers. Judges Sanborn and Caldwell, of the federal bench, are types of these opposite extremes. For the judges as a whole, no such assertion can be made.

But our justice is defective at countless points? Assuredly, and many of us in the legal profession are working night and day to cure those defects. But those defects do not discriminate against labor, or union labor, as such. They bear as hard on others, and on everybody. All honest men have equal reason to be zealous in removing them.

THE SURVEY'S second question is therefore to be answered thus: Except for legislation on industrial insurance and perhaps factory hygiene, the overhauling which is needed by the law and its machinery to secure substantial justice for all is not due to any present discrimination against the wage-earner.

JOHN H. WIGMORE.

Evanston, Ill.

THE OLD ERROR

The announcement that the McNamaras have confessed their guilt is a sickening moral shock to those who had believed in their innocence. There is much that one is tempted to say, but I have time now only to point out that their desperate and cruel crime was based on an old error, the fundamental error of thinking that there are circumstances which justify force and brutality and violence.

All the brutality, all the violence in civilization are based on that error, including official brutality and violence; and no cause can succeed, no people can become really great until they learn that, as Tolstoy says, there are no such circumstances.

There is no more good in dynamite than there is in Pinkerton bullets, for instance; no more good in assassination than there is in hanging, and no difference between them; they are all the same.

It is another betrayal of the cause of labor, and labor's enemies will take advantage of it, despite the protestations some of them made at the opening of the drama that it involved only the guilt or innocence of individuals, and not the justice of a cause.

In that, of course, they were correct, al-

though the vast background was always there, and against it the mighty protagonists could be seen in their struggle.

But the fact that its leaders have committed awful crimes does not prove that the cause of labor is unjust. It has been betrayed over and over again in its history; it must have learned that so much more is expected of it morally than is expected of privilege, in whose name so many crimes have been committed down the centuries; and it will do now what it has done on so many pitiful, on so many tragic occasions, before this; it will get up and go on towards justice and the light.

BRAND WHITLOCK.

Toledo, O.

THEIR QUESTION AND OURS

Otis and Steffens both are right. It is impossible to tolerate lawlessness, for along that line lies ruin both for American democracy and for the cause of labor. Organized labor must pitilessly rid itself of the terrorists. On the other hand, how laborers fare in their dealings with employers is not *their* question only; it is *our* question. For no system is a success if under it the great body of workmen are not sharing proportionately in the gains of economic progress—if they are dropping toward the rear of the social procession. I believe in focusing the intelligence and conscience of organized society upon the labor question, and I believe in the free use of rational laws to better the lot of labor. We do not yet know how far law may be used to the advantage of labor, but at least we can adopt the labor legislation which has proved itself successful and salutary in other parts of the world. And we can limit this vast influx of immigrants, which obliges American workmen to sell their labor in an open market, while the rest of us dispose of our services in a naturally protected market.

EDWARD A. ROSS.

Madison, Wis.

UNIONISM AND UNIONISM

The dynamiting of the Los Angeles *Times* building was not merely the isolated act of an irresponsible pervert, but was the outcome of conditions which inhere in the American industrial and social situation. No solution of the problem which it presents, therefore, can be founded on sentiment or passion. We must seek the remedy, if there be one, through a better understanding of the general situation and causes which were responsible for the act.

The first step in this direction is to discriminate clearly between unionism and unionism. These McNamara outrages are commonly attributed to "American unionism" and as a result of them "organized labor" is called upon "to put its house in order." Such statements simply blind men to the real nature of the case. There is no such thing as "Ameri-

can unionism," meaning by that phrase a common type or organic entity. What we have instead is a series of union types almost as distinct in their character, ideals, and methods as the various types of business units, and with little more mutual responsibility. The McNamara brothers and their ilk are not the representatives of unionism as such, but of a *predatory type of unionism*, and the key to the problem which their acts present is to be found in the character of this peculiar union type and the causes which have developed it.

The predatory union is the analogue of predatory capital. It is led by men who have fought and schemed their way to a dominating position with little regard for the rights and welfare of their fellows or the legitimacy of their methods. Its rank and file have commonly been driven into it by cut-throat competition. Its sole purpose is more, more, more now for its members, and the devil take the public. Its higher officers are irresponsible bosses who have no respect for law, and whose followers know little and care nothing about the methods used, so long as the bosses "deliver the goods." It has no principles, it seeks combination now with the employers and now with labor. Its sole guide is immediate expediency. It wars not on capital but on society. Its minor weapons are the bribe and the black-jack. Its "heroes" persuade with the gun and the infernal machine.

The elimination of this type of unionism is the real problem that confronts us. To solve this problem we must get back of the thing itself to the causes which produce it. What is it, then, that gives rise to predatory unionism in American society? To answer this question fully would require a careful overhauling of our whole system of industry, of rights, and of morals. The following, however, are obviously significant causes:

1. The attitude of the radical employers and of a good part of the public toward labor and labor's "rights." The radical employer is unconsciously the most class-conscious member of society. He naively identifies his interest with the interest of society as a whole. He has a definite viewpoint, and the property rights, the rules of the industrial and social game, which the employing class has built up and crystallized into law and custom, represent to him absolute right and justice. It does not seem possible for him to conceive that there may be other legitimate viewpoints besides his own, and other legitimate standards, therefore, of right and justice. So, when the workers make demands which run counter to the rights and rules which his class has established, he is nonplussed. He can only set it down to knavery or foolishness. To him, therefore, the workers are fools and their leaders knaves, and he uncompromisingly resists their demands as violations of the sacred rights of the employer and of property. Thus he fosters class feeling, and forces labor organizations constantly towards non-peaceful and illegal attitudes and methods. For example, because he can not understand that a "group standard of living" may be as legitimate a matter for protection as a normal rate of profit, he and his fellows enact for Los Angeles an anti-picketing law, and thus take from the workers the main legal weapon which they have for use against cut-throat wage competition.

2. The organization and conduct of industry which penalizes the worker for increase of out-

put and effort, and forces him to suffer positive loss for every gain of society through industrial improvements. The worker is informed on every hand that the only way in which he can increase his income is by increasing his efficiency and output. But bitter experience has taught him that speeding up means a lowering of the piece rate, and that increased output by the members of his group means either increased profits which may be invested in other lines of enterprise as a demand for outside labor, or a fall of prices which results not in a raising of his wages but of the real wages and profits of outside labor and consumers. He knows by experience also that improved methods, new processes and machinery which increase output and profits, usually do not add to his wages, but on the contrary threaten the displacement of his labor, the loss of his job, and an enforced search for work on a lower plane of competition. Under these circumstances, is it any wonder that a type of unionism is developed that has little regard for industrial progress, and that seeks its own immediate well-being regardless of the interests of that society which has only penalties to offer for serving its interests?

3. The example of predatory capital. And when the worker, thus condemned as a fool, thus convinced that increased effort and industrial improvements recoil in penalties upon him, sees predatory capital growing beyond the power of his organization to engage it in equal combat by legitimate methods, fattening upon monopoly, defying the law, and escaping its penalties by influence and technical delays, surely the ideal conditions have been amply created for the development of predatory capital's counterpart, the predatory union.

Respect, indeed, is due under such circumstances to the great body of labor organizations which look to the welfare of their fellows, which maintain a temperate spirit, which condemn violence, and seek their ends by peaceful and law-abiding methods.

If there is any virtue in this fragmentary analysis, certain conclusions looking toward the avoidance of violent union acts, such as those committed by the McNamara brothers, follow almost as a matter of course.

The first remedial measure is to identify and isolate this type of predatory unionism, that it may be proceeded against with all the force which is in the law and public opinion. How can this be done? Not by imputing such acts to unionism as such; not by calling on "organized labor to put its house in order." Such crude and indiscriminating talk can have but this effect: to blur the distinction between legitimate and predatory unionism in the minds of the workers, to drive the legitimate types of unionism into the attitude of half-identifying their interests with those of the predatory type—as was actually done in this McNamara affair. It is a case which demands understanding, and education both of the worker and of the employer. The worker must be taught to distinguish between unionism and unionism, so that he may not be led to feel that his union and his interests are attacked when society proceeds against the degenerate labor organizations and men.

On the other hand, the employer must be wrenched loose from his narrow feudalistic absolutism. He must be taught the modern theory of rights. He must be made to alter his scale of values with respect to human life and property. Above all he must be made to see that right and wrong, good and bad, are largely matters of viewpoint; that

the worker's viewpoint, like his own, is the inevitable outcome of working and living conditions, and that from the worker's viewpoint the aims, demands, and methods of organized labor are just as well thought out, just as legitimate, just as true, just as important, as are the aims and methods of capitalistic enterprise to the employer. He must learn that if he would change labor's attitude he must go behind the men and change the conditions which make them what they are.

Without this broader understanding, this more reasonable attitude, this study of causes, on the part of the employer and the public, it is futile to talk about "overhauling the law or the governmental machinery so that the worker may be strong and not weak in securing for himself substantial justice."

Just one further suggestion. The push toward predatory unionism comes in large part from the lack of effective machinery for the redress of labor's legitimate grievances through political action. The remedy for anarchy and "direct action" is the use of the ballot. What this country needs is a real and a strong labor party which can be depended upon to voice labor's attitude and to work effectively for remedial legislation in its interests. We should therefore welcome the present beginnings of such a movement, or at least grant it a fair hearing and a fair opportunity to demonstrate what it can do.

Chicago.

ROBERT L. HOXIE.

JOINT BOARDS OF CONTROL THE WAY OUT

Within the past sixty years the United States has changed from an agricultural and trading nation into an industrial one. This change has been so rapid and the development in industry so tremendous that there has been neither time nor opportunity for the men who have taken part in it to become properly trained for their duties. The result has been the application of crude methods of organization and management, which worked only when accompanied by severe means of enforcement. Force generates resistance, and those who had to put up with these conditions naturally resented their treatment and used such means as circumstances offered to alleviate it.

Such a situation usually develops a serious crisis before concerted and intelligent action is taken to ameliorate it. It has been a perfectly natural and logical development in this industrial war that dynamite should have become the ultimate weapon, when all others had failed. To those who have been participants in or students of the strife, its character has been well understood. Out of this situation has arisen a type of leader who thrives through the existence of acute warfare, and who sees that it is maintained in order that he may make good, and hold his job. This is true in the armies of both an-

tagonists in the strife. It could not be otherwise.

The only good that can now come from a complete disclosure of such methods is in the enlightenment of the public to the true situation. If this can be done, so as to show the defects of the present system, and point out more effective ways by which employer and employe may come to a better working basis, much may be accomplished. As we are learning that it is a waste of time and money to support an army and navy to enforce the fallacious principle that "might makes right" between nations, so we must apply the substitute that "nothing is settled until it is settled right" in industry, and that it requires conference, and the consideration by each of the other side's point of view, in order to determine what is right for all concerned.

The education of the employer in the fundamental economic principles of organization and management is one of the prime necessities of the day in this new industrial era. The colleges fortunately are becoming alive to this necessity. The press, by giving space to the utterances of the students of the problems involved, is educating the general public in the same direction.

Only by taking into account the experiences of the past, where each of the two parties to the issue considered only his own interest, and readjusting conditions so that these parties can come together to consider each other's rights, can the ultimate solution of the trouble be obtained.

In the arrangement now reached in the cloakmakers' industry in New York city, where there has been formed a joint board of control, composed of representatives of the employer, employe, and the public, I think I see the nucleus of a movement which, if properly directed and intelligently managed, is destined to be a pioneer in the right direction.

H. F. J. PORTER.

New York.

STRIKE VS CIVIL USAGE

The vindication of the law is, of course, a necessary consequence of the crimes that have been committed in connection with the McNamara case; but I regard the mere prosecution of these men and their associates as of small importance compared with the good that must result from the concentration of the public mind upon the iniquities of the leadership of a large section of organized labor throughout the world. It is time that the public realized that it has wasted too much sympathy on labor movements and that steps were taken to make labor organizations conform to the same rules of conduct as other associations.

The strike has been regarded by a very large proportion of the public as a legitimate weapon, to be used by the laboring classes at any time that any grievance, real or imaginary, arose. To my mind no man has the right to strike; that is, to leave the work of his employer before the expiration of the time

for which he has engaged himself to serve. I can not understand why the buying and selling of labor is in any way different from the buying and selling of any commodity; and, to my mind, the failure of one party to live up to his bargain should be as actionable in the case of labor agreements as of any other kind of contracts. As chairman of the executive committee of the General Arbitration Board of the New York Building Trades, I was engaged for more than five years in the adjustment of nearly all of the disputes that arose in inter-trade relations between the thirty or more trade unions affiliated with that board and the employers' association of the same board; and I may say that my experience there teaches me beyond peradventure that there is no dispute than can arise between employer and employed, or between union and union, that cannot be settled by fair-minded men without recourse to forcible measures of any kind.

The strike is an unnecessary and should be by statute an illegal weapon. It is just as possible to adjust labor disputes and differences through civil courts of one kind or another as it is to adjust any other type of dispute or difference. Why not? What a spectacle our civilization would make of itself if we resorted to force to bring about an adjustment of breaches of contract! But we go along day by day and permit the laboring classes to use forcible methods in the settlement of their grievances, and we put up with any amount of inconvenience and loss of time and even money when a labor organization "ties up" the railway service, or the express service, or the street cleaning service. Can anyone tell why? It is because it has become axiomatic that laboring people have the right to strike; and they have no such right, where we measure "right" as the moral attitude that one man should hold to another. Society has established these "rights" pretty thoroughly in all human relations except those between employer and employed. Society has set up courts and provided rules whereby the rights of individuals and co-operation of every kind may be maintained, excepting the rights of the individuals and co-operation of the labor world. These have been permitted to make their own rules and carry out their own ideas by any method they see fit, regardless of the convenience or loss of the employer or of the public, yea, even to the use of dynamite.

No one in his senses denies the workingman the right to organize and maintain unions or any other association he sees fit; but he should be amenable to the rules that govern all other civil relations; and if the way has not been provided for his relief the way should be made, that his grievance may be promptly heard and his rights fully maintained, whether he petitions as an individual or through an association to which he may belong.

The public has been too patient and too long-suffering, but perhaps the public has reaped only as it has sown. It has failed

to take hold of this problem and find a solution for it. But the problem is no longer academic. If the intricate and complicated disputes of the thirty-three unions of the New York building trades can be settled without resort to strike, and that fact has been conclusively proved, the way can be found for the settlement of all labor disputes. It will be said that there have been strikes in spite of the arbitration board. That is true, but for every strike that has been called, a score of disputes have been adjusted without such recourse, and there has been no justification even for the strikes that have been called. The restraining power has not been sufficient, although the court itself has been competent enough.

Perhaps, therefore, these outrages on the part of organized labor that find their culmination in the McNamara confession will produce lasting good—not, however, as they have hoped, by giving labor a larger scope, but by confining labor to the definite and fixed lines of civil usage and by the establishment of provisions for their regulation and conduct and relief.

ROSS FRANCIS TUCKER,

New York.

ASCERTAIN THE UNDERLYING CAUSE

In the midst of our indignation over the unpardonable crimes of trade union leaders disclosed at Los Angeles, should not our statesmen and thinkers seek to ascertain the underlying causes of this widespread, deliberate outburst of crimes of violence?

What was it that led men like the McNamaras really to believe that the only recourse they had for improving the condition of the wage-earner was to use dynamite against property and life? Certainly it was not individual depravity.

Was it not because they, and men like them, believed that the wage-earner, acting singly or collectively, is not strong enough to secure substantial justice?

Is there not a causal connection between the development of these huge, indomitable trusts and the horrible crimes now under investigation?

Are not these huge trusts large contributing causes to these crimes—unintelligent expressions of social unrest? Is it not irony to speak of the equality of opportunity in a country cursed with their bigness?

LOUIS D. BRANDEIS.

Boston.

FIRST: A HOUSE

The radical tendency in the present-day labor movement is the direct result of the unreasonable and unreasoning attitude of some employer's associations with reference to trades unionism.

Organized labor has made many mistakes, but it is not peculiar in this regard. Organized capital has sinned ever more deeply and with less excuse. Organized labor represents men—organized capital represents

money. Labor represents flesh and blood—and demands a living. Capital represents vested interests—and demands dividends. Labor has always been more important than capital and entitled to greater consideration. This is not the doctrine of an "agitator." It was taught by Abraham Lincoln, who regarded such problems from an eminently sane viewpoint.

Let it be admitted that organized labor shall "put its house in order." But, first of all, let it be conceded that organized labor shall have a house. The almost fanatical attempt to put organized labor out of business has resulted in bitterness of the kind which must inevitably result in Los Angeles tragedies. Let it be frankly admitted that most employers' associations are organized to exterminate trades unions—not only bad trades unions, but all trades unions. The lawyer-secretaries of manufacturers' associations and citizens' alliances are fattening on the unholy propaganda which they are conducting, most of them making mountains of evil-trades-union mole-hills, saying never a word about the moral and ethical value of organized labor.

It's all right to demand that organized labor shall "purge its ranks of lawless methods, principles, purposes, and persons," but, by the same token, let employers in their associations set their workmen a better example. The greatest anarchists in America today are not the men in the ranks of organized labor. The most dangerous anarchists in this country are high in the councils of commerce and finance.

The moral responsibility of the solution of the industrial problem rests as squarely upon the shoulders of the employers as it rests upon the working men. A merely negative policy will not suffice. Employers of labor must present a constructive program which involves an absolutely square deal to every man.

If they decline to give justice to the worker; if they decline to recognize the men in the organizations which they themselves have constituted; if they insist upon exterminating these organizations: then there is only one alternative—Socialism.

If the interests of the employer and the employe are identical, then workmen should be persuaded of it. If their interests are not identical, the sooner we find it out, the better; for this knowledge will clear the atmosphere of some very vague and cloudy thinking.

New York.

CHARLES STELZLE.

ECONOMIC TRIBUNALS NEEDED

Organized labor should do its utmost to entrust leadership only to men of sound character, sober judgment, and capacity for self-effacement. Conditions in labor circles—this goes without saying—are not different from those prevailing in the circles of the employers of labor. In both camps the conviction prevails that the interests of the one

factor and force in the industrial world are opposed to those of the other. As yet the crude social theory of the early British economists that selfishness is the natural and therefore always most efficient method of obtaining success and getting results is the creed which, more blindly accepted than ever was dogma of church, inspires action and attitude on both sides of the imagined industrial boundary. It is assumed that a state of war exists. Practically such state of war does exist. And the theory which is in vogue in both camps is that such state is unavoidable and necessarily involved in the very constitution of things. War always inflames passion. It engenders bitterness. As bitterness increases, brutality—the original sin transmitted to man from his prehuman ancestors—pushes to the front. In war everything is fair. Even noble impulses under the pall of this misconception inspire actions that conflict with the well-being of society as a whole. Faith always and everywhere had its fanatics and its martyrs. The faith that the cause of the downtrodden is just, the suspicion that its justice is denied by the mightier—the men who are regarded as the beneficiaries of the injustice under which the weaker suffer—cannot but engender a state of mind among enthusiasts first, and then a code of conduct among fanatics, that if not checked in time will induce resort to violence and suggest recourse to explosives without the least regard for the life and the property of others, even though these be innocent bystanders, as it were. Psychologists know that conscience is neither uniform nor of one universal language. Conscience is the speech of the society in which we move and have our being. Prophets of the truth as yet unborn, but about to be born tomorrow, are the chosen spokesmen of a new conscience lifted to new declarations as yet not incorporated in social feeling and conduct. In our day of social warfare conscience is under the dominancy of class interest and class sentiment and class solidarity. What men care for is the approval of their fellows. But fellowship is circumscribed by class lines. To serve his set is the ruling ambition of the devoted fanatic. He courts even the martyr's crown and finds his reward in the approval of his class associates. This explains the motives of men who do not hesitate to steep their hands in blood when the cause of their class seems to their thinking to justify the deed which society at large cannot but detest as dastardly. Our conditions have produced one-sided thinking on social relations. For these conditions the responsibility is not exclusively with the sellers of labor. The purchaser of this precious commodity has done his part in producing the mental and moral atmosphere of the pernicious compositions of which we are oblivious until the flash of dynamite reveals to our frightened eye the horrible inhumanity with which it is surcharged. War is the ultimate ratio. Neglect

and obstinacy have occupied the seat of power altogether too unconcernedly in these days. Small wonder that fanatics of class interest despair of securing justice and under this bitter sentiment come to cherish the belief that only one way is left to get a hearing, namely, the resort to arms. This has been the temper and the motive of the propagandist of practical anarchy. It has been the plan of action of the revolutionist. It goes without saying that organized society cannot pact with this mood. It must repress it by all the means at its command which the law provides. Labor cannot hope to retain the sympathies of the nation unless its leaders do their part in curbing the fanaticism and the misguided zeal of its impatient propagandists. Even in speech it must cultivate self-restraint. Reason, not passion, must dominate its declarations. Justice never needs the words that consume, even if its cause cannot be presented without warmth of feeling and earnestness of conviction.

But this brings up the corresponding duty of the other army. Let employers cultivate the virtues which they expect laborers to manifest. Let them learn to lay aside the perilous notion that their relations with labor are those indigenous to a state of permanent and relentless warfare. War is the condition of primitive society. Slowly other agencies have evolved for the decision of disputes. Private warfare is now everywhere replaced by public and peaceful machinery of judicial decision and arbitration. Even nations have begun to understand the desirability of activating similar agencies for the settling of national controversies. Why not capital and labor? They are brothers, and brothers at that totally unlike Esau and Jacob. Arbitration is the solution of the vexed perplexity. It is the preventive of such deplorable occurrences as have stirred the nation recently. The law must provide the machinery for arbitration. Now, private agreement failing, disputants may go into court. Their case is heard and adjudicated by the people through the trained expert chosen for this task. His decision rests on wide experience incorporated in the law. Courts of arbitration to which both parties shall be legally bound to submit their grievances and their controversy should be called into being. The customary jury may be replaced by a body of experts and additional representatives of the public at large, men in whom all parties to the dispute could have confidence. A decision rendered by a tribunal of this composition would never fail of doing justice to all concerned. Its decision should be final. Unless in this wise war be changed to peaceful and human and rational methods of settling industrial disputes, we must be prepared for periodical outbreaks, horrible though they are, of the spirit of fanatical class devotion and violence.

EMIL G. HIRSCH.

Chicago.

PETITION TO THE PRESIDENT FOR A FEDERAL COMMISSION ON INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

(PRESENTED TO MR. TAFT DECEMBER 30)

To the President of the United States:—

The case of the State of California *vs.* the McNamaras is legally closed.

By confession of their guilt, the trial has been brought to a conclusion swift and indisputable. In all subsequent criminal proceedings involving industrial relations, we trust that the outcome as to guilt or innocence will be as clear and decisive.

But what happens from now on to the McNamaras in San Quentin prison does not concern the American people so profoundly as what happened, is happening, and may happen to workmen who did not and would not use dynamite as a method to secure their ends.

Their case has not been before the tribunal of the law. It comes before a larger tribunal—the social conscience of the nation, of which the law is only a partial expression. The courts accept and interpret the progress which society has made; but progress in a democracy implies the people's freedom to criticize and develop the very civilization which the courts conserve.

With our stupendous manufacturing development, the industrial workers assembled in many cities exceed by thousands the entire populations of whole states a generation ago. Our statutes in the main were originally enacted for the different conditions existing before these industrial changes, and naturally such evolution as there has been has been dominated by the readily mobilized forces and influences controlled by capital. Here, in part, lies the explanation of that serious distrust which has come to be felt by great masses of workers toward the fabric of our law and the structure and control of the machinery through which we apply it.

In order to arrive at the worker's point of view, it is necessary only to review the long list of occupational diseases, the failure of both employers and the state to prevent them or mitigate their effects, the lack of employers' liability laws, the failure to provide adequate safeguards against accidents in danger-

ous vocations, the attacks upon the constitutionality of laws to shorten the hours of women and of workers in certain trades, the reluctance of legislatures to abolish child labor—it is necessary only to contrast this dead center of the social machinery with the speed at which it acts to prevent picketing and rioting during strikes. The workingman sees the club of the officer, the bayonet of the militia directed against him in the defense of property, and he believes that the hand of the law, strong in the protection of property, often drops listless whenever measures are proposed to lighten labor's heavy burden. Occasional and imperfect expressions of this underlying feeling reach the surface. Those who dismiss them as sporadic assaults upon the judiciary have no appreciation of the depth and breadth of the social situation. There is profound restlessness among large groups of labor who feel that there are no organic ways open through which they can act collectively with respect to the things that most concern them—that they are thwarted when they get together for common strength and when, not as mutual benefit societies, but as aggregations of men, they set out to mind their business.

Thinking men and women of the nation must ask themselves: What channels are open to American workmen who, through collective effort, seek to better their conditions?

Are the American people prepared to counsel violence as the method to be employed—force, dynamite, intimidation? The answer has been given at Los Angeles: No, and the country affirms the judgment.

Is the channel of political action open? The answer of the spirit and institutions of the American democracy is—Yes; and, in increasing numbers, the workmen of the United States are each year turning to the ballot as a way out.

But are there not channels open for economic action to secure industrial justice? The answer made by great groups of em-

ployers and employes who jointly, year in and year out, adjust their interests without disturbance, and settle their differences without bitterness, is—Yes. The answer made by equally powerful industrial groups, of which the structural iron trade is in part a sobering example, is—No.

No: in terms of the labor policy which unrestricted capital has deemed itself justified to employ on grounds of self-protection.

No: in terms of discharge of those workmen who, refusing to rely for fair play and security upon the good-nature of foremen and superintendents, have attempted organized action.

No: in terms of spy systems and strike breaking organizations equipped to man a job and break the backs of local strikes, whether or no their cause be just.

No: in terms of evictions, injunctions, the very instruments of our self-government turned to root out the simplest forms of democratic action.

No: in terms of the economic disfranchisement of vast groups of American wage-earners.

Who is right?

The American people as a whole must think these things through. Too much hangs on them for mere individual conviction to be the last word. We need more light. Mindful, as the undersigned are, of the important duty which the department of justice has before it, we hold that the criminal court is not a sufficient instrument through which the democracy can address itself to the economic struggle. The federal grand juries may well concern themselves with those who have carried dynamite across state boundaries. We want light along a more crucial boundary line—the borderland between industry and democracy. We want light on that larger lawlessness which is beyond the view of the criminal court. This is a matter of public defence in which we, as a people, should if necessary invest as much money as we put into a battleship. We appeal to the federal government to create a commission, with as great scientific competence, staff, resources, and power to compel testimony as the Interstate Commerce Commission:

1.—To investigate (and on this point make a preliminary report within six months) conditions of labor during the last six years in the structural iron trade, including in the study the organizations of employers and employes, the methods and purposes of each, and the relations of each to the other.

2.—To gauge the break-down of our machinery of industrial government by tracing the trend of law and judicial decision through state and federal courts with respect to labor causes (the boycott, the picket, the injunction, the strike); and to examine the exact economic and legal status of the union, the union member, the non-union man, the strike-breaker, the tenant of a company house.

3.—To investigate the economic and social cost of strikes to employers, to workmen, and to the public.

4.—To examine and review the rules and records of trade unions and employers' associations in their relations to each other; the conditions of the trades in which unions are strong and those in which no unions exist.

Nor should such a commission's work be limited to these negative lines. It should be commissioned:

5.—To study and make report on the scope and methods and resources of federal and state bureaus of labor to the end that they may meet permanently those responsibilities which through the work of such a commission would be more adequately defined.

6.—To make special and exhaustive study into the practicability and working principles of schemes of economic government such as the trade legislature in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry, the joint arbitration board which for seven years controlled the New York building trades, the Wisconsin Industrial Commission, the Canadian Industrial disputes acts, the minimum wage boards long established in Australia and recently introduced in England.

Today, as fifty years ago, a house divided against itself cannot stand. We have yet to solve the problems of democracy in its industrial relationships and to solve them along democratic lines. On the same vitality, the same idealism, the same constructive justice of the people which stood the stress of Lincoln's time, we ground our confidence in petitioning the President and Congress of the United States to appoint a commission to investigate, study, and consider the grave problems of internal statesmanship herein set forth.

WILLIAM J. SCHIEFFELIN	JOHN A. FITCH
HENRY MORGENTHAU	PAUL KENNADAY
LILLIAN D. WALD	FLORENCE KELLEY
OWEN R. LOVEJOY	JOHN A. KINGSBURY
SAMUEL McCUNE LINDSAY	E. R. A. SELIGMAN
J. HOWARD MELISH	PAUL U. KELLOGG
HENRY MOSKOWITZ	JOHN COLLIER
ARTHUR P. KELLOGG	ROBERT ERSKINE ELY
STEPHEN S. WISE	GEORGE FOSTER PEABODY
JOHN HAYNES HOLMES	LOUIS D. BRANDEIS
FRANK OLIVER HALL	FRANK MASON NORTH
JOHN P. PETERS	JAMES BRONSON REYNOLDS
EDWARD T. DEVINE	LYMAN ABBOTT
JOHN M. GLENN	CHARLES S. MCFARLAND

ORGANIZED LABOR AND THE LAW

SAMUEL McCUNE LINDSAY

The McNamaras are plain, ordinary criminals, who acted with self-confessed brutal disregard of the rights of society. They said that their action was necessary to make effective the principles for which they and their associates were lawfully organized. All who believe that law rather than the appeal to force is sufficient to guarantee the right to liberty as well as property deny any such necessity. Americans almost without exception, including the thousands who belong to labor organizations, deny any such necessity. The McNamaras may well be left to their fate.

This is the reasoning of the average man who has not time to consider more than the superficial facts of this case and the concrete results of the trial at Los Angeles that ended so dramatically. It is to be hoped, however, that there will be some among those who in divers capacities help to mould public opinion—teachers, preachers, publicists, or by whatever name they may be called—who will ponder over these things and find for us their hidden significance. The profound shock to the finer sensibilities of countless thousands in the ranks of organized labor alone who responded so readily with their hard-earned savings to the traitorous call for help from those who at first plead not guilty of the grievous wrongs which they later admitted surely calls for some compensating lesson from this trial.

Only a few months before the tragedy enacted at Los Angeles, the Supreme Court of the United States handed down decisions in the Standard Oil and Tobacco Trust cases which impartially and judicially sifted volumes of evidence and certified to an equally shocking array of facts, according to which the paid representatives of organized capital and business were guilty of equally ruinous and brutal disregard of the rights of society. The only difference in the havoc wrought by the dynamite which the McNamaras planted in Los Angeles and elsewhere and the financial ruin accomplished by the agents of the Standard Oil and the Tobacco Trusts was that in the first case the lives lost numbered a few score and the property destroyed a few hundred thousand dollars, and in the second the property loss must be counted by the millions, and homes were broken up and innocent women and children included in the thousands of lives which unfair business competition crushed out by slower and more painful methods than dynamite. The same plea of necessity for the effective realization of principles was entered. Again Americans almost without exception will deny the necessity.

As one who believes in organized labor and equally in organized capital as necessary economic factors in progress, I am interested not merely in denying the necessity for the condemned methods of the McNamaras, the Standard Oil and Tobacco Trusts, and all the

other labor leaders and trust lawyers in order to make the "principles" of organized labor or organized capital effective, but far more in asking what the legal methods are which they ought to have employed and why they did not use them. We must not forget that the substitute for war—industrial or any other kind—and the savagery it involves is an appeal to law; and an appeal to law means an appeal to the courts which interpret and enforce law. If we would teach respect for law we must be able to teach respect for courts. Faith in law means faith in courts. If our courts are not worthy of respect, we will never succeed in persuading men that the appeal to law is their highest duty to themselves and to society.

Just here, unfortunately, is where society—social organization as it exists in the United States to-day—has its turn at confession. Within and without the ranks of the legal profession, the special guardians of the law, we find ample expression of doubt and misgiving. The recall of judges on the one hand is the political and radical expression of this feeling, and the reform of criminal procedure at the other extreme voices an equally loud protest from the most conservative members of the bar. Suppose the McNamaras had been very much more intelligent and philosophical in the business of driving out competition and creating artificial monopoly in their business, and had had much more ample capital back of them, and had retained the most expert counsel that money could obtain and that the lawless trusts had not already secured: what would their counsel have told them after studying all the cases decided hearing on what labor organizations may do lawfully?

Prof. George G. Groat of Ohio Wesleyan University has in some measure furnished the basis for an answer to this question in a most valuable and timely volume, entitled, *The Attitude of American Courts in Labor Cases*, just published by Columbia University.¹ No one can read this record, chiefly given in the exact words of the judicial decisions of the past decade, without receiving a profound impression that if capitalistic organizations have any grievance as to the uncertainties of the law and the variability of court decisions as a guide to what they may do lawfully, organizations of labor are in a thousandfold greater uncertainty. We shall indeed expect the weaker shoulders to carry the greater load if we are content to remain idle and indifferent in the matter of whether our courts catch up with industrial and economic changes.

Decisions which interpret the principles of

¹THE ATTITUDE OF AMERICAN COURTS IN LABOR CASES. By George G. Groat. Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law, Vol. XLII. Edited by the Faculty of Political Science, Columbia University. Longmans, Green, and Company. Pp. 400. \$2.50 by mail of THE SURVEY.

law in harmony with the real economic problems and conditions of a century ago represent about the best we find the average court able to do. This is indeed too great a span for conservatism to ask the wisest and most patient classes in society to bridge, and, with all its other struggles, the wage-earning class is not likely to develop the supreme patience and self-control needed for placing its reliance in an appeal to law under such conditions.

If the significance of the McNamara outrages shall be to direct our attention to the reform of the law and legal procedure, to the enlightenment of courts in the plainest economic truths, and to the development of legal principles to make them contribute to the ends of substantial social justice, we can afford to bear the shame of the recent exhibitions of lawlessness in the ranks of both capital and labor with which we have astonished the entire civilized world; and organized labor, which seems to have suffered most because it showed greater human sympathy with the misfortunes of its representatives than organized capital has ever revealed for the prosecuted trusts, will have some compensation for its misdirected philanthropy.

The task of reforming courts and legal procedure so as to give wage-earners, whether organized in unions to promote their own welfare or whether they choose to work individually to that end, a more reasonable hope in the efficacy of appeals to law rather than to lawlessness will not be so difficult a one if the disinterested members of society will set themselves to it and recognize its urgency. Substantial steps have already been taken by the foremost jurists in Europe and America in securing on the one hand a wide recognition of the utter futility and practical sophistry of the old view that law is based on principles of justice that are immutable and eternal, and on the other the growing acceptance of the new view that law is based on principles of justice that change as every other factor in the evolutionary process changes, and require constant re-formulation and manifold adaptations in their applications to the problems of a world of change to remain principles of justice at all. Thus the way is being prepared for the economist and the social worker to furnish the jurist with the facts of change in the industrial world, and to ask him to formulate principles of justice that will harmonize with the world in which we live and not with that in which our grandfathers had chiefly to do.

"Twentieth-century liberty, property, and happiness are not those of two centuries ago. . . . We neither want nor need the kind of rights our great-grandfathers had any more than we want or need the kind of stage coach they traveled in, or the kind of tools they worked with. To the extent that courts continue to insist upon our having such rights, society will be as seriously handi-

capped as it would be if stage coaches and hand sickles were forced upon us."

A few more decisions—as little in harmony with the trend of modern jurisprudence as with the unanimous findings of economic science—like the Ives case, in which the New York Court of Appeals declared the workmen's compensation law unconstitutional, will suffice to educate an effective public opinion that will make the courts see the necessity for change—as witnessed already by the refusal of the courts of other states to follow the reasoning in the Ives case.

A more fundamental conflict presents itself in the simultaneous development of legal principles sound in themselves but irreconcilable when appealed to by both parties in a conflict. In such cases the courts have failed to find any way out, except to decide in favor of one of the parties, and that has usually been the employer, whose rights seem to the courts to approximate more nearly to property rights which have more precedents in their favor. Given the unequal bargaining power of employers and employes, freedom of contract may be for one party a substantial right and for the other an empty meaningless thing. As Dr. Grotr very well says¹:

"In such a situation—one in which each party claims to be acting within its right in preventing the other from exercising the same right—it certainly cannot be said that the course of development of legal rights has reached a final stage.

"When such an issue comes before a court three courses seem to be open:

"The court may direct the parties to settle their differences among themselves by some sort of compromise, in the meantime keeping within their legal rights in making the adjustment. This might and very frequently does lead to an industrial deadlock.

"Again, the court may fall back on some former interpretation of the principle and accept it as a precedent for the present case. This might and frequently does lead to a decision favoring one of the parties against the other. Such a course very probably leads to the interpretation in favor of the employer, as has so often happened in the past.

"Or, finally, if the judge be one who is inclined to recognize the disadvantage of the employe in his rivalry with the employer, he might favor the employe at the expense of the employer's equal right.

"Any one of these courses may result in an injustice. The court may recognize this and seek a fourth course. It may endeavor to reduce the right to terms that will allow of a different interpretation, to find some superior right that will change in some way the nature of the contention. While this last would be the one altogether most desirable, it might very probably require a

¹Attitude of American Courts in Labor Cases, p. 377.

²Op. Cit. p. 242.

boldness in departing from precedent which most courts would not dare to exercise; a far step in the evolution of legal principles that judges are seldom willing to take. However great the difficulty of this procedure, it is certain that along this line alone will real progress be made."

Constitutions no less than the principles of the common law require a recognition of the actual and changing economic conditions in their interpretation and judicial determination. To quote again from Dr. Groat¹:

"If judges are to give an interpretation to the phrases of our constitution such that

these phrases shall be adapted to modern society, if they are to be able to see the reasonableness of legislation for social welfare, if they are to adjust the law to society, it is not enough that they shall know the law. They must know society. If society changes from decade to decade, then judges must keep pace with such changes. Changing society must be accompanied by changing adjustment in the law. No jurist can lay claim to real greatness who holds the view that constitutional law is an unchanging rule of action for society to which society must forever conform. Law is for society, not society for law."

"AN EXPERIMENT IN GOOD WILL"

In his Shame of the Cities Lincoln Steffens ripped the husks off municipal misrule here in America, and helped men see, for example, the essential fraud in a local political campaign in which both parties are tools of the same business interests.

The civic embezzlements he brought to light were not so important as the fact that he gave men fresh eyes to look out upon accepted things and understand their relations. Craft became less a sporadic case of moral turpitude when it was shown going through the same evolution in city after city, accompanying the same stages in political and commercial development. Men could, thereafter, as Henry expressed it after sending the big land thieves to jail with Burns's help, go after the liars-makers more than the law-breakers.

This fall Mr. Steffens returned to active newspaper work and under a commission of the New York Globe, the Kansas City Star, and about twenty other papers went to Los Angeles three weeks before the abrupt end of the McNamara trial. Here he was entering a new field, that of industrial relations. He found the trial hinging on a lie and his instincts were to help bring it out into the open, and get rid of it, so that conditions could be faced squarely. His participation in the variously judged events which brought the case to a close has perhaps obscured Mr. Steffens's work as interpreter; and moreover the events themselves gave a dramatic setting to the point of view of the McNamaras which, in the minds of people close to the labor movement, has produced an altogether exaggerated notion of the extent to which the philosophy of "direct action" has spread among American workmen.

It is, however, as an attempt to lead the people and especially the employing interests of an American community to look across the industrial cleavage and try to understand what is on the other side that he engaged in a piece of public service which his friends feel may in the end size up with his old work in interpreting those conditions which underlie the struggles of the cities towards self-government. In this aspect, his story of the Los Angeles incident becomes a page in the documentary history of the industrial cities of the United States. Only parts can be published here:

"Los Angeles, Dec. 2:—Labor and Capital both stand convicted here to-day, the one of direct crime, the other of inciting labor to crime. Innocent workingmen and innocent business men may protest this interpretation of the conclusion of the McNamara and all other labor propositions in this county yesterday afternoon.

"But I was a participant from the beginning nearly two weeks ago in the negotiations which led up to that result, and I know not only the facts and considerations which weighed with both parties, but I caught also the spirit of it all. And it was fine.

"Los Angeles has done something which, if the people here and in the country at large will understand it aright, must put the ancient controversy between labor and capital on a new and a clearer basis forever. This city had labor down. She could have wreaked vengeance on its agents and leaders, and executing Job Harriman the attorneys of labor know it.

"But the commanding men in this community didn't do that. They let labor up.

¹Op. Cit. p. 305.

And one reason why these capitalists did that was that they knew they also were at fault. And, having done this thing, in this spirit, they propose now to go on and do more.

"They will cross the class line. They promised me, some twenty of them, that they would meet with some of the labor leaders here and consider afresh the problem of labor.

"The beginning of the story was at Miramar, the ranch of E. W. Scripps, near San Diego, on Sunday, November 19. I went down there with Clarence F. Darrow, chief counsel for the defense, to visit for a day and we talked, all three of us, about everything under the sun, and finally about the McNamara case.

"We all three regretted that it couldn't be tried out on its merits, that it would be good for the world to know that there was a group of labor men which not only blew up buildings, but killed human beings. And something was said about this fact being an indictment against society. Mr. Scripps read a letter he had in his possession, which was a

complete statement of the philosophy of direct action. I shall write something about this phrase in a later letter.

"All the readers need to know at the present is that it covers the belief that force and violence are the only weapons labor has to fight with. We could all see that if this case could be tried so as to develop that theory as a defense, this terrible, true fact could be brought out into the light and dealt with.

"Some one else suggested that another way to accomplish the same end was to settle the McNamara cases on the basis of a plea of guilty. Such a plea would give us all a chance to assume that a part of organized labor had actually adopted the policy of force.

"This idea worked in my mind and the next day, on Monday, I decided to see if any men on the capitalist side in Los Angeles would consider a settlement of the cases.

"I called first on Meyer Lissner, a man who is one of the leaders in southern California of the Progressive Republican party. He was astonished at the suggestion, but I went on to remind him of the class line and the wound left in San Francisco by the prosecution of business criminals up there. Then I referred to the condition of European cities, where the class line has been drawn so hard and sharp that the class war is the personal trade in life of a people.

"You have it here," I said. "You have Socialists and labor men lined up against the other class, you have hate all through your system. That's bad. It may be that the class fight is never to end, but why not try some other way than fighting it out?"

"Mr. Lissner suggested calling on Thomas E. Gibbons. Mr. Gibbons balked like everybody else at first, but he saw it, and seeing it he thought he could make anybody else see it. He went out and saw first, I believe, Harry Chandler, who first said we were all crazy, but then he changed his mind and went crazy himself, so to speak.

"And I want to say right here that in all the interviews with all the men we all saw there was not one that took a small or a narrow view of it. It was the big idea in getting out the city that appealed to them all.

"When it appeared that men on that side were willing to make concessions, I went to Darrow. The question I put to him was whether he would consider a proposition to compromise. Like everybody else he decided it was impossible and meant that it was impossible both from his side and from the other side. But when I told him how generously the opposition regarded the proposition, he said that it might be a way out and he thought that both his clients, the McNamaras, and organized labor, could be made to see it.

"When the negotiations were apparently settled it was deemed advisable to take the matter up with a larger body of representative business men. Some twenty or more were hurriedly invited to Mr. Lissner's office Wednesday, November 29. Those who responded were:

Stoddard Jess, the leading financier of Los Angeles; J. O. Koepfli, former president of the Municipal League, and a large employer of labor; R. W. Burnham, local manager for R. G. Dun & Co.; Edward T. Earl, proprietor of two newspapers; Fred Baker, of the Baker Iron Works; M. T. Snyder, banker, former mayor of Los Angeles; T. E. Gibbon, leading lawyer and member of the Harbor Commission; Paul Shop, vice-president and general manager of the Southern Pacific Electric lines in southern California; James Slauson, president of the Chamber of Commerce; H. W. Frank, a prominent merchant; former United States Senator Frank P. Flint; W. J. Washburn, prominent banker and member of the city council.

"Here again the same comedy was gone through with, only in an exaggerated degree. It was comparatively easy to take one man by himself and show him, but to put the case to a group with many divergent views was more difficult.

"The first statement fell like a pall upon them. They saw the matter plainly enough. They grasped it in one statement, but Fred Baker raised the real question. He expressed for the rest of them his resentment of the troubles labor had caused him, and his predicament is real enough. Some of his friends were sore about it and they expressed feelings which are not unlike those that drive labor into the use of force. But as the conversation went along, it was represented to them that they also were guilty of wrongs to labor.

"And there was no denial of it. This was the spirit which gives an outsider the sense that if Los Angeles really goes at a job it can really do something. Certainly no other city could do more than these men here can toward having at least an understanding if not with, at least of, the needs and feelings and thoughts of labor. And that is what Mr. Baker's mind drove at. He wanted to know 'What next?' And that was the proposition, of course, and it was taken up there and it was acceded to on the experiment of a meeting with some labor leaders.

"In other words, at the conclusion the decision was to back quietly any action the district attorney should decide to take, and if a compromise was arranged not to rest content with that, but to go on and have a conference with labor upon the labor situation in Los Angeles.

"The day after meeting in Mr. Lissner's office, Thanksgiving Day, some eight or ten other leading citizens of the city were sought and four were found: William Mulholland, chief engineer of the Los Angeles aqueduct; J. B. Lippincott, assistant engineer of the aqueduct; W. B. Matthews, attorney for the Aqueduct Department, and Charles D. Willard, the man who, more than any other in this city represents and personifies the many years of fighting that has been done here for good government.

"All these men agreed that the compromise was just the thing to do.

"I have found among the bad men of politics, business, and labor that there is a certain capacity for sacrifice. If the idea is ideal enough men will work for it no matter what it costs. At any rate, it was with this theory and this experience in mind that I went to my hopeless capitalists in Los Angeles and proposed to them that they try to have the prosecution of all the labor cases stopped, and

"Second, it was proposed to go on thereafter and meet with certain labor leaders who could express the labor view of the world; these business men were not only to listen, they were to promise to try to understand the needs the troubles and the hopes of the wage worker."

"I am not a professing Christian, and don't pretend to live up to the tenets of that religion, but I am a reporter and I find that Christianity works wherever it is applied. So, without being bound by it myself, I throw it into any situation that is hard and righteous, as this was. It dissolves the meaner virtues like duty, thrift, and honesty; it softens justice with mercy and, in brief, if it is not recognized as Christianity, it makes even Christians Christian. And so it was here.

"The men who first went to work on this job did not know it, perhaps. They certainly were not told. And, well, it worked, as any idealism always does work. And if the Christian world were one-tenth as Christian as it thinks it is (which is not saying so very much), it would have recognized the spirit of what was attempted here.

"This, then, is the beginning. Nothing may come of it; nothing can come of it so long as the war is on. But that is the fighting way. Why should it not be stopped? Labor is convicted. That's better than convicting any number of labor leaders. The rank and file of organized labor know or can easily find out who the direct-action leaders are, and they will deal with them better than the courts can. The courts could only hang the individuals. Left to itself, organized labor would probably hang that policy and save the leaders' lives. They certainly would abandon the policy for a while at least if society would, and if some such substitute as Los Angeles' way were to work. If it doesn't work we can go back to the law at any time. Why not try the Golden Rule?

"The questions that I should like to leave on the national mind are these:

"What are we Americans going to do about conditions which are bringing up healthy, good-tempered boys like these McNamara boys to really believe, as they most sincerely do—they and a growing group of labor—that the only recourse they have for improving the conditions of the wage earner is to use dynamite against property and life?

"And is it possible for a group of employers, well meaning as these are whom we have dealt with in Los Angeles, to understand the employes' point of view, not to take it, mind you, but simply to comprehend it?

"The real questions, they are pressing here. They are coming to all of us in all our cities.

Isn't it time to consider? Certainly it is worth while to watch what happens here in Los Angeles during the next few months. I propose to follow this inquiry east for a while and then come back here. We are getting an understanding of politics; we are coming even to get some sense of the evils of direct action by organized capital. Why shouldn't we go on and find out about labor?"

Last week Steffens came back to New York and THE SURVEY asked him to tell more of what he meant by his efforts toward peace in Los Angeles.

"If we have faith in either God or man, we can face truth," was his answer.

"Here was a situation where some men believed that absolutely the only way open to them of securing justice was through violence. I talked with them and I know that that was their thought. They believed that the working class could lift itself up only by destroying. They have good government in Los Angeles—the reformers have won out there, but nevertheless discontent is rife. Socialism is growing. Why?

"I talked with the educated men in the community, too, the employing class, just as I have talked with them all over the country; and they were just like the direct-action labor men. They were clamoring for vengeance. They wanted the McNamaras killed.

"I wanted the public to see this McNamara case as it really is—something that could never be settled by a judge and jury. You can dispose of an ordinary individual murder that way. But no court can ever dispose of a murder or a felony that grows out of class hatred. That is a matter for all of us to judge. Hanging the murderer isn't going to help. Let's find out what made him do it. When an epidemic of typhoid breaks out, you call a physician, don't you, and try to get control of the disease right there in those individual cases? But you send some experts up the river to analyze the water too, don't you?

"I want the public to stop and ask why any working men believe that they must resort to violence. The great majority of the workingmen do not believe in that philosophy nor act on it, but enough do to make it a bigger problem for society than just catching and killing the murderers. When honest business men stop to think, they are not so angry over graft and bribery. They begin to see what lies behind it all. I want them to stop in the same spirit and try to see why a labor man throws a brick. The question is not 'who did it?' but, 'what did it?'

"Of course the radicals say that under our present form of society the economic motive is the governing one. That they can't stop hating. Perhaps that is true. But, if it is, won't they find out, as they never would if they hadn't tried to understand each other? And then won't they want to be fair to each other so much that they won't let even the institutions of society stand in the way?"

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WEEK OF JANUARY 6 1912

THE SURVEY

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



G. MORETTI

BIRMINGHAM



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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

NEW YEAR RE-RESOLUTIONS:

On the new year it is sometimes very desirable highly to resolve various things which we have resolved before—perhaps more than once. Two years ago we tried to formulate on this page a brief platform, concerned only with a few matters of national interest which we believed to be immediately practicable and about which there is little room for controversy. One paragraph dealt with postal savings banks, about which fortunately no resolutions are necessary, as they have been established and are rapidly justifying the expectations of their advocates; and with a parcels post, which unless all signs fail will certainly be established this year. Another paragraph discussed the children's bureau bill. This measure has since been reported favorably in both houses of Congress, and has once passed the Senate without a dissenting vote. Still another paragraph advocated a reorganization of the public health service and the creation of a new federal department to deal with the collective interests of the social welfare: health, labor, and education. As action has still to be secured on the two latter subjects, and as our own views are precisely what they were two years ago, we venture to reprint the two paragraphs from the platform of 1910 which relate to the children's bureau and the rearrangement of federal bureaus.

First of all, let us secure the establishment of a children's bureau to study the causes and the remedies for race suicide, infant mortality, orphanage, illegitimacy, child dependence, juvenile delinquency, illiteracy, and all the other forces that work for racial degeneration; to discover and promote the influences that make for the improvement of the stock, for the strengthening of character, for the preservation of the body from disease and deterioration and of the soul from destruction. Of course the national government should not invade the province of the state governments or the home or the church or the school. But the nation can provide for investigation and publicity. The nation, which is more than any group of us and which is identified with the highest interests of all of us, has no temptation to proselyte and is free from the need of offering cowardly apology for the wicked foolishness of any sect, section, party, class, or generation. Only the nation can adequately study the vital problems of birth, nurture, degeneracy, and racial progress. We shall not get far with the solution of such problems this year, but we can create a bureau to work at them as we work through similar bureaus at crops, fisheries, forests, minerals, lands, commerce, and Indians.

Secondly, we can secure more complete recognition of the importance of national health by a reorganization of the public health service and a redistribution of the various national bureaus which have to do with the public health, bringing them into a single department, preferably the department which has to do also with the interests of labor and in which the children's bureau is created. The medical profession, through its official organs, has long advocated increasing the resources and perfecting the organization of the public health service, and even creating a national health department with its head in the cabinet. The time is ripe for pushing these demands to some consummation. Probably we shall not get a health secretary, and a labor secretary, and a children's secretary or a secretary of education, although we hold these interests to be more fundamental, and even better entitled to representation in the councils of the chief executive than commerce, or the post office, or the navy. No one will deny that the post offices, for example, should have at their head a very capable administrator, but why this adminis-

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trator should be deemed to be *ex officio* an exceptionally valuable adviser to the president on questions of national policy will surely be a puzzle to future historians, especially if by any good fortune the records of the era of our spoils system should happen to be destroyed. On the other hand, in these days of public concern for the social welfare, it requires very little constructive imagination to discover wherein the services of cabinet members familiar with sanitary, industrial, and social problems would be of value. Dismissing as utopian the prospect of three or four new secretaries who owe their seats in the cabinet to such qualifications, it is quite within the bounds of reason to insist that one among them should represent these collective interests, and that an end should be made of the anomalous situation in which the president looks to his secretary of the treasury to administer the public health service, to his secretary of agriculture to safeguard the purity of foods and drugs, and to his secretary of commerce and labor to collect his vital statistics.

In the meantime certain other matters have rapidly ripened for immediate action. Among these, as suitable for national legislation in 1912, we may name the appointment of a federal commission to study local jails and places of detention as recommended by the attorney general. If this should lead to the discovery and correction of abuses from which state prisoners are now suffering, as a sort of by-product of the investigation, we imagine that no advocate of state's rights would seriously object. The fact is that our American system of local jails stands already indicted and condemned before the bar of enlightened public opinion, and every plan by which this fact can be driven home to the national conscience is eagerly to be welcomed. Let Congress therefore appoint the commission which the Department of Justice recommends. A federal commission is recommending legislation establishing a modern system of compensation for deaths and injuries in interstate commerce. The need for action on this subject needs no fresh discussion at present. The continuance of the president's commission on economy and efficiency in the executive departments should be a matter of course.

Finally there is the suggestion that a federal commission should be appointed to investigate the present relations between trade unions and employers' associations and the present actual conditions in American industries of organized and unorganized workingmen and women. We earnestly invite attention to the statement printed in *THE SURVEY* for December 30 explaining the necessity for such an inquiry, and its appropriateness at the present moment when grand juries are very properly inquiring as to the ultimate responsibility for acts of violence.

THE COMMON WELFARE

CHICAGO AND HER LAKE FRONT

The greatest step thus far toward the realization of the Chicago city plan is an agreement, practically assured, between the South Park Commissioners and the Illinois Central Railroad, whereby the riparian rights along Lake Michigan from Grant Park in the center of the city five miles south to 51st street will come into the possession of the people. This means that a great shore parkway with a lagoon stretching its entire distance can now be built to connect Grant Park with Jackson Park—the site of the World's Columbian Exposition. Moreover, it means that through part of the bargain the great Field Museum is to be placed on the lake front just south of Grant Park.

The passage of certain ordinances by the city council is all that remains to be done before actual work starts, and it is expected that, with characteristic Chicago spirit, the work will begin within sixty days.

The main features of this development will follow the comprehensive plan which was prepared under the supervision of Daniel H. Burnham and is in charge of an official commission appointed by the mayor. It involves the filling in of a wide strip of land, paralleling the shore line, which will have a magnificent boulevard, bathing beaches, and recreation piers. The lagoon between this strip and the present shore will provide a waterway connection from the yacht harbor in front of Grant Park to the lagoon of Jackson Park. The present depot used by the Illinois Central, Michigan Central, Big Four, and certain other railroads is to be abandoned and the entire block on which it stands is to become a part of Grant Park. This extends the park to 12th street, which thoroughfare is to be widened to 118 feet. The new depot will stand on the south side of 12th street facing north and abutting on Michigan avenue. The Field Museum will be built east of this

location on property now owned by the Illinois Central Railroad, which will be enlarged by filling in an adjacent basin. The magnificent building for the museum, which now has a building fund and endowment of \$9,000,000, will flank the southern end of Grant Park. The new railway station, it is stated, will be architecturally a creditable neighbor to the museum.

The development already assured is expected to bring much nearer the realization of the general railway terminal scheme of the Chicago plan, adapted from the original suggestions of President Delano of the Wabash Railroad, lining up on the south side of a widened 12th street several of the depots which now, with their trackage areas, occupy space north of 12th street greatly needed for the expansion of the business center. Over the railway tracks which extend north of the present depot, "shelves" are to be built fifty feet from each side, thus covering one-half of the 200 feet of right of way. This trackage is at present on a lower level than that of Grant Park, so that the partial covering of it and the electrification which is expected—though this is not a part of the present understanding—will reduce to a minimum the annoyance of the railway through the park. The granting of additional switching facilities south of 12th street will eliminate, it is estimated, 65 per cent of the switching now done north of the present station. The railroad for its part secures a widened and straightened right of way between 12th and 50th streets.

A stadium is planned at Grant Park. This will provide practically at the door of the business center of the city a superb place for athletic events and tournaments, festivals, and other outdoor gatherings, a seating capacity of more than 100,000 being contemplated. Over the arena spectators will have an open view of Lake Michigan, so that the structure will serve as a place from which aquatic events may be viewed.

Tentative plans for the stadium have already been prepared by Olmsted Brothers of Boston, and the structure will be not only a splendid feature in the architectural scheme but a noteworthy addition to the recreation service of a great city.

Although the building of the outer parkway in Lake Michigan is one of the more spectacular features of the Chicago plan, its accomplishment is far easier than might be imagined because of the utilization of Chicago's waste material. Private contractors are glad to pay for the privilege of dumping excavation material close in shore. These payments are said to be sufficient to provide the cost of building breakwaters and retaining walls. According to the most conservative estimates twenty-five acres—and according to some estimates as many as 100 acres—of park area can be obtained each year by Chicago in this way practically without cost. The Chicago plan calls for the use of waste material also to make park islands on some of the shoals near the shore.

The announcement of this great forward step has been greeted by the people and press of the city as the opening of a new period in Chicago's history—the period in which the "great plan" is to be realized. A wave of enthusiasm like that which carried through the success of the World's Columbian Exposition has thrilled the city. Indeed, the Chicago plan and the movement to carry it out are constantly linked with that earlier triumph of the municipality's constructive spirit, and are often referred to as a vast projection, embracing the entire community, of the idea of the "white city" which so gripped and fascinated all Chicago two decades ago, and was so beautifully but so temporarily embodied in stuff.

Realizing that the voters of the future will have increasingly to do with the carrying out of the plan, a text-book upon the plan has been prepared by the managing director of the commission. With the approval of the superintendent of schools and the board of education its use by the children in the eighth and high school grades has been arranged. The plates have been made at the ex-

pense of the commission and the book will be provided at cost price.

BRINGING THE MOUNTAINS TO SMALL MOHAMMEDS

When the courts held that the new Field Museum could not be placed in Grant Park, it looked as if it would have to be located away from the center of the city, and a tentative site was selected at Jackson Park. The development of the lake front above described brings it back to within easy reach of all Chicago. Still further audiences will be reached and its social utility increased by a large and unusual Christmas gift to the school children of Chicago to bring its treasures of natural history to the school rooms. A fund of \$250,000 has been given for this purpose by N. W. Harris.

The extension plan, as outlined by the director of the museum, will circulate among the schools thousands of small cabinet collections in botany, geology, zoology, and ethnology. Short printed lectures in connection with each collection will be supplied to the teachers. It is also hoped to establish lecture centers in the schools, lantern slides and exhibits from the large collection of the museum to be widely used by the lecturers from the museum staff.

FEDERAL BUREAU OF PARKS URGED

Enthusiastic and genuinely encouraging answers to the question, Are National Parks Worth While, were given by President Taft, Senator Reed Smoot, Walter L. Fisher, secretary of the Department of the Interior, and J. Horace McFarland, at the seventh annual convention of the American Civic Association held last month at the national capital. Lantern slides and a collection of seventy-seven superb photographs exhibited by the Department of the Interior further excited interest in the development to their fullest usefulness of these national centers of wild life.

Secretary Fisher and the other speakers at the evening session, December 13, explained the basis for a federal bureau of national parks. They told how the forty-one national parks and monuments which more than equal in area two or-

inary states east of the Mississippi are not governed by the same laws and cannot be uniformly managed. Some of the parks which are not well known to the people generally receive much smaller appropriations for their development and maintenance than those granted for the upkeep of others. A few are even almost wholly devoid of roads. Some can use for their own benefit the revenues derived within their boundaries from concessionaires or in other ways, while others must give similar receipts to the general fund of the nation. No one person is now responsible for all the parks or at all fully acquainted with their needs and condition. The American Civic Association for the next year will exert every effort to secure the passage of the resolution recently introduced in the Senate by Senator Smoot, providing for a national bureau of parks as a necessary step toward making these federal reservations of more use to more people.

The Communities We Live In was the apt designation of the program the second and third day of the association convention. New phases of city planning for large and small communities were taken up. Arnold W. Brunner spoke on the business side of city planning and Frederick C. Howe on the German cities. Washington is perhaps the oldest type of a planned city in this country, and Major William V. Judson, engineer commissioner of Washington, said of it:

Speaking as an American citizen and not as a district commissioner, I claim that the working out of municipal problems here, so that the other cities might come to Washington for tried and satisfactory practices, would amply repay the country at large, nearly one-half of whose inhabitants are urban dwellers, for all of its local expenditures.

SOME SPECIFIC SUGGESTIONS

George Burdett Ford pointed to the folly of working out plans for the "city beautiful" before attempting to solve problems of living, work, and play. More than one American community is to his mind putting the cart before the horse. At the same session Thomas E. Donnelly stated that he held that really effective

work in smoke abatement must command public confidence as its first essential. The work of smoke inspection is full of questions that have not yet been solved conclusively by scientific experiment, and therefore work must be based upon arbitrary discriminations that tend to give room for suspicion of unfair treatment. The billboard as an objectionable form of outdoor advertising but one which in foreign cities is made to yield revenue to the city without defacing it; municipal progress in shade tree control in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and the District of Columbia; the extension and development of people's and children's gardens, as illustrated by the experience of Minneapolis and Harrisburg last summer; and the importance of modern street lighting were other interesting subjects. It was Leroy J. Boughner, city editor of the Minneapolis *Tribune*, who told how the "flour city" had transformed 325 vacant lots into vegetable and flower gardens. Two miles of street front and 1900 acres of land were improved. In the business districts 17,000 feet of box gardens were set out and thousands of home gardens were started. Tomatoes sold at 75 cents a bushel while the year before they had brought \$1.50. The hotels served and featured vacant lot vegetables.

An important place on the program was accorded to the crusade against the house-fly, the results of which were summarized in a paper by Edward Hatch, Jr. Other speeches on the topic were given by Drs. Woods Hutchinson and L. O. Howard and Prof. C. F. Hodge, who held out the goal of absolute extermination as a feasible ideal and admitted that a campaign which could only promise to reduce the numbers of this pest was not calculated to win strong public support. The slogan should be changed from "swat the fly" to "swat the man who breeds the fly."

At the introductory session, after the delegates had been welcomed to Washington by William Tindall, secretary to the Board of District Commissioners, five associations interested in related forms of civic advance told the members of the American Civic Association what

their organizations were accomplishing.

The civic association passed resolutions asking for a national park bureau, for a Lincoln Memorial Park in the forest district between Washington and Baltimore, for a national reservation at Niagara Falls, and a measure to limit absolutely and permanently to its present bounds the use of water at Niagara for electric power. The association hopes to conduct a trip to Europe next summer, similar to that managed last season by the Boston Chamber of Commerce.¹

GOVERNOR DONAGHEY ON THE LEASE SYSTEM

There are still enough contracts in prisons in this country to make it pertinent to record opinions concerning them. Here is the governor of Arkansas, W. Donaghey, who has had experience of the evils of the lease system, proclaiming to the world that deaths, escapes, untold cruelties are the result of hiring out convicts to contractors who have no object save to make money from the transaction. He adds:

Any form of the lease system also promotes disorganization of the state's interest and discontent in the minds of the convicts. When the state works her own convicts directly on her own work and on her own premises there is no incentive to overwork, underfeed, or badly clothe the prisoners. I was told by the warden on the state's farm that during the past year, on a certain occasion, he sent eighteen convicts two miles away from headquarters, without a guard, to clear some land and that they went to and from work daily without giving the least trouble. Then, as a matter of actual experience, we find the expense of maintenance to be materially less when working the convicts directly for the state. On our convict farm, if there had been a free guard employed in the past two years, it would have been a useless expense. During my several visits there I have never seen one. All were convicts and those that I noticed were mostly cripples or otherwise disabled so that they could not have made full hands at other kinds of labor. But when convicts are hired out to contractors it not only takes free guards, but also more of them to a given number of men, than it would require on the farm.

¹The officers elected for next year are as follows: President, J. Horace McFarland, Harrisburg, Penn.; first vice-president, John Nolen, Cambridge, Mass.; treasurer, William B. Howland, New York; secretary, Richard B. Watrous, Washington, D. C.

CITY PLANS FOR BOSTON

After years of reports and recommendations, city planning in the Metropolitan District of Boston seems at last to be taking definite shape. Last spring, through the efforts of Boston-1915, Governor Foss appointed a Metropolitan Planning Commission consisting of Edward A. Filene, chairman, J. Randolph Coolidge, and John Nolen. This commission will report to the legislature early in the year and make concrete suggestions for a plan for the Metropolitan District, and, if it sees fit, draft legislation that will assist in carrying out such a plan. Up to this time the thirty-eight cities and towns comprising the Metropolitan Parks District have grown in a haphazard manner, with the result that bad housing conditions have spread into the suburbs and an unconnected system of roads and highways has developed.

In a list of tentative suggestions made by the commission it is suggested that there should be a central authority planning the development of the whole district without interference with the local autonomy of the various municipalities. The commission believes that both the state and the Metropolitan District should contribute together with the local municipality towards the cost of improvements of metropolitan character, and, furthermore, that the state should loan its credit for such works through annual assessments upon the cities and towns of the district. The proposed Metropolitan Planning Board, if constituted as the commission suggests, would make a survey of the entire district, comprising a study of the population, of the commerce and industry of each locality, and the existing and future possibilities within the district. With this as a basis a series of plans might be made embodying the best methods of future development.

Says the tentative report recently issued by the commission:

Such a study might suggest plans for coordinating and extending transportation facilities, the location of small playgrounds, the reservation of lands for public buildings,

the unification of building laws, the prevention of congestion, the reduction of fire hazards, and better methods of financing public improvements.

The final report of the commission will be made within a few weeks. Already its preliminary plans have met with favor both from Mayor Fitzgerald and from most of the leading municipalities in the district.

MILWAUKEE'S OPEN BOOK

Profiting by the experience of New York, Toledo, Hoboken, and Hartford, Milwaukee recently tried by means of a graphic budget exhibit to satisfy the curiosity of citizens to know just what the city gives them in exchange for the taxes they pay. For days thousands of men, women, and children whose interest had been whetted by wide-spread publicity, crowded the municipal auditorium, where the exhibit was held. Unlike the two in New York, the Milwaukee exhibit was not preceded by one conducted by a private Bureau of Municipal Research. Its purpose also, aside from popular education, was a justification of its budget rather than an appeal to the people for more funds with which to carry out a proposed budget, a predominant note in both of those held in New York.

The Milwaukee exhibit was conceived, planned, prepared, set up, and managed by the city itself, without any outside assistance. The fact that many, after going for an evening's pleasure just to look around, were not satisfied but went again and again is evidence of its educational value. Every department of the city and county governments, except the public schools, was represented by charts, diagrams, physical properties, and publicity matter. The head of each branch of the municipal government, in as interesting a manner as possible, tried to show what his department was doing for the comfort, welfare, health, education, and recreation of the people, as well as the work it does in carrying on its routine business.

In a relatively small space information was marshaled to show the citizen



ADVERTISING THE CITY'S SHOW

in how many different ways the municipal corporation serves him, so that he might thereafter take an active interest in its affairs and realize that the corporation was run with his money and for his benefit. The aim was to make each visitor understand that he is a partner in the undertakings of the administration. Citizens were introduced to the work that the city is doing through the tuberculosis commission to rid itself of the great white plague. The practical value of the efforts of the Child Welfare Commission to teach mothers to feed and care for their children properly was proved by a great reduction in the death rate among babies in the congested districts. The health department in an elaborate exhibit of models contrasted sanitary and unsanitary farms, factories, grocery stores, and butcher shops. Scores of confiscated scales, milk cans, and ice-cream containers were displayed by the bureau of weights and measures, with charts indicating the amount saved to consumers by the enforced use of cor-

rect measures and scales. Elevator and other safety appliances were exhibited by the inspector of buildings. The library and museum showed what is being done to bring the books and the museum specimens to the people. The various bureaus of the department of public works—sewers, water works, bridges, street cleaning, refuse collection, plumbing, public buildings—had each an exhibit showing how it served the public.

The mayor, city clerk, comptroller, and treasurer each aimed to clarify some of the intricacies in the handling of the city's business. Charts were displayed showing the details of the new accounting by income and expenditure as compared with the old receipts and disbursements method. The recent advances in scientific budget-making were made plain by a comparison of the old and new budgets exhibited by the comptroller. The advantages of proper cash disbursement and service transfer vouchers over archaic forms used until recently were also shown by this official.

The bureau of economy and efficiency reported upon the work it has done, during its first year, in the public works and health departments. To aid in securing the best service to the public with the least expenditure was stated to be the aim of the bureau. Digests of the laws affecting each department; detailed studies of methods; organization and reorganization charts; actual forms now in use which were recommended by the bureau and adopted by the several divisions; charts showing increased efficiency and savings in the divisions where recommendations of the bureau had been adopted were displayed and gave evidence as to how far the aim of the bureau had been accomplished. The fire and police alarm telegraph system which combines in one these two systems, the fire and police departments, the park board, the emergency hospital, the tax commission, were among the other departments which did their part in providing a show which was at once spectacular and scientific, as interesting as a circus to the boy, and yet full of valuable material for the statistician.

MONTANA COURT ON COMPENSATION LAW

Almost simultaneously with the Wisconsin Supreme Court, the Supreme Court of Montana passed on the constitutionality of industrial accident legislation. A state mining law providing an employers' and employes' co-operative accident insurance and total permanent disability fund went into effect October 1, 1910. This Montana law was the second to depart from the common law principle of negligence and substitute the principle of European legislation, which abandons the three common law defences as an anachronism under present conditions, and creates a personal liability where there has been no breach of contract or wrongful act of omission. The pioneer American law based on this new principle, passed by the Maryland legislature in 1902, was declared unconstitutional soon after its passage. The Montana law is the fifth to pass under review by a state court of appeal. Of the other three, the decision of the New York Court was against and those of the highest courts of Washington and Wisconsin for the new principle.

The Montana mining law provides for the compulsory deduction by the state auditor of one cent a ton from mine owners' receipts and 1 per cent from miners' weekly wages. From the insurance fund thus formed one dollar a day is to be paid during disability due to an accident at work, or \$3,000 for death from a like cause. Payment into the fund is compulsory on both parties, but the miner is left the choice, in case of accident, of accepting compensation from the fund or of suing under the state liability law.

In the test case just decided—a suit of the state auditor to collect from the Northwestern Improvement Company—the court held that the clause allowing choice between compensation and suit to one party and not to another was unconstitutional, as it

denies the mine owner the equal protection of the laws, since full compliance with the law does not exonerate him from liability.

Only a few pages of the decision

are, however, devoted to the clause pronounced unconstitutional, the major part of the decision being given up to upholding the constitutionality of state accident insurance in general.

The important charges brought against the law in the brief for the defence were that it is not a proper exercise of the police power because it does not serve the ends of police legislation; that it is class legislation; that it denies the right of trial by jury; that it takes property without due process of law; and that it lodges judicial power in the hands of the state auditor.

In answer to the first charge, the court holds that the act is within the police power in that it prevents employes in coal mines from becoming public charges and thus substitutes in such cases the principle of the public good for that of adequate remedy for tort to the individual. The charge that the act represents class legislation is based on the fact that it singles out one class for taxation. This the court holds to be no ground for declaring a law unconstitutional, as the legislature is given full power to classify for purposes of taxation or regulation, so long as all persons in the class singled out are treated alike. The court points out that the right to jury trial, again, is not guaranteed by the federal constitution in a civil action in a state court and the guarantee in the state constitution makes exception of all cases excepted by the federal constitution. Numerous cases are cited to sustain the contention that in cases like this involving a license or occupation tax trial by jury is not guaranteed. The Montana like the Wisconsin court holds that no judicial but only administrative force is given the auditor in his adjustment of claims. And, finally, the court contends that due process of law is in this case satisfied without judicial proceedings, since the necessities of government have established not a judicial but an administrative procedure for the collection of taxes, and this procedure in regard to that matter is and always has been due process of law.

In its broader aspects the Montana decision may be regarded as favorable

to the principles underlying accident insurance based upon the taxing power of the state. It may be said rather to have prepared than to have blocked the way for compensation legislation covering all Montana industries.

RURAL CHURCH LEADERS NEEDED

The discovery and training of local leaders as one of the most fundamental needs—and effective agents—in building up rural community life was emphasized at the recent County Church Conference held under the auspices of the International Committee of the Young Men's Christian Association. In answer to the question, "By what practical means can the country church co-operate in rural community building?" five agencies received attention—the church, school, grange, farmers' institute, and the county work of the Young Men's Christian Association. The school and church, it was declared, can be used for community purposes much more largely than is now done. The grange may be made to serve as an agency for bringing people together on subjects of general interest. But this was thought to be possible only when there are leaders in the community, people who will forge to the front in the movement for healthier, deeper living. The county secretaries, it was pointed out, are in a position to search out such people and to train them in the best methods. County work by the Young Men's Christian Association is now in operation in fifty-nine counties in twenty-four states.

Interesting facts concerning the social and religious life of rural communities in New York were embodied in a report made at the recent State Baptist Missionary Convention by its Committee on Rural Conditions. Gathering information from churches of all denominations in communities of less than 2,500 population, the committee found, among other things, that during the decade of 1890-1900 the more efficient rural churches made some gain in membership upon the population, but that during the decade 1900-1910 church membership did not keep pace with the population; in the first period the gain was 9 per. cent, in the

second the loss was 12 per cent, the loss for the twenty years being a little over 5 per cent. Thirty-two churches reported that they have no boy's nor young men's organizations, eight stating that they have. Nineteen declared they have no need for such clubs. To the question, "What efforts, other than religious, does your church make for community betterment?" twenty-nine gave no answer and two answered, "None." Two declared that they gave socials, one that it held band concerts, one reported stereoptician lectures, one temperance work, etc. Asked to name the organizations or activities of the church that contribute primarily to the educational (other than religious) and vocational life of the community, thirty-six gave no answer, one named the Boy Scouts, and one the fire company.

localities are compared by cities and by groups, and they are combined for comparison with the results obtained for England.

The data were collected for the month of February, 1909, and were gathered at first hand by the representatives of the Board of Trade. Wages and hours of labor were ascertained from the time-sheets of employers, rents from real-estate offices and by a house-to-house canvass, food-prices were learned from dealers, and food-expenditures from 7,616 family budgets. The occupations chosen for wage-comparisons are the building and engineering trades, and printing, although wages in other industries are given in the town reports. The housing inquiry covered, besides rent, the nature of the accommodations provided, and food is considered not only as to price, but also as to kind and amount. The schedule for the family budget called for the sources and amount of the family income, and for expenditures for housing, for food in some detail, estimated as for one week, and for fuel and light. The margin available for all other purposes is indicated in the tables, but no further particulars were sought from the families reporting. The budgets are tabulated by income-groups and by nationality, but not by locality and occupation. Two-thirds of the families had incomes between two and five pounds a week.

Besides the statistical data the report contains a carefully prepared account of the social and industrial conditions prevailing in this country as a whole, and also in each of the selected cities. The visitors were evidently fortunate in their choice of American advisers, and the generalizations and comments in these descriptive sections disclosing, as they do, that which most impresses the foreign observer are not the least valuable part of the document.

The results of the statistical inquiries are given at length, and are summarized in tables which show interesting comparisons between standards in different cities of this country, between the United States and Great Britain, and, though less developed, between different nationalities in our cities. Comparison

EDITORIAL GRIST

COST OF LIVING IN AMERICAN TOWNS¹

ROBERT COIT CHAPIN²

In a British blue-book of six hundred pages we see ourselves as others see us. The Board of Trade, having investigated the cost of living in Great Britain and on the continent, has now published the results of its inquiry in this country. The report follows the lines laid down in the previous studies, and treats of wages, housing, and food as reported in detail for twenty-eight cities in the United States. All of the cities, except Minneapolis and St. Louis, are east of the Mississippi; six are in New England; five "other eastern towns," including New York, lie near the seaboard; six are "central towns," situated east of Illinois; four are in the "Middle West"; and six in the South. The returns from these

¹COST OF LIVING IN AMERICAN TOWNS. Report of an inquiry by the Board of Trade into Working-class Rents, Housing, and Retail Prices, together with the Rates of Wages in Certain Occupations in the Principal Industrial Towns of the United States of America. London. His Majesty's Stationery Office. 1911. (Cd. 5609). Pp. xcii, 533.

²Author of THE STANDARD OF LIVING IN NEW YORK CITY. Russell Sage Foundation publication. New York. Charities Publication Committee. 1910. Price \$2.00.

is made easy of comprehension by the use of index-numbers. Wages and prices for each city are stated as a percentage of wages and prices in New York city. The following tables, condensed from the tables on pp. lxxviii, xxxvi, xxxviii, show index numbers for selected cities, and for the five sections.

CITIES.	WAGES. Building-trades, skilled labor.	RENTS. Predominant charges for 3 to 6 rooms.	FOOD-PRICES. Cost of a typical weekly food-budget.	RENT AND FOOD COMBINED. Rent $\frac{1}{4}$, Food $\frac{3}{4}$.
New York.....	100	100	100	100
Boston.....	91	82	105	99
Philadelphia....	86	79	96	92
Pittsburgh.....	93	94	102	100
Chicago.....	110	70	94	88
Atlanta.....	79	76	109	101
Birmingham ²	97	81	102	97

GEOGRAPHICAL GROUP.	WAGES. Skilled men in building, engineer- ing, and printing trades.	RENTS. Predominant rent for 3 to 6 rooms.	FOOD-PRICES Cost of typical food budget.	RENT AND FOOD COMBINED. Rent $\frac{1}{4}$, Food $\frac{3}{4}$.	APPROXIMATE "REAL WAGES."
New York City.....	100	100	100	100	100
New England towns: Boston, Brockton, Fall River, Laurence, Lowell, Providence.....	80	66	103	94	85
Other Eastern Towns: Baltimore, Newark, Paterson, Philadelphia.....	87	68	100	92	95
Central Towns: Cin- cinnati, Cleveland, Detroit, Louisville, Munne, Pittsburgh.....	87	71	97	90	97
Middle West Towns: Chicago, Duluth, Milwaukee, Minne- apolis—St. Paul, St. Louis.....	95	79	95	91	104
Southern Towns: Atlanta, Augusta, Birmingham, Mem- phis, New Orleans, Savannah.....	88	75	103	96	92
THE CITIES OF THE SOUTH. ¹					
Atlanta.....	84	76	109	101	83
Augusta.....	80	58	103	92	88
Birmingham ²	92	81	102	97	95
Memphis.....	97	93	101	99	98
New Orleans.....	93	72	100	93	100
Savannah.....	84	71	104	96	88

¹Wages of Negroes not utilized in computing averages.

²Dealing more in detail with Birmingham wages and costs of living the report states:

"Taking wages at New York as the base (i.e. 100) in each case, the wage index numbers for Birmingham are—building trades, skilled men 97, hod carriers and bricklayers' laborers (Negroes) 59; foundries and machine shops, skilled men 94, unskilled laborers (Negroes) 67; printing, hand compositors (job work) 86.

"The level of rents at New York being repre-

According to these figures, the Middle West is the wage-earner's paradise. Wages here are in some occupations even higher than in New York, while the cost of living is 9 per cent lower. New England, on the other hand, with lower wages and higher food-prices, makes the poorest showing.

The figures for all the American cities are combined and compared with the figures obtained by the Board of Trade for England, the latter being corrected to bring them down to the date of the American returns. As thus compared, the wages of skilled workmen in the three selected occupations are to wages of like workmen in England as 230 to 100; hours of labor are to hours in England as 96 to 100; rents here are to English rents as 207 to 100; food-prices for the articles comprised in a typical food-budget are as 138 (United States) to 100 (England). Cost of living as indicated by combining the food-index with the rent-index so as to give food four times the weight of rent is as 152 to 100. Going a step beyond the report, we may combine cost of living and wages and say that "real wages" in the United States are to real wages in England as 153 to 100. These figures probably exaggerate the advantage in favor of the United States, because, as the report points out, they are based on the wage of skilled men, while the proportion of unskilled labor is greater in this country than in England.

Three distinctive characteristics of American industrial life find expression again and again in the tables and letterpress of the report. They are the relatively high standard of living in this country, the complications arising out of the mingling of nationalities on our shores, and the tendency to employ unskilled labor, with machines, for processes which in the Old World are performed by skilled labor. With reference to the standard of living, the report

sent by 100, the rent index number for Birmingham is 81. This is rather higher than might be expected in a city of the size of Birmingham. The explanation is probably to be found in the fact that Birmingham has been growing rapidly, and for a number of years the supply of houses has hardly kept pace with the demand.

"Prices at New York being taken as a base (i.e. 100), in each case, the index number for the price of meat at Birmingham is 98, for other food it is 104, and for food prices as a whole 102. For rent and food prices combined the index number is 97."

brings out the smaller percentage of total income which the American has to spend for food, (from 10 to 15 per cent less, in income-groups fairly comparable) the large annual consumption of meat (160 pounds for each person in families having an income of from \$15 to \$20 a week), the large expenditure for fruits and vegetables, fresh and canned. It notes that Americans do not wear their working-clothes on the street; that clothing, if less durable and more costly than in England, is renewed more frequently; that heated bed-rooms are not uncommon in winter, and ice and iced drinks universal in summer.

The habit of spending is more active than in this country [Great Britain] and while the national characteristic of a greater extravagance and even of greater wastefulness often emerges, the correlative fact must also be noticed that for those who desire it and exercise the necessary strength of will and foresight saving is also easier, because of the larger income at disposal. P. lxxv.

Diversity of race adds to the difficulties of determining the American standards of living as well as to the difficulties of maintaining them. The report recognizes these difficulties, and yet finds that even the latest arrivals respond at some points to their new environment, so that the visitor among them is impressed by the feeling that they are on the up-grade. Attention is called to the tendency of the newcomers in all our sea-ports to congregate within walking distance of the dock where they landed. In the New England mill-towns was found a virtual division of labor according to nationality, on account of the necessity of setting those who could not speak English to work in the same room with those who used their native tongue.

The presence of this mass of unskilled foreign-born laborers is one reason for the adaptation of processes and the subdivision of labor to meet their capacity. The writers of the report are struck, as are all recent observers, with the extent to which this adjustment has been carried. They find it in the textile industries of New England, in the garment trades of New York, in the steel industry of Pittsburgh, and in the packing-

houses of Chicago. The relative preponderance of this low-paid labor in the city industries of our country is one reason why the difference in the wage of skilled men in the two sides of the Atlantic should not be considered to indicate fairly the difference in wages at large.

Space fails to tell of the reports of the several cities, which occupy two-thirds of the bulky volume. Each of the twenty-eight is described with clear discernment of its distinctive features. The dark drab of grimy Pittsburgh, the aroma of Chicago's stock-yard district, the loop-holes in New York's boasted tenement-house law, Philadelphia's complacency in her 300,000 separate dwellings, some of them jerry-built, the plight of the American family stranded in the North End of Boston, the "irregularity of the worker" which adds irregularity to the work of the colored stevedore of Savannah—all are brought out with skillful touch. Whoever wants to know his own town is advised to turn from the roseate literature of the land-boomer and the lurid caricature of the yellow journalist to the ample pages of this report.

GUERRILLA JAILS

ISABEL C. BARROWS

Jails and lockups are prisons. The men and women confined in them have broken the laws of the state. Nothing seems more logical than that the state should be responsible for their imprisonment. Yet these smaller prisons are left to the various counties and municipalities. In New York, for instance, though the state prison commission may inspect them, and publish its findings, the state has neither the authority nor the responsibility to insist on reforms in construction or administration.

Whatever may have been necessary in the days when Amsterdam, N. Y., was far away from Albany, so far as communication was concerned, that day has long since passed. Why then should such a mediæval method still prevail as exists in the Empire State? Here is what a Poughkeepsie paper says:

The state of New York is publishing reports made by the State Prison Commission covering inspections of jails, village lockups, county prisons and those devoted to the reformation of boys and girls.

A tremendous improvement in 1911 is noted in several cities as compared with conditions in 1910.

One exception is noted. The city of Amsterdam is obdurate. It was advised to put a few windows in its dungeon, so that prisoners could have light and air, to burn up the hammocks which are doing duty instead of beds or cots, and to freshen up things generally. It has not done so. Amsterdam seems determined to hark back to the Middle Ages, when prisoners were simply thrown into dark subterranean keeps, and left to rot and starve.

Is there any one—except a county commissioner—who can tell why Amsterdam, or any other place within the state, should be secure in that sort of "obdurateness"? If the state had the authority to see that all prisons, large and small, were decent habitations for human beings, it would not have to wait on the good-nature of Amsterdam, or any other town, to do away with conditions that would have been a disgrace in Rip Van Winkle's day. What sort of equality before the law is that which keeps accused men as well as criminals decently in one town and indecently in an adjoining one? State care alone can remedy this wretched condition.

SMELTING IRON ORE AND CIVICS

PAUL U. KELLOGG

Birmingham is quick with the spirit of the New South. It is coming to its majority in a decade when sanitation and town planning are widely recognized activities and when it can ward off in advance many of the conditions which are entrenched in our older cities. On the other hand, in its councilmanic system (just abolished), its stunted health authority, its sheriff's fee system, its absence of factory inspection and compulsory education, it is not as yet using the sort of implements which can adequately serve the social needs of a big modern community. What Birmingham does will influence this whole Piedmont industrial district—will influence the whole

South. This is our reason for attempting this special issue, the third in a series of city interpretations of which that of Washington,¹ the national capital, was the first, and that of Pittsburgh,² which was developed into a rounded piece of research, the second.

Before the teams of the Men and Religion movement leave a city, the trend of sentiment is crystallized around three watchwords: co-operation, information, publicity.

Co-operation calls for more than willingness to strike hands; it calls for technique. Its view must embrace the whole of a common area, it must conceive a long plan, it must know no let-up. The reports published on the succeeding pages illustrate how much of Birmingham's present difficulties are due to oversight of these three important factors. There is hope in this fact, for these factors are ones which the people, if they will, can build into their common life. They are not unattainable. The Birmingham district is in process. The vigorous findings of a grand jury with a social vision, the establishment of semi-monthly pay-days by the largest employing corporation of the district, the institution of a sanitary survey of all the mining settlements of Alabama by the Coal Operators' Association, and the announcement of a Sanitary Committee by the Steel Corporation, of which the president of the Tennessee company is a leading member, are all developments since the field work for this number was performed.

The second call is for information. We hear it in the movements for civic surveys, for municipal research, and social investigation throughout the country. The South has suffered from carpet-bagging. There will be those who, resenting some of the hard sayings in these reports, will charge us, turning the old phrase inside out, with loose and baggy carping. Yet the co-operation which has been given *THE SURVEY* in its work by Birmingham people of the first calibre, is evidence enough that they are not

¹*Charities and The Commons*, March 3, 1908. [Out of print]

²*Charities and The Commons*, January, February, March, 1909. The three issues, 75 cents.

unafraid to face the facts; that their common judgment is, with ours, that the first basis for sound action is scrutiny of things as they are and constructive criticism.

The third element is publicity. That the few know is not enough in a democracy; the many must know. This carries far; it calls for full-blooded intelligence, leisure, strength, education in the people, in the same way that Birmingham's master industry calls for ore, coal, limestone, water, and labor. Ore, coal, limestone Birmingham has in its hills. Water it is storing up. But when, without compulsory education laws, it lets its children go to work prematurely in its cotton mills, it is recklessly cropping the forests of its human water-shed; when it lets disease, ignorance, and crime run their course, it is letting fire eat out its

human coal beds; and when it cuts short leisure by the twelve-hour day of its steel plants, it is tolerating a low-grade civilization when it might have the richest ores.

In June, 1921, Birmingham will be fifty years old. With Chicago giving effect after twenty years to the vision it saw in the White City of '92, with Los Angeles laying its plans to match Rio de Janeiro in city plan and vigor upon the opening of the Panama Canal, with Rochester setting out to go Düsseldorf one better, and with Boston setting 1915 as its year of stock-taking, we can confidently expect much in the next decade of Dixie's new industrial giant. Birmingham has such an opportunity as rarely comes to a city—an opportunity to make of itself a real community—a place good to live in and good to work in.

CONTRIBUTORS OF BIRMINGHAM ARTICLES

ETHEL ARMES: a Birmingham newspaper woman; member staff Washington, D. C., *Post*, 1900-3; Birmingham *Age-Herald*, 1903-6; *Advance Magazine* of Birmingham, 1906-7; compiler economic history of the Birmingham district, 1907-11; author *Story of Coal and Iron in Alabama*, which is not a mere chronicle of business, but a narrative of adventure and conquest by a group of industrial frontiersmen; author *Midsummer in Whittier's Country*.

GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR: member THE SURVEY Staff since 1904; for a time, associated press reporter New York legislature; Chicago special agent United States Census Bureau, 1910; member executive board American Civic Association; committee on health, National Municipal League; Chicago City Club Committee on Parks, Playgrounds, and Bathing Beaches; resident Chicago Commons; secretary Chicago Playground Association.

MORRIS KNOWLES, C. E.: member American Society of Civil Engineers; American Public Health Association; early training with Massachusetts State Board of Health; investigator for Boston, New York, and Philadelphia water-supply systems; in charge of investigations, preparation of designs, and construction of Pittsburgh's big slow sand filtration works; recently consulting engineer for Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Company's new Central water-works system; recently commissioned by the Alabama Coal Operators' Association to study and advise upon the sanitary and welfare conditions in their mines and camps.

W. M. McGRATH: secretary Birmingham Associated Charities; member engineering corps Detroit Water Works, Detroit Citizens' Street Railway, Detroit, Monroe, and Toledo Shore Line Railway, 1899-1904; engineer in charge building construction, Cincinnati Traction Company, 1904-5; general engineering, 1905-8; financial secretary Cincinnati Associated Charities, 1909-10; in charge relief work Palos mine disaster; secretary Jefferson county, Ala., Anti-tuberculosis Association.

A. J. McKELWAY: secretary for the southern states, National Child Labor Committee, since 1904; Union Theological Seminary, Va., 1891; pastor Fayetteville, N. C., 1892-8; editorial work, 1898-1904; member various national organizations for social advance; probably our best authority on the needs of southern children.

JOHN A. FITCH: member of THE SURVEY staff; graduate student in political economy and labor problems, University of Wisconsin, for two years; member staff Pittsburgh Survey, 1907-8; expert in the New York State Department of Labor, 1909-10; recently completed a study of labor conditions in the half-dozen largest steel centers of the country; author *The Steel Workers*.

SHELBY M. HARRISON: member THE SURVEY staff; graduate secretary Boston University Y. M. C. A., 1905-7; graduate student in statistics and public finance Harvard University, 1907-9; member staff Pittsburgh Survey, 1907-8; executive secretary Federated Boys' Clubs, 1909; director Syracuse Preliminary Social Survey, 1911.

BIRMINGHAM

SMELTING IRON ORE AND CIVICS

A social interpretation of the new industrial frontier of the South in terms of the Alabama city which, founded since the Civil War, pushes forward in a day when American municipalities may apply craftsmanship and hygiene to environment, science to industry, and technique to democratic self-government.



Medalion by G. MORETTI.

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DIRECTOR FIELD WORK.

THE "CITY LIMITS" OF AN INDUSTRIAL CENTER



THE UPPER BOUNDARY : —BIRMINGHAM'S RAPIDLY CHANGING SKY-LINE.



THE UNDERPINNINGS OF PROSPERITY :— COAL, IRON ORE, LIMESTONE. ALL TO BE HAD FOR DIGGING INTO THE OLD EARTH'S CRUST IN AND ABOUT THE CITY.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOUNDERS

ETHEL ARMES

AUTHOR OF THE STORY OF COAL AND IRON IN ALABAMA

Hear Colonel De Bardeleben:

There's nothing like taking a wild piece of land all rock and woods—ground not fit to feed a goat on—and turning it into a settlement of men and women; bringing railroads in, making pay rolls, starting things to going: nothing like boring a hillside through and turning over a mountain!

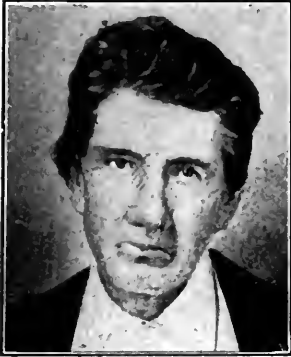
Men of that stamp made Birmingham, and made it that way, only for goat patch you must read a valley of limestone buttressed on the one side by a massive hill of iron ore—Red Mountain—and on the other by a mighty coal range—the Warrior Field. Red Mountain was in Revolutionary days the Indians' hunting ground and their treasure place for "dye-rock." But in 1871 the future city was still nothing but a smithy in a corn-field, although the intervening century had seen great commonwealths grow up across the Mississippi and the frontier of settlement pushed to the Rockies and beyond. The record of the forty rapid years to follow, which Colonel De Bardeleben cast into a trenchant phrase or two, spreads out today before Red Mountain in a fifteen-mile chain of mines, slope, shaft, and stripings. Within very gun-shot distance of the Tennessee company's great Muscoda group of ore mines, once owned by De Bardeleben, is the site of old Fort Jonesboro (1813-15). Where now the town of Thomas is gathered under the warm shadows of the Republic Iron and Steel Company's blast furnaces was once a cotton plantation belonging to old Marse Hawkins. And out of what was once upon a time a rose-garden have grown the huge stacks of the Woodward Iron Company.

No other city in America is formed directly on the surface of the raw materials which are its own feeders—coal, iron-ore, and stone. Nowhere else in the world, indeed, saving perhaps in some remote undeveloped Asian territory, do such peculiar geological conditions prevail, to such immense extent, as here in the Birmingham district, where the combination of all of the materials

for the economical manufacture of pig-iron and steel are in such close proximity as to be actually of one locality. Among the mineral producing states, Alabama now holds first place in brown ore production; third in that of red hematite and third in total production; while it is third in coke, fourth in pig-iron, fifth in coal, and fifth in the manufacture of steel. Precisely those mineral industries which in the United States represent the greatest money value: coal, iron, petroleum, natural gas, cement, marble, building stone, graphite, and mica, are the important resources of the Birmingham district, and here they are all at either an initial stage of development or else wholly undeveloped.

For over three generations Alabama was called a "cotton state," iron not being mentioned officially as a state resource up to the eighteen-seventies, although iron making has actually been an industry from the territorial period (1818-19), and coal-digging since the early eighteen-thirties. The cities of Huntsville, Montgomery, and Mobile led the times in former years. Today Birmingham leads. It is the great pay-roll maker of the state, its banking center, heaviest tax payer, biggest tonnage producer, railroad hub, the business center, the everything that "goes." Fully 75 per cent of the railroad traffic of Alabama is carried by the Birmingham district; its tonnage is more than that of the entire adjoining state of Georgia. Here, too, are the headquarters of powerful companies and corporations, the site of hundreds of mining camps and mines, coal mines, iron-ore mines, stone quarries, batteries of coke-ovens, shops, mills, foundries, factories, furnaces, and steel plants. Here also is the center of the petroleum and gas development of Alabama, the coming new business of the state.

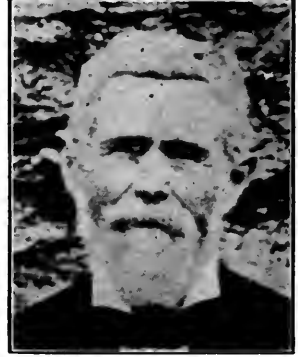
Birmingham is therefore the home place of more workmen and working-women and working-children than any other locality in the South. There are



Moses Stroup.



Bayliss E. Grace.



Major Tom Peters.

PIONEER COAL AND IRON MASTERS OF ALABAMA.

more of what is termed "the common people" here than in any other Alabama city. Accordingly there are more problems and greater need for the direct facing of the facts of human life.

All the modern forces making for industrial cohesion, for mass production, social production, have thus added themselves to push men to activity and schemes of development. The coal and iron men—the city builders—have been in this sense merely the tools of those vast economic processes which mould communities and human relations.

To begin with, Birmingham had back of it, in its conception, the sincere spirit. Its founder, John T. Milner, a civil en-

gineer, was a man of distinctly patriotic strain, as he showed in the civil war and in all his works. He had not in the least the speculator notion as mother to his dream. He conceived the city in the late eighteen-sixties for a great workshop town as answer to the state's need, a vent for the great mineral resources which he knew to lie in the hills.

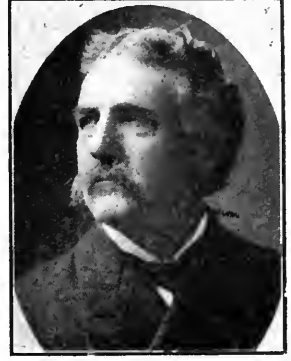
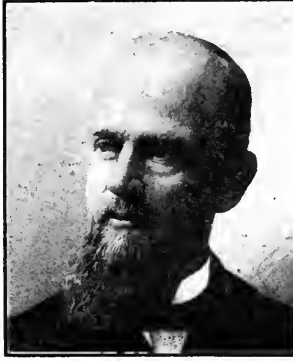
An idea, then—so much to start with. It was then driven to fruit by a union of railroads, and fostered in its beginnings by a real estate man—stubborn, autocratic, your born speculator—James R. Powell, colonel, whom they used to call the "Duke of Birmingham," the extraordinary head of an extraordinary concern known as the Elyton Land Company, which Milner originally projected. Not since old Colonel Powell was shot to death in a Yazoo saloon has any man stepped forth with his heart so in the makings of this town. In the old days it was literally borne aloft on Colonel Powell's shoulders, hailing the universe with "Millions in it." Caught eventually in barbed circumstances, the town fell, tripped on the verge of the pit of oblivion. Then came marching along the coal and iron captains.

Civil engineer first, and next a land speculator, every way-mark of city development from now on was to hinge upon a coal and iron company or a coal and iron man. In 1876 came the making



OLD TANNEHILL.

Old blast furnace which made cannon balls, gun barrels, pots, and skillets for the use of the Confederate army.



PIONEER COAL AND IRON MASTERS OF ALABAMA.

Truman H. Aldrich.

T. T. Hillman.

Alfred M. Shook.

of coke pig iron; second, in 1878-79, the opening of the Pratt coal mines; third, in 1887, the first step in modern blast furnace practice, and incidentally the creation of the town of Bessemer; fourth, in 1895, the making of basic pig-iron on a wide commercial scale, while the fifth and sixth great instances of development have come in our own day—the making of steel by the Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Company, in 1905, on a wide commercial scale, in the Topping-Crockard administration, and the entrance into Alabama in 1907 of the United States Steel Corporation, the beginning of the Crawford administration. As to these, a backward glance will suffice.

It was Colonel Milner and his associates who demonstrated at the old Oxmoor furnaces in 1876 that pig-iron could be made in Alabama at a profit. Three years later, through Truman H. Aldrich, James W. Sloss, and Henry F. De Bardeleben, the great Pratt coal seam was opened up and the town got its first real start. Rolling mills, blast furnaces, coke ovens, the mining towns of Pratt City, Woodward, Thomas, coal and ore mines, stone quarries all over the district got to going. Coal and iron and real estate companies, banks, industrial concerns of one kind and another followed one after the other.

It was a strong group in the lead in that first decade—Milner, Powell, Sloss,

Aldrich, De Bardeleben, and their associates, and later a reinforcement, Milton H. Smith, a railroad man. Courageous, aggressive, constructive—a good pioneer sort—they were indeed great factors. To one thing the men and the times led—the great boom days, and the inevitable crash that followed. For the town went dollar mad! Those days of the great boom would take a book to tell, when the great De Bardeleben Coal and Iron Company and the Cahaba Coal Company, “plumed and swashbuckling,” led all the rest. “I like to use money, as I use a horse to ride!” was the way Colonel De Bardeleben put it; and Colonel Shook says of him: “He would stand in a crowd and say, ‘I know a coal mine, by God, gentlemen, where Nature herself has driven the main entry for clean a



OLD CEDAR CREEK.

Site of first blast furnace of Alabama, Franklin county, 1818.

hundred miles! and he would sell it on the spot!"

After the crash late in the eighteenthies came an historic deal, destined to change in future years the very map of the state. The little old Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Company stepped down into Alabama and bought up the big Pratt Coal and Iron Company, then captained by Colonel Enoch Ensley, who poked fun at their "airs" and their plea to keep their name—"So the tail would wag the dog, eh!" he said, and laughed a good deal. Then, all at once, this Tennessee company traded for De Bardeleben's great company, which owned "all Bessemer and most of Birmingham and near the whole of Red Mountain," and for the vast Aldrich Cahaba coal lands.

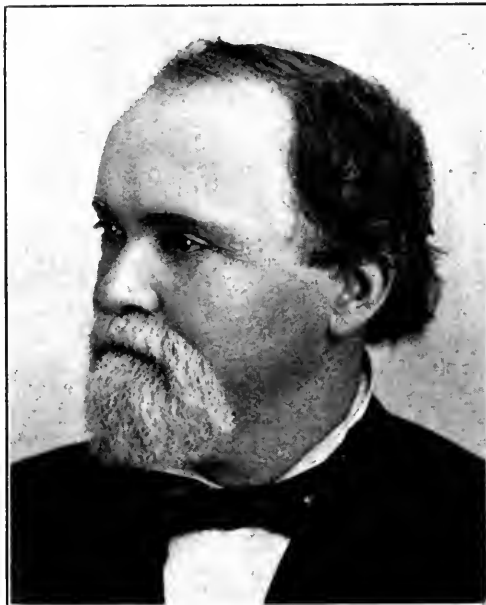
Great times! great times! those days after the "great boom!" Receivers just around all the corners! Trades and trades again—pig-iron up and pig-iron down, a new mine opened, a new furnace in blast, a new company born, an old one dead, De

Bardeleben starting in again the game of follow-my leader; that's how it went, until finally the panic of '93 swooped over the place and let the town this time clean over the precipice and down to the bottom.

Stunned thus in '93, all the folk in boom and crash and shuffle began to struggle out as best they could. The game of self-interest got considerable headway. At times, when the life and death of Birmingham had been hanging on the deals, nobody stopped to think of the place as a city. It ran wild, grew any old way. At

other times the unprogressive native element and public apathy and indifference stretched like a wall across the pathway of the men who wanted to do things; for there were some who wanted to build up the town as well as themselves along with it. They were merely, in the general mass, commercially constructive men, gaining greatly in wealth themselves in what they made Birmingham. They had go-ahead, grit, gumption, and great business capacity; and if it had not been for certain of them, the Birmingham of today would not be half-built.

In the year 1895, through the introduction of basic pig iron making on a commercial scale, the Birmingham district was swung into the way of steel making, mineral property was trebled in value, and export trade increased. This was the work of George B. McCormack, now president of the Alabama Coal Operators' Association, and president of the Pratt Consolidated Coal Company; then, general manager of the Tennessee

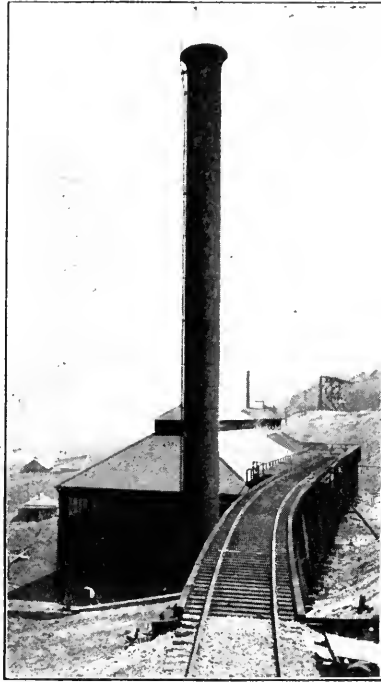


JOHN T. MILNER.
Founder of Birmingham.

Railroad Company. A first steel plant was at length begun at Ensley, where the first cast was recorded on Thanksgiving day, 1899. Construction work meanwhile in the coal and iron trade had gone steadily on and the records of the city are inseparably bound up in the records of the great companies, the Tennessee, the Sloss-Sheffield Steel and Iron Company, the Republic Iron and Steel Company, the Woodward Iron Company, the Pratt Consolidated Coal Company, the Southern Iron and Steel Company, the Alabama Consolidated Coal and Iron Com-

pany, the Birmingham Coal and Iron Company, and others.

A further reorganization of the Tennessee company occurred in 1899-1900; new blood and fresh capital were let in. Don Bacon came down from Minnesota to be president, and his aggressive administration sought to down the speculative and hold to the legitimate development policy—an idea hard to crystallize. However, mining methods in the Birmingham district, particularly for ore mining, were modernized, and foundations were so solidly laid that, with the next reorganization of the company, when John A. Topping and Frank Hearne Crockard were placed in the lead, this idea—legitimate development work—got another and a better start, the construction of new works at Ensley added a big plant to the



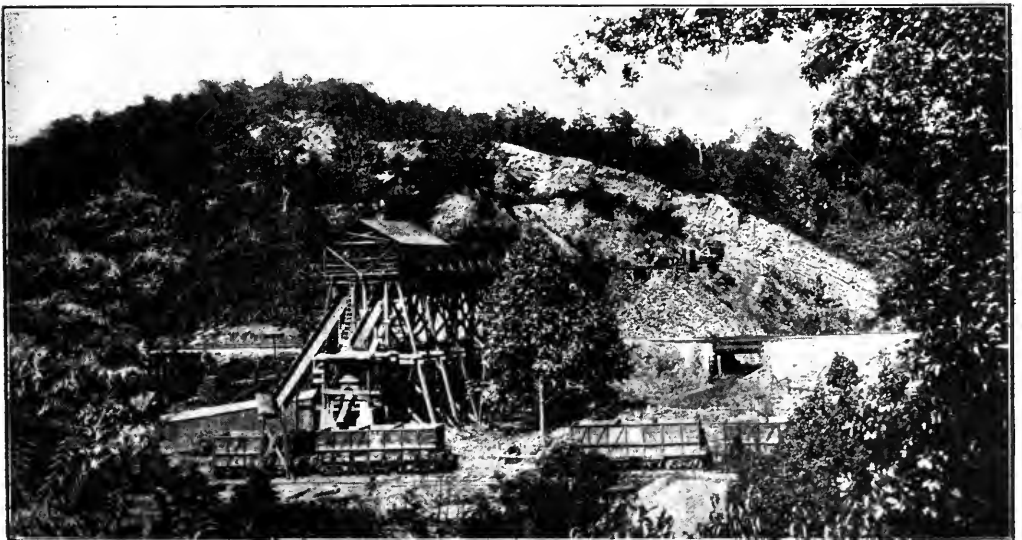
ISHCOODA MINES.

Power plant at modern tipples.

industrial equipment of the South; steel making on a wide commercial scale was inaugurated and Birmingham placed on a competing level with Pittsburgh, Cleveland, and Chicago.

With the panic fear of 1907, the Tennessee company, with which as we have seen the industrial fabric of the city was bound up, was again on the verge of collapse. Out of the chaos sprang a Titan's hand, the hand of John Pierpont Morgan. The United States Steel Corporation acquired the Tennessee company and lifted it from Wall street for good and all. They chose as president of the company George Gordon Crawford, a man who has a strong

sense of the great industrial movement and of city building. In a word, he looks to his units, knows that the shoes of his soldiers are more important to campaigns



OLD-STYLE TIPPLES.

Mine from which first ore was dug from Red Mountain.



GEORGE B. McCORMICK.
President Alabama Coal Operators' Association;
president Pratt Consolidated Coal Com-
pany, Birmingham.



GORGE GORDON CRAWFORD.
President Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Com-
pany, Birmingham.

than his guns. Crawford is a leader, inspiring his men to press forward, to take the initiative themselves when occasion calls. He stands in Birmingham as the leader of the steel business of the South, a man of great constructive power, marked personal force and influence. The plans and ideals of the Steel Corporation he interprets in wise, kind, and far-reaching ways. In the organization of safety and welfare work in his company and in the corporation as a whole he is an active factor. His aim is for efficiency. Facing the circumstance that Alabama ores, being a low grade, therefore call for high-grade labor to get the most out of them, he is gradually bringing about a big readjustment of the human side of the industry. In the improving of the

housing and living conditions of the miners, the Tennessee company is active, together with a few others of the Alabama Coal Operators' Association, among them the Woodward Iron Company, the Pratt Consolidated Coal Company, and the Republic Iron and Steel Company.

Many changes for the better in the whole of greater Birmingham begin to show the handiwork of these progressive industrial leaders of today.

From the ore-rimmed crest of the long iron-hill, one can see the whole city stirring in the valley.

There is first historic Old Jonesboro—what is left of it—earliest of the pioneer log-settlements of Jefferson county; then Bessemer, the city of furnaces, founded by De Bardeleben; the furnace towns and mining towns of Woodward, Wylam, Thomas, Pratt



OLD BIBB FURNACE.
BRIERFIELD, BIBB COUNTY.

City, Powderly, and the City of Ensley, where the giant brood of furnaces and the steel plant of the United States Steel Corporation strike high against the sky-line. Then the new model city of Corey and the great wire mills and coke plants of the Steel Corporation, the little residence suburbs of Owenton—site of Owenton College—West End; the old market town of Elyton, the first town of Jones Valley; the growing suburbs

and the Catholic Orphanage—beyond, to Roebuck Springs, and way off into the coal fields to many a mining camp, over the hills and far away.

The place has become the very embodiment of change. Here have men gathered from every part of the United States, and from many countries of Europe, men of every sort, kind, and degree. With so many and such diverse communities, old and new; with such an



LAST OF SLAVE QUARTERS OF OLD HAWKINS PLANTATION.

of North Birmingham, Norwood, East Birmingham, the North Highlands, the South Highlands, the railroad town of Boyles, the cotton mill town of Avondale, the little "city" of Woodlawn, once Wood's Station, treading back to pioneer times; Gate City, site of the Republic Company's rolling mill, now dismantled:—yonder, all along the valley, they swing from left to right, clear to the residence suburbs of East Lake—the site of Howard College, the Boys' Industrial Home,

influx of strangers; struggle, competition, warring elements of every sort and kind, it has been scarcely possible for Birmingham to have achieved co-operation and community feeling.

Although the majority of the people are Southern born and bred, the city is "true Southern" solely from a geographical viewpoint. Old Southern standards, ways, habits, and customs do not predominate here. When the choice lies between gumption and sentiment, it is

sentiment which makes way. Rather the spirit of the myrtle-phoenix is Birmingham's, with all its savagery, but likewise with its strength and its superb possibilities.

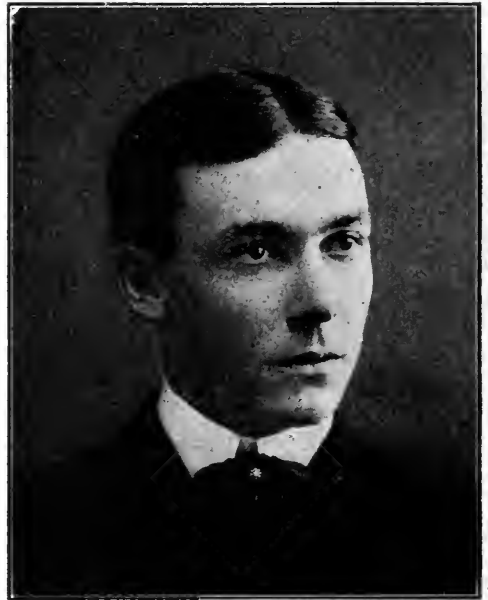
Quickened in the ashes of war's waste, Birmingham fluttered from the low-smitten field in the gloom of the Reconstruction hour—that stinging, bitter hour between our dark and dawn. High and strong it soars now above the Southern horizon—a winged activity—in flashing contrast to the groundward flying flocks, other towns near and far. How drowsily they brood over by-gones—fly in clouds of illusions, catch the fat little worms of prejudice, and feed them full! Adoring their hates, luxuriating in their poverties, they do not fancy this sharp-clawed, hook-beaked, soaring adventurer.

It must be recognized, however, that Birmingham, although in itself a brand new city, is set against a distinctly pioneer background. Jones Valley was settled in territorial times. What early settlements survived are today a part of greater Birmingham. Old Elyton is frequently termed in anniversary editions "the mother of us all." Yet it was in no sense parent stock. It kicked Birmingham from the start. Even when the first tippie was being put up at old Pratt Mines, Joseph Squire says,

Not anywhere in this whole district could I hire a team to haul my lumber. They would not let me have a mule. I tried to buy yeast to make my light bread out at the camp for me and my men, and they would not sell me yeast! Whatever we needed to get the mines opened up, we had to get elsewhere. I had to go way up to Jasper.

So it went. A hundred instances might be recalled. Now if that—at the beginning—was not enough to breed feuds, to sharpen claws and beak—what was? Small wonder the new-comer of that day and spirit wanted to get all he could make out of Birmingham—and let the town go hang! Much light on why these things were is cast by certain of the accounts and experiences of early English scientists and travelers. Dr. Gosse, for instance, found that in antebellum times in Alabama, every man was "his own law-maker, law-breaker, judge, jury, and executioner." This old spirit of

law unto himself thus handed down from father to son has borne fruit in nearly every county of Alabama today, and particularly in Jefferson county, where Birmingham is located. Dr. Gosse further noted the utter absence in the old times of such homes and home life as existed in other parts of the South. The "old families" indigenous to Alabama had not, generally speaking, the same significance as have old families of certain well defined localities of Maryland, Virginia, South Carolina, and east Georgia. Here, especially in the hill coun-



A. H. WOODWARD.

Vice-president Woodward Iron Company, Birmingham.

try, the majority are "old" merely in the sense of long-time occupation of the soil. Never have they been what is called a "reading people." From generation to generation they have arraigned themselves against far-sighted legislation; against diversified industries; against railroads; against macadamized roads; against the coal and iron business; against co-operation in anything. The list is long. Only a terrific fight here in the past built railroads and furnaces and opened mines. No one not directly in business in the South can fully comprehend the struggle of the

progressive business men here in the past.

On the other hand, this very concentration of imagination and building instinct along industrial lines has cost the community heavily. Industrial activity alone has, up to now, been considered of importance for Birmingham by the people of Birmingham as a whole. Immense fortunes have been made in Birmingham out of Birmingham resources, many of them by members of the oldest families of Jones Valley. But many of the successful money makers have



JOHN L. KAUL.
President Kaul Lumber Company, Birmingham.

been still more successful money keepers. Few dollars of theirs have gone to boost along any public welfare moves. "Before God," said one of these, "I will be damned before I will put my hand in my pocket for anything!" As a consequence, social, educational, artistic, or philanthropic activities have not as yet become strong-winged. There is hardly a flash of recognition for any patriot service done by minister, teacher, writer, artist, geologist, attorney, or business man, nor for the first burden-bearers of Birmingham, the pio-

neer workmen. A month or so ago, during the anti-tuberculosis campaign so courageously prosecuted by individual effort, a certain so-called physician belonging to what is termed the "native element" refused flatly to co-operate, on the ground that the new-fangled doctors in Birmingham were all fools in trying to stop tuberculosis! "Why," he said, "they'll put themselves out of business!" The unprogressive, let-well-enough-alone folk have had to be reckoned with at every stage of the game, together with the unscrupulous business adventurer type, the speculator, the small politician; such as have bred the fee system, the old aldermanic rule, the "shot-gun" system, the "kill a nigger" slogan, all the protean shapes of graft—the sewer and the trash pile generally—and a never ceasing cry, "No public spirit!"¹ Indeed, whatsoever decent human thing some men try to do is bound to be misinterpreted—selfish ends imputed—a "nigger in the woodpile" conjectured. And that man's way is blocked by a curious, intangible, tenacious something he cannot for the life of him see.

The fact of the matter is that Birmingham, "great" as it is, is nevertheless as a city simply a by-product of the huge industrial plants. The place has been utterly jagged and uneven, raw in spots, "picayunish," provincial—"get-rich-quick." It dominates 10,000 square miles of hill country, a mineral region comprising one-fifth the area of the entire state. Its boundaries are more extensive than those of any other Southern city, with the exception of New Orleans, exceeding Baltimore, Atlanta, Louisville, Memphis, and Richmond. Its population (132,685) is an increase of over 240 per cent on the last census. Yet

¹That cry is general—"No public spirit here!" Nearly every citizen, especially the new-comer, shouts it aloud. And he will very likely add that his home 'is not Birmingham, but Atlanta, or New Orleans, or Chicago, or Kalamazoo, and he hopes to get back some day.' We hope he will. There—right there—is a thing to tackle. If the new people who flock here—and they certainly do flock—!!! just step quietly into line and give the young town they expect to get their bread from some individual boosting of the right order—that is, a few honest kicks and then a helping hand—each do a bit of constructive work on his own account, and see to striking roots into the soil, that indefinite something called public spirit will come about one of these days.



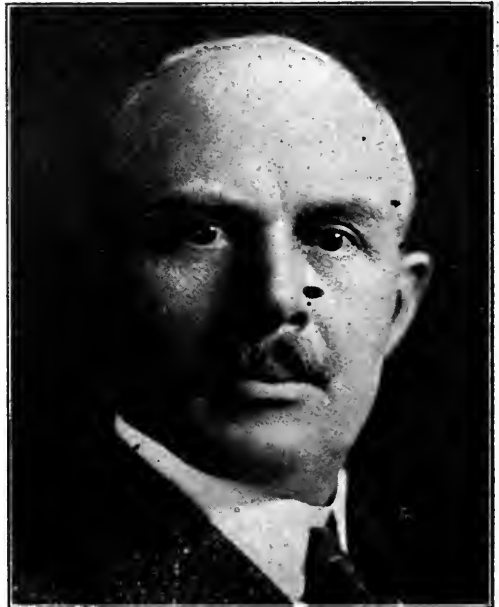
W. P. G. HARDING.

President First National Bank, Birmingham.

there is no clean nor adequate hotel in Birmingham—no central public library building, no first-class theater nor concert hall. It has not yet been possible to provide and maintain any very large parks or playgrounds worth mentioning. There are few places for people to go to in the evenings. Such public buildings as are here—the city hall, government building (where the post office is located) the court house, the jail—all were designed and built some years ago, without the slightest reference to such minor considerations as air, light, heat, ventilation, or any hygienic or sanitary arrangements deserving of the name, much less of "architecture."

The greater credit therefore is due the young business men coming along, and to the old men with the new ideals. For all the new building here is going up on modern lines. The recently constructed churches, public and skyscraper office buildings, terminal station, Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. buildings, shops, business houses, clubs, apartment houses, and graciously planned homes are changing the aspect of the whole city. Once when Marion

Crawford came here to visit, he said that in site and general topography Birmingham was curiously like Italy's Florence; only Birmingham has a richer growth of forest, a wider reach of valley and hill range. Certainly the old Florentine manner of building homes all up and down the hillsides in sweet winding ways has flown here at length from over-seas. Such hundreds upon hundreds of happy looking little homes today, bright and light among the very tops of trees, like singing birds! But such hundreds upon hundreds of other houses down in the smoke on the way to the city, crouched around the furnace stacks, the old rolling mills, the cotton mill—lean and gaunt and stark and ugly like a pack of hungry wolves. The workmen's bungalows in the model city of Corey strike a new note. Beyond question things can be done in Birmingham—and well done, although as yet it is by individual effort. The place is naturally so beautiful to build in, so easy to make more beautiful. Plans for the building of a city that will measure up to our opportunities are beginning to stir the



A. H. FORD.

President Birmingham Railway, Light, and Power Company, Birmingham.

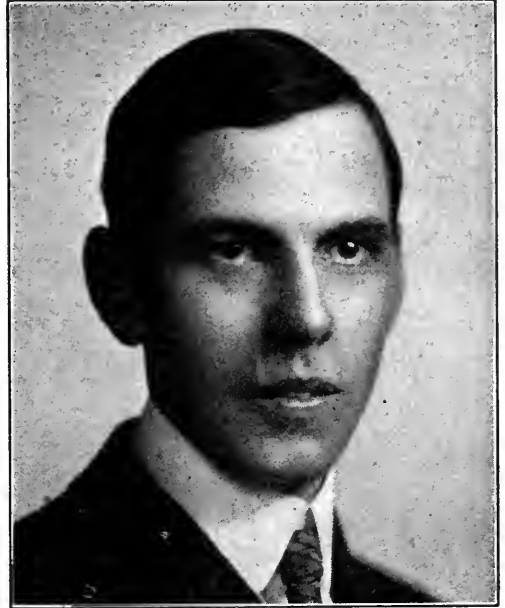
people; and this change of front has to do with more than the physical husk of things.

For, after all, some of the spirit of old Major Peters and of Engineer John T. Milner went into the marrow of Birmingham, as well as that of Truman Aldrich and Colonel De Bardeleben with which we began. Milner saw it all coming long ago, this great workshop city of the South, when he rode on horseback along the crest of Red Mountain, planning his railroad, planning his town in the wilderness. Alabama, in his day, he said, had no unity, no state feeling, no community spirit, no foresight nor progressive sense, and an utter indifference to the future. And he certainly knew whereof he spoke! If ever a man pleaded with people to face facts, to analyze their own diseases and try to eradicate them, John T. Milner pleaded with Alabamians.

Yet scarcely a paper that he ever wrote has been preserved; his very name as the founder of Birmingham was even set aside—not of a purpose, assuredly, but simply overlooked, forgotten. And the city once started—taken in hand by Colonel Powell and the rest—off to his shack in the Newcastle coal fields went Milner. Some of what he said, wrote, and is said to have said has such a true ring, and is so sound at the core, that it is a pity his influence wavered at the last; that he did not really mould in its early stages the city that he dreamed—and worked like thunder to bring to being.

The lesson of organization comes hard after forty years of *laissez-faire*. Things have to come up gradually, the accumulation of elements before crystallization. But they are coming.

All is here to be made fresh and new—made right if the people of Birmingham will. The birth of civic spirit is perhaps near at hand. Whether the city shall continue to be merely a by-product of the industrial companies, a vast collection of houses, streets, and people, is for the people to say. To understand at last that here is home—home “for keeps”—that is the first thing, the first thing and the last.



ROBERT JEMISON, JR.
President Jemison Real Estate and Insurance Company, Birmingham.

Standing on Red Mountain's ridge, high above the valley, like a ship's prow, there are days when at sunset time everything is drawn in lines of gold and opal, or is massed in colors of mother-of-pearl against the western sky. Then, dark coming, thousands upon thousands of lights suddenly blossom in the valley. All the places speak their names in lights, big lights or little lights. A golden arch quivers over Ensley, the city of the steel plant. It is quick with glancing shapes—armor for fighters, thunderbolts, chariots, and winged shoes! Out of its fiery heart, in among the smouldering batteries of coke-ovens and all the giant iron-makers moves slowly, like a dark shaggy cloud, a world-old figure—Hephaestus!

Breathing hard upon this city of his works, he lifts his tired eyes to the fair hillside, so quiet, so fresh, so alluring, under the stars—Aphrodite! And lo, his force and fire are over her. Ah, how the drowsing hill burns in the warm midnight under the iron god's breath!—Their precious union, the dream of a million years!



Culpepper Exum.



James Weatherly.



A. O. Lane.

BIRMINGHAM'S CITY COMMISSIONERS.

BIRMINGHAM'S CIVIC FRONT

GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR

To many Americans the South stands for tradition—for slow changes in the established order of things. They think of plantations, of white-pillared, bounteous-looking houses surrounded by stately trees, of boundless hospitality, of unkempt shanties with swarms of pickaninnies and poor whites, of slow-growing towns and easy-going ways, of scattered cotton mills as the principal manifestation of modern industry. Even if they can picture the "new South" of iron and steel, coal production, and manufactures, older habits of thought dominate and they are quite unprepared to find in the heart of Alabama a "boom" city claiming big work achievements and commercial progress—one with so new-fangled a thing as the commission form of government.

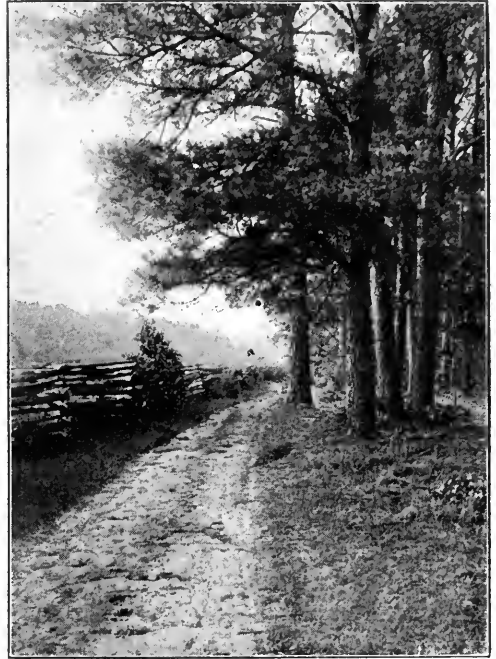
Birmingham, as Miss Armes brings out, reared itself out of the very ground in which it was planted but forty years ago; literally pulled itself up by its own boot-straps—as it hauled iron, limestone, and coal from its own sub-structure. It was this bold vision which its rugged industrial pioneers caught in the gleam of mineral wealth as their horses' hoofs broke open the surface ore. They had the red dirt examined, coal seams tested,

and limestone quarries bared. They saw building stone and clay within easy reach. They heard in imagination the railroads wrestling with their tonnage, and saw a vast people coming to dig and reduce and put into marketable shapes the strength of their hills. And in the valley north of Red Mountain, six years after Appomatox, they laid out in a stubble field a commonplace rectangular street plan for what has now become the South's one big city which knows no heritage of the civil war.

Birmingham is thus a made-to-order city of our own times; but its makers were mining-engineers, prospectors, iron-makers, not millwrights in town-building. The 4,150 acres which the Elyton Land Company acquired for \$100,000 it laid out no whit different from the plans of towns founded fifty years earlier, unwitting of the structural faults those towns had demonstrated and unconscious even that the National Capital, itself a southern city, offered in its diagonal streets, its fine vistas, and time-saving arteries an example of ways to overcome them. This is a civic shortcoming not peculiar to Birmingham. Such failure has been the rule rather than the exception in establishing industrial towns in

America, even in these days when scores of cities have set out with far-reaching schemes to reshape their structural lines and guide their future growth. This fact, however, does not minimize Birmingham's share in the common misfortune. On the contrary, new and plastic, Birmingham should even more insistently grasp the exceptional opportunities for scientific city building which are still ready to her hand.

For here is the key city of the "new South"—a city built around an industry new to the South, in a period that left it no ante-bellum legacies—a city new at a time when the means for perfecting city building are being most rapidly developed. Her ways of growth are bound to mean much not only to Birmingham people but to those of a score of sister cities. Let us trace, then, the larger civic impulses that run through them: see how Greater Birmingham has risen out of a collection of small communities; how three industrial towns—two of them now a part of the larger city—contrast with and contribute to the city as a whole; how the municipal administration, with its increased load, broke down under its own weight and was superseded by the commission form of government; how an inadequate income handicaps the city; how a desperate struggle was fought out with a gang of saloon politicians bound up with the old ways; how the city in its youth has granted franchises extending into perpetuity; how not only public service but



THE COUNTRY ROUND ABOUT.

"In the blue Cahaba hills" on the road to Bright-hope.

such elementary common needs as reduced food costs are becoming local issues; how railway grade crossings that split the town in the middle evidence not only the need for an organic city plan, but for a new balance between big business interests and the general welfare; how, in a word, a city with a dozen fundamental shortcomings, and with heavy difficulties and burdens—not the least being the maintenance of separate institutions for a Negro population—is nevertheless developing a community consciousness, and shows signs of the co-operative action without which no lasting civic progress can be secured.

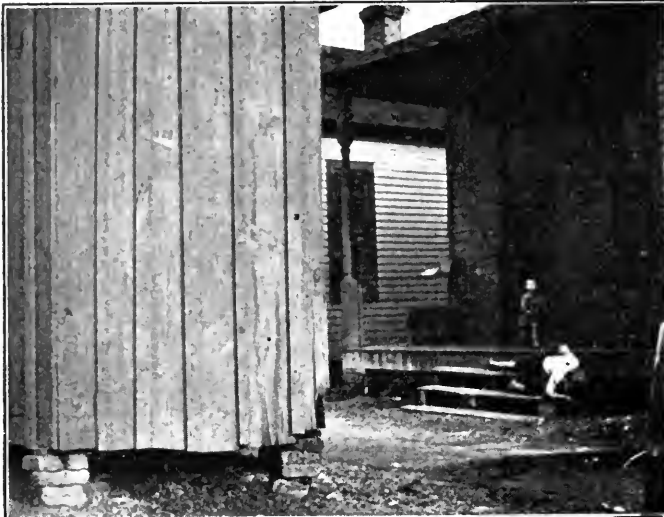
The commercial growth of the city, rapid as it has been, has been irregular, with great ups and downs, and this fact must not be overlooked in reviewing the course of social development dependent upon it. The Elyton Land Company paid 1200 per cent dividend at one time; in 1893 it went bankrupt. Yet out of all the booms and vicissitudes, we have as outcome the sheer facts of heaped-up land values, of swelling boundary lines,



OLD INN AT ELYTON.

The town was the first market and trading center in Jefferson county.

January 6, 1912.



and of doubling populations, all set off against the background of a farming country whose social institutions have been stretched to the snapping point by this sudden city pressure. Of the original tract bought in 1871 the present company, successor to the Elyton Land Company, still has about one-fifth, four-fifths having been sold off; yet the value of this one-fifth is estimated today to be more than the price first put on



AVONDALE.

Top: Back yard showing privy from which water was leaking and saturating the ground on the day it was investigated.

Middle: A row of two-room box houses on a street without either board walk or curbing.

Bottom: A row of better houses. The hydrant is used by many householders and is a play center.



the whole area. Land bought by the company at \$25 an acre sold ten years later for \$1,000 an acre. An old sea-captain built a three-story bank on a corner lot for which he had paid \$400. They called it "Linn's Folly," but today a sixteen-story office building stands on the corner. From a population of 3,086 in 1880, the city grew to 38,415 in 1900. The 1910 census shows 132,685 people. The annexation of adjoining suburbs in January of that year accounts in considerable part for this last figure, but the population of the territory now included in the greater city has of itself doubled in the decade. This move consolidated into one municipal unit nearly a score of small towns whose previous lack of co-operation had frustrated nearly every comprehensive effort for civic advance. And there is no better approach to the general problems confronting the greater city than a look¹ at the three most interesting of these satellite communities:

AVONDALE TYPICAL OF OLD-STYLE COTTON-MILL VILLAGES WHICH SPANG UP ALL OVER THE SOUTH WITH THE BUILDING OF THE TEXTILE MILLS.

Avondale is a village of 130 dreary company houses, mostly one story high, which are home for the 600 employes of the big cotton mill owned by Comer, who, as a shipper and former governor of Alabama, led an aggressive campaign for public supervision of the railroads.

With respect to manufacturing conditions, on the other hand, he is not in the position of an insurgent, but rather, as employer and landlord, of the powers in control. The company rows are built on a low flat of cinders neighboring the mill. The struggling patches of grass only heighten the barrenness, which is relieved but little by straight rows of small trees along the front of the cube-like houses. The mill's smoke and dingy walls seem to oppress the town just as untoward work conditions overshadow the lives of the workers. The spaces between the rows, unpaved and without sidewalks, serve as alleys and streets, the difference being that privies, until recently without running water in them, and ash-barrels line the middle of the alleys. Rear and front porches are without distinction except that in the rear is the tell-tale clutter of wash-tubs and household utensils and babies. Family coal-piles and outside hydrants are the play apparatus of the children, when they are not wearily lugging water home. For although the hydrants are at regular intervals in front of the houses, water does not run freely from all. The only social or civic agency is a school, housed fully as un-

¹Conditions as of last spring.

attractively as the workers, but which serves as a center for a teacher who combines teaching with unofficial activities as friendly visitor and charity agent.

ENSLEY TYPICAL OF DOWN-AT-THE-HEEL, VISIONLESS HOUSE-CLUSTERS WHICH NORTH AND SOUTH ABOUT THE AVERAGE "WORKS" ERECTED IN THE 80'S AND 90'S.

Ensley, at the other end of Birmingham, is a rectangle of streets flanking the Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Company's steel mill to the southeast. The town, laid out in 1886 by the Ensley Land Company—incorporated with power to exercise practically every sort of community function—is plain and matter-of-fact, with little to arouse the admiration of the social observer. Built to house the mill workers, it is even now, although a part of Greater Birmingham, practically a detached community, a stretch of open land separating it from the city proper. A bank and a few stores are grouped on its busiest corner, the houses flanking the few streets on either side of the main thoroughfare. Their general unattractiveness bears testimony that little thought was given to the town except as an industrial barracks. The newer houses, however, are more homelike, due in part no doubt to home building by employes who have invested savings, and in part to an increasing number of residents whose business or work is in Birmingham's business section.

COREY TYPICAL OF TWENTIETH-CENTURY INDUSTRIAL VILLAGES, HERE AND ABROAD, WHICH APPLY MODERN INVENTION TO HOUSE AND STREET AS WELL AS TO SHOP AND SIDINGS.

Corey marks a great advance, not only in Birmingham, but in the country at large, along lines of intelligent town planning. Unlike its policy at Gary, the Steel Corporation did not build the new city through a subsidiary land company, but turned the work over to a local real estate firm which organized among Birmingham men the Corey Land Company. In this the Steel Corporation has no financial interest, nor have steel officials individually. The officers' of the land company have taken the keenest interest in providing a model town as designed by their landscape architect. The result contrasts with Ensley, and still more strikingly with dingy and muggy Avondale. In fact, it is doubtful if in America there may be found a better planned industrial community. In comparison with it, the under-appreciation of a big opportunity at Gary stands out glaringly. Even the relation of residence section to workshops has been studied from the viewpoint—novel in America, it must be admitted—that people are dwellers in homes as well as workers. For the residence section occupies beautiful rising ground; no squalid "Hollow" or "Gully" need here develop. The prevailing winds will carry mill smoke from

¹Robert Jemison, Jr., president; J. C. Lusk, vice-president of the Jemison Real Estate and Insurance Company, acting as agent for the Corey Land Company; George H. Millier, landscape architect, Boston.



RESIDENCES NEAR OVERLOOK PLACE, COREY.

Showing width of parkway along street, and the planting of flowers and shrubbery.

the houses instead of toward them. This arrangement is undoubtedly convenient industrially, for the mills flank the railroad in the valley. It is impossible to know how far community interests would have counted if industrial economies had pointed in another direction. But the fact nevertheless remains that the arrangement favors home life.

The width of building lots in Corey—fifty feet—contrasts most favorably with that prevailing at Gary and in most other industrial towns, where twenty-five feet is the rule; and the depth of lots gives considerable space for vegetable gardens, drying clothes, chicken houses, and play. Lots already improved by the company show a good arrangement of yard space for these purposes. Attractive bungalow houses, several of varying sizes and costs, have been built by the company, and these models have already set a standard of small and moderate costs. The sale of lots to Birmingham investors, on the other hand, who count on making profits out of the workmen who are to people the place, was a good real estate enterprise on the part of the Corey Land Company, but perhaps not so advantageous for the workmen *not yet* on the ground. In this, Corey, as well as practically every housing enterprise in America, falls short of the partnership building enterprises of England and continental Europe. These, on capital secured at low rates, sell homes on the instalment plan at rates little higher than rents and sell them in the form of shares of stock, so that a workman who can better his employment by moving is not tied down to a given spot, nor is he obliged to be nothing but a renter all his life.

In lay-out Corey compares favorably with the best that has been done here and abroad. The street plan is not the old gridiron, but a system of straight lines and easy curves guided by the topography. On the slopes, and throughout the town, trees have been left standing, and careful stipulation in all con-

tracts safeguarded them during the construction period. Shrub planting has had much attention. The streets are wide, but the pavement is narrow on quiet residence streets, so that householders may have grass instead of unnecessary paving. Sewers, pavement, sidewalks, and all fundamental utilities were well provided before a house was built. All wires will be underground. In a civic center, with a broad plaza leading to the main business street, space has been allotted for a city hall, public library, school, Y. M. C. A. building, and a good playground.

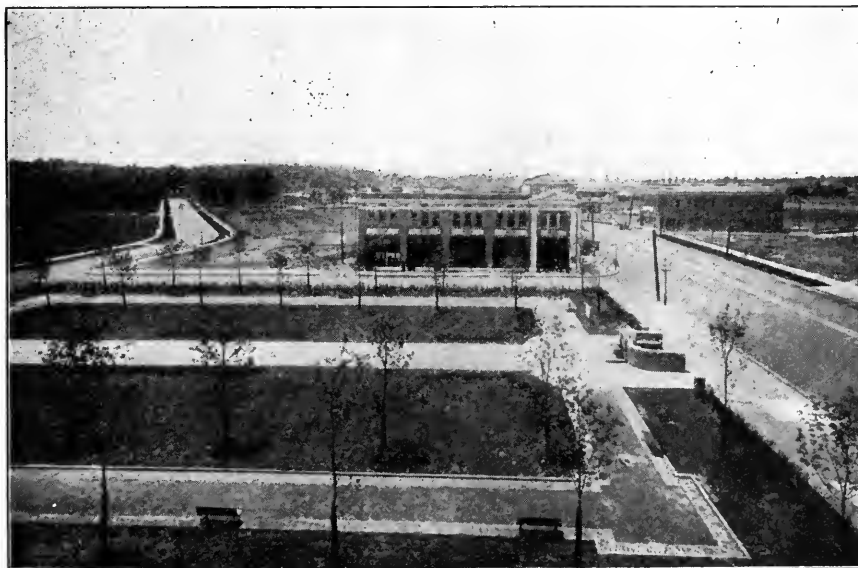
In their make-up and contrasts these three communities illustrate many of the general problems and forces of the industrial city of which they are a part—the obsolete sanitary equipment of Avondale, the hard, ungracious setting which Ensley gives to youth and age and the whole drama of life, the subordination to business interests which even in Corey led to the granting of a perpetual franchise to the chief streets before the town was born; and, on the other hand, the coming in of newer ideas which would put applied art and science and organization into the dwelling places of the people, and by so doing inevitably restore some of that dignity and amplex to life which was so characteristic of the old South—restore it and democratize it.

When Greater Birmingham came into existence on January 1, 1910, nine municipalities were merged in one. The old machinery for self-government was not so much modernized to meet the new

demands on it as it was made bigger. The board of aldermen was enlarged from sixteen to thirty-two. The smaller number, to the minds of many citizens, had been a sufficient incubus on civic progress: doubling the number increased the determination to be rid of it all. When the new board created lucrative jobs for two city officials who had been defeated by the people for re-election, public indignation ran high, and a movement for a commission form of government gained head. An advisory referendum vote showed an overwhelming sentiment favoring the change, and, despite the antagonism of the small politicians, a bill passed the legislature giving three commissioners the power of administering the affairs of the city. All ordinances were to remain in force until changed by the commission, but all offices were to be vacated when the commission took up its work. Under the new plan the commissioners are to be elected by the people, one at a time, their terms overlapping.

On April 10, 1911, Culpepper Exum, then mayor, Judge A. O. Lane, formerly

of the circuit court, and James Weatherly, a prominent lawyer, became the first commissioners under appointment by the governor. Just as the movement for a greater Birmingham had expressed what might be called the "bigness" motive in American municipal life, here the "business administration" principle was at work, with its weeding out of graft and economy as watchwords. One of the first steps taken by the new commissioners was to transfer the city's deposits from one bank to a group of banks, which agreed to pay a higher rate of interest. The bank thus deprived of holding the city's money, which was controlled by a political boss, had to go out of business. Current expenditures had been far outstripping tax receipts, and the commissioners set out at once to bring the city's operating costs within its income. A special auditor found a deficit of \$583,144. Retrenchment was accomplished by abolishing many offices, thus saving salaries, and incidentally getting rid of some inefficient service. The commissioners believed that no serious curtailment of the city's work was in-



PLAZA LEADING TO CIVIC CENTER, COREY.

The business buildings facing the plaza were designed as a unit with the town hall and those of the civic group.

volved, although they went to such an extreme as dropping the entire department of parks, and relying upon volunteer organizations to carry them on in the emergency. Certain cuts in the health department were no sooner made than rescinded, as from the medical standpoint they were untenable. Yet, on the whole, the overhauling of expenditures was regarded as a healthy piece of housecleaning, which must be viewed, however, as a preliminary responsibility on the part of the commission. A more fundamental test of the new régime lies in whether they link to their rigorous emphasis on honesty and economy a long plan of constructive governmental action with respect to the growing needs of the community.

As a basic step in such a positive program would come the overhauling of municipal sources of revenue, of city incomes as well as city expenditures. There are three phases of the tax situation in Birmingham which are of special social significance. In the first place, as a heritage of fiscal policies suitable for an agricultural commonwealth, the new city, with its big load of laying streets and sewers, preserving health and good order, and otherwise putting in an equipment for the common human needs of a hundred thousand residents, has been starved by the tax laws. The tax available for municipal purposes is exceptionally low—but \$1 on the \$100, set at that figure by a provision in the state con-

stitution, all taxes over and above that going to state and county. The city revenues are further pared down by a statute limiting assessments to 60 per cent of the full value. Thus, if property were assessed at the maximum figure allowed, the city would be limited to a tax revenue at the rate of 60 cents on the hundred dollars—hardly half the average tax rate prevailing in many other cities the size of Birmingham. Under the most efficient government it would be impossible to furnish, out of a 60-cent city rate, those public services which progressive communities recognize as necessary. But Birmingham is further handicapped. City and state taxes are computed on the same assessments. Throughout the state, assessments average very little above 30 per cent of value, Jefferson County, in which Birmingham is situated, already pays about one-fifth of the state taxes, and if, in order to shoulder more adequately its own load, assessments in Jefferson county were to be raised above the level prevailing throughout the state, Birmingham would have to pay a disproportionate amount of the state tax for its pains. Hence assessments for the city are estimated to average not above 50 per cent of market value. Therefore the local rate of \$1 per \$100 of assessment in reality is only 50 cents—about one-third of what the experience of American cities generally indicates is needed by effective city administrations.

As a make-shift to supply at least a part of its further requirements, the city long since adopted a system of arbitrary licenses upon the privilege of carrying on business within its limits. There are 401 different kinds of business thus levied upon, ranging from auctioneers at \$100 per year to yeast dealers at \$35; from sign painters at \$15 to dealers in shoes, with a stock averaging \$40,000, at \$450; from milk and butter peddlers



OVER THE CITY LINE FROM COREY.

Some of the shanties in which 600 Negro workmen live, just outside of Corey. The strings of town-planning have not yet been stretched to take in the day laborers.

at \$20 to vegetable peddlers with horse and wagon at \$50; from \$200 for retail grocers with a \$15,000 stock to \$500 for dry-goods retailers with a \$45,000 stock. Bakeries, small manufacturers of many kinds, druggists, physicians, cobblers, confectioners, dentists, brokers, and so on, come in for this special tax. By means of it the city raises a sum equal to about three-fourths of its receipts from general taxes; but the method is one which puts a damper on local enterprise and boosts household expenses, as Birmingham is beginning to find out in the costs of foodstuffs and garden truck.

Even so, the receipts from these and other ordinary sources, excluding loans and sales of property, do not enable the city to spend above \$7.50 per citizen for

advances now contemplated for Birmingham have to be foregone, but many of the most serious phases of present neglect and waste, brought out in the various articles in this issue, whether in the conservation of labor, health, childhood, or the human wreckage of crime, and related in some important way to inadequacy of public funds, will go unsolved. Without constructive expenditure along these lines, Birmingham will be de-classed. The anomaly brought out by Mr. Harrison of court clerks who, on an old rural fee basis, are paid higher wages than the presidents of coal mines and steel companies, is but a spectacular bit of evidence of this failure to adjust an out-worn fiscal system to the urban fact.

A second phase of the tax-situation



FOUR-ROOM BUNGALOWS, COREY.

public services, whereas other cities of Birmingham's size which have been regarded somewhat as standards spend \$12 and more per citizen per year and do not feel that they are even then meeting all the demands that may rightly come before them.

A bond issue of \$1,300,000 was recently authorized by the voters, at the urgency of the commissioners. With this money past and current debts have been eliminated. A cut of \$150,000 in yearly expenses, principally salaries, has made possible a budget within the income. But a fundamental solution is needed. It is no easy nut to crack; but it must be cracked, or Alabama will permanently disqualify this city of her ore-hills in the competition for municipal prestige. Not only will the big civic

cropped out during the Greater Birmingham movement. With each of the nine municipalities going its own bent, things were admittedly in a bad way for Birmingham. Yet consolidation was opposed strongly by iron and steel corporations which sought to avoid city taxation on their furnaces and other properties. The old city boundaries had significant jogs, leaving two furnaces outside. And even the Greater Birmingham line leaves its logical direction so as to exempt the big Ensley furnace and steel mill. Those who drew the Greater Birmingham bill contended that the Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Company deserved especial consideration because it was modernizing its plant at large cost and must compete with the well equipped mills of the North. Furthermore, the new plants

of the American Steel and Wire Company and other developments of the United States Steel Corporation and its subsidiaries, involving an expenditure of \$20,000,000, as well as the new made-to-order city of Corey, where their work people are to be housed, are outside the boundaries of the greater city. In other words, a few large corporations, but not all, are exempted from the penalty which a general property tax, here as in most American cities, places upon the men who build factories or houses or other improvements. Efforts to overcome this disability in attracting capital for industrial investment are natural, but such a system of gerrymandering in favor of the big industries puts a double damper upon small and diversified industries which might be located within the city borders and would have to pay city taxes. Until Birmingham succeeds in removing such a taxation penalty from all improved real estate, transferring it to land held for speculation and imposing it on real estate which derives its excess value from the sheer fact of city growth—as Vancouver is doing, in line with a settled policy that has been adopted throughout Europe,—the unfairness of letting the rest of the community carry the load which the few escape by boundary jogs is all too plain. In view of the inadequate municipal income, such a policy is socially destructive.

Prohibition is bound up with this money-pinch, and presents a third social aspect of the taxation situation. Saloon licenses formerly played an important part in the city revenue scheme; they yielded \$125,000 a year before the state went dry in 1907, and the liquor interests were hand in glove with the ring-rule under the old councilmanic system. It was not many years ago that there served on the Board of Police Commissioners the proprietor of the "Rabbit Foot," an old stable turned into a dive. The stalls were used as small wine-rooms frequented by dissolute women, both Negroes and whites, and the animal cravings were whetted and exploited. A "fighting" mayor revoked this police commissioner's saloon license. This led to an investigation by the proprietor's colleagues on the board, and a call for

his resignation. Although he refused, public sentiment had stripped him of power and influence. This, however, was only a skirmish. The whole administration of the mayor then serving, George B. Ward, was practically a running fight with a combination of "liquor" aldermen. In the summer of 1907, Ward went to Europe. His absence was too good a chance for the "combine" to miss, and they completely reorganized the council. They put one of their group in the chair, thereupon counting him as acting mayor, appointed another henchman to his place as alderman, thereby gaining one more vote, and proceeded to run things with a high hand. "Marse George" came back from the Emerald Isle "with all his Irish up." He got into his seat at six o'clock, and, with policemen stationed about the room and "toting" a gun himself, held it against all comers. They called him a liar and he called them grafters. They called on the chief of police to take his gun away from him. The mayor slipped it into a drawer of his desk and told an alderman to come and get it if he wanted to. After these amenities, the real test came when the council, with Ward's vote, broke a tie and carried a resolution to undo all the acts of the belligerents. Although the courts later decided that the adoption of the new municipal code, in line with which the "saloon combine" had acted to their own purpose, had been legal, the mayor's defiance of the whisky crowd was in effect their first real defeat. It marked the beginning of a bigger one, which came when prohibition won out in Jefferson county later in the same year. This was a revulsion from conditions which had grown intolerably bad, especially among the Negroes. It was claimed people were not safe in the streets from half-crazed habitués of the resorts. The campaign was marked by almost hysterical religious fervor, and the result was a specific repudiation of the liquor element which year after year had grown more defiant in its domination of city affairs.

This election is notable as the immediate cause of prohibition in the state of Alabama. The state anti-saloon

league leaders had mapped out a slow program in the rural counties, carrying one at a time. But when Jefferson county with its great cosmopolitan population was swung into line, "whirl-wind campaigns" in every wet county were pushed. When the Legislature met in January, 1908, the state-wide prohibition act was passed with few dissenting votes. A large majority of the legislature, including the governor, had been elected on a local option platform, but they turned about face and in addition to the state-wide statute ordered a general election to place prohibition in the constitution of the state. This election, two years afterward, showed an ebb in prohibition supremacy and established a county option system in its stead, which allows counties to choose between prohibition, saloons, or a system of dispensaries.¹ Under this law Jefferson county, which includes Birmingham, was carried last August by the "wets," by 6,490 votes to 5,411, and for saloons by 6,275 against 4,764 for dispensaries. With 132,625 population, Birmingham may have 44 saloons, which at \$3,000 a year each would net the city \$132,000 annually. The return of the saloons last August was attended, so it is reported, by scenes

so disgusting that protests are being made even by men who voted "wet", and the prohibitionists see what to them are signs of another flood-tide of their strength, with permanent results to show for it. This large measure of municipal dependence upon revenue from licenses—especially bound up with policies of social order and control which should be settled on their individual merits, without the very solvency of the city hanging in the balance—and especially from licenses which may at any time be abolished, is only another unsatisfactory system of public finance.

The liquor interests are not the only big distributors who have had wares to sell to Birmingham and whose transactions have concerned the general welfare and the city revenue. Domination of city politics by public utility corporations, however, has not been so marked in Birmingham as in some other cities.

One concern, the Birmingham Railway, Light, and Power Company, is a consolidation of several companies

which had been given franchise rights in perpetuity covering traction on the principal streets, gas, and electric light and power. After the merger in 1901, ordinances were sought confirming its rights to the perpetual franchises held by the constituent companies and also to seventy-eight additional blocks. At this very time, however, a new state constitutional provision, prohibiting any city from granting any franchise for longer than a period of thirty years except in the case of steam railroads, had already been adopted and was to go into effect within three months. A fight in which



EX-MAYOR GEORGE B. WARD.

Whose aggressive administration was a running fight over saloon prohibition and public franchise questions.

¹At the same time the license fee for saloons was raised to \$3,000 a year—it had been only \$500—and the number was limited to one for every 3,000 people. Dispensaries, if adopted, are limited to one for every 10,000 people. Only liquors of specified standards and in bottles may be sold, and cities operating dispensaries are restricted to a profit of 10 per cent. A petition signed by 45 per cent of the voters participating in the previous gubernatorial election is necessary to bring about a referendum vote on the question, and each voter may after voting "wet" or "dry" express also his preference for saloons or dispensaries, in case the first proposition carries "wet."

Ward—then serving as an alderman—was one of the leaders, prevented the adoption of the ordinance applying to the seventy-eight blocks until after the thirty-year limitation became effective.

The city of Birmingham today faces a situation in which this one company holds a perpetual franchise applying not only to street car service over roughly 90 per cent of the present mileage, but also to the supply of gas and electric current. Citizens otherwise well informed are extraordinarily ignorant of this franchise situation. The company argues that at the time of the original franchises were obtained the city was glad to get the service on any terms, that each company has at one time or another gone bankrupt, and that very few people have made any money out of public utility investments in Birmingham. The income-producing capacity of the lines through the long reaches of the future can only be surmised, however; and, apart from all question of franchise payments, the city would be much better fortified to bargain for better service if the company had short-term franchises instead of perpetual ones. No provision is made in the franchise for the periodic regulation of rates, and the only authority which may be able to reduce them is the Board of State Railroad Commissioners. Public utilities other than steam railroads were put under the jurisdiction of this board in 1908, but it has thus far failed to test the limits of its power. Last spring a controversy arose over the ten-cent fare charged from the center of Birmingham to Ensley. The question was discussed before the city commission. The company contended that to grant the city's request for a five-cent fare to Ensley would cut the rate below that necessary for its business interests,

and declared that its legal rights to maintain whatever rate it sees fit are absolute. But it offered to sell six tickets for 25 cents. The city stuck to its original position, however, and the deadlock continued.

Among the small stretches of mileage limited by the thirty-year provision (extensions granted since the limitation went into effect), is an important line from the center of the city to the union terminal station. When the time at length comes to renew this the city will have a leverage with which it may be able to better the terms of other agreements with the company. One way in which in the past the city secured some advantage lay in its arbitrary power to levy business license fees. Some years ago the first license fee asked from the company was \$9,000. The next year it was fixed at a larger sum; and the third change was to \$50,000 a year, despite the company's strenuous objection. At this juncture a bill was rushed through the legislature to prohibit cities from taxing public utility corporations more than 2 per cent of their gross receipts. This has held the license at \$50,000 a year and further use of the town's "big stick" was thus countered.

Relations with the water company are on a better basis, for its franchise expires in 1918 and the city will have opportunity to purchase then or thereafter at any interval of ten years. The city, however, could probably force the company to sell at any time if it acted under a law authorizing cities to issue bonds for the construction of a public waterworks. Although the water is excellent in quality—public sentiment having forced the construction of a filtration plant several years ago—the rates are high:

If the uncertainties of the future afforded any warrant in the early days of Birmingham for granting perpetual franchises, the same plea cannot be urged for Corey. Development there is as certain, judged by the statements of the steel officials and the real estate promoters of the town, as anything in civic growth. Yet on the pretext that broad terms must be given the Birmingham Railway, Light, and Power Company to induce it to "pioneer" at Corey, a perpetual franchise on the principal street of the town was given by the county authorities after a contract on that basis had been made between the company and the Corey Land Company, Corey being still an unincorporated community and thus not affected by the thirty-year limitation which the state has

imposed on cities. It is frankly admitted that the fact that several men are interested in both companies probably led to a more liberal grant to the traction company than might have appeared best from the community point of view. The county authorities seem to have made no struggle to obtain the best possible terms for the public. It is further pointed out that this company has not been given exclusive rights in Corey, since another company has recently been granted a franchise in other streets. But the original franchise is certainly exclusive so far as the main street of the place is concerned. In Corey, as in Birmingham, the Birmingham Railway, Light, and Power Company has been given perpetual, though not exclusive, franchise rights covering gas and electric current.

30 cents a thousand gallons, 27 1-2 cents for fifteen hundred, and decreasing similarly for larger quantities. Yearly flat rates for residences are \$8 for three rooms or less, \$1 for each additional room; water-closets, \$5, and \$2.50 for additional ones, and bath tubs, \$4.

While the city itself has been hampered by restricted boundaries, by a cross-roads income, and a governmental equipment which has not grown in proportion to its members—hampered most of all by its failure to see itself in the large—these public service corporations have thought in big ways, conceived of the urban district as a whole, and laid a frame-work to handle its needs. The sewer system and in a sense the schools are the only municipal enterprises that as yet compare. The efficient scheme of water works described by Mr. Knowles contrasts for example with the inadequacy of the public health service in staff and scope as brought out by Mr. McGrath. The fact that the interests of the private builders who have given system to important branches of the public service are at crucial points antagonistic to the interests of the citizens as a whole is the big flaw in the situation—a flaw which let through the franchise grants by which 4,000 people tied down, for centuries perhaps, a town which in ten more years expects to have a quarter million population.

While the water company has created much popular dissatisfaction by irritating methods of dealing with people, the Birmingham Railway, Light, and Power Company has definitely set out to put the emphasis on the common interests of city and company and to win public good-will. Under the presidency of A. H. Ford, the newspapers have been used freely and regularly to discuss with the people points of service and earnings. For example, when the company introduced platform gates on street cars it published statements acknowledging defects in their operation, but asking public indulgence and co-operation in giving the devices a fair trial. Thinking in terms of the future is, of course, part of the work of a modern public service corporation presi-

dent. Mr. Ford considers it the main part; and he believes that more such thinking should be done for the community. He has made some effort to do his share. As a traction man and employer he has seen and emphasized the city's future needs for recreation. As a citizen and employer, although a resident of Birmingham only three years, he has enlisted the community in a unique movement to reduce the cost of living, which is admittedly high in Birmingham. The plan is still largely in inception, but few other cities have so systematically schemed for cheap food. The quick industrial growth has greatly reduced the ratio of food producers in the Birmingham region to the total population. The Chamber of Commerce Committee, appointed by Mr. Ford while president of that organization, estimated that Birmingham sends away \$3,000,000 annually to Ohio, Michigan, and other states for vegetables alone; other food stuffs are brought from still greater distances. Meanwhile adjacent land has not been utilized. The committee has secured options on 2,000 acres of the best soil around Birmingham, which it will sell at cost to farmers who will come and settle. Explanatory literature and a special agent commissioned to interview and correspond with prospective settlers have been employed in the enterprise. The committee, moreover, has undertaken to remove some of the present obstacles to truck marketing. One of these is a defenseless \$50 license charged vegetable peddlers—an ordinance inspired by and highly favorable to the commission merchants. With this abolished and with a great open marketplace established, it is expected that farmers can sell their produce profitably at prices much below the present ones. The landscape architect who built Corey carried the movement a peg further in a garden patch for each house, and the Tennessee company is starting a model farm on the surface of some of its ore lands.

The Chamber of Commerce has not only interested itself in cheaper foods, but through its civic improvement committee has given attention to bettering

city conditions. Not many definite achievements are in evidence, but it means something that the pot has begun to boil. When Mayor Ward was in office, he aroused quick interest through organizing people by city blocks to work for beautification and cleanliness, but the scheme did not progress very far. When the present city commission found it necessary to abolish the park department, the Chamber of Commerce committee, co-operating with the Women's Civic Club organized by the Birmingham Council of Women's Clubs, came to the rescue by receiving funds from citizens toward park maintenance. Free concerts in the parks, provided through private subscriptions, had previously resulted from the efforts of a group of women.

Civic co-operation of this sort, which was displayed more tangibly when the Chamber of Commerce erected a building to serve as its home, gives hope that before long this new co-operative spirit, linked up to the building instincts which have shown such aggressiveness in industry and corporate enterprise, may push forward toward an inclusive city plan. This, to an outsider, appears to be the next big civic step needed. With the city growing by leaps and bounds, with the need of properly relating the score of places consolidated in Greater Birmingham, and with the opening up of new sub-divisions in the vacant areas—this is the very nick of time. The greater city's own lack of plan is set off in sharp contrast by the intelligent town arrangement at Corey. "We want to get started right before we go too far wrong," are the words of one Birmingham business man. That the idea has had recognition is evident from the following excerpt from an address by John L. Kaul upon assuming the presidency of the Chamber of Commerce in May, 1908:

Birmingham has an opportunity for civic development and beauty that few other cities enjoy. It is new. It is in the formative state. An expert, the best there is to be had, should be employed to visit Birmingham and Jefferson county and, after thorough investigation, outline a scheme of public improvement. As it is, we are developing largely by whim and caprice. Someone suggests a great highway, another suggests a

tunnel through Red Mountain, another suggests a new park somewhere—all of them worthy in themselves, but made absolutely without thought of other improvements. What is needed is a comprehensive and complete plan of civic and county improvement covering a period of many years, involving probably the outlay of millions of dollars. If this plan were adopted nothing would be wasted in the way of improvement. Everything accomplished would tend to a final harmonious creation that would be the admiration of all men, and which would make Birmingham beyond all other cities the most desired for the making of homes.

Thus far little has been done. A few years ago, as chairman of the civic improvement committee, Hill Ferguson, a real estate man who has made several definite suggestions, invited George Kesler of Kansas City¹ to look the situation over. Mr. Kesler strongly and wisely advised that a comprehensive plan ought to be made, if possible by public authority rather than by any private organization.

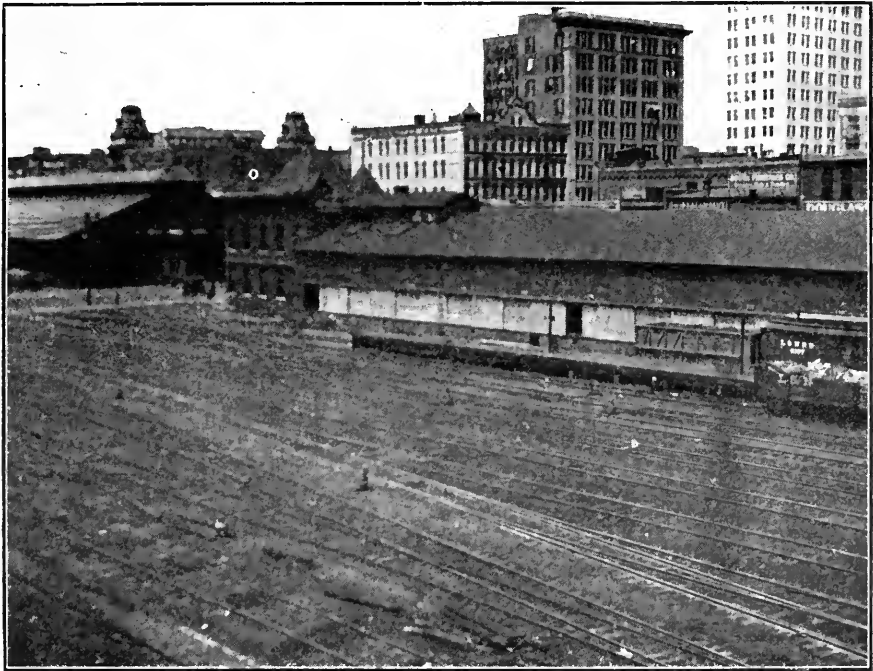
The belt of grade crossings which splits the city in two and thwarts the currents of its life is an elementary and standing object-lesson for the need for such a comprehensive plan. Through the very heart of the city the railroads have a broad belt of trackage. Within a couple of blocks of the busiest retail district, this belt crosses the streets leading into one of the principal residential sections—not merely a great handicap to transit, but a constant and serious menace to life and limb for pedestrians and street-car passengers. A narrower belt, crossing the first one, traverses the city in another direction.

Even as a grade crossing problem pure and simple, no thoroughly considered policy seems to have been worked out, although the railroads at one time conferred and began a study of it from their point of view. This or that viaduct proposition comes up from time to time as a piecemeal temporizing remedy. The writer of this article does not pretend to understand along so technical a line. His point is that such knowledge ought to be secured by the city of Birmingham. There is danger that through temporizing decisions the city will drift into a

¹Another well known city planner was at one time engaged by a realty company to design an arrangement for a sub-division; his plans were never carried out.



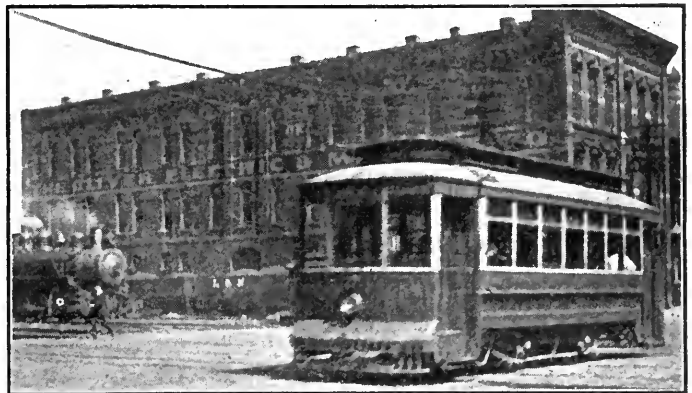
AN
OBJECT
LESSON
IN
THE NEED
FOR
A
CITY
PLAN



I. FREIGHT TRAINS BLOCK
TRAFFIC IN THE BUSIEST
STREET.

II. ACRES OF TRACKS
WITHIN A STONE'S THROW
OF THE HEART OF THE CITY,
CROSSING STREETS AND
SPLITTING THE CITY.

III. DANGER TO LIFE AT
EVERY CROSSING.





CHAMBER OF COMMERCE BUILDING.
An example of civic and commercial co-operation.

handling of the problem which too late will be found to be bad. Relief of any sort from the dangers of the grade crossings looks attractive, but a vigilant eye looks to the choking of the business section by railroad tracks and yards as a larger and increasingly serious problem as the city grows and needs room for expansion.

Last spring, for example, there was under consideration a proposition (ultimately defeated¹) to construct a viaduct at the intersection of the two railroad belts, carrying two streets, at right angles to each other, over the tracks, and thus facilitate rapid transit to important residence sections. Although there is a law intended to require railroads to pay the cost of such improvements, the latter proposed to build only the viaduct proper, and asked that the city build the approaches to it, and pay damages to property owners. To be sure they offered to loan the city the money for its portion of the work, to be repaid in five annual instalments; but the proposition called also for the closing

¹Two of the commissioners took opposite views of the proposition and the decision was made by Judge Lane in the negative. While his point that the need of the viaduct had been magnified may reasonably be questioned, his vigorous condemnation of the proposition to close the streets seems thoroughly warranted. He declared that the city had the right to compel the railroads to bear all the expense, but intimated that he thought the city might fairly assume part. This he pointed out was financially impossible. His suggestions were for only temporary relief.

up for several blocks of three streets running in one direction, and two in another. Today, the city is content to let those streets be half covered by a big slag pile which the Sloss iron furnaces, entirely without legal right, have dumped on the highway. The space does not look valuable now, but who can tell what condition the next fifty years will bring about, or how desperate the need for streets which could never be reclaimed? No thought has been directed toward solving the problem on far-sighted lines geared up to the city's probable development.

The immediate appointment of a city plan commission of the ablest and farthest-sighted men in the community with the best experts the country affords to help them and with the means to do their big task well,² would be a civic advance comparable to the achievement of Greater Birmingham and the adoption of the commission form a government.

The bad housing conditions in alleys and industrial neighborhoods, so clearly brought out by Mr. McGrath, afford other very tangible evidence of the necessity for town-planning on social lines. For more than physical reconstruction is at issue: there is need for a finer appreciation of human values. The two are often bound together, as in poor housing and meager recreational opportunities such as are to be found typically in Avondale. A more depressing neighborhood it would be difficult to find anywhere, or a more forlorn-looking lot of women and children. Some of the people are "poor whites" who wander from mill to mill according to full or slack conditions of work. Many of the women are deserted wives, struggling in an ignorant way to make both ends meet. A large portion of the households take boarders, and ten people in four

²Recognizing the wisdom of undertaking such a project under the auspices of municipal authority, there arises the question: How, in view of the city's limited revenues? The answer might be made at once that nothing would prevent an official commission on the subject from accepting contributions from citizens for carrying on the work. Funds are every day given to public library boards; Birmingham herself is making private contributions to her park board. She takes pride in the high trustworthiness and ability of the commission administering her municipal government.

rooms is not an extreme condition. The older people "dip snuff," and this use of powdered tobacco is frequently found among children as well. A boy of eight who chews is occasionally found, and a girl of thirteen was with difficulty brought to say that she didn't "aim to do it no more." Some of these things are of course brought from the out-of-the-way farms of the hill country, but that is not reason enough for Birmingham to accept them as standards for the generation of children growing up in the city. Some are the direct results of the industrialism which has come into being with the cities. Under the Alabama laws, a boy or girl of twelve, if he or she gets eight weeks of schooling in the year, may work the rest of the time; and Mr. McKelway's article sets forth what this means in terms of childhood.

Delinquency among the cotton mill girls is frequent, and can be charged up in large measure to the housing accommodations. Privacy is even less possible than in the large city tenement. The most conspicuous feature of the landscape, except the houses themselves, are the rows of privies between the rows of houses. Until recently they had no running water to make them sanitary.

But the thing one longs for most as he sees the pallid and dull faces of the children is some rousing, lively "good time" to catch them up in a whirl of real romping fun—to stir their blood into motion and make their eyes sparkle.

It was a relief to know that the mill proprietors are planning to provide means for some social and recreational work which is to include a playground. Recreation throughout Birmingham is a crying need. There is practically nothing except a number of motion picture shows—whose films seemed to be, on the average, of fair quality—and a few vaudeville theaters. In the summer a single amusement park is in operation. The city parks have very little or no facilities for active as distinguished from passive recreation. The band concerts were the first departure from conventional old-style park service. Nor are the parks as accessible as they might be. The one nearest Avondale, for example, although but half a mile from the mill village, is shut off by intervening railroad tracks. A large park purchased five years ago has not been improved, and the street car terminal has not been extended any nearer to it. President Ford, of the Birmingham Railway, Light, and



CAPITOL PARK, NEAR THE CITY'S CENTER.



W. M. McGRATH

General secretary of the newly founded Birmingham Associated Charities.

Power Company, says that when he came to Birmingham few things impressed him so much as the lack of recreational facilities. To make it easier to hold efficient employes in Birmingham he wants to see new facilities provided. He has suggested that the large fair grounds be turned into permanent recreation and exhibition grounds—one function being to show all the products that are made in Birmingham—and has urged that in providing a public library building, which the city greatly needs, public meeting halls should be included where popular concerts, lectures, and other recreational gatherings might find place. The park commission which was appointed this fall by the city commissioners has a big and therefore attractive task ahead of them. They might almost be called pioneers conquering a park frontier. John L. Kaul and Robert Jenison, Jr., chairman and vice-chairman, respectively, together with Frank W. Smith, Hugh Martin, and N. B. Stack, their colleagues on the commission, are men accustomed to seeing things done.

The schools are practically the only civic agency making a continuous effort to supply recreation. They are in

many respects the best expression of the city's community work. Many of them have spacious grounds with athletic and playground equipment. Evening lectures are provided in some of the buildings, under the auspices either of the school authorities or school improvement associations composed of parents. But this activity should be only the entering wedge for a far larger service of the school plants as neighborhood centers. School curricula include cooking and shop work, vacation schools are maintained, special attention is given to backward children, and in other respects school administration may be said to be up to modern standards. For this the superintendent, Dr. John R. Phillips, is given well-deserved credit by the people. One of his great handicaps, however, is the lack of a compulsory education law, which doubtless accounts in some measure for the great discrepancy between the pupils registered and the average daily attendance, and also in some degree for the large number who leave school at an early age. The money invested in schools shows a striking fact—one of those facts which make the North wonder if the South really tries and wants to solve the Negro problem as it professes when it tells the North that it knows Negro nature better and therefore should have its way. Although, according to the annual report of the Birmingham schools for the year ending June 30, 1910, the numbers of white and Negro children of school age are very nearly equal—19,810 and 19,726, respectively—the value of school property used for white children is stated to be \$1,374,002.87, while the value of Negro school property is reported at \$81,680.51. For if carried out consistently, and with fair consideration for the needs of both races, the South's handling of race distinctions on the "Jim Crow" principle involves a civic problem as appallingly large as it is unappreciated.¹ Let any northern city contemplate the

¹The situation has a double edge. A difficulty in the way of securing proper housing laws is met in the very low standards under which the Negroes are willing to dwell. On the other hand, the way in which they are left out of schemes for better conditions is shown by the presence of 600 of them, day laborers and their families, in ramshackle shanties on the very edge of Corey, the model town.

burden of providing a double set of schools, libraries, parks, playgrounds, baths, and other forms of civic service, and it ought to lose some of its hesitancy in paying the cost of a single set!

The growing realization of the community problems, and the need for co-operation in handling them, is reflected in the recent development of a dozen agencies for social betterment. The Birmingham Boys' Club and Children's Aid Society has done an important constructive piece of work in placing on the Alabama statutes a juvenile court law almost identical with the model one secured by Rochester, N. Y. Under it the new judge took office last spring. An up-to-date Associated Charities came into existence two years ago, with a trained secretary in charge, and at its head a leading business man who holds advanced views as to the way the city government should itself attack the problems of poverty. After several years of agitation by the Jefferson County Medical Association an anti-tuberculosis association was organized last year, and a committee on infant mortality, recently launched by the Associated Charities, is another crystallization of public interest on a given social problem. The Free Kindergarten Association, having stimulated the public schools to conduct this work, is turning its attention to the establishment of social settlement centers. Through experience in conducting a home for friendless children, a group of women have come to understand how serious is the need for an institution for delinquent girls. It is expected that work now being started on the cottage plan, modeled after the Darlington Farm of the Philadelphia House of Refuge, will eventually result in a modern state institution. The more progressive philanthropic leaders in the community are beginning to point out that the congregate plan of conducting the state Boys' Industrial School and a large orphanage on the outskirts of the city are not in line with modern practice. Inadequate and therefore crowded hospital facilities are also beginning to be criticized, and what is regarded by some citizens as the most thorough-going grand jury investigation in the history of the county was



BIRMINGHAM CITY HALL.

The public library occupies part of one floor; the city jail a rear corner.

completed last October. It condemned in forceful terms irregular practices by the county tax commissioner, rebuked the excise commission for granting licenses to men known to have been flagrant violators of the law, stigmatized the justice of the peace system as a disgrace to civilization, voted the principle of the fee system to be iniquitous, and pronounced the county court house, almshouse, and hospital inadequate. A group of women recently turned their attention to social reform and have taken up the serious study of such matters as workmen's compensation, greatly needed in Alabama, and the convict labor system, which, as pointed out elsewhere in this issue, is honeycombed with shocking evils. With the heavy task completed of erecting new buildings, the Young Men's Christian Association and Young Women's Christian Association may be expected to throw more of their energies along social lines; and, in step with the Men and Religion Forward Movement throughout the country, the attitude of the church should broaden into new fields of service. Probably to a greater degree than in any other section of the country, the church has throughout the South a commanding position in the community



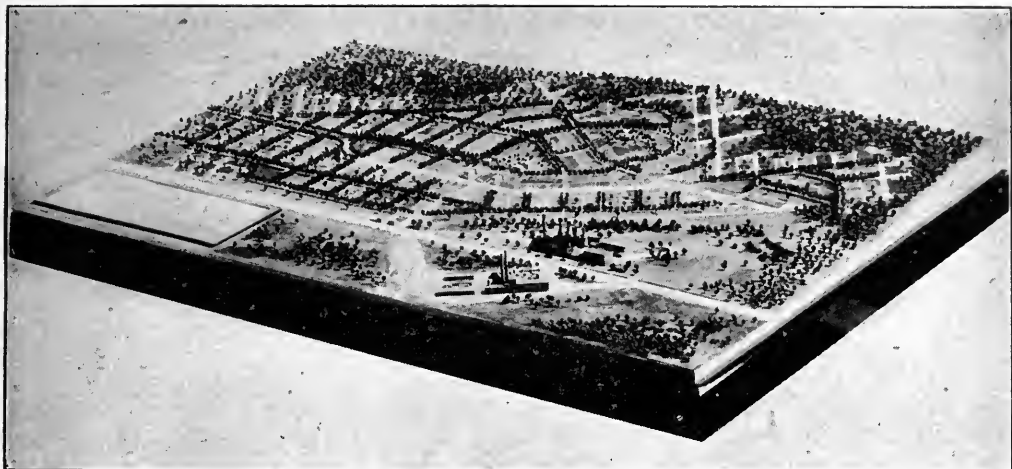
BIRMINGHAM COUNTRY CLUB.
A beautiful private recreation spot.

life. Church attendance is large, preachers are looked up to as among the most important men of the community, and church activities interest the people to an extent scarcely to be found elsewhere. A state Sunday school convention, for example, which in the North would receive a column at the most in the largest newspaper of the state, is given a full page in such a newspaper in Alabama. The Birmingham churches, taken as a group, have developed, in the opinion of some who are most loyally identified with them, very little appreciation of their social mission in the community, and few things are so much needed as a strong movement to awake them from their routine of old-fashioned conventionality. Nothing would more promote social advances along all lines in Birmingham than to stir the church to social consciousness and action.

In this process of recasting the service expected of the older social institutions to meet new times, and in surveying each field so that the young city need not duplicate the forms and stages through which older communities have passed, but can profit by their experience and can equip herself with modern tools, there is further presage of a new order. In a way the churches have re-

flected both the strength and weakness of the social forces which have been at work—the strength of their personal conviction and appeal, the weakness of their broken civic frontage.¹ The latter after all is an overhang from the outlook and habits of action of a less thickly settled people, whose common needs and individual responsibilities are very different from those of this massed industrial population dropped down into the geographical center of the cotton belt. It is of a piece with the cramped city limits, the village council, the outgrown income, the criss-cross town plan, the civil service based on fees, the farm-yard sanitation, the stunted systems of municipal work, which the growing community has been wrestling with and has as yet but half mastered. This view helps in understanding the situation as things are to-day—Birmingham, a city with no public library, no public recreation, no regulation of housing, no meeting-hall for her citizens, no civic center, no city plan for growth; a city which lets railroads cut her in two, which is only beginning to be ashamed to have chain gangs cleaning her streets, which, in spite of her wealth, cannot pay

¹The exception is the prohibition campaign, but that is a negative rather than positive social proposal.



RELIEF MAP OF COREY.

Birmingham's new industrial suburb, which is being built after a well worked-out city plan, near new plants of the United States Steel Corporation.

for the most ordinary municipal service, which nevertheless undertakes to provide such service in duplicate, which allows her streets to be piled high with slag from an iron furnace, and which has given away in perpetuity priceless franchises for public utilities;—yet a city which has unified a score of towns into a Greater Birmingham, has fought dives to a finish, has ousted a corrupt political gang, has secured the commission form of government, and has begun to develop organizations and agencies devoted to her welfare as a community.

Birmingham must realize—to use the words of one of her citizens—that with her people united she can get just such civic advance as she wants; that she must cease craning her neck in admiration of her cluster of skyscrapers and turn her eyes to the dwellings of her people and the dangers of congestion; and that she must not respect economy so much as to be unwilling to assume civic indebtedness if that brings her civic advantages worth while. Above all, it might be added, she must plan as a whole. A Birmingham man farsighted along business lines nevertheless expressed some skepticism concerning the feasibility of a city plan “because so many real estate men are opening up sub-divisions and want to arrange them as they please.”

That very fact is reason enough for her citizens as whole to think ten, thirty, fifty

years ahead. While the impact of Birmingham's civic forces has been scattered and indecisive in the past, that of special interests has suffered no such disability. Whether it was a road-bed or a dumping place, the till of a Negro dive or a jog in the tax boundaries, they have known what they wanted and gone after it. Their proposals have not been all or necessarily adverse to the public interests; but they illustrate the failure of the city to know her own mind—her lack of united frontage.

The relations of the city to industrial enterprises has been a more engrossing factor in Birmingham's forty years of growth. The starting of a new furnace, or, on the other hand, anything that might endanger the fullest opportunity of her industrial captains—these were the things which made her elated or dejected. She has owned allegiance to the men who dug prosperity out of her very soil, and in this respect the city bears somewhat the same relation to her big industries that a mill-town does or a mining camp. Here, therefore, is another misuse of her civic leadership—to rise above the small ways of small places; and neither by local brigandage nor by clinging dependence, but by the sheer strength of her democracy, show that a fair balance may be struck between self-government and corporate industry. The situation is two-edged. Municipal mis-

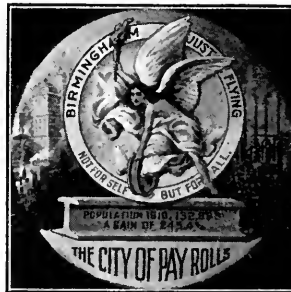
rule, epidemic disease, and meager recreation facilities all tell against effective workmanship. An inert or reactionary public opinion may stay human advances in industry which progressive managers may be disposed to introduce. There were reports of opposition from other Birmingham employers when the Tennessee company set out to raise the pay of common labor nearer to the standard set by the Steel Corporation in other parts of the country—charging that it was done to steal their labor. At Corey, and in the sanitary survey instituted by the Birmingham Coal Operators' Association, we have the industrial leaders blazing civic advances. On the other hand, a striking instance of growing independence on the part of the community came last spring when the tariff bill, with its free list including certain steel products, was nearing passage in the House of Representatives. There was a sudden and complete, though temporary, shut-down of work on the new plant of the American Steel and Wire Company at Corey. Consternation gripped the whole community. Affected business men and bankers began to say that Congressman Underwood, chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, who had the bill in charge and who hails from the Birmingham district, was making the mistake of his life. Telegrams poured into Washington. But presently the tide turned and he heard from constituents who urged him to stand by his free trade principles. The United States Steel Corporation may or may not have attempted to bring pressure to bear on Congressman Underwood through his own constituents, or some of the latter may have let their personal trepidations run amuck. But it is significant that the rank and file stood their ground. As one newspaper said, Birmingham looked to "old Red Mountain as its Gibraltar, its citadel against the vicissitudes of business con-

ditions." For a first time civic spirit had faced down industrial subserviency. There was a canny significance, moreover, in a renewed emphasis on the need, already appreciated, for a diversity of industries in Birmingham, so that any slackness in the steel trade would not entail complete depression.

An independent spirit and a strong co-operation of local forces for civic and social betterment—these seem to be near at hand, presaging the beginning of a new epoch, the civic epoch, following upon the hitherto undisputed ascendancy of industrialism.

In 1920 Birmingham completes its first half-century. What will it have done by that time to match its civic condition to its industrial achievements? The big new city of the South has worshipped heroes—her pioneers who had faith and vision in her industrial future. They lived through a crisis that day in February, 1876, when personal fortunes and the very life and death of the town hung upon the outcome of a furnace experiment. Mine owners and furnace operators came together with contributions of ore samples from all over the district. Anxious minds were suddenly surcharged with confidence when a new invention was tried and the test proved that coke pig iron could be successfully produced. By that piece of team-play the development was started toward the great iron and steel industry of Birmingham.

Civic advance, also, will need its handful of civic heroes, but it will come finally only through an awakening of the whole people. Birmingham is today on the threshold of another experiment. Her early leaders saw material wealth before furnace and mills were there to testify to it. Will her citizens of today—all of them together—discover for themselves the wealth that is latent in human welfare?



CITY EMBLEM OF THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

WATER AND WASTE

THE SANITARY PROBLEMS OF A MODERN INDUSTRIAL DISTRICT

MORRIS KNOWLES, C. E.

The purpose of this article is to discuss the sanitary conditions of Greater Birmingham and the surrounding settlements; particularly as they appear during the summer of 1911, and as affected by the water supply, the sewerage system, and the disposal of other wastes.

The attempt has been made throughout to maintain a broad point of view, to assimilate the economic and commercial as well as the human side: to make due allowance for the youth of the district and the fact that many of the small settlements are but temporary until the adjacent mines are worked out; and to ascertain if the present indicates an onward movement or evidence of retrogression.

Three different types of community life present themselves in such an industrial district: the farm, the mining village, and the manufacturing center—a crescendo not merely in size but in concentration of settlement. It will help to begin with the simplest and note the elements which, under pressure of population, become the complex sanitary problem of the modern city. Moreover, the question of public health is not one that limits itself to fixed geographical boundaries. In these days the inter-relationship between separated communities effected by the daily travels of the workmen, the morning visits of the market gardener with produce and of the dairyman with milk, have almost caused the word "isolated" to become obsolete. We are bound together for better or worse.

Yet fairly under the eaves of our great cities are to be found rudimentary households which, like the settler or the mountaineer, depend on themselves for water and dispose of their own domestic refuse. So long as they are off by themselves, whether they do it well or do it badly may not affect the health of those outside the family. But with

the coming in of neighbors, careless habits become a menace. A spring big enough for a handful of people falls short of supplying a hundred. So we have the beginnings of the social problem of water and waste, an evolution which, in the case of mining or manufacturing settlements, proceeds with lightning-like rapidity. In one work-a-day suburb of Birmingham we stopped and chatted with an old white-haired Negro who sat contentedly on his porch smoking his pipe. He had been born and reared here, but moved away after the war. A few years ago, seized by a yearning to visit the old place, he returned to find a modern industrial plant occupying the former plantation site. Sweeping his hand around, he described the limits of the plantation and pointed out where his old master's house formerly stood. Old Uncle Peter now works at the coke-ovens, but lives in the memories of the past. No better symbol of the New South could be found than this old gray-haired ex-slave, pulling coke on the self-same spot where he once picked cotton; nor of the revolutionary changes which turn an agricultural environment into an industrial one.

THE MINING VILLAGES

There are two distinct features about a mining community: first, it is essentially a relatively compact settlement compared with the rural modes of life which precede and surround it; second, the entire settlement—land, houses, streets, and utilities—are generally owned by the proprietor of the mines. To get a side-light on the bearings of this second factor upon prevailing conditions, a visit was paid to a settlement where it was not present. Care was taken to select camps and villages representative of the range of conditions, up and down, which are to be found in the different parts of the district:

SANDUSKY AN INCORPORATED TOWN, SHOWING SANITARY CONDITIONS WHERE COMPANY OWNERSHIP IS NOT A FACTOR.

This is a little community, located just outside the limits of Greater Birmingham, which has been a settlement nearly thirty years, and was incorporated twelve years ago. Perhaps 600 people live here, about 20 per cent colored. The first striking feature of contrast with company towns is the variety in the design and the irregularity of the layout of the houses.

There is no public water supply in Sandusky, the people securing the water from various private wells of all kinds and conditions. Typhoid has always been prevalent; in 1907 a serious epidemic broke out, resulting in fifteen deaths. In the opinion of a local doctor, who is a sort of self-appointed health officer serving without pay, it was due to the pollution of the wells from filthy and neglected privies. As result of the lesson from the epidemic, the people rose to the heights of modern sanitation, to the extent of having their privies cleaned twice a month; there they stopped, not even going so far as to appoint an official health officer. In endeavoring to ascertain the cause of this entire absence of civic pride, we learned that very few of the people owned their homes. So far as ownership goes, therefore, Sandusky does not afford an example of a self-dependent community. Like many of the mining settlements, it is made up of transient workers. Given this floating population, local landlords and a town government were not maintaining as good sanitary conditions as were to be found in most of the settlements owned and controlled by private companies.

PALOS AN OUTLYING MINING VILLAGE WITH WATER AT 25 CENTS A BARREL AND FILTHY PRIVIES; THE LOW-LEVEL OF SANITATION.

The settlement of Palos has about 400 people (two-thirds being colored) and is about thirty miles from Birmingham on the Frisco Railroad. The Palos Coal and Coke Company operates three coal mines, one of which was the scene of the great mining disaster something over a year ago. The topography is rough, the railroad station being located in a valley surrounded by steep hills, on the slopes of which are the homes of the white help, while the colored quarters are located nearer the summits.

There is no public water supply and most of the inhabitants obtain water from wells and a spring. The spring is located near the banks of the Warrior river, about ten minutes' walk from the railroad station. On account of inaccessibility, the spring is not much frequented; and the flow is small. The main supply for the white quarters is a dug well situated underneath a store building, water being obtained by a small hand pump located on the porch of the store. Rubbish of all kinds was strewn about and filthy privies and a pig pen were in close proximity. At times of

rain the water in the well is said to be too dirty to drink. Because of its location this well is apt to become polluted and should be abandoned. A deep bored well, located near the railroad station, had not been used for two months, and a dug well located near No. 3 Mine is too remote from the houses to be used conveniently and goes dry in time of drought. Near No. 1 Mine there is a driven well; also a stand pipe supplied with river water, which is available for household use, but is not fit to drink.

On account of the steep hills the "toting" of water from these various places is burdensome, and as a result certain farmers in the neighborhood have built up a business of hauling water to the different houses, charging 25 cents a barrel. The residents of Palos get fifty gallons of this water for about the same price that the citizens of Birmingham get 1,000 gallons of good drinking water. An official of the company stated that a filtered water supply from the river, with elevated tank and distribution lines extending throughout the camp, was being planned when the mining disaster occurred. The fulfillment was postponed, but now that things have righted themselves it was stated that the work would be pushed to completion. By the fulfillment of this promise should the owners be judged.

The privies were filthy and had not been cleaned out during the summer. Formerly, when cleaned, a charge of 25 cents per month was made by the company, which also included the school tax during the school-attending months. One privy, apparently under the supervision of the railroad, was in as foul condition as those owned by the mining company.

These conditions may explain why it was stated that it is difficult to keep labor in the community. Common justice demands that an adequate and convenient supply of pure water be furnished these people; common decency demands that the filth be removed by sanitary methods.

PORTER A TOWN WITH A PUBLIC WATER SUPPLY, WHICH PAID THE PRICE OF NEGLECTED TOILETS WITH A TYPHOID EPIDEMIC.

Across the river from Palos is Porter, controlled by the Warrior Pratt Coal Company, with 600 people, perhaps 60 per cent of them colored. There is a public water supply: a deep bored well, an elevated tank on the ridge, water taps located in the streets, one to every four or five houses, and, it is stated, inside faucets in 10 per cent of the houses.

There were a number of cases of typhoid in the camp during the summer. The county health officer concluded that the "epidemic was due to the transmission of the germs from open privies, by flies and also to the contamination of certain springs from which the people occasionally obtained their drinking water." This is an example of one of the apparent paradoxes which one meets in investigating sanitary conditions.



CONGESTED AND DEBRIS-LITTERED LOT, REPUBLIC, ALA.

[Note the loose pigs.]

Porter, with a public water supply, was visited with an epidemic, while Palos, without one, escaped it. The privies have since been cleaned out once a fortnight. This simple precaution was instituted, as it has been and will be in many other places, only after such an expensive experience.

THOMAS A MANUFACTURING SETTLEMENT, WITHIN THE GREATER CITY, WITH GARDEN PLOTS AND AN OPEN SPRING MORE SOCIABLE THAN SANITARY.

This settlement, lying within the limits of Greater Birmingham, is the property of the Republic Iron and Steel Company, which operates furnaces, coke ovens, and a quarry. The population is about 2,500; the houses are painted, maintained in good repair, most of them are fenced in, and many gardens are in evidence.

The water system has taps, located in the streets, one for every five or six houses, from which water may be drawn for washing and general household uses, but this supply is not suitable for drinking purposes. Drinking water is available from several taps near the commissary, but as this water is generally warm in the summer the people prefer to go to a spring located nearby. As the spot is shady and restful, they dally here and exchange gossip; so the trip to the spring has become a social institution as well as a domestic necessity. As the water gushes out from the small pipe, it forms a little pool, from which some of the folks scoop up their water instead of collecting it from the pipe. This is dangerous. One man was noticed to

spit casually into the pool, and, but a few minutes afterwards, three passing Italian laborers laid down their shovels and conscientiously washed their hands therein.

There is no sewerage system at Thomas, but the privies or dry closets are located quite a distance from each house and all are cleaned out twice a month. They are of an improved type, having a removal drawer under the seat, which lessens exposure to flies and facilitates cleaning. The advisability of convenient water facilities and a sanitary sewer system is realized by the local management.

REPUBLIC WHICH RAISES THE ETHICAL AND SANITARY PROBLEM OF OLD SETTLEMENTS DEPENDENT UPON MINES WITH ONLY A FEW YEARS TO RUN.

Republic, eleven miles out from Birmingham on the Southern Railroad, is owned by the same company which operates Thomas.

Water is secured from several driven wells, encased and equipped with hand-pumps. In addition there are a few old-fashioned wells, with chain and bucket. Of these, two in particular are apt to become polluted from nearby privies on higher land. Such wells and privies should be abolished. The wells go dry in extreme drought and water is hauled in from the spring at Thomas, a manifest expense and inconvenience. There are sporadic cases of typhoid almost all the time.¹ The

¹There is a small group of shacks, located within the settlement, known as "Dago Row", which the company does not own. These places are in a very unsanitary condition; one in particular is worthy of a detailed description as an example



I. Buckets at a spring, Thomas.
 II. Hand pump and driven well, Republic.
 III. Old water-wheel pump, and storage tank. [The beginning of a common supply.]

privies are not of the improved type as at Thomas, but they are frequently cleaned out and limed; and in August of each year the company has a general cleaning up session, at which time the weeds are cut and the trash burned. The 200 houses are not in such good condition as those at Thomas.

Republic suggests a thought true of some other situations. As the life of the mines is said to be short, perhaps only a few years, the question arises: Is it cheaper to install expensive sanitary works or to abandon the investment now? Whatever may be the answer in such cases, it affords no excuse for those places, equipped even before such matters attracted attention, in which the life is certainly sufficiently long to warrant good living and sanitary conditions. Lack of dividends is no excuse for sending people to the grave prematurely. It is better to operate a few less works and conduct these efficiently, healthfully, and safely. In the survival of the fittest, for instance, those mines constructed with little money, operated on a niggardly basis, barely eking out an existence, may well be abandoned, rather than to expose humanity to the dangers of accident and ill health in order to bring about cheap production.

The Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Company operate a large number of settlements in connection with their various activities throughout the Birmingham district. Three are described, one representing unsatisfactory conditions, another the best conditions, and the third the general average of outlying districts.

of individual indifference without company control.

The lot is twenty-five feet wide by 100 feet deep. The first fifty feet is occupied by a store; then twenty-five feet is used as a yard, while a three-room cottage occupies the remainder. A well twenty-five feet deep is conveniently located at the foot of the steps, about twenty feet away from which there is an open privy directly below the kitchen windows. The house rests on posts, and a horse with its attendant filth is kept underneath. The three-room cottage is occupied by seven people, and a dog was sleeping lazily on the porch. The owner of the establishment seemed surprised at our knowledge of his domestic affairs when we inquired which of his children had had typhoid recently. He pointed to a little child playing in the yard and said that she nearly died from the fever last summer. When asked if he did not mistrust his well, he stoutly maintained it was the best in the neighborhood. About once a week he pays a dime to have his privy cleaned out, as he cannot stand it in the summer time. When one considers that the lord of this house, his spouse, with four children, a boarder, a horse, a dog, and occasionally hens, are all dwelling upon a compact area of about twenty-five by fifty feet, the prediction of illness requires no clairvoyance.

ENSLEY HERE A DOWN-AT-THE-HEEL SETTLEMENT, NEAR A MAIN THOROUGHFARE, ILLUSTRATES THE OVERHANG OF CRUDE CONDITIONS.

The community near and west of the steel works at Ensley consists mostly of colored people. Drinking water is supplied by the Birmingham Water Works Company, one tap to every four or five houses. Each house has a trash barrel. The privies are unsatisfactory and exposed, presenting opportunity for fly and other contamination. Many are located over ditches or gutters, which are the natural run-off courses for the surface drainage from the side hills. Several of these channels lead to sewers, so that the filth is occasionally washed away—a simple but unsatisfactory method, as the care-takers tend to delay cleaning them, in the hope of rains that will relieve them of their dirty work.

As a great many houses are to be found in the incorporated city nearby, the duty of furnishing convenient, suitable, and sanitary dwellings may not be quite so pressing as in an outlying territory where no other opportunity for residence is afforded. The natural topography is rather hilly. When the settlement was started there was no attempt at grading before the houses were built, and where the cut was made for the main county road to pass through, the steep banks were left unsloped and ungrassed and in instances with no steps to get from the street to the houses. These and several other conditions are now being remedied.

EDGEWATER A MINING CAMP OF THE NEW ORDER; ITS ADVANCES ARE REVOLUTIONARY.

Edgewater, nine miles out, is thought to be the best and the most up-to-date mining camp in the district, even when allowing a certain discount because of its newness and the unsettled condition due to the construction period.

In sinking the shaft for the coal mining operations, a water-bearing strata was struck, which was planned to be the source of water supply for the camp. It is, however, not in use at the present time, because of insecurity due to draining away along interfering open strata. If this cannot be remedied another source should be secured. The distribution system is laid and there is a tap in each yard. The lack of facilities in the houses, however, is to be deplored.

The privies, located some distance from the houses, are substantially built with waterproof roof covering and hinged rear doors to facilitate cleaning and prevent exposure to flies. They are well taken care of, being cleaned out regularly and limed, and are altogether a marked step in advance of the conditions in the older camps. There has been some talk of installing a sewer system with sewage purification plant. This should most certainly be done, as the topographical conditions are favorable. The houses, spaced with regularity, are painted and are fenced in, with plenty of room.



I. The windlass well, Birmingham, from which a large part of the city population get their drinking water.

II. Pratt City water works.

III. Pumping station, City of Birmingham water works.

FOSSIL ORE MINES AN AVERAGE T. C. AND I. VILLAGE; SHIP-SHAPE AND IN GOOD REPAIR; BUT IN NEED OF SANITARY SUPERVISION COMPARABLE TO THE SAFETY ENGINEERING IN THE MINES.

About eight miles from the business center of Birmingham and well up on the sides of Red Mountain are located the Fossil Ore Mines of the same company. Up a rough up-hill road, bordered by cotton patches, one comes across 500 miners' homes hidden among the foot-hills of the mountain. The site of the camp is high and healthful and the houses are in good repair, painted, and fenced in.

There is a public water supply and a faucet is seen in almost every yard. The water, obtained from three springs, is piped to a common reservoir, properly covered, and pumped to two wooden tanks near the summit of the mountain. Spring No. 1 is adequately protected with a brick wall and enclosed spring house. Spring No. 2 is similarly enclosed, but as several cottages near by are without water taps the door of the spring house was left open so that the people about here, mostly Negroes, could scoop their supply in buckets. This practice jeopardizes the purity of the supply of the entire community. These few houses should be furnished with taps, so that this spring house could be kept locked. The third spring, a concrete tank, about forty feet by sixty feet, needed a protective covering and higher walls to ward off possible contamination.

The privies in this camp are of an improved, substantial type, with removable boxes. They are said to be cleaned out regularly and a generous use of lime was in evidence.

THE CORPORATIONS AND THE VILLAGES

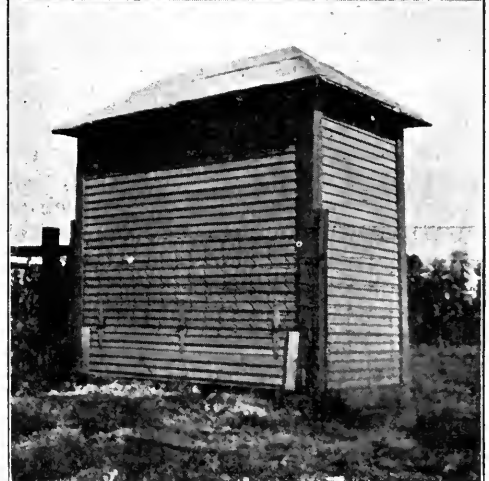
Ideal sanitary conditions cannot be attained in any community, but there are certain minimum standards which should be enforced. In some of the smaller industrial communities the present conditions are such that no excuse should be accepted for their continued existence. The people should be supplied with a pure and wholesome water, free from disease germs, delivered to each house if possible. It is unfortunate that in almost all settlements, even in those having running water on tap and under pressure, the usual custom is to provide only a few places, in the streets or area-ways, from which a group of houses may draw water, instead of having a faucet in each house. While the expense of equipment may be one reason, the desire to save water is more often the motive, based upon the belief that inconvenience means less frequent use. Aside from the drudgery of lugging water which this puts on the house-

wives, this policy is criticised by some progressive employers on the ground that outside hydrants, however well supplied with self-closing faucets (always easy to fasten open), invite tampering by the thoughtless and the playful; taps in the houses, they hold, in addition to being convenient (a matter not to be despised, even by the owner), lead to more frugal use of water.

The construction of truly sanitary privies so as to prevent the contamination of the surrounding soil and to insure the exclusion of flies, is an absolute necessity. So is the frequent and proper sanitary removal and disposal of their contents. To permit the accumulation of kitchen wastes, manure, and other material of like character in the midst of a settled community is unnecessary and should and can be easily prevented. Unless these three fundamental problems of sanitation are cared for in a comprehensive, thorough, and efficient manner, the people will not enjoy that degree of health which is their right. Lack of proper sanitation is always a potential danger and, while not necessarily followed by an epidemic, it does result in a lowering of vital resistance, in the reduction of efficiency, and in the decrease of personal respect.

One must remember of course what has been and still is the lot of the "hill-billies" in their homes. It is always wise to use this sense of proportion and comparison; but however foul, disgusting, and unwholesome may be the household life of such rural laborers and now transplanted furnace or mine laborers, it is a doubtful answer at best; conditions prevailing in a sparsely settled country are not bearable when your neighbor dumps his slops near your well. The glance at Sandusky showed that it is unsound to attribute the whole range of existing conditions to the industrial companies. On the other hand, considering the temporary character of many of the settlements, their artificial creation rather than normal social growth, and the lack of control which transients and tenants have over their utilities, the responsible relationship which the companies must bear toward changes for the better is clear.

One of the most important steps under corporate control, in seeking knowledge of conditions, that intelligent correction of faults may proceed, is a recent preliminary survey of the working and living condition of the various establishments of the United States Steel Corporation, undertaken under the direction of the executive officers in New York. The investigations were made in the Birmingham district in the early part of September, 1910. The writer has been permitted to peruse the parts of this report relating to the subject of this article—in itself an indication of the open-mindedness with which this work is being carried on. An abundant and convenient supply of good, pure drinking water to all works and houses is advocated.—The lack of water and sink facilities in the houses makes the tired woman's busy day all too long.—Sanitary drinking fountains at convenient places will not only be a boon to the exhausted workman, but frequently will be less expensive in fixed charges than the yearly payroll for many water boys.—The typical earth closet or privy vault for fecal discharges is unsanitary, pollutes the ground and wells or springs, gives off noxious odors, is a gathering plague spot for flies, causes the slops and kitchen wastes to be thrown out on the ground, and is to be condemned when a water carriage system and disposal is possible.—More important than the agreement of such observations and conclusions embodied in the report with those of students of these matters is the fact that this means an endeavor on the part of one of the largest employers of labor to get down to the sanitary situation. A more specific survey of mining camps is being undertaken this year by the Alabama Coal Operators' Association. In calling attention one has only half begun; the constructive policy for remedying bad conditions is always to go forward a little, but not too fast; to build for tomorrow; not to disturb conditions and old theories too rapidly; not to antagonize those foremen and superintendents, and even the help, upon whose co-operation success ultimately depends; all this is a job for the wisest, most far-seeing and astute. The broad welfare policy of such an aggregation of capital as the Steel



- I. Easy access for distributors of contagion, Pratt City.
- II. Dependent upon the rain for flushing, Ensley.
- III. Sanitary privy at No. 13 Mine.

Corporation, controlling many industries, is indicative of the advantages of uniform control and practice, as well as of the fortunate ability to secure funds required for such purposes. Many small, struggling concerns, under the stress of a cut-throat competition for business which consumes the entire attention of the management, find themselves unable to undertake the many improvements needed to bring about safe conditions in the mine, the factory, and the community.

The Steel Corporation has undertaken the next step also in advising constructive work, under the guidance of its sanitary committee, to disseminate knowledge of the menace from unsanitary conditions and the principles which should govern the remedying of these. This indeed is a progressive and hopeful step. Aside from the ethics of the question, typhoid is now considered a greater economic burden than amputated fingers.

THE INDUSTRIAL WATER-PROBLEM

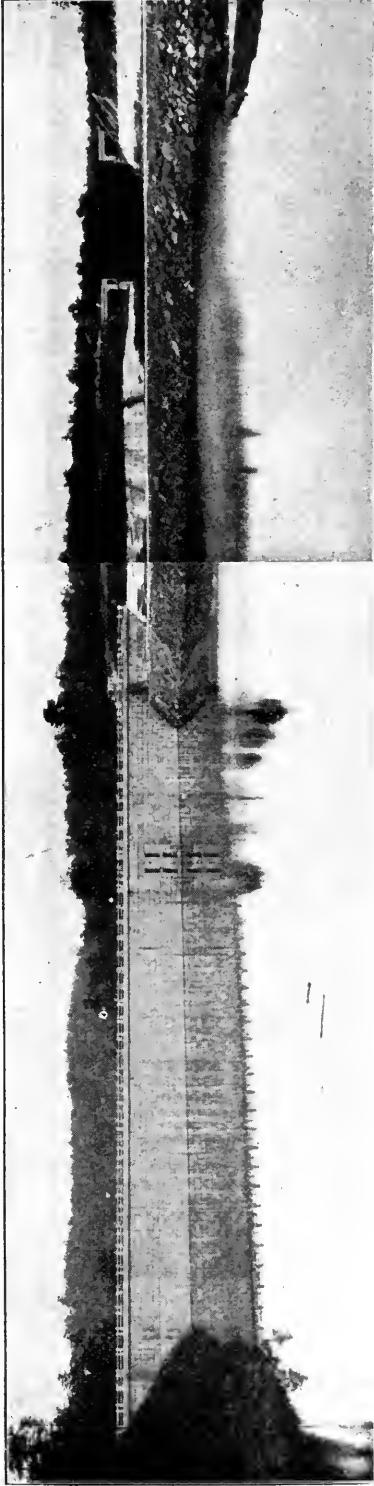
The city is in a sense nothing more than a piling up of such small communities in a great heap of industries, domestic establishments, and people; and we are ready now to follow out the same factors as they enter into the larger sanitary problem of the manufacturing center.

First of all water. The Birmingham district is situated upon a narrow plateau between great river basins and is at a general elevation of about 600 feet above the sea. It possesses many natural advantages for the development of a great industrial center, except adequate water facilities, such as are needed for any growing community; first, to make the domestic and general municipal use plentiful and cheap; second, to decrease the cost of power and manufacturing; and third, to aid in transportation. The second and the third have been studied, both singly and combined, by various interests, for the last forty years. The small stream of water passing through the town is used over and over again many times; it is so heated in summer that it is not useful for cooling and it is at all times seriously

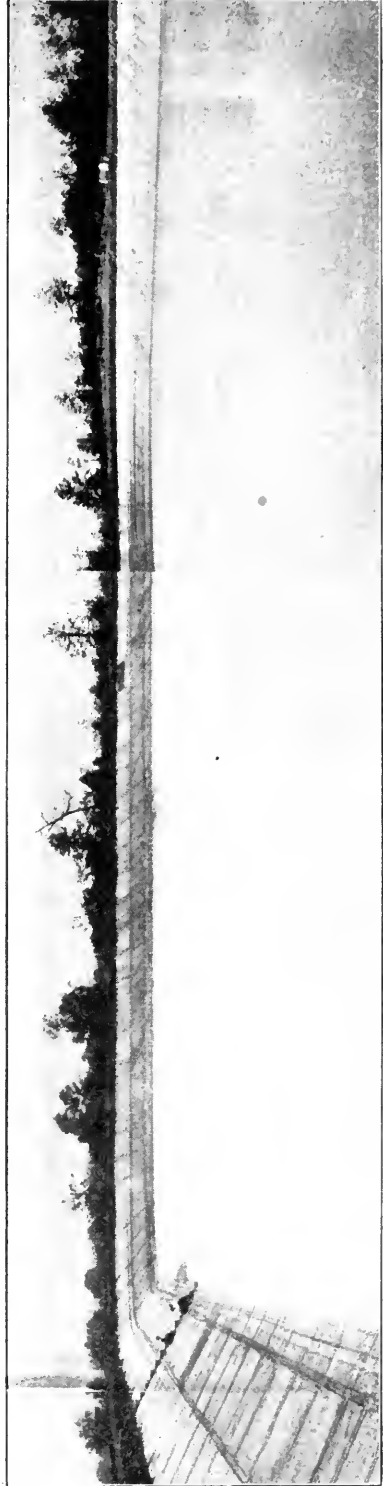
polluted. There have been schemes for a canal from the Tennessee to the Coosa and from Five Mile to Valley Creek and to the Warrior river. There have been projects for increasing the flow of Village Creek, by bringing in waters from impounding reservoirs and diverting some of the tributaries of the Warrior river from the north. There have been pumping supplies proposed from the Warrior river, from the Cahaba river, and from as far away as the Coosa river. The development of power transmission has opened new possibilities for this district in the delivery of electric current rather than water for steam and condensing purposes.

In 1908, the Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Company, shortly after its acquirement by the United States Steel Corporation, determined that it would investigate for itself, so that the continued development of its great works should not be curtailed because of insufficient water for condensing and cooling. In the dry season there is not enough water in Village Creek to operate the Ensley department at its full capacity. These investigations extended over a period of eighteen months and resulted in the determination that the Village Creek drainage area, about seventy-five square miles, could be developed for suitable and practically unlimited supply. It was proposed to build a dam upon Village Creek, about six miles below Ensley. This dam, ninety feet high and 500 feet long, is built of cyclopean concrete masonry and impounds two and one-half billion gallons of water. Water will be pumped out of this basin, some distance up the Camp Branch area, through a fifty-inch steel pipe line to a reservoir holding 15,000,000 gallons and situated on a hill above the plant. From this point the water will be distributed throughout the works and all water that is not evaporated and wasted will return again to Village Creek, so that there will be a continuous cycle, permitting the use of the same water over and over again.

This development is an important one in the South and illustrates the advantages of large capital and concordant control in planning ahead in comprehen-



VILLAGE CREEK DAM AND IMPOUNDING RESERVOIR.
Recently constructed by the Tennessee company to furnish water for industrial uses. Twenty-five hundred million gallons of water are impounded behind the dam.



HIGH LEVEL DISTRIBUTING RESERVOIR.
Through a two-mile tunnel water flows by gravity from impounding reservoir to pumping station, where it is raised to the high level reservoir to be distributed to Easley and Corey plants.

sive ways. What one has done others can and should do, either singly or in combination; for without such a plentiful supply of good water or similar means to obtain cheap power, the industries of Birmingham will have a hard time to keep pace with better favored communities.

DOMESTIC WATER SUPPLY

Equally important is such comprehensive planning with respect to domestic water supplies. The Elyton Land Company, incorporated in December, 1870, was the founder and builder of the City of Birmingham. It seems to have been difficult at that time to secure sufficient capital to build a water works system for the city, so the land company undertook the project, built a pumping station on the banks of Village Creek, near what is now East Birmingham, and pumped water into the town in May, 1873. Immediately after the completion of the water works system, hard times came, the furnaces grew cold, a plague of cholera broke out, and great gloom settled over the little wooden town of 2,500 people. In the early eighties, Birmingham was on its feet again, and on account of the rapid growth Village Creek become so polluted that the need of a new water supply became evident. Space does not permit a review of the various stages leading up to a thirty-year contract with the city in 1888, with sufficiently long life to warrant a large permanent investment. The principal features of this contract were that, in addition to the pumping station then in use on Village Creek, the company would build another on the banks of the Cahaba, with a capacity of not less than five million gallons a day, and also construct a reservoir on Shades Mountain, which would hold twenty-five million gallons. The existing water rates were established in this contract and the city has the privilege of purchase at the expiration of the contract and at each recurring period of ten years. In 1890, the water company completed the Cahaba river works and the city has since been supplied with water from both sources.

In 1891 the water company made an investigation of the entire water-works.

Some of the findings will bear repetition here, because upon them are based the works which now supply Birmingham:

It was found that the minimum daily flow of both branches of the Cahaba was about ten million gallons a day, or enough to supply a city of 100,000. A pumping station had already been built two miles above the forks of the west branch, about twelve miles from the city. It was also found that, by building proper impounding reservoirs, a water supply sufficient for a city of 500,000 could be obtained. He advised enlarging the distribution reservoir on Shades Mountain; there are now two, with a total of about 150 million gallons capacity.

All of these improvements were not to be made at once¹, but here was a comprehensive plan laid out, such that, if properly fulfilled, and if reasonable economy were practiced, the spectre of a water famine need never haunt the people of Birmingham.

The two requisites of a water supply are quality and quantity. Up to this point the question of the quantity was the perplexing one; now we find the quality being discussed. In 1902, on account of the prevalence of sickness, the City and County Officials invited Samuel M. Gray, civil engineer, to make a sanitary investigation and he held that on account of the number of people living on the watersheds "common prudence demanded that the water from both Five Mile Creek and the Cahaba river be purified by filtration." The water company as the result of further investigation decided to filter both supplies.

The present situation is as follows:

Nineteen hundred and eleven saw the completion of the large dam on the east branch of the Cahaba. The reservoir, called Lake Purdy, holds two and one-quarter billion gallons and has a water surface of 350 acres. The company owns about 3,000 acres surrounding this lake; and all houses have been removed, with the idea of having this area revert to untenable wilderness. Most of the employes connected with the operation of the Cahaba pumping station are located at Merkel, a hamlet over the water shed and some two miles nearer Birmingham. The few houses at the pumping station are sewerer through a long line emptying into the main stream below the forks. There is a

¹In 1899 the stockholders, being unwilling to finance the necessary additions, decided to sell out, and the American Water Works & Guarantee Company of Pittsburgh, Penn., became the owners.



CAMP AND CLEAN STREET AT NO. 13 MINE.

little town of Leeds, situated about eight miles above the dam on the banks of the Cahaba. The watershed of Five Mile Creek has a greater population per square mile. The chief danger of contamination, however, has been along the canal, but this is now a closed conduit through most of the settled way, and for the remainder the open channel is protected by a fence.

On the whole, the people of Birmingham need have little fear of an epidemic being disseminated from these sources, as long as the filters are operated with painstaking faithfulness and vigilance. At certain times in the year, there is said to be a growth of micro-organisms in the reservoir, causing disagreeable tastes and odors, but so far as is at present known these are not specific cause for any disease. If the supply is watched, the growth can be easily checked by chemical treatment; better still would be to cover the water basin, if the trouble becomes seriously objectionable. The company has a well equipped laboratory and water is analyzed daily, both before and after filtration.

We have mentioned only the big steps. As one goes over the system and compares these valuable holdings with the little water works of the seventies, he must conclude that the development has kept pace with the phenomenal growth of this great industrial district. It shows the benefit of thoughtful and well planned development—true “city planning.”

Besides furnishing water to Birmingham proper, this water company supplies East Lake, Woodlawn, Pratt City, Ensley, Corey, Wylam, and others. The formation of Greater Birmingham has resulted in people living under the same form of government receiving water under different contracts. It is advisable, from the standpoint of unity and harmony, that a new contract should be prepared so that inequalities and misunderstandings will disappear. While not within the scope of this article it may not be amiss to urge strongly that, should a new agreement be made, water should be sold on a meter basis. This should be done in justice to all, for there is a shameful waste of water going on at present, and the broad principle of the conservation of our natural resources demands that this waste be stopped.¹

Low prices to the consumer, as well as sufficient quantity and good quality of water, is an essential in public water

¹The only reasonable objection to meters is that over-frugal people would deny themselves the healthful use of water. This can simply and effectively be remedied by establishing a minimum charge, providing for the necessary fixed costs of connection to the water main and based on an adequate amount for proper hygienic use.

supply; but this is a phase of the question calling for comprehensive investigation of construction and operation costs quite without the bounds of this inquiry. Simply quoting water rates of other cities is not a fair criterion. The State of Alabama needs a conservative public service commission to study such subjects,¹ that they may be divorced from the rancor and partisanship which comes from local consideration.

Not a private company but the municipality itself developed the water supply of North Birmingham. The year after this town was incorporated, in 1908, the people voted to issue \$25,000 in bonds. A large well was excavated, which, after an expense of about \$1,800, caved so badly that it had to be abandoned. Steps were taken in 1904, to secure water from the dolomite quarry of the Sloss-Sheffield Steel and Iron Company, situated close by on the banks of Village Creek; and an arrangement had been in force about two and one-half years, when a heavy rain flooded the quarry and put the pump out of commission. In October, 1903, the town purchased water rights and certain land around a spring, constructed a brick well, and drilled five deep wells, all of which were shortly abandoned. Early in 1907, two wells were drilled at the present location of a power house used jointly for the water-works and the electric system. Water was raised into a steel tank close by, and thence to a reservoir on a hill about a mile away.

After the formation of Greater Birmingham, Mayor Culpepper Exum, now president of the city commission, had this water-works system investigated. Analysis of the water revealed the presence of intestinal bacteria, and it was found that potential danger of a serious contaminant was always present because of the unclean conditions in the quarry and the surrounding drainage area. The supply was declared unfit for domestic

purposes unless the water was filtered and softened. Because of the cost of the necessary improvements and the uncertainty of the quantity available, it was recommended that it would not be advisable further to develop these works and that other arrangements for a supply should be made.

The history of this supply and its present unsatisfactory condition show that the notion is groundless that municipal ownership and administration will of themselves insure security and advantage in public service. The dilapidated pumping station of the Pratt City Water Works (which in 1908 supplied water on tap only one hour in the day), built only ten years ago and emblazoned with the names of city officials, and the good service rendered by the private company reinforce the point.

Municipal ownership is of benefit only when the advantage of lower fixed charges and lack of needed profit is accompanied by efficiency in management. More fundamentally, these water works taken together show the need for comprehensive planning for the whole service area, for long planning, and for continuous and persistent interest and accountability as to results. The economic motive of private ownership has in this local group of water works "worked out" in all three directions better than public operation—in this reflecting the general lack of organic strength in municipal affairs manifested to date in the growing urban district.

THE TRUNK SEWERS

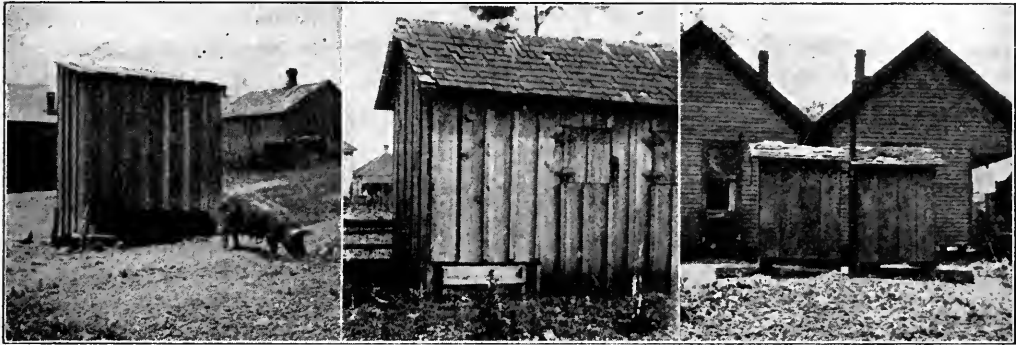
In the sewage system, however, we have an example of the public working out a comprehensive plan, and a long one for the future; but the third element necessary to give it adequate effect has lapsed. Greater Birmingham is confronted with the appalling fact that there are about 11,000 privies within the city limits. About 20 per cent of these are said to exist illegally; *i. e.*, they are located within districts which are provided with sewers. The presence of the remainder may be partly explained by the jumps in population in forty years from 1,000 to 132,685, and the

¹It is said that in Bessemer the laws compelling property owners to connect with the sanitary sewers are not more rigorously enforced because this would increase the income of the local water company. This looks like the folly of "biting off your nose to spite your face" and a more effective means of punishing the water company should be devised, if it is deserving of such.

increase in area (largely in 1910) from 1.8 square miles to 50.1 square miles. In 1890, there were 16.9 miles of sanitary sewers; in 1897, 33.3 miles; in 1901, 43.8 miles; in 1905, 58.0 miles; and in 1909, 76.8 miles. Efforts were thus made to keep the original city property sewered; but, as only a few of the outlying towns had sanitary sewers, the greater city now contains a vast area of unsewered territory. One would ordinarily suppose that the extension of sewers into this newly acquired territory and their co-ordination with the sewers already existing in the city proper would cause much confusion. Doubtless this would be true but for a magnificent example of fore-

sion concluded to provide not only for existing communities but for the growth of the entire district. It decided to build two great trunk sewers, one following Valley Creek, about fourteen miles long, varying from four to five feet in diameter, and the other following Village Creek, about eleven miles long, varying from two to three feet in diameter.

As the sanitary act contemplated that the streams should not be polluted by raw sewage, the commission also decided to build purification plants at the trunk sewer outlets, so that no nuisances would arise below. The septic tanks it constructed to these ends were then the



THREE CONTEMPORANEOUS GRADES OF PRIVY CONSTRUCTION.

BIRMINGHAM.
Crude type, open to all contagion carriers.

THOMAS CAMP.
Open, but having receptacle for removing excreta.

BIRMINGHAM.
With flushing.

sight and "city planning" which cannot be too highly praised—the county trunk sewers planned by the Jefferson County Sanitary Commission.

Until about 1900, the sewers in the Birmingham district emptied into Village Creek and Valley Creek. As the flow in these creeks is small, many complaints were made of the nuisances caused, law suits were threatened, and the death rate was high. Backed by universal sentiment, the Jefferson County Sanitary Commission was organized and given large powers by the Legislature in 1901. It is well to note here, as is true for other southern communities, that most of the sanitary progress has taken place in the last ten years.

In formulating its plans, the commis-

largest in the United States, and most likely the only sewage purification works in the South. This stage of the work completed, the sanitary commission was unfortunately dissolved, and its authority passed into the hands of the Jefferson County Board of Revenue, a body not so constituted nor chosen as to have special knowledge or interest in such subjects. The time has arrived when it is necessary to extend and improve both sewage disposal works and thoroughly overhaul the entire system. The septic tank at the outlet of the Village Creek sewer long ago proved inadequate for its task, and recent attention has evidently been directed to this fact by the construction of a large impounding reservoir on Village Creek below the disposal works.

The county is now improving the sewage purification plant, by building sedimentation tanks and contact filters. Thus the work predicted and partially provided for by the original sanitary commission is being completed.

This is, however, but one step in a series which will need to be taken to restore both streams to a cleaner condition. In a young, rapidly growing community, when the industries are weak and the competition with older, well-established communities is strong, certain finer considerations may and frequently do go by default. Several industrial concerns and the county have made a start to improve the condition of Village Creek, and this should be demanded of other industries further up and in the city limits. The crying need of a sizable body of water, which will afford many healthful out-of-door recreations, has long been felt in Birmingham. Now that there is created a lake of about 600 acres, it seems reasonable that all should assist in making it a spot of beauty and not a repository for the filth of the district.

The serious way in which the sewerage system has been allowed to lapse was indicated by a recent measurement of the flow from the Village Creek sewer, which showed that it contained a vast amount of ground or storm water. If this inflow is not soon prevented the sewer will not be able to take care of the population it was designed to serve. The county sanitary engineer believes that certain rain-water drains are connected up with the sanitary sewers which should be connected with the storm sewer (a separate system). On the other hand, the street department thinks that there are some sanitary sewers connected with the storm sewers. An investigation should be made at once, such illegal connections broken, and the houses connected up with the sanitary sewers.

WASTES AND DISEASE

Although many of the 11,000 existing privies are frequently cleaned out by the street department, they are accessible to flies which later enter the houses to infect the food. This is more serious than their

foul odors and unsightly appearance, and there are two other dangers from them. Out of the 133,000 people within the city limits, probably less than 80,000 use the public water supply; the remainder obtain water from private wells and semi-public springs—a condition common to southern cities.¹ In many instances filthy privies are located close to the wells, so that the passage of germs from the former to the well water is alarmingly direct.

The third danger is the relation these privies bear to the hookworm disease, which is due to the presence, in the small intestines and sometimes in the stomach, of a small worm about one-half inch long. The eradication of this disease depends solely on preventing the eggs in the fecal discharges from developing into worms, which can reinfect the patient or other people. This can be readily accomplished by the use of sanitary sewers, and in outlying districts by the use of tight, screened, and sanitary privies.

The fly and the mosquito are prevalent in the Birmingham district, and apparently the discomfort and danger in the propagation of malaria fever is not engaging attention. The effective work in the Canal Zone makes it difficult to understand why flies and mosquitoes are allowed to menace our older and more thoroughly developed communities.

A comprehensive campaign along the following lines is needed:

First: compel all houses in sewered districts to connect up with sewers;

Second: compel all houses in unsewered districts to provide tight, sanitary privies, which will not contaminate the soil and will be carefully screened against flies;

Third: enforce the city ordinances, which says that garbage cans shall be water-tight and covered; also enforce the screen ordinance.

¹Hiram J. Messenger, actuary of the Traveler's Insurance Company, addressing the Association of Life Insurance Presidents in New York, last June, said in reference to the sanitary condition of thirty Southern cities which he investigated.

"The extent to which city water is used varies . . . upon the whole probably 70 per cent is a high estimate of the average percentage of inhabitants using city water in cities of 5,000 inhabitants and over. The remainder, 30 per cent or more, obtain their water supply elsewhere and mainly from wells supplying surface water—nearly all of which wells were subject to contamination and many of which actually were contaminated."



AN EXAMPLE OF HOW NOT AND HOW TO DO—BIRMINGHAM.

Street corner débris in front of Florence hotel.

A clean public alley in the business district.

Fourth: eliminate stagnant pools, drain swamps, and oil small water sources.

Fifth: extend the city sewers as rapidly as the finances will permit.

The paved streets are cleaned by the usual methods employed in most American cities. The superintendent of streets is aware of the advantage of modern pneumatic machines and hopes to install them as soon as the financial condition of the city will allow. On the other hand, the employment of convicts in chains for the purpose of cleaning the streets harks back to the middle ages.

Formerly household waste was collected by contract, but now this is done by the street department, an average of five thousand loads being collected each month. As the street department mixes all of this material in the same wagon when collecting, there is little advantage, if any, from having the householders separate the materials, as required by an unenforced ordinance. This waste is carted to seven public dumps which are located on the outskirts of the city. Of the two nearest the business district, one near the Sloss furnaces was well cared for, the fresh

material being covered with ashes as soon as dumped; but at the one in the rear of the terminal station a portion is fenced off, and cows and pigs are fattened on the swill which is strewn all over this area. This practice should be stopped.

The city is now considering the installation of a disposal plant which will do away with these public dumps and will be more economical and sanitary. A proposition to compel people to install individual incinerators at each house has been talked of in Birmingham. One might just as well suggest individual household filtration of the public water supply; it would never be faithfully carried out except by a very few. One of the characteristics and advantages of urban over rural life is to have such services as garbage, refuse, and sewage disposal, water-supply, light, and sometimes heat, furnished by a central and responsible organization.

This finishes our story. We have shown the evolution of the sanitary problem, as seen in three different types of communities to be found in the Birmingham district:

First: the rural settlements, where the problem is comparatively simple, because the action of the individual does not seriously affect the health of those outside the family.

Second: the small mining community, where careless habits of the individual menace the health of the neighbors; therefore, there arises the need of an authority to protect the community's health by regulating the action of the individual.

³The following formula for larvacide at an expense not to exceed fifteen cents per gallon has been found useful in the work of sanitation in the Canal Zone at Panama, and on account of the excessive southern rain-fall would undoubtedly be of similar advantage in the vicinity of Birmingham. It is made as follows: 150 gallons of carbolic acid is heated to a temperature of 212 degrees Fahrenheit. To this is added 100 lbs of powdered stic soda. This mixture is heated to a temperature until a dark solution is obtained, the mixture is then cooled until the end of the process. It kills anopholes, minutes or less.

Third: the concentrated larger settlements, where the maintenance of proper sanitary conditions requires strong centralized agencies not only to maintain sanitary police control, as in small settlements, but to establish effective works for the abundant supply of water and the disposal of waste and to plan broadly for the continued growth of such utilities.

Greater Birmingham is growing rapidly and all these sanitary questions should be handled on a scale commensurate with this growth. It is sadly to be regretted, for example, that the sanitary commission was not made a permanent body, and, further, given authority over all the sewers within the county. As conditions exist, there is a great division of responsibility. For instance, the city commission says when and where the sewers shall be built; the city engineer designs and supervises their construction. It is the duty of the health department to compel the houses to connect up with the sewers, but before this is done a permit must be obtained from the street department. When everything is finished, the job must have the approval of the plumbing inspectors, and,

after all this, permission must be obtained from the county sanitary engineer before any main sewer is connected up with the trunk sewer. What more complicated system could be designed, for the purpose of making it easy to evade obligations?

The Birmingham district, as is true of many other southern cities and even of older northern communities, demands a comprehensive planning ahead, that what is done may fit in well with what will have to be done in the future. There is need not only for practical men of affairs in serving municipalities, but also for men of vision, who have a broad and developed experience and constructive policy. The city must stand for affirmative progress. Birmingham has men with high ideals and broad vision, who clearly see that back of the glare of the furnaces, the rush of the trains and continual activity, there is a higher and nobler purpose. To these men Birmingham is not only to be a great industrial center of the South—it is to be a healthful community of happy people.



ONE OF THE SEVEN BIRMINGHAM PUBLIC GARBAGE DUMPS.

January 6, 1912.

CONSERVATION OF HEALTH

W. M. McGRATH

SECRETARY BIRMINGHAM ASSOCIATED CHARITIES

Speaking nationally, public health is getting a hearing. Local and state health associations are springing up; national societies for the study of special problems like infant mortality, tuberculosis, and social diseases are spreading; research laboratories are isolating disease germs and developing toxins; the agitation for a national department of health makes headway; physicians in large numbers are entering the public service; industrial concerns and trade unions are beginning to fight the great white plague; and insurance companies find it good business to prolong the lives of their policy-holders.

How far is Birmingham abreast of these new strong currents in the national life? Have more than fugitive eddies made themselves felt?

THE HOSPITAL SITUATION

Growing communities do not go far before they see that they must cooperate in caring for the sick, and the first action usually takes form in a hospital. In Birmingham we have one public, one quasi-public, and seven private medical institutions, besides the county almshouse, the pest house, and a tuberculosis sanatorium.¹ This would seem off-hand like a considerable provision against illness; but a review of these institutions brings a different conviction.

The Hillman is the only strictly public hospital, but even that is not wholly maintained by taxes drawn from Birmingham. It is supported by Jefferson county, and therefore is subject to demands for service made upon it by people from outside Birmingham. However well its ninety beds may have met the needs of the indigent sick of the county at the time of its erection, they are hopelessly inadequate now. The population it serves has increased from about 150,000 to 240,000, with no corresponding increase in hospital facilities.

¹The county contributes \$100 monthly to the Robinson Hospital, Bessemer, an institution maintained by the United Charities of that city.

Every ward is constantly overcrowded,¹ the accommodations for Negro patients being particularly inadequate. In fact, one of the great hospital needs of the city today is a separate and distinct institution for Negroes. Now one small "lying in" room is all that is afforded for colored women, and the nurses' study is encroached upon for white women. Sometimes three beds are placed in the one room which is intended to contain only one. There is no children's ward, and the beds of children who are taken in are kept on the porch during the day, and at night they are moved into the already overcrowded women's ward. The overcrowding has a direct bearing of course on the opportunities, or the lack of them, for complete recuperation. There is the ever recurring danger that a patient will be discharged to make room for a more necessitous case before he is sufficiently convalescent for his discharge to be safe or wise. Follow-up work after the patient leaves the institution does not exist.

A much-needed addition has been made to the institution by the erection of a detached building to be utilized as a laboratory and autopsy room. Medical and surgical work, however, are still hampered because they are not properly separated and elbow each other in cramped quarters. Under the new superintendency of Dr. E. P. Hogan, one of the first reforms has been to increase the length of the training course for nurses from two years to three. Other steps in the direction of reorganization are being taken, but the structural insufficiency of the plant cannot be affected by staff changes.

The Hillman hospital does not take contagious and infectious cases, and there is no provision for them other than at the almshouse.² This situation is par-

¹Conditions are described as found in an investigation in the early summer.

²When the pest-house is not overcrowded, patients suffering from contagious or infectious diseases other than small-pox have sometimes been placed in the vacant houses or in tents. This is neither adequate nor wise.



ST. VINCENT'S HOSPITAL.

Supported by the Roman Catholic Church. Accommodates pay patients and does a large charity work.

ticularly acute and calls for immediate action, even at a time of financial retrenchment. Nor have we any institution to care for the unfortunates known as "dope fiends," who present a social-medical problem of serious proportions. There is pressing need, also, for more adequate dispensary service. The Hillman Hospital maintains an out-door clinic (lacking in room space), which is open to the public for certain hours every day. This is presided over by the professors and students of the local medical college, which is to all intents and purposes a part of the hospital system, although maintained by a distinct governing board. A nurse is occasionally in attendance at the clinic; colored and white patients are received together, the majority of the applicants being colored. St. Vincent's Hospital opened a free dispensary in September, and is maintaining it in the hospital building. The combined milk station and day nursery, while not partaking greatly of the real functions of the hospital, does a certain amount of daily dispensary work with such needy children as come within its radius of activity. But these only sharpen the call for a radical extension of dispensary work. Another common need is for an adequate ambulance system. Some cities which already possess ambulances attached to their different hospitals are studying the distribution of these, so that the zones of the calls to which the ambulances respond will not overlap and so that one will be within quick reach of every possible point of accident. Bir-

ingham is confronted with no such overlapping of the zones of service, for it has no hospital ambulances. The deficiency is partly met by the undertaker's wagons. An illustration, this, of the opportunity which the city has of capitalizing its very backwardness, by blocking out the framework of a system to start with which could be filled in as the city grows.

To return to the hospital situation. St. Vincent's, a Roman Catholic institution, founded in 1901 and since enlarged to 164 beds, indulges in no discrimination as to race or religion, affords excellent facilities for pay patients, and also does a large charity work every year. The white wards have now eighty-six beds, in addition to which provision is made for twenty-two Negroes. Wards for both whites and Negroes, as in the Hillman, are overcrowded, the extra Negro patients being put on cots in the wards or in the halls. Various mining corporations and street and steam railroads pay for the maintenance of beds for their injured employes, the sums in some instances being collected in part by assessments on the workers. The Brick Layers' Union pays for one bed, and the city makes a monthly appropriation supposed to maintain five beds, but ordinarily there are ten or twelve city patients cared for each month. St. Vincent's needs further provision for contagious diseases, for an obstetrical room for charity patients, for care of children who cannot pay, and for treating the Negro sick who constantly make application to either hospital only to meet with the answer, "No room." The work for convalescents has hardly more than begun. One of the sisters spends a certain time each week visiting discharged charity cases. The hospital looks forward to having a nurse and sister especially assigned to social service work among discharged or dispensary cases. Another hope is to obtain a nurses' home so that the present quarters in the hospital used by nurses may be used for children patients and maternity cases.

A non-sectarian children's hospital is being projected by the Protestant Episcopal churches of the city, but it has not yet secured sufficient financial backing.

The seven infirmaries have facilities for about two hundred patients. Trained nurses are in attendance, with assistant pupil nurses in process of training. The infirmaries are private and limited to pay patients. Therefore they do not materially relieve congestion in the general wards of the other hospitals. Nor do several other institutions, to be referred to later, which partake of the functions of hospitals in one way or another.

Here, then, are a few units in a possible hospital system; but they are inadequate and not co-ordinated. Not only do we need an ambulance service schemed out for the city as a whole, but we need a hospital program that will forecast our future demands so that they

as a kitchen. Rotten boards, creaking planks, and departing paint were all so many outward evidences at the time of my visits of a deep-seated dilapidation.¹ Twenty-five of the thirty-five acres of land are under cultivation and make the institution partially self-supporting. Last summer there were seventy-one inmates, men and women, white and black. Their physical welfare is the object of a monthly appropriation of \$100 for medical services. The operating room, a converted bedroom, is in the rear of the main building, and is extremely unsanitary. The superintendent stated that only minor operations were performed here, and that anything else was cared for at the Hillman Hospital.



A CONGESTED WARD, HILLMAN HOSPITAL.

can and will be met step by step, without leaving serious gaps or admitting of extravagant duplication of effort.

The other institutions doing work akin to that of a hospital are the county almshouse, the pest house, used for the isolation of small-pox cases, and the camp maintained by the Jefferson County Anti-Tuberculosis Association, where, though hardly two years established, a promising weapon has been found for attacking the white plague.

The almshouse is a rambling wooden structure, a veritable "tinder box." Practically all of the wards or dormitories are connected by wooden passageways, and a fire once started in any part would sweep them all. The only brick structure on the premises is used

At the time of this investigation there were seven cases of tuberculosis—two of them were white men, one a white woman, three Negro men, and one a Negro woman. The white patients were in a two-story frame building. There seemed to be no one in direct attendance upon the patients, none of whom, however, were confined to their beds. The superintendent, when asked if anyone in authority slept in this building, responded naïvely, "Oh no, but the matron shows them where to sleep." In other words, men and women have their rooms ap-

¹The Board of Revenue, in charge of county affairs, has under present consideration (December), the question of building new almshouse structures on a 200-acre farm owned by the county. Either to do this or improve the present building will be definitely decided this coming summer.



CORRIDOR IN "JAIL" AT ALMSHOUSE.
Bath-tub filled with rubbish.

pointed for them, and there supervision ends. Old clothes and rags were thrown around on some of the floors, and in a corner there was a large pile of blankets, which the superintendent stated were kept there until needed for cold weather. A fire-place in a patient's room was literally covered with expectorations. Screening is attempted, but is not effective. The Negro tuberculosis patients are better housed in a detached one-story cottage. Sputum cups used by them are the ordinary tin drinking cups.

The surroundings leave much to be desired in the way of sanitation. The water supply is obtained from the city and the milk comes from eight cows kept on the premises. The pails are kept in a little latticed out-house, unscreened, close to the main building, and the cooling process is inadequate.

The so-called jail in connection with this institution recalls stories of the "donjon-keep" of olden days, with its straw-pallets, dark walls, barred windows, and clanking chains. Here there were no chains, perhaps there was a little more light, but there was about

the same sort of ventilation, and the modern air had fully as much stench. Here were incarcerated in cells four imbecile men and women who had committed the crime of being poor. Sanitary arrangements were of the crudest, each cell having an old-pattern toilet seat without wooden frame or cover, in which the water was turned on occasionally from the hall. It was stated that new toilet facilities were to be installed at once in the cells; in fact, one had already been located. This may improve the quality, but not the convenience. The bed covers were old and dirty and were thrown on the floor in a corner.

It was hard to see wherein the county pest house was any more sanitary than the almshouse. The privies were open, unscreened, and without facilities for easily removing excreta; the houses were without screens also; bedding was filthy and ill-cared for; the well is on low ground below the superintendent's house and the barn; yet to this place small-pox patients in numbers averaging several hundred each year are taken, and to it the city, though without voice in the management, gives \$50 monthly. Blessed vaccine, that keeps people away from such a place!

So much for institutional provision. The primary needs are coordination, larger equipment, scientific management and social service so that the treatment shall be of the best.

PUBLIC HEALTH ADMINISTRATION

But no man lives to himself alone, nor dies, nor gets sick to himself alone. And in places where men work not separately in fields but shoulder to shoulder in mills, and live elbow to elbow on alleys and in tenements, there are necessary health measures that go a notch farther than a hospital—help keep people well, as well as care for them when sick. These measures fall best to the public service; hence a department of health in the city government.

In 1875 the Medical Association of the State of Alabama was delegated by the Legislature to act as the state health authority. This state board of health, through its executive committee, has con-

trol over the enforcement of laws relating to public health and elects the state health officer. In 1910 the state spent a bit above \$16,000 for work done by this department, an amount 40 per cent smaller than its expenditure for its military encampment, and one-fiftieth of the amount distributed in military pensions.

The prescribed duties of the state board form a stirring health program, but the disproportion between the work involved and the annual appropriation is pitiful. Until recently, the state health officer devoted only part of his time to his office.

The county medical associations, affiliated with the state medical society, are the boards of health for their respective

counties, and for all incorporated towns and cities therein, and are under the supervision of the state society. These county societies choose five of their number to act as a committee on health, which enforces the health laws in the county, and no other local board of health, or executive medical body of any name, may be established in any county, town, or city. The county health officers are paid according to the populations of their counties, but they are greatly handicapped by the absence of any proper method of appropriations. In a recent pamphlet the state health officer discussed with his county brethren methods for getting money to suppress infectious diseases. He said:



JEFFERSON COUNTY ALMSHOUSE AND POOR FARM.

- I. For tuberculous Negro inmates.
- II. For tuberculous white inmates.
- III. The main group of buildings—rambling, unsanitary fire-traps, despite their gracious avenue of trees.

If no money is to be expended in carrying out your recommendations they will generally receive the approval of the judge of probate and commissioners, or mayor and city council, as the case may be; but if, on the other hand, money is to be expended, then you may encounter more or less difficulty. Here is where the personal equation of the health officer becomes a power. One who has manifested deep interest in his work and has acquired a wholesome influence over the authorities with whom he must co-operate will usually be able to get their approval of his measures, and therefore their consent to the expenditure of money; one who has little or no acquaintance with the authorities upon whom he must depend for the means of carrying out his measures, and who has not deeply impressed them with his interest in public health matters and his capacity to deal with outbreaks of infectious disease, may experience great difficulty in getting, or entirely fail to get, the privilege of expending money.

The emergencies of an infectious disease outbreak require prompt action. They are too vital to be dependent upon genial personal relationships of the moment between the health officer and the officials at the purse strings.

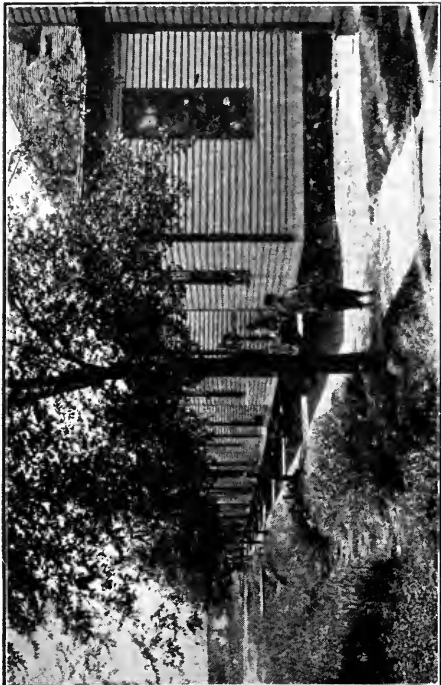
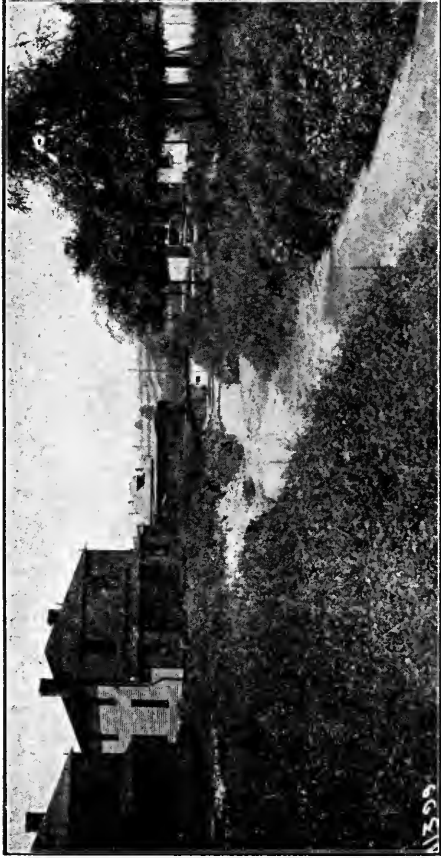
Our whole public health organization is tangled and obscure. It needs overhauling. The working out of health problems on a county-wide or state-wide basis has advantages, but thus far the machinery developed has been so meager that the disadvantages hold sway. The idea of having the doctors of the state and counties select the state health officers, high as their professional standing and sense of responsibility may be, has the fault that only one class of the citizenship has a voice in such administration, and this class the one whose shortcomings account for our worthless vital statistics in many cities. It is because of the failure of Alabama physicians to report diseases that the state is not in the registration area of the United States Census Bureau. Another weak feature is the resulting absence of any engineering element in the state health forces in a period when water works and sewerage systems are being installed and improved by towns and cities.

ENFORCEMENT IN BIRMINGHAM

In line with this general system, the Jefferson County Medical Society appoints Birmingham's municipal health officer, but the city pays him. Associated with him are a meat and milk inspector,

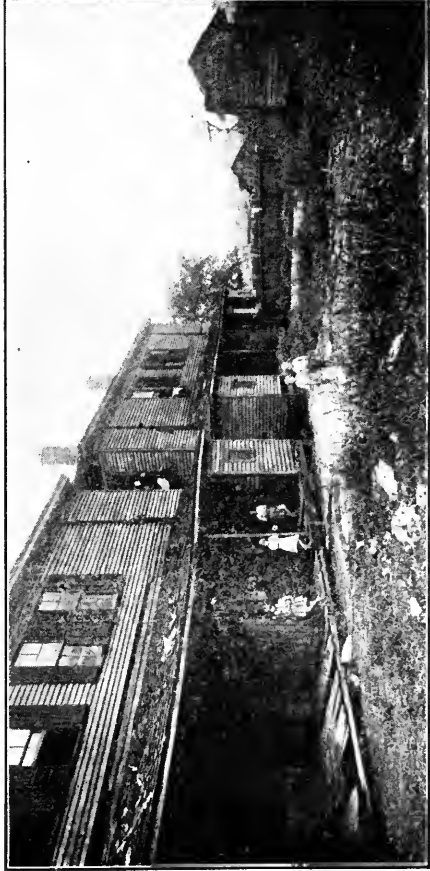
city physician, sanitary inspector, and fourteen assistants to whom districts are assigned—a force entirely insufficient to cope with existing conditions. During an epidemic of measles which attacked the city, in which 1,860 cases were recorded, the placarding of houses was finally abandoned, owing to this lack of inspectors. Other essential ordinances are currently unenforced. The things that a man would take in exchange for his life or for his health are too infinitely few for him complacently to jeopardize them both. It is the business of every citizen who can think in terms of Birmingham's future to rouse himself to the seriousness of this breakdown in public health enforcement in a city nearing the 150,000 mark. The failure to appreciate its importance was illustrated when, last January, in line with their general policy of retrenchment, the new commissioners cut the inspectorships down from nineteen to nine, later, when protest was made, restoring seven of the men. It is with this staff that the new health officer, Dr. Robt. Nelson, who is regarded as a scientific man, has had to undertake his responsible work.

There have been enough ordinances to make Birmingham a paragon among cities, if 50 per cent of them had been enforced. There was passed in 1906 an ordinance whereby one closet and one cess-pool are limited to the use of the people in three residences. It is a common thing to find not only three families, particularly in the Negro quarters, but often three times three, using one closet. The dry closet proposition, however, is being eliminated with all possible rapidity. There were within the city limits, about a year ago, nearly thirteen thousand closets of this character; many during the past year have been connected with the sewer system, leaving probably about eight thousand legal privies still to be made sanitary. It is endeavored to have these cleaned weekly, this being under the supervision of the street cleaning department. The collections are made in covered metal wagons and a heavy stream of water is turned into the wagon, the contents being washed into a sanitary sewer. But, cramped again in finances, the health department has great diffi-



ON THE OUTSKIRTS.

The open ditches shown in both pictures run through the Avondale district, and contain water most of the time; land is low, weeds are uncut, mosquitoes thrive.



IN THE CONGESTED DISTRICT.

Back yard and rear of four-family tenements (white) on South 24th street. The sleeping room of the five children shown in the back yard.

culty in having the proper sewers installed where needed, even after they have been recommended. Mr. Knowles, in his discussion of waste, describes the inadequacy of present methods of garbage disposal, failure to oil standing water, etc.

Nor is the ordinance providing for the screening of food and fruit from flies enforced. We have practically no inspection of food. The sanitary squad has been endeavoring to inspect kitchens of all restaurants, hotels, and cafés, but has been hampered by its shorthanded force of officers. This is similarly true of the inspection of cheap lodging houses.

BOOK-KEEPING WITH DEATH

What this inequality between enactment of regulations and provisions for enforcing them means to the city's well-being one would expect to find reflected, in a measure at least, in the records of vital statistics; but the statistical story is not complete because the department is shorthanded there also. Records are kept giving some of the major facts, such as total deaths, deaths from certain causes, and births. The reports of contagious and infectious diseases are excellent, a safe estimate being that 90 per cent of all cases, except tuberculosis, are reported. The superintendent of public schools is notified of all houses quarantined, and the children living at these addresses must remain away from school until discharged from quarantine. A recent addition to these diseases is infantile paralysis, from twenty-five to thirty cases having developed in the city last August. No attempt has been made to secure the reporting or control of venereal disease; but the system of compulsory reporting in other major groups marks a distinct advance.

Diseases once reported, the mere filing of the reports in a central office does not of itself effect anything. In the first place, the reports should, if possible, include clues as to specific sources of infection. This is illustrated in Birmingham by the serviceable record certificate used for typhoid cases, showing source of various foods, milk, butter, the name of the baker, butcher, place of business,

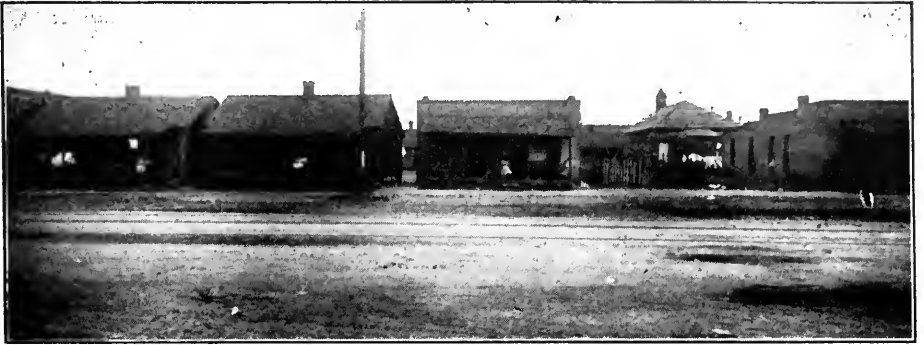
condition of house, such as plumbing, screening, etc. In the second place, the diagnosis of health problems, especially in their social aspects, which starts with the case record, calls for the skilful and painstaking handling of vital statistics, so as to afford deductions as to health conditions in various parts of the city and so as to audit progress in the elimination of disease. No such treatment of health facts has been attempted by the Birmingham health authorities on their present means and staff. To secure a general understanding of the health situation in the city in the preparation of this article, it was necessary to furnish a clerk for six weeks at our own expense to collate data showing deaths by diseases and wards for the period from 1900 to 1909. The very beginnings of constructive health work are neglected if the bookkeeping of life and death is skimmed.¹

Inspection, diagnosis of statistics, enforcement of ordinances, removal of sewage—all of these are phases of preventive work; yet collective forms of attack upon specific evils have in the last decade given a new ring to prevention work. The campaigns for improving housing conditions, and for preventing tuberculosis and infant mortality are illustrations; medical inspection of the school children, as pointed out by Mr. McKelway, is another.

While Birmingham has no tall tenements, she harbors an equally dangerous condition in the cottages of laboring people, particularly the Negroes. When these cottages are grouped in "quarters," or when they are permitted to occupy, in almost unbroken succession, alley after alley, not only down town, but in our residence districts, then indeed does the menace become great. When such cottages are maintained as servants' homes in the back yards of residences the responsibility for their condition rests on the employers.

In studying vital statistics, one is impressed over and over again with the fact that where cases of tuberculosis are reported in the white homes on a

¹Since 1910, when the new Greater Birmingham régime began, the records have been better kept.



A ROW OF NEGRO TWO-FAMILY HOUSES ON AVENUE C.



INSIDE A TYPICAL BLOCK OF NEGRO SHACKS, AVENUE C AND 22ND STREET.



NEGRO INTERIOR.

Room congestion prevails, and light and air needs are disregarded.



AT THE MILK STATION AND DAY NURSERY.

street, other cases are to be found in one or more Negro houses in the adjacent alleys. For consumption knows no color lines nor real estate boundaries.

The Negro "quarters" are particularly nests of infection, and an investigation of living conditions affords cause for wonderment that any in them escape. Block after block will contain from fifty to sixty houses; sometimes a certain degree of attention has been given to the details of light and air-space, while at other times they are huddled together in any way at all, just so that a little more rent may be obtained by the landlord. Most of these cottages are designed for two families, with two rooms for each. The rent for the two rooms

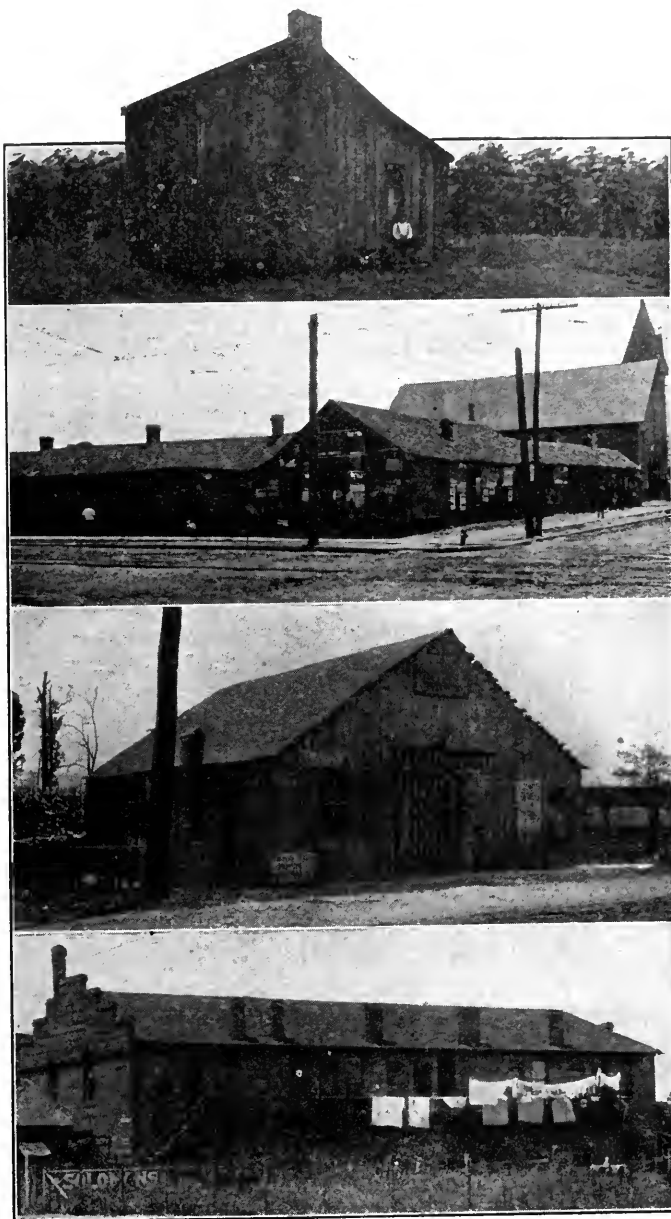
averages from \$4 to \$7 per month. A recent survey of one of these "black blocks" showed that the fifty or more houses, almost without exception, were in need of repair, while in some instances it seemed only by some magic that the walls supported the so-called roofs. The toilet and water facilities in some instances were horrible, six, eight, and ten families using the same closet and twice that number the same hydrant—this in the face of the ordinance that not more than three families shall use the same closet. Nor are these conditions confined alone to the Negro quarters. Conditions equally deplorable exist in the homes of many of the white laborers throughout the city. In proportion to the size of



ALLEY HOUSING AMONG MORE THIRTY NEGROES.
Privy in middle of alley used by twelve families.

the city, house overcrowding and lot congestion in these blocks is as frequently met with as in our larger eastern cities. Records of the Associated Charities last year showed the greatest number of individuals found living in any one room to be ten, and this is a two-room apartment. A study of 404 families, housed in from one-room to eight-room apartments, showed the average number of persons per room to be three.

It is impossible to emphasize too strongly the danger to both whites and blacks crouched in these ill-ventilated, dark, overcrowded living conditions—these places where live our washerwomen, cooks, house-maids, and last, but not least, the nurses for our children. How often is the home of the prospective employe visited or preliminary medical examination insisted upon? Just so long as people blind themselves to these conditions will disease spread and thrive throughout the city. The home of one Negro laundress shows what is really something better than the average condition, bad enough as it is. This woman and her sister board and lodge six Negro men and take in wash-



HOUSING SINS AND ANACHRONISMS.

- I. Plantation type of cabin standing in alley between 15th and 16th streets—ventilation-tight.
- II. Gone beyond the possibility of repair—group of Negro shanties, corner Avenue C and 23rd street.
- III. Barn occupied by Negro family of five.
- IV. Abandoned factory buildings, rear of which houses two families.



UNSANITARY STREET CONDITIONS, BIRMINGHAM.
Vacant lots and streets flanking these churches are used as dumping ground.

ing besides. The washing and drying of clothes must be done, rain or shine; and when it rains the sleeping and eating rooms are used for the purpose.

In a rapidly growing city which, like Birmingham, has no tenement regulations, the housing conditions briefly sketched are but a fore-taste of worse that are almost sure to come. Now is the strategic time. The right kind of regulation now will be preventive, economical, and comparatively simple.

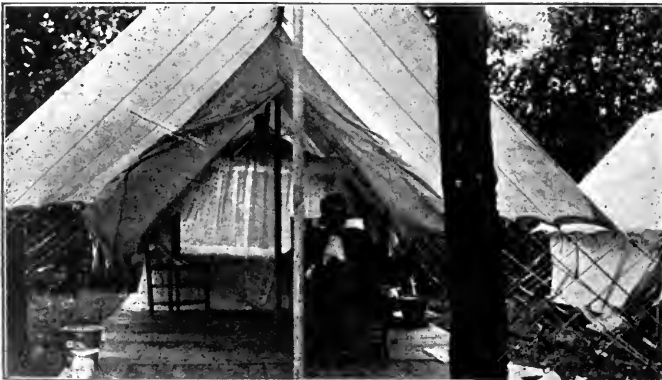
Closely tied up with the housing question is the fight against tuberculosis. In this, Birmingham has made a very creditable beginning. And it becomes her well; for the tuberculosis problem has extra difficulties in the South. Tuberculosis has made tremendous inroads upon the Negro population in recent years. The figures we compiled for the last ten years in Birmingham show that although our white population exceeds our Negroes by one-half, yet the total number of deaths from tuberculosis

among the Negroes was two and one-half times as great as among the white. Moreover, a large element in the cure of the white plague is the health education of the patient, and this is slow among the Negroes.

In early 1910, the anti-tuberculosis campaign in Birmingham took positive form as a result of the efforts of Dr. R. B. Harkness, then health officer, and a committee of the county medical society. Since then, through the cooperation of the Birmingham Chapter of the American Red Cross Society, the Lady Managers of the Hillman Hospital, the Graduate Nurses' Association, woman's auxiliary to the anti-tuberculosis association, county board of revenue, city council, city commissioners, corporations, many physicians and other individuals, the project has made steady progress, and the camp on Red Mountain, with tents and permanent buildings, has been in operation for over a year. Seventy-eight patients were in residence for different periods during

the first year. Results obtained in the little camp have far exceeded the expectations of even its most sanguine supporters; and the number of applications for admission is constantly increasing.

The success of the campaign thus far but argues the importance of attacking the disease a few stages farther back



TUBERCULOSIS CAMP, RED MOUNTAIN.



UNSANITARY STREET CONDITIONS, BIRMINGHAM.
No drainage, and after every rain the pools become stagnant.

—by combatting the causes of the plague. This means many things, among them a vigorous spreading of health education. The work of the city health authorities in a number of cities, through bulletins, placards, cartoons, and photographs, is most suggestive. It means also a more rigorous scrutiny of the milk supply, establishing open-air schools, city ordinances with provision for their enforcement, and so on.¹

As illustrated in this tuberculosis movement, the possibilities of preventive work are wide and we in

¹An ordinance passed and published December 9, 1911, gives the Board of Health plenary powers in all cases of tuberculosis, such as placarding the house, removing or isolating the patient where proper precautions cannot or will not be observed, fumigating premises, etc.

Birmingham have only begun. Mr. McKelway describes the effort being made in the milk station and dispensary toward reducing infant mortality; a lively vaccinating campaign a year ago has shown undoubted results in decreasing small-pox; and last summer a start was made by the city commissioners toward clearing the air of dust by oiling unpaved streets. In this kind of effort the old adage, "Well begun is half done," no longer holds; "well begun," in this, is an obligation to keep on.

In an article so general as this, where it is necessary to refer to the many different phases of the local health situation, it is possible to touch only briefly, and in a cursory manner, on any one



IN THE ONE-ROOM APARTMENT BUILDING, AVE. B AND 20TH STREET.
Where cooking, sleeping, washing, and drying of clothes for a family of three is done. All the halls are dark and musty.



THE NEGRO NURSE.

A connecting link which makes the health problem of the two races one.

aspect. Each topic that has come under scrutiny is deserving of broader treatment than is here feasible. The object of this survey has been not so much a search for conditions to criticise as to hold up to the public view a situation requiring remedial attention, either upon the part of private individuals or municipal authorities. In justice to the men and women who founded Birmingham's hospitals, and were pioneers for health in their day, we need to take an inventory of our institutional equipment, and plan systematically for the city as a whole and for the future. Even greater is the necessity to overhaul our governmental agencies upon which we rely to protect the community against disease, so that means and staff and power to enforce shall be at the disposal of the health authority which we hold responsible for knowledge of the facts, for sanitary regulation, for the downing of

contagion, and for supervising the sources of food and water. Finally, on private citizens as well as on officials rests the responsibility in our generation for supporting and vigorously prosecuting these campaigns against preventable sickness and incapacity, which the advances of science in the last decades make it possible for a modern city to master, where the old cities were helpless.

Among the next steps in these different fields which this study seems to call for are the following:

The compilation, interpretation, and publication of vital statistics by the health department and the cooperation of physicians which will make this possible. The list of reportable diseases should be enlarged to include every disease known to be preventable.

There is a crying need for crematories to consume the garbage that is clogged from day to day throughout the city. (This matter has received recent attention from the city commissioners and crematories will be installed shortly.)

The abolishing and filling up of open ditches throughout the city and the installing of sewers as rapidly as the financial condition of the city warrants the expenditure.

The inspection of lodging houses with reference to proper ventilation and lighting of rooms and hallways.

More sanitary inspectors to enable them to enforce properly the existing ordinances which would include:

A hospital plan; the enlargement of the capacity of the general wards; a home for convalescents, where discharged patients may be sent so as to enable them to return to their families and to the community in a fit condition; a pavilion for the care of those suffering from contagious disease other than small-pox; (one now so afflicted, if without home or means, has literally "no place to lay his head"); and a home for the incurable.

Birmingham is building. Its future looms large. Let us plan, then, not only for our streets and parks, but also for the physical needs of the coming generation—now, when a dollar wisely spent will have infinitely greater effect than ten times as much a decade hence.



THE LAUNDRY BASKET.
Another health-ble between whites and blacks.

CONSERVATION OF CHILDHOOD

A. J. McKELWAY

SOUTHERN SECRETARY NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

To have seen Birmingham first in 1895 and not again until ten years later is to have been indelibly impressed with its marvellous expansion and development. A more intimate acquaintance with the city during the succeeding six years has shown not only an accelerated rate of material progress but the awakening of the civic and social conscience. These two great facts of growth should be kept in mind, for what has been done is but an earnest of what will be done in the near future.

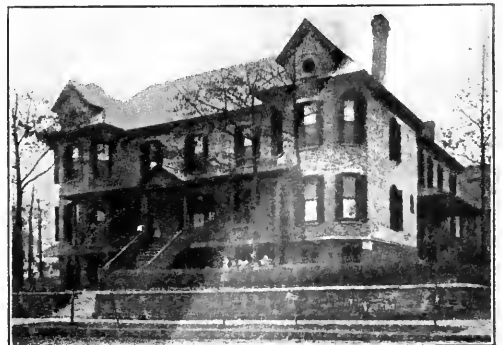
If some latitude may be allowed in definitions, what Birmingham is doing for her children may conveniently be described under two heads: the work for normal children and that for children not normal—not normal, in that, for some reason or other, they are not able to profit by advantages and services provided for the majority of children. Children who are normal or under-normal, according to this definition, are so because of parental, moral, physical, or economic factors.

There is human appeal in the lot of orphaned children, and these are usually the first to receive social attention. The Mercy Home, which has just celebrated its twentieth anniversary, is the oldest institution in the city for dependent children. It has a reputation above the average for efficiency and good management, is undenominational, and is governed by a board of women of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. Committees of the board reduce much of the cost of administration by doing work not usually done by executive officers. The normal capacity is sixty children, but frequently from seventy to ninety are cared for, and the pressure for such care is unceasing. A wing, which will accommodate boys up to ten years of age, is being added to the building, and it is hoped that the infirmary rooms can be kept for their original purpose—the isolation of contagious diseases. There

have been epidemics of measles, whooping-cough, and other children's diseases, which would have been largely prevented by such isolation. The home receives \$250 a month from the city and county, and depends upon private benevolence for gifts of money for further income, food, and clothing, the church societies and sewing circles contributing generously. On two separate visits to the home I was struck with the cheerfulness and well-nourished appearance of the children.¹ The placing out system has been adopted to a limited extent, but, on account of the lack of funds, little or no opportunity is afforded for investigation and visitation of the homes into which children are adopted, and the records kept of children at the home are imperfect, the child's name, the address of the parents, and the future disposition of the child being the only items.

Under the same management has been built the Mercy Home Industrial School for girls at Woodlawn, formerly a separate village, but now a part of the city. This modern institution uses the cottage plan, being modeled after Mrs. Falconer's school at Darlington, Penn. It re-

¹Physicians attending the home give their services free, but complain that responsibility is too much divided by the hap-hazard way in which first one and then another specialist is sent for. There is no systematic inspection of the children.



MERCY HOME, BIRMINGHAM.
Oldest institution in the city for the care of dependent children.



A PICNIC DAY AT BIRMINGHAM BOYS' CLUB CAMP.
Three hundred boys were given a two-weeks' outing last summer, 1911.

ceives an annual appropriation of \$4,000 from the state.

In a review of institutions for dependents special mention should be made of the East Lake Orphanage, a Catholic institution, now within the bounds of the city. In six years it has received 660 orphans, 450 of them being non-Catholics. At present there are 102 orphans in the institution. Jefferson county gives the institution \$180 a month, and the city of Birmingham \$50 a month. The children are kept until they are about twelve years old, and instruction is given them through the fifth grade. If no home has been provided when the age of twelve is reached, the children are sent to other Catholic institutions: the boys to the Brothers of the Sacred Heart at Mobile, Ala., and the girls to the Sisters' Industrial School at New Orleans, La. The building stands on a beautiful hill, with a large grove surrounding it, and has ample play facilities.

Other churches, particularly the Presbyterian, Methodist, Baptist, and Episcopal, also have orphanages in Alabama, and children may be sent to them from Birmingham. In addition there is a Colored Old Folks' and Orphans' home in Birmingham, under the auspices of the Colored Baptist Church; and the Bethlehem Home, to which children are frequently sent when they are unable to obtain admittance to the Mercy Home. Nevertheless, the demand is keenly urgent for a State Children's Home Society for the placing out of orphans under proper safeguards and the selection of homes and their visitation afterwards.

Although not primarily a children's institution, the newly founded Associated Charities has been effective in providing and supplementing institutional care of dependent children. In addition to the organization of the Committee for the Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, the first annual report of the Associated Charities shows that 768 separate cases received during the year involved the care of 253 children over fourteen years of age and 661 children under fourteen years of age. The cases received numbered 693 white and 75 black.

On the other hand, work for delinquents, the morally abnormal, has also had some early beginnings for a new city. The Alabama Industrial School at East Lake was founded ten years ago by Mrs. R. D. Johnston, who is still president of the board of control, the directors all being women, with the exception of the governor of the state, who is an *ex-officio* member. At the time of my visit there were 230 boys present, 60 per cent of them being dependent and the others delinquent. The school was not in session and profuse apologies were made for the more or less untidy appearance of the buildings, on the ground that it was the period of relaxation and that most of the women in charge were absent. Of the three buildings, the Alabama Buildings is used mainly for school purposes, with one large dormitory on the top floor and the dining-room on the ground floor; in the Birmingham Building and the Johnston Building are located a printing shop, a barber shop, a

shoe shop, a carpenter shop, a sewing room, and a laundry, where boys are put to work and may learn trades. Recently the legislature appropriated \$150 a year for each boy received, and \$30,000 for the building of cottages. Playgrounds are also planned for the smaller boys. The discipline is military; the boys wear uniforms and go into camp for one week each year.

With the tardy increase of funds criticism should fall upon the state rather than entirely upon those in charge. But there seems to be a lack of thoroughness in training. The tenth annual report, printed by the boys, shows careless proof-reading and a poor quality of type-setting and printing. There is a lack of finish in the work done in the other departments of manual training. In spite of the attempt to screen the doors and windows, the institution in mid-summer was afflicted with a plague of flies, the dining-room itself being full of them, nor does there seem to be a very high standard of cleanliness for the buildings. One explanation for the presence of flies is the proximity of a dairy. From the report of a physician in charge, the year 1910 was a record year for good health.

The report of the physician calls for a trained nurse, especially to care for minor accidents, and for help in abolishing the "typhoid fly." One finds himself divided in opinion between the great amount of good that has undoubtedly been accomplished by this institution and the greater amount that could be done through larger appropriations, more com-

plete equipment, more thorough training, and a separation of dependents and delinquents. As in many other such institutions, imperfect records are kept concerning the boys who have felt, so that only general statements can be made concerning them.

Another institution in this group is the Home for Friendless Girls at East Lake. It is really a house of refuge for fallen women. At the time of my visit, there were about a dozen occupants, and the great problem before the matron was how to separate those who had long been given to a life of shame from those who had been betrayed under promise of marriage. Unfortunately the building is situated on the street-car line, with almost no opportunity for exercise or privacy for the inmates. This institution is supported by public funds.

A kindred institution is the Salvation Army Rescue Home, which was established six years ago. It houses an average of twenty-five girls, with from twelve to twenty babies. Very few of these girls come from the class known as fallen women, though, under Salvation Army auspices, it is impossible to refuse any who come professing repentance and desiring to reform. The city grants \$900 a year and the county \$400—far too little, despite the fact that a few of the girls pay their own expenses. I have rarely seen a more pathetic sight than the crowding together of these girls in four bedrooms, six beds to a room, with beds in the hall, in the



THE OLD SWIMMING HOLE A-SPLASH.

Swimming pool at the camp of the Birmingham Boys' Club and Children's Aid Society.
January 6, 1912.

nursery, even the lounge in the work-room being utilized, and with four beds in the hospital room. The girls go out from this home as servants or wet-nurses. There are few adoptions of the children, and no follow-up system; and many of the babies that are adopted die. The parents of the unfortunate girls generally insist on their giving up the babies; it is difficult to find employment for a girl with a baby, except in the humblest homes. Sometimes babies whose mothers have died are left in charge of the institution. The average age of the girls is from seventeen to eighteen, the youngest being fourteen. There were several of fourteen years of age during the present year. Two doctors are in attendance at this institution, one of them a woman. One in five of the inmates is found to be diseased, though most of these are from houses of prostitution. It is impossible to separate the diseased from the others. There have been four or five cases of typhoid fever this year, and any number of malarial cases. With these two institutions for the care of these unfortunates in Birmingham, there ought to be some method for sending the girls of one class to one institution, and the girls of the other class to the other. This rescue home can easily use twelve rooms for the present demand, and a large building is needed. The location also is bad.

There are but two institutions for colored delinquents, one the Mt. Meigs Reformatory, to which twenty Negro boys have been sent from Birmingham, by the Boys' Club and Children's Aid Society, and the other Daily's Farm Reformatory at Tuscaloosa, a description of which appears in Mr. Harrison's article in this issue.

These institutions deal with children who have already entered the borders, at least, of delinquency. One institution in the city, while caring for such children, goes farther back into causes by acting as an agency for prevention. Like most other charitable and philanthropic organizations of Birmingham, it is largely the product of the good women of the city. Eight years ago they opened rooms and engaged a superintendent, as the beginning of a boys' club. The superin-

endent's work developed into the first probation work for boys in the city. The first juvenile court law for Alabama was passed in 1907, largely through the influence and personal advocacy of Judge N. B. Feagin of the police court, who is also entitled to the honor of having been one of the first judges in the country to make the distinctions in favor of the children which are now well established principles of the juvenile court.

The work of this club among the newsboys has been remarkable. Maurice Willows was superintendent for four years, and he gave the club a distinct place in the work of social welfare, its motto being, "One boys' club is worth a hundred police clubs." The records of the police court having jurisdiction over the juvenile offenders show encouraging results. In 1906, 143 white boys were arrested and brought into court for various misdemeanors; in 1907, 112; in 1908, thirty-eight; in 1909, twenty-seven; and in 1910, the jurisdiction of the court being enlarged by the formation of the greater city, the number was twenty-six. In 1906, 75 per cent of those arrested were newsboys. In some other cities the newsboys furnish 22 per cent of the employed delinquents; but in Birmingham, in 1910, largely through the influence of the Boys' Club, not a single newsboy was arrested. The Alabama legislature of 1911, through the effective advocacy of Mr. Willows, passed a model juvenile court law for Jefferson county and Birmingham. The club became a general clearing house for neglected and dependent children, and in 1908 its name was changed, corresponding with its new functions, to the Boys' Club and Children's Aid Society.

The society has accomplished three distinct things. It has reduced to a minimum the problems of delinquency among the newsboys and others engaged in street trades; it has developed a system of case work; and it has developed public sentiment towards the general cause of child welfare throughout the city. Three distinct lines of social activity have thus been built up in one office under one administrative



THE GOOD OLD-FASHIONED WAY.
But a bit mussy about the ears. Boys' Club Camp.

board of women. The natural development should lead toward three distinct organizations: (a) the juvenile court and probation system; (b) the Children's Aid Society, which should conduct the child-placing work for the city and county, serving also as the right arm of the Associated Charities, Mercy Home, and other kindred organizations; and (c) the Boy's Club proper, which should continue to develop small groups of boys in the various sections of the city, procuring leaders for these groups, act as a Big Brother to the newsboys and messenger boys, through street visitation, home visitation, and by leading out of "blind-alley occupations" into more useful trades—these together with the conduct of its summer camp for boys, which is already highly successful and deservedly popular. Unless some such division of organizations is achieved there is danger that the combination will fall apart of its own weight.

Under the new act creating a juvenile court of Jefferson county, S. D. Mur-

phy, a talented young lawyer of the city, was appointed juvenile court judge by the governor. Upon the resignation of Mr. Willows, Ralph S. Barrow, his assistant, was appointed probation officer, and acting superintendent of the Boys' Club. The officers of the Boys' Club and the juvenile court occupy the same rooms, but plans are being laid to move soon into larger quarters. There is need of branch organizations of juvenile court auxiliaries throughout the county; some preliminary work of this kind has been begun in Ensley and Bessemer, but paid probation officers are needed in each place. Moreover, there is need for an employment bureau for boys and girls; but the greatest need is for recreation centers, playgrounds, and parks. Their deficiency affects childhood as much or more than it does the labor problem or city beautification. The chief amusement place for young people now is at East Lake, which belongs to the street car company, its amusement being strictly commercialized. On the Fourth of July last one



MRS. W. L. MURDOCK.

A heavy contributor of time, service, and vision to many constructive social efforts in the city.

of the boys swimming in the lake at the park was drowned, and there seemed to be little or no supervision of bathing and swimming. The park commission mentioned in Mr. Taylor's article, however, has plans for meeting some of these recreation needs.

Turning now to the care of physically abnormal children; this story also has two sides—the institutions which care for children already afflicted, and such agencies as look toward prevention. The story of the former is quickly told. It is more a narrative of need than of provision already made. There is no institution for afflicted children in Birmingham proper, and no institution that I could learn of for feeble-minded children in the state. There was universal testimony to the efficient and skillful management of the three state institutions at Talledega, Ala.: namely, the Alabama School for the Deaf, the Alabama School for the Blind, and the Alabama School for Negroes, deaf and blind. Southern institutions for the blind are noted for their excellence, and Alabama is no exception. The Episcopal Church in Birmingham has plans for a

Children's Hospital, though a counter-suggestion has been made that the addition of children's wards to one more of the hospitals now in existence in the city would be a more feasible undertaking; and the matter stands there.

The other side of the story relates to one of the most vital problems of the community: the prevention of fatal physical affliction among young children; in other words, the prevention of the larger part of infant mortality, which is now regarded as unnecessary. Birmingham has the advantage over some southern cities in having kept since 1900 some records of births and deaths, although they are very inadequate, as was shown recently when fifty doctors were haled into court and fined \$1 each for neglecting to report births of babies under their charge. The figures err in understatement rather than overstatement; some conclusions therefore may be drawn from them. A special study of the city records, made by Mr. McGrath,



Photo by Hine.
DOFFER "BABY" AT HIS MACHINE.
Avondale cotton mill, Birmingham.

covers the original nine wards of the city, for the years 1900 to 1909. In 1900, with a population of 38,000 in those wards, the deaths of infants under one year of age were: white 55, black 63, total 118. The Negro population of the city is estimated to be slightly above one-half of the white population, so that the difference in the death rate for the two races is greater than the unexplained figures show. In 1909, with an approximate population of 60,000 in these nine wards, the figures were: white 87, black 91, total 178. During the nine years the deaths of infants under one year amount to 1634. Among the known causes of death "acute intestinal disorders" leads, with the following number of victims to its credit: white 195, black 171, total 366. In addition to the evident greater susceptibility of Negroes than whites, under present conditions, to pulmonary tuberculosis, the figures give reason for pondering the causes of "acute intestinal disorders." In this connection the water and milk supplies are first thought of;



RICHARD W. MASSEY.
President Chamber of Commerce; president Massey
Business College, Birmingham

and since Birmingham is fortunate beyond the average, at least in the quality of its water, it was felt that something should be done to insure purer milk for babies. The Associated Charities, taking a first step in broadening its activities, was instrumental in forming the local Committee for the Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality. A seven-room cottage has been rented and equipped as a milk station and day nursery, with a trained nurse in charge and skilled physicians in attendance, and, on an average, twelve babies a day are now cared for, while pure milk is supplied to those in need. Mothers working in cracker and biscuit factories and in the stores nearby leave their children at this day nursery; formally they were left in charge of Negro nurses or the other children of the family. While it is recognized that the day nursery is merely a palliation of an economic condition which allows mothers of young children to work in factories, yet it is evident that it is better than former methods of meeting the situation.

It is already evident that there is great need of a correlation of the forces working for the social improvement of the



Photo by Hine.
COTTON MILL WORKERS, BIRMINGHAM.

city, and the splendid organization of the Associated Charities gives a promise in the near future of furnishing the desired clearing-house of information and direction.

But there is yet another unnatural condition of childhood. Suddenly to cut childhood short of its divine right of freedom to play and inquisitive experimenting of all kinds that are integral parts of an educational scheme, and to start children prematurely in the round of bread-winning, is to make that childhood and those children economically abnormal.

Birmingham is built around the steel industry; that industry, however, employs no children. The coal mines of Alabama, auxiliary to steel and iron making, are comparatively free from child labor. The census for 1900 gives for Alabama a total of 894 boys from ten to fifteen years of age employed in the mines, in comparison with 14,515 for Pennsylvania. An investigation made in November and December, 1910, by

Lewis W. Hine, discovered a few young boys working on the tipple at the Bessie Mine, and that part of their work was decidedly dangerous. All said they were over fourteen, but Mr. Hine's photographs would indicate that some of the boys were less. At eleven other mines there were no indications that young boys were employed. In the recent mine explosion near Palos, among other victims, six boys fourteen to fifteen years of age were killed. It has been frequently shown in the history of mine disasters that the employment of immature boys is not only a physical injury to themselves, but is a menace to the whole force of miners, through the carelessness and recklessness which is natural to boyhood.

The legislature of Alabama has recently enacted a mining law which provides that no woman of any age nor any boy under fourteen shall be employed to work in or about any coal mine in this state. This provision raised the age for boys from twelve to fourteen. Upon



"THEY ALL SMOKES."

Type of boys in the night messenger service, Birmingham.

Photo by Hine.

January 6, 1912.



Photo by Hms.

BREAD WINNERS!

All work in the Avondale mill, Birmingham.

expressing my regret that this new act did not make an age-limit of sixteen for boys, I found the president of one of the great operating companies in favor of making this amendment to the law at the first opportunity.

In factories and manufacturing establishments the child labor law of Alabama fixes an age-limit of twelve years, a sixty-hour week for children under fourteen, a sixteen year age-limit for night work, and an eight-hour night for children under eighteen. It also provides that no child between twelve and sixteen shall be employed unless such child shall attend school for eight weeks in every year of employment, six weeks of which are to be consecutive. Inspection of factories and enforcement of the child labor law is put under the "inspector of jails and almshouses," the original factory inspection act having been amended so as to include jails and almshouses. The effort to amend this law by raising the age to fourteen and making it apply to other industries was de-

feated mainly through the opposition of the cotton mill lobby before the Alabama legislature of 1911, the bill not being reached on the calendar. Some degree of child employment exists at the soda water stands and in the department stores in Birmingham, though this is not noteworthy, especially in the absence of restrictive legislation in this regard. There is no limit to the age at which newsboys are employed, though the influence of the Boys' Club and Children's Aid Society has been most helpful in diminishing the evils characteristic of this form of child labor.

An investigation of the night messenger service in Birmingham was made in July, 1910, by Edward F. Brown, agent of the National Child Labor Committee. He had personal interviews with a boy of fifteen of the special messenger service, a boy of twelve and one of fourteen employed by the Western Union Telegraph Company, and a boy of fifteen and one of twelve employed by the Postal Telegraph Company. These boys,



OPEN AIR SCHOOL FOR WHITES.

Recently opened in the new industrial city of Corey.

whose names and ages are certified to, showed an entire familiarity with the ways of the under-world. They boasted of their own experience in vice; were able to write out from memory the names of notorious women of the city and the addresses of the houses which they kept; and were the purveyors of whiskey, Birmingham being at that time "dry." They were freely sent on errands to the houses of prostitution and with messages and on errands from the inmates of these houses. They went inside the houses without let or hindrance. All were gamblers on a small scale, by crap playing and matching pennies, and were familiar with forms of sexual vice mentioned in the annals of paganism. In brief, the facts of the night messenger service in Birmingham were similar to those found in other cities from Hartford, Conn., to New Orleans, apparently neither better nor worse. The openness with which the companies acknowledge the indiscriminate tasks for which messengers may be called is shown by a sign on one of Birmingham's principal streets which reads:

AMERICAN DISTRICT
Messengers Furnished
For All Purposes
TELEGRAPH CO.

There is great need of legislation, either state or municipal, prohibiting, as in New York, New Jersey, Wisconsin, and other states, the employment of boys under twenty-one years of age in this vicious service, and limiting the age of day messengers to fourteen years at least.

The cotton mill at Avondale has long had a reputation for the employment of children, though conditions have improved since I became personally acquainted with them some five years ago. Mr. Hine's investigation of the mill, made in November, 1910, found conditions unwholesome, but no worse than at Huntsville, or Pell City. The children would hesitate when asked their age, but uniformly answered, "twelve years old," even "our baby doffer" as he was affectionately called. In the spinning rooms Mr. Hine saw many of the youngsters whose photographs he had already taken actually at work. A couple of very young girls were helping in the weave room, and a few photographs of the children at their machines were taken.

On investigating the mill school, which the Board of Education has since contemplated closing in its process of consolidation, seventy-five children were found one day in the room which holds grades one to three. Their



HIGH SCHOOL FOR WHITES, BIRMINGHAM.

ages ranged from six to nineteen. On another day there were only thirty in attendance. Among them were two girls, one fourteen and one fifteen, who had been to school but two weeks in their lives. Their father was then trying to put them back into the mill, where they had been at work much of the time during the year.

The moral influences in this mill village were found to be deplorable, as is frequently the case where cotton mills are within the city limits. There is a row of houses of uncertain reputation, called "Hell's Half Acre," at one end of the mill settlement. A social worker is quoted to the effect that broken-down mill girls frequently end in these houses, and that there were on record in court three cases within a year of girls under fourteen ruined in Hell's Half Acre. No amount of claims generally made by cotton mill managers as to the betterment work they do, the erection of schools and churches, the employment of teachers and preachers, can atone for the abuse of childhood; and the cotton mill employer is not only blind to his real interest, but insensible to a gathering avalanche of public opinion, in the South as elsewhere, which will certainly sweep away the evil of child labor and is likely to carry with it the reputations of child employers and perhaps other wreckage in its path.

The converse of a childhood which is made strange and crooked by adverse circumstance is, of course, a childhood



Photo by Hine.

SCHOOL BESIDE MILL GATE.

Used by white children in the Avondale mill village.

endowed with health, watched over by parents who can support their children, who can teach them in a thousand personal ways and shut off in advance the by-paths that lead to moral deficits. It is a childhood which is given preventive treatment of a sort that will head off industrial infant mortality by equipment for a life of efficient work; and this comes largely through the public schools.

It would be a genuine pleasure to say all that I could in commendation of the public school system of Birmingham; but space exigencies limit me to a quick summary. Superintendent J. H. Phillips has directed the system for a number of years and his work has become

favorably known far beyond the confines of the state. The school buildings and their equipment are all that could be expected of a city of Birmingham's present size and rapid growth. The sight of the Central High School children assembled in the splendid auditorium is an inspiration. Of the eighty-five graduates last summer—twenty-five boys and sixty girls—sixteen of the boys and thirty-two



THOMAS SCHOOL, BIRMINGHAM.

Largest and best equipped school for Negroes in the city.

girls expected to go to college or to the normal schools.

School consolidation is going on at a rapid rate, and the scattered settlements, each with a small ill-equipped school, are being welded into larger units.

The Negro schools, with one exception, form a contrast to the more elegant and substantial schools for whites, but they are generally the best looking buildings in the Negro sections of the city; and one of them, the new Thomas School, is a fine brick building, admirably equipped. It has been in use for a year or more and the Negroes, teachers and children, take much pride in keeping it free from the marks of use.

The admitted discrimination against the Negro race here and elsewhere in the use of the school funds is not in the length of the school term, but in the character of buildings, their equipment, and the pay of teachers. With regard to teachers, it is argued that good Negro teachers are difficult to secure at any price; that they can be employed at a smaller salary, on account of a lower standard of living; and that it is the business of school boards to be as economical as possible in the use of the school funds. With regard to the school buildings it is argued that the Negro school buildings compare as favorably with average Negro homes as the white school buildings do with white people's homes; and, further, that the Negroes would not appreciate and would not take care of a better kind of building and equipment than they have. Whether this latter argument ever had any basis in fact or not, the experience with the Thomas school building is an effective answer to it, under present conditions.

The need of compulsory attendance laws for the city of Birmingham is shown by a comparison between the school census taken in 1910 and the statistics of school registration and of average daily attendance.¹ In glancing

¹The children of school age, namely, those between seven and twenty-one, were found to be: white, 19,810, Negro, 19,726, total 39,536; but pupils registered at school during the year were: white 13,870, Negro 6,390, total 20,260; while the average daily attendance was: white 10,080, Negro 3,982, total 14,062. Thus 70 per cent of the white children were registered at school, and 32 per cent of the Negro children; together they made 51 per cent of the total population of school age.

over the attendance statistics for particular schools it is noteworthy that the Comer school at the Avondale cotton mill, with an enrollment of 249, had an average attendance of 97, or 39 per cent of those enrolled, being a smaller percentage than that of any white school in the city, or than that of any Negro school save one, that one having a percentage of 38. This single fact sheds a flood of light upon how the demand for the labor of children interferes with their education.

In the building of the new schools, sites have been provided with ample playgrounds. The School Improvement Association is an admirable and effective organization.

The first public kindergarten was established only two years ago. Now several kindergarten rooms have been provided in the old buildings, as well as in the new ones which have since been erected. An elementary vocational school was established, two teachers having been assigned for that purpose; but on account of retrenchment in city finances, this department has been temporarily given up. School buildings are used for lectures, entertainments, summer kindergarten and some phases of settlement work, vacation schools, night schools, and for public meetings designed for the advancement and welfare of the community. I was especially struck with the manual training courses and the school gardens in the Negro schools.

Medical inspection of the schools has been started and hundreds of children have been benefited by the detection of infectious diseases, diseases of the eye, ear, and throat, parents sending the children for treatment to their own physicians.

It is to the public schools to which most of the children of Birmingham, as elsewhere, must look for their life training. The schools need larger appropriations; but the people are showing a determination to do all that is possible for the cause of education. The city should be congratulated upon what it has accomplished and perhaps merely warned that this should be but an earnest of continued progress and greater efficiency.

THE HUMAN SIDE OF LARGE OUTPUTS

STEEL AND STEEL WORKERS IN SIX AMERICAN STATES

IV BIRMINGHAM DISTRICT: LABOR CONSERVATION

JOHN A. FITCH

MEMBER STAFF (1907-8) PITTSBURGH SURVEY

There is a little psychological game that is sometimes played in which you are given a sheet of paper with a word at the top, and you are supposed to write down in a column beneath it all the words that it suggests to you, one after the other, and then those suggested by the subsequent words. In almost any group of intelligent people, if you were to start them off with "Birmingham," it is safe to say, especially since the Stanley hearings, that a majority would write below it words and names about as follows:

Tennessee Coal and Iron Company
Steel Corporation
Panic
Gary
Roosevelt
Sherman Law
Monopoly

After these would probably follow "Morgan," "Wall Street," and then all the rest of the way down words denoting business and finance.

These names suggest things that are well known about the Birmingham district. It is not so well known that there are more than 20,000 men mining coal and ore and making iron and steel within the limits of Jefferson county, which is the county of which Birmingham is the chief city.¹ These 20,000 men with

¹There are thirty different companies mining coal in Jefferson county. These thirty companies employ an aggregate of eleven thousand men. Of the twenty-four important blast furnaces, eleven belong to the Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Company, a constituent company of the Steel Corporation. The other thirteen belong to five different independents: the Sloss-Sheffield Steel and Iron Company with four stacks, the Republic Iron and Steel Company and the Woodward Iron Company with three each, the Birmingham Coal and Iron Company with two stacks, and the Southern Iron and Steel Company with one. The Tennessee company operates at Ensley the only steel mill in the county, employing there 3,000 to 4,000 men. There is only one other important steel mill in Alabama—that of the Southern Steel Company at Gadsden.

their families make not less than 60,000 people. There is no other group in Jefferson county half so large who have such common interests and problems.

And yet the Birmingham district is new, industrially speaking. It has been important as a coal state less than thirty years. It has produced steel only since 1899. In 1880 the coal production of the entire state was only 380,000 tons—less than is now annually mined in North Dakota. In 1910 Jefferson County alone produced 8,378,996 tons, and the entire state over sixteen million tons.

The fact that the coal and iron industry in Alabama is a growing, developing one makes the question of labor supply at once one of the most important and most difficult that a southern manager has to face. The local supply is inadequate and for a number of reasons unsatisfactory. The Negroes, who in the mines and furnaces constitute more than 50 per cent of the working force, do not appear to be dependable even as unskilled laborers. Still less, then, can they be counted on to fill the positions requiring skill. As a rule they appear to be content to do just that number of days' work each week that will afford them a bare subsistence—and not one day more. Consequently, as their standard of living is low, they are very unsteady as workmen. Managers in the Birmingham district told me that most Negroes work only four or five days a week, and that at least 50 per cent more men are carried on the pay rolls than are needed at any one time, in order to insure a complete force each working day. This make-shift arrangement of course tends to perpetuate itself. Negroes are well adapted to the heavy, hot work about blast furnaces, and in the Birmingham

district the white furnace employe is very rare. They also make very good miners. There are differences of opinion as to the capability of Negroes as a race to fit themselves for skilled positions; but, whetlier capable or not, the unsteadiness at work of the Birmingham Negro of this generation acts as an effective check to the acquiring of a high degree of skill.

The supply of white labor recruited locally comes from the farms. Some of it is undoubtedly effective, but since industry is young in all the South there has not been time for the development of a body of skilled labor in Alabama suited to the needs of her industries. But it is also true that the southern whites who come to work in the mills and mines are generally of the poorer sort. Often they are men who have failed at farming or other callings.

Consequently immigration into Alabama, especially of skilled workmen, is greatly desired. Such a movement has been at times actively solicited, but with small results. European immigration to Alabama is very small, while skilled workmen from the northern states can seldom be depended on to stay after having come.

The reasons for this hesitancy on the part of labor to enter the Birmingham district are various. Climate undoubtedly is a deterrent. The winters are milder than in Pennsylvania, of course, but the summers are longer, and, while they may not be hotter than in Pittsburgh, the belief is general that they are more enervating. Temperature would not affect the coal mines, but the additional fact enters here that lower wages are paid in the Birmingham district than in the North. In this connection it should be noted, however, that owing to the milder climate the cost of living is less than in the North.

Other features of life in Alabama can scarcely fail to strike workmen coming from other states or countries as objectionable—possibly to dislodge them. Alabama has certain laws which hamper the citizenship of poor men and working men, or curtail their personal freedom. American citizens from other states not accustomed to these laws

resent them. One is a property qualification for voting. Another is the poll tax law¹.

Foreigners accustomed to the continental Sunday do not like to have their amusements interfered with by a law forbidding all sorts of games in public on Sunday. Men from Pennsylvania and Ohio don't see why they can't play cards in public on week days. But in the realm of law it is doubtful whether anything is more objectionable than the sheriff fee system, described by Mr. Harrison, which puts a premium on arrests by petty officials.

These are external conditions. What are the labor conditions in mine, furnace, or steel mill that a workman encounters on coming into the district for a job?

Ten hours constitutes the working day generally in the coal and ore mines, and there is very little Sunday work. Pump-men must remain at their posts seven days a week, and men sometimes go into the mine to do "dead work," but no mining is done on Sunday. In the blast furnaces the same schedules prevail as have been customary everywhere in America. The shifts are twelve hours in length, and the work goes on constantly seven days a week with a doubling up on Sundays, so that every other Sunday a man works twenty-four hours. In the rolling mills, just as in Chicago and Pittsburgh, the regular work day for the steel makers—the men who actually work on the metal in the processes of manufacture—is twelve hours. The shopmen—machinists, molders, boiler-makers, and blacksmiths—have a ten-hour day, and in both the blast furnace plants and the rolling mills there is a large common labor force which works ten hours.

Sunday work in the steel mill is confined to those operations generally regarded as "necessary." That is, necessary repair work is done, a part of the open-hearth crews work on Sundays, and there is the customary tending of

¹No one can vote in Alabama who cannot prove that he has paid his poll tax each year since the last revision of the constitution, which was in 1901, or as long as he has been a resident of the state, if coming at a later date. To do that he must carefully preserve all of his receipts and be ready to present them to prove his right to vote.

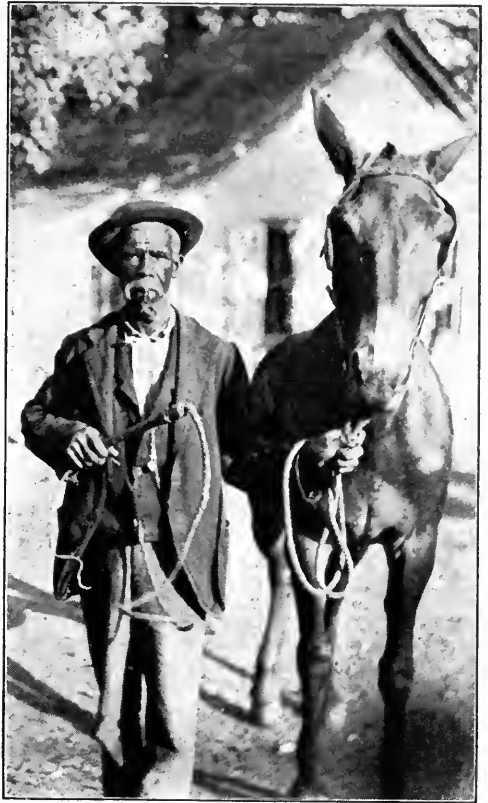
furnaces. Watchmen are on duty on Sunday. Taken all in all, however, there has been less Sunday work the past year than there was formerly. The Tennessee company has plans on foot for a readjustment that will allow a day off each week to the blast furnace employes.

I have said that wages in the Birmingham district are lower than in the North. The rate for common labor is $17\frac{1}{2}$ cents an hour in the Steel Corporation mills in Pittsburgh, it is 17 cents in Pueblo and Chicago, 16 cents in the Jones and Laughlin plant in Pittsburgh, 15 cents at Lackawanna, and at Johnstown, Harrisburg, and Bethlehem it is from 15 cents down. In Birmingham there is a double rate. The Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Company pays $13\frac{1}{2}$ cents and 15 cents. It was explained to me that the lower rate was paid to a poorer grade of labor than those who receive 15 cents, but that the distinction was not on racial lines. Nevertheless, it is a general truth that white laborers earn a little higher rate than Negroes.

It was claimed by the union organizers in the district—and I heard the complaint from the miners themselves in certain cases, too—that in many of the mines there are no check weighmen¹, and that where they are to be found they are often improperly selected. I was on several tipples of the Tennessee company, and in every case I found a check weighman, nor did I ever hear a complaint that this company does not allow check weighmen. But in camps of other companies where I talked casually with workmen, without telling them that I was making an investigation or intended to write, I heard considerable complaint about the weighing of coal.

How much truth there may be in the rumors flying about regarding short weights I cannot say. Some of the larger companies have gone far toward protecting themselves against such

¹A check weighman is a man selected by the miners to sit beside the scales where the cars of coal are weighed as they come from the mine and see that the miners get fair weights. He is paid by the men, and through him alone does the man down in the depths of the mine feel assurance that he is getting credit and will eventually receive pay for exactly the amount of work that he is doing. In practically all of the coal mining states, the miners are given the right, by law, of having a representative in the weighing office.



"UNCLE" BOB FULLER.

A survivor from the ante-bellum days when iron furnaces first began to invade the plantations for their labor supply.

charges. One important company not only permits check weighmen, it insists upon their selection. Then to make doubly sure that the weights are right, it requires a committee of the men to come out of the mine once a month and to select at random any train of cars of coal which they desire weighed in their presence, first seeing that the scale is in proper balance. They then witness the weighing of the coal in the customary manner and compare these weights with those prevailing during the month. It is only by such open and above-board methods that the danger of ill-feeling can be avoided.

The wage system is modified by a company store system. They call them commissaries in the South. When I asked a former large coal operator why the companies maintained commissaries



FOR COMFORT AND HEALTH.

Wash-room for colored miners, showing shower baths and wash troughs. Tennessee company.

even within the limits of Greater Birmingham and elsewhere where there are other stores and the market is fully supplied, he answered me with just two words—"For gain." A considerable number of the Birmingham operators told the investigators of the Federal Immigration Commission that they expected to derive not less than 20 per cent profit from their commissaries.¹

The commissaries have a relation to earnings that is direct and effective. In Birmingham it is the custom, as it is in other industrial centers, to hold back a certain amount of the pay at all times. Consequently, when a man gets a job he works a month before getting a cent of pay and then he gets his pay for only the first two weeks. Most of the companies in the Birmingham district pay only once a month,² so that if the man continues at his work he gets paid a full month's wages each month after the first one, but two weeks' pay will always be due him until he quits. Now consider what this means to a man just taking a job, especially if he has been out of work for a time. How can he live one month with no wages at all and then another month on half wages?

The answer is—"the commissaries." A man can always get store checks from the company office up to the amount that is due him, sometimes more than that. So when there is no money he

gets a check instead and trades with it at the store. The result sometimes is that when pay-day comes no money is due the man; it has all been drawn in store checks. So the process has to be repeated until next pay. The companies insist that there is no compulsion about trading at the commissaries. But the custom of holding back a man's pay, and allowing him, between pays, checks good only at the commissary, strikes me as something very closely akin to compulsion. And that was also the opinion of the Federal Immigration Commission.¹

The final evil of the system consists in the sale of checks. Workmen sometimes need money before pay-day. Sometimes they want it whether they need it or not. Thriftlessness, of course, but the means at hand makes it easy to be thriftless. A man can sell a check to an outsider at 20 to 25 per cent discount, and a large quantity is sold. Independent storekeepers in mining camps sometimes buy up checks at such a discount that they can trade them in at their face value at the commissary and purchase goods in that way below the wholesale rate. This practice is to be expected, perhaps. What seems most amazing is that most of the companies stand ready to cash their own store checks for their workmen whenever that is desired. If a workman wants cash in advance of pay-day, he gets a store check from the company and then gets the same company to discount it for cash. Store checks are discounted at a rate varying from 10 per cent to 20 or 25 per cent.

I must in justice to the companies point out that this practice has some apparent justification. If store checks were cashed at their face value the system would amount to a daily pay. The necessary office force cannot be maintained for a daily pay without loss to the company. Therefore the discount both pays for the extra clerk hire and retards somewhat the tendency to cash store checks.

But is that an answer to the criticism that the companies invite when they discount a workman's pay? The whole

¹IMMIGRANTS IN INDUSTRIES, Vol. VII. Bituminous coal mining, p. 199.

²The Pratt Consolidated Coal Company pays every two weeks and since October 1, 1911, the Tennessee company has done so.

¹Vol. VII, of the reports, p. 199.

thing is so suggestive of graft that it seems to me the companies must abolish the practice if they would escape that stigma.¹

A third feature of labor conditions in Alabama that will be of interest to prospective workmen is the accident rate. In the twenty years between 1889 and 1908, inclusive, the death rate from accident per thousand employes in Alabama coal mines was 4.55. Out of twenty-two coal mining districts in North America during that period, twelve had a rate of less than three per thousand. Among the total number, Alabama stood fifteenth.² Since 1908 accidents have increased; the rate in 1909 was 6.40 and in 1910 it was 10.80. In the latter year 238 men lost their lives, the largest number in one year in the history of Alabama coal mining. In that year there were two serious gas explosions, and these brought up the rate to the high figure named. It should be noted, however, that two companies only, one of them a small one, were concerned in these explosions. The accident rate of one of the largest companies in the district has declined materially in the last three years.

A better record was apparently made in the iron and steel industry, although exact records are not at hand. A large majority of the iron and steel workers of the district are employed by the Tennessee company, and this makes it a fact of great importance that the same safety policy that has been adopted during the last three years by all the subsidiary companies of the United States Steel

¹When George Gordon Crawford came into the Birmingham district as president of the Tennessee company he found that his company was apparently making money by discounting store checks. He didn't believe in the practice and issued orders that it be stopped. His superintendents told him the men wouldn't stay if they didn't discount checks. This is a common belief. Only the other day a large Birmingham operator wrote me that to abolish the system would "demoralize our workmen and doubtless drive some of them away." But the Tennessee company did abolish the system and neither demoralized its working force nor drove them away. In only one quarter was there trouble. After a two-year trial the system had to be restored in the coke department. In no other department, however, are checks discounted today by the Tennessee company. The amount that has been realized from the discounts in this department has been collected in a special fund and will be utilized for the benefit of the employes. In this way the Tennessee company avoids all suspicion of exploitation. The semi-monthly pay is another Crawford reform.

²Bulletin 90, U. S. Bureau of Labor, September, 1910, p. 452.



FOR SAFETY AND EFFICIENCY.
Change-house and safety over-head walk for employes, Tennessee company.

Corporation is being worked out in its properties in the Birmingham district also. The safety work of the Tennessee company is not yet as thorough-going as that of some of the other constituent companies, but it has been carried much further than any of these companies considered necessary a few years ago, and it is superior to the standards of most of the independent companies to-day. It is a leader in this field in the South.

Perhaps the most noteworthy results have been accomplished in the mines. The Tennessee company has its own mining inspectors. It has adopted the most rigid safety rules and enforces them. A considerable number of mines operated by different companies have been equipped with a system of electric shot firing, while water sprays are also in use in some parts of the district to keep the mines free from dust.

In each mine of the Tennessee company there is a rescue corps trained in first aid and mine rescue work. A competent man secured from the United States Bureau of Mines is employed to have charge of the rescue work and to train the first aid corps. A fully equipped rescue car is kept on a side track at Ensley all of the time, ready to be taken on a few minutes' notice to the scene of any mine disaster. So far this car has been used only twice and then at mines owned by other companies.

Most of the companies assess their employes for medical and hospital ser-

vice, and make use of private hospitals in Birmingham. The Tennessee company now has well built and equipped temporary hospitals in most of its camps, and plans are drawn for a general hospital designed to care for all of its employes.

Not less important than labor conditions to the workmen contemplating going to Birmingham are the conditions of living in the district. There are more "company houses," in the Birmingham district than in most industrial districts. The Sloss furnaces, located in the heart of the city, as well as the Thomas furnaces and the Ensley steel plant, both within the limits of Greater Birmingham, have their privately owned communities or villages.

There is a wide range of conditions on these company properties. The village of the Sloss-Sheffield company in central Birmingham, with a slag dump for a rear view, blast furnaces and beehive coke ovens for a front view, railroad tracks in the street, and indecently built toilets in the back yards, is an abomination of desolation. The houses are unpainted, fences are tumbling down, a board is occasionally missing from the side of a house. Colonel Maben, president of the company, told me that he didn't believe in "coddling workmen."

In general the outlying mining camps have much to recommend them. Often they are built on cut over timber land, where many trees are still standing and where there is considerable natural beauty. The houses are usually scatter-

ed so that air and sunlight have a chance. The camps vary from those containing a score of houses to those with several hundred, and the lack of congestion and the picturesque surroundings make them generally more pleasing in appearance than are the mining camps in western Pennsylvania.

But on closer examination you find that the houses are desperately cheap in construction. They are often unpainted and weather-beaten. Some have been whitewashed, usually years ago. The country is hilly and the house that on one side is close to the ground is on the other side raised up several feet on ugly posts. The general plan of construction is the double-house plan, with seldom more than two rooms to an apartment. Sanitary equipment is generally poor. Water supply in most of the camps is inadequate. Dry closets in the back yards are often in bad condition.¹ The houses rent usually at the rate of about \$1.50 for each room per month. And that rate, I feel sure, provides a very liberal return on the investment.

These camps are the product of a period not yet entirely past in the Birmingham district, during which operators have had a desperate struggle to get sufficient capital to develop their mines. During this period they have built cheaply and without regard to permanence or comfort.

But now several of the biggest companies, such as the Republic Iron and

¹See *Water and Waste*, by Morris Knowles on p. 1485 of this issue of THE SURVEY.



TYPICAL HOUSES, THOMAS CAMP, REPUBLIC COMPANY.

THE OLD AND THE NEW

I. MINE ENTRANCE.
AN ABANDONED MINE ON
RED MOUNTAIN.

II. MINE ENTRANCE.
TYPE OF THE BEST STAND-
ARDS OF TO-DAY.



I.

IN LABOR

II.

IN LIFE



III.

III. TWO-ROOM COMPANY
HOUSE.

OLD STYLE, SUCH AS STILL
PREDOMINATES, BUILT OF
ONE-INCH BOARDS AND
BATTENED.



IV. TWO-ROOM COMPANY
HOUSE.

MODEL OF 1910, ROOMS
CEILED THROUGHOUT.

IV.



MAN-CAGE LOADED WITH MEN, READY TO ENTER MINE.



IN A RED ORE MINE, NEAR BIRMINGHAM, ALA.

IN A RED ORE MINE, NEAR BIRMINGHAM.



NEGRO FIRST-AID-TO-THE-INJURED TEAM.

First Negro team organized anywhere in the world. Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Company,

Steel, the Woodward Iron, the Pratt Consolidated, the Tennessee, and others are facing in another direction. All of these companies have made efforts toward the improvement of their camps. They have aided in the building of churches and schools and are building better houses than those of the old type, and rehabilitating the old ones.

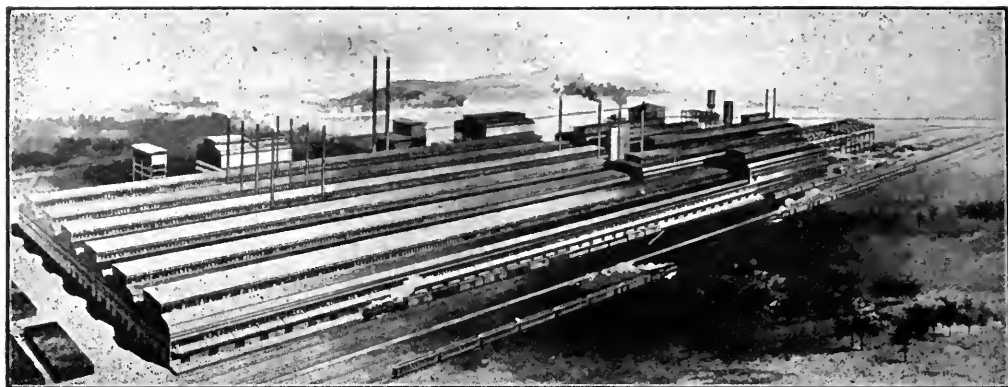
In this movement, as Mr. Knowles points out, the Tennessee company has taken the lead. Attractive fences are built around each house, enclosing sufficient ground for a garden, and the company has fostered an interest in gardening by offering prizes for the best kept gardens in each camp.

This policy is having an effect upon the employes of the company, which will undoubtedly be increasingly evident as time goes on. I noticed this effect in one of the camps where the Tennessee company owns the houses at one end and another company occupies the opposite end of the camp. There was all the difference between the two sections of the camp that there is between slovenliness and order, between dilapidation and trimness. I walked through both sections and talked with

workmen living in both sets of houses, and found an equally wide difference between the employes of the two companies. The better men had gravitated to the better camp. It is just that tendency that will eventually compel the backward employers to improve conditions in their own camps. It is just that tendency which if followed may bring capable workers to Alabama and keep them there.

So far we have been speaking of the employers' attitude. The workmen, too, have expressed themselves from time to time. There never has been any union movement of importance among the Ensley steel workers; so if we would know what unionism has meant in iron and allied industries in Alabama, we shall have to turn to the coal miners. The United Mine Workers have never been able to organize the district completely, but they have come very close to it on two occasions when they were able to call most of the miners out on strike.¹ In 1903 a strike was

¹The race question is a factor complicating unionism in the South. It made it necessary for the miners to organize double locals, and in the end their rivalries on the one hand and Southern sentiment against joint organizations on the other were factors in the destruction of the miners' union in the district.



WHEN HUMAN ABILITY IS APPLIED TO BUSINESS.
Birmingham works, American Steel and Wire Company, now under construction.

averted through arbitration, but it came in 1904 and the operators won. This strike left the United Mine Workers in the district in a badly demoralized condition.

Early in 1908 the big coal companies that were running non-union announced a reduction in wages. In July the union mines followed suit. The union decided then to call a strike, not only against those with whom they had been making contracts, but against all the operators, if the men could be brought out, in order to secure union recognition.

The strike was lost. But the events of the contest threw light on conditions in Alabama. It extended to nearly all the mines in the Birmingham district. There was a great deal of violence, in which a number of men were killed. Some houses were dynamited. More than once trains loaded with strike-breakers were fired into from ambush. On the worst occasion of this sort the attack was made with military precision. Each squad of men picked out a separate coach for its fire, with the result that the engineer of the train and a number of strike-breakers were killed and some company officials were wounded. Later some union men were convicted and sentenced for participation in this affair. No evidence was discovered connecting the union officials with violence, but neither did it appear that the leaders had vigorously disapproved or counselled against it. For this they were rightly condemned.

After the shooting up of the rail-

road train, near Blocton, public feeling was at a high tension, as well it might be. It was decided to hold a meeting to consider the situation; so a call was issued, signed by a considerable number of the most prominent citizens of Birmingham, for a public meeting at one of the theaters of the city. This meeting was supposedly held in the interest of law and order, but even the expurgated report of the speeches that appeared in the local press showed that quite another spirit prevailed. One speaker intimated that the time was near when citizens should shoulder their guns, and another, an ex-congressman, was reported as saying:

Unless it (violence) is stopped soon, unless an end is early found, it may be that some will find patience has ceased to be a virtue, and the citizens of the state will take the law in their own hands.¹

Persons who were present at the meeting tell me that it was openly advocated that certain strike leaders be lynched. And then resolutions were adopted condemning violence and lynchings and offering the services of the citizens present to the governor as a posse.

Some of the local papers were very hostile to the strikers and in one of these papers a letter was printed in which the writer stated that

if Fairley and his black co-conspirators had invaded southern Alabama and perpetrated the same damnable deeds he has inflicted on the people of Jefferson county, nothing further would be needed but the coroner.²

¹Birmingham *Age-Herald*, August 13, 1908.

²Ibid August 26, 1908.



WHEN BUSINESS OVERSHADOWS HUMANITY.

Stoss company slag dump and workmen's houses, within fifteen minutes' walk from City Hall, Birmingham.

It is difficult to see how the miners could have won, but the end of the strike was hastened by the action of Governor Comer. The strikers had been ejected from their homes, which were owned by the companies, as soon as the strike began. They had secured tents and were living in them on land which they had leased from farmers and others in the vicinity of the mines. On August 26, after the strike had been on nearly two months, the following statement from Governor Comer appeared in the local papers:

I can conceive of nothing that would be more productive or more lasting of harm both in crime and health than the establishment in our midst, without sanitation, without police protection, of such camps as I saw at Republic; therefore I put everyone on notice that the establishment of these camps will not be allowed.

The strikers made no move and next day, August 27, the tents at Republic were taken down by the soldiers, under orders from the governor, and men, women, and children were left shelterless on land which they had leased and paid for.

There is no law in Alabama sanctioning such a procedure. It was done without the authority of law. Ex-Governor Comer tries to justify it today by saying that it was necessary to stop violence, although he admits that there was no violence within the camps. It is true that stern measures were necessary in order to make human life safe in Jeffer-

son and surrounding counties. But this policy did not call for cutting tent ropes. It may be true that the canvas camps were without sufficient sanitary arrangements. Yet the regular mining camps where the miners must live when not on strike were in 1908, and are now, many of them, "without sanitation and without proper police protection." Also there are in most of them whites and blacks living side by side—another thing that the governor felt could not be permitted in the tented camps. Why did not the governor order these camps also to be torn down? I asked him that and he referred me to the health officers. That is what he could have done in 1908; he could have used the protective power of the state to help make the camps sanitary, instead of its destructive power to make the families of striking workmen helpless.

This action hastened the termination of the strike. On September 3, Governor Comer declared that he regarded the strike as over and that any body of men trying to foment lawlessness or intimidation would be regarded as a mob and its members as vagrants and that the authorities would be vigorous in dealing with the situation. This really meant that all strikers would be regarded as vagrants, and on September 4 the strike was declared off by the miners in convention.

Since 1908 there has been practically no unionism in the mines of the Bir-

TYPES OF COMPANY HOUSES



- FOR WHITE MINE-WORKERS.
- GROUP 1: Sayreton camp, Republic company.
- GROUP 2: Bessie camp, Sloss company.
- FOR NEGRO MINE-WORKERS.
- GROUP 3: Bessie camp, Sloss company.
- GROUP 4: Palos camp, Palos company.

ingham district. The employers have had things their own way. The report of the immigration commission states¹ that in the Birmingham district working conditions "are peculiarly under the control of the employers" and that this control is not limited "except by the natural laws of demand and supply in the labor market."

Today this control is exercised with a high hand by every company in the district. The attorney of one of the biggest coal companies told me that after the strike of 1908 he had put into the house leases a clause providing that the employing company could at any time upon notice dictate to the tenants what persons could be permitted upon company property.

Each mining camp is patrolled by a deputy sheriff who is ostensibly kept in the camp to preserve order. Every such camp, be it understood, is on company property and is owned absolutely by a single landlord. Therefore there is no local government and no police. The deputy sheriff supposedly represents the law. But he is paid by the company, regards himself and is regarded as a company employe, and so instead of actually representing

¹Report of Federal Immigration Commission. Vol. IX, Chapter LV (61st Congress, 3rd Session, Document 633, part 3).

the law, which is theoretically the will of the people, he represents the will of the company.

These deputies are undoubtedly necessary under the existing conditions to preserve order. But above and beyond that what do they do? The president of a large coal company told me that they were expected to keep out persons of "sinister purpose." An official of another large company said that their deputies were expected to keep out "undesirable persons." Both admitted that a labor organizer would come in the tabooed class.

But the testimony that I got from the deputies themselves indicated a commission even more inclusive. In two coal mining camps, as I was walking through with a kodak in my hand, I was stopped by deputies who told me that it was their business to know what any stranger in camp was after. And one of them would not let me walk through the camp over which he presided because, forsooth, he did not know me. He said he was "hired to keep people he didn't know off the property." He had recently been "jacked up by the boss" for not keeping people off. Both deputies said that they were looking out chiefly for labor agents coming to hire labor, and for union organ-

HOUSING PROS AND CONS



THE TENNESSEE COMPANY'S HOUSING FRONT.

I. Pro:—New style three-room houses, Fossil camp, and prize vegetable garden in 1910.

II. Con:—Negro houses, Blossburg camp.

III. Pro:—Five-room houses, Muscoda camp.

IV. Con:—"The Quarters," Enstley.

izers.¹ And this was a period of slack work when families were suffering from idleness. And this was an American town!

This practice is common to all the companies in the district. But there are other practices that are not common to all. There is a small group of employers in the Birmingham district who are without ideals and apparently without shame. They are exploiters both of natural and of human resources. They run their mines with a minimum of capital and a maximum of danger, intent only on output and speedy profits. One of these told me with satisfaction how he had found a way to prevent labor troubles—he hired no one who knew how to read! And when I asked him if he had adopted this plan in all of his mines he answered regretfully,

“No, we couldn’t. There aren’t enough illiterate niggers to go around. They’re spoiling them now-a-days by educating them.”

Another employer had a mine that blew up early in 1910 and killed eighty-three men, nearly the entire force in the mine. A committee was formed at once for the purpose of affording relief to the dependent families. A fund of over \$30,000 was raised. The owner subscribed \$5,000 to the relief fund and let the widows have provisions free at the commissary for two weeks after the explosion. When the committee called on him to pay his subscription he claimed that he had paid. Asked for an itemized statement, his response included one item only: “To provisions and relief work, \$5,000”!

There is another class of employers—those who have broader views and more enlightened policies. Leaders in this class are the Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Company, the Pratt Consolidated Coal Company, the Reput-

lic Iron and Steel Company, and the Woodward Iron Company. The Tennessee company is probably the first large steel company in America to plan a system of bath houses for all of its properties. At its ore mines on Red Mountain the buildings are up and the baths in operation. A small charge is made for the steel lockers in which a man can keep his street clothes when he is in the mine and his dirty mine clothes when off duty. In spite of the charge the men not only use the baths but have actually become more regular workmen. And a large majority of the ore miners are Negroes, who are not steady workers as a rule. When the first bath house was erected there were not enough lockers to go around, and a company official told me a “near-riot” was the result. Plans have now been drawn for bath houses to be built at the coal mines and inside the steel plant at Ensley.

In this way and in the ways described earlier in the article, the Tennessee company is leading the district. But there is an element that I should like to see added to the movement, an element that would give it added impetus and added significance. The Steel Corporation has become known as a great apostle of co-operation among manufacturers. But co-operation between employer and employe in the Tennessee company is limited to safety work and the testing of mine scales—a somewhat compulsory co-operation, after all—and to “suggestion boxes” into which an employe may drop a note setting forth his grievances.

All these things mark constructive advance. And the spirit in which they are done is fine. But there is something tremendously lacking. So long as the spirit and fact of co-operation are kept within such rigid bounds, the policy of labor conservation which we have seen developed so consistently by the new management will continue to be confined and limited. But freed from such confines that policy of conservation will bring and build up the human resources needed by this district to match its ore mountains and coal beds.

¹I could not find a lawyer in Birmingham who would say that there was legal justification for the action of deputies in keeping such persons out of the camps. But the president of a coal company admitted that he knew the practice to be illegal. He had tangible evidence to that effect, for his company had just paid \$500 damages because one of their deputies had arrested for trespass a man on the street of a mining camp.

A CASH-NEXUS FOR CRIME

SHELBY M. HARRISON

"I recall a case which happened in the last few years," said an ex-official of the Alabama convict bureau. "A heavy mine roof had become loose and was propped up to keep it from falling. The miners were convicts. One of them, a Negro, saw the prop. It was an incident in an otherwise uninteresting daily task; he told others and a few curious ones gathered at noon to see the rock. They happened to sit down under it to eat their dinners when along came another Negro, and saw them. That fellow, out of nothing but pure cussedness, knocked the prop out and killed six."

A boy in Anniston, Ala., trespassed upon the railroad tracks, a thing that hundreds of people do from year to year unmolested. He was arrested, sentenced to sixty days' hard labor, and leased out to a coal operator. He was totally inexperienced in coal mining, unused to its dangers, and was at work only a few days when he met with an accident which resulted in the amputation of one leg. He will hobble around the rest of his life on one leg—a cripple from youth!

Last April, 123 Negro convicts working in the Banner mine, operated at that time by the Pratt Consolidated Coal Company, were instantly killed by an explosion. Seventy-two of the convicts were from Jefferson county, in which Birmingham is located; and twenty-one out of the seventy-two, or 30 per cent, were convicted of offenses so minor that their sentences, aside from cost, did not exceed twenty days—mainly for carrying concealed weapons, gaming, assault, vagrancy, or violating the prohibition law. Five others were serving sentences of thirty days, and one man was within three days of his release when he was killed. Another had been convicted only five days before the explosion. One hundred and twenty-three persons in the custody of the state, without voice as to the nature of their work, lost their lives in serving their sentences.

Of the great industries, coal mining is one of the two most hazardous. The bituminous mines, such as those of the Birmingham district, add the risk of dust explosion to the ordinary dangers of gas, fire, and falling roofs. Where the workers are inexperienced men, drafted in from all sorts of occupations, the dangers are doubled for themselves and everybody else. Where criminals of all grades are introduced into distant underground workings, the brute crops out in some and further threatens their fellows. It is to this occupation, under these condi-

tions, that Alabama sends, without their volition, 50 per cent of her state and county convicts, whether they are trivial misdemeanants or criminals of the lowest order.

The Alabama convict labor system embraces state convicts, county convicts, and city prisoners. State convicts include all persons convicted of felonies; that is, of the more serious crimes, and those for which the term of sentence is usually longer; while persons convicted of misdemeanors are county convicts—a purely arbitrary distinction as far as their custody is concerned and one which makes a complex situation more difficult. During the last five years in Alabama the number of state convicts has averaged about 2,500 per year and of county convicts in all counties about 700. A little above 80 per cent of all have been Negroes, and nearly 95 per cent males. Both state and county convicts who are able must work, and their labor brings into the Alabama state treasury above \$400,000 annually—and into the county treasuries nearly \$100,000. In his last published report, the associate inspector of convicts refers to the convict department as "a department of the state that does a million dollars' worth of business annually, at close on to \$500,000 net profit per year to the people."

Except for about 200 state convicts confined in the penitentiary at Wetumpka—which is now practically a tuberculosis camp—and several hundred more who are at work at the state farm and factory at Speigner, the labor of convicts, both state and county, is contracted out. The men go not only to the coal mines but to saw mills, private farms, a stove foundry, and turpentine camps. The largest number in any one industry, at least half of all, work in the coal pits of the Birmingham district. Only the most able-bodied are sent to the mines. In round numbers, these 1,500 convict miners are divided among the operating companies as follows: Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Company, 350 state

and 240 county convicts¹; Sloss-Sheffield Steel and Iron Company, 250 state and 75 county convicts; Pratt Consolidated Coal Company, 170 state convicts; and Red Feather Coal Company, at Blocton, 100 state convicts.

This enforced labor is sold by state and county on slightly different plans. State convicts, supposedly the more serious offenders, are in the custody of the state at all times. In a few mines this is not true, during working hours. Their wardens and guarding officers are state officials, responsible to the Board of Inspectors of Convicts. Their labor is sold on something like a piece basis. For instance, convicts are examined once a month by a state physician who divides them into four classes on the basis of physique, assigning a definite task to each; and the state, instead of receiving a uniform price per day or month for them, is paid on the basis of the task. The tasks differ from mine to mine because of variations in the coal seams; but, in general, men in the first class (70 per cent of the total) are required to load eight tons of coal per day if it is cut by machine or four tons if they mine it themselves; second-class men are tasked six tons of machine-cut coal or three tons by pick; third-class, four and two tons; and fourth-class men two and one ton, respectively.

For the non-performance of class tasks, except under good excuse, corporal punishment may be inflicted in the form of whipping. The victim is made to lie down, and fifteen lashes over a back covered with but one garment may be, and usually are, administered.² The instrument is a thick leather strap five feet long, made for the purpose, and resembling a harness tug with a handle. That the strappings are sometimes severe was evidenced by a chance case that came under my observation. A white state convict in one of the prisons showed me his back after a recent strapping, so black and bruised as to require and receive medical attention from the

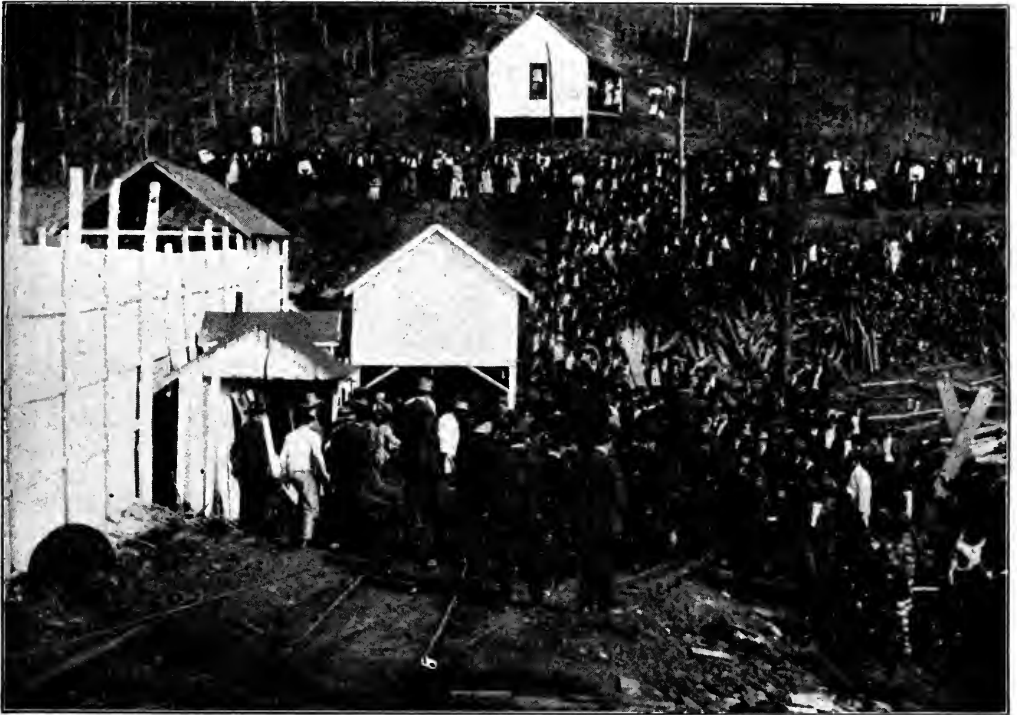
prison physicians. In this case the punishment was administered, of course, by the state's warden, not by a warden in the employ of the company. Many stories are being told about the district. For example "Pig" Ford, a half-witted Negro, is alleged to have been whipped and kicked to death several years ago by a warden of county convicts. In this case one of the wardens was arrested, tried, and acquitted. The mine company was sued for damages, and the company won the case.

It developed at the trial that Ford was a cocaine fiend, and that the habit had destroyed his mind—a condition which the heavy-handed penal machinery of the state had not been deft enough to discover before applying its laws of vengeance to his case. The man should have been sent to an institution for defectives, and not to a convict settlement. The state was as blind in its punishment as the deputy who beat him. I am quite convinced, however, that flagrant abuse is the exception rather than the rule in the prison camps; but those exceptions are of a sort which show the serious possibilities of a flogging system. The world's experience is all one way in this matter: that it is too great a strain on human nature to vest brutal power over other men's bodies in any group of officials. The thing snaps. Moreover, in this mine work, obedience is not merely a matter of pure discipline; it is snarled up with economic motives which, even where free labor is concerned, produce your "drivers" and "sweaters" among foremen and petty superintendents.

The wardens and guards of state convicts are state officials but the wardens and guards of county convicts, while they must be approved by the state board, are employes of the companies. The companies as part and parcel of the method of paying for convict laborers have a direct interest in the output of each man. Wardens cannot help but know this; and there is a clear popular feeling that state convicts, however badly they may be handled, are better treated than county convicts. This is evidently part of what Hugh Wilson, associate in-

¹It was announced this fall that upon the expiration of present contracts the Tennessee company will discontinue using convict labor.

²E. Stagg Whitin, of the National Prison Labor Committee, when recently in the district discovered that women as well as men are whipped.



AFTER THE BANNER MINE DISASTER. LITTLETON, ALA.

Crowd at the mine entrance watching the removal of the bodies of 123 convict miners, killed by an explosion last April.

spector of convicts, had in mind when in his last annual report he said:

It has been my impression for quite a while that the wiser and more satisfactory policy was that of state maintenance of its convicts. Before I had completed my first visit to all the camps, that impression had ripened into a conviction with me, and I am proud to be able to record in this summary the fact that, of the 2500 state convicts, all save 175 to 200 are taking their meals three times a day at the state's table, and drawing their clothing from the state's commissary. They are being handled by men who not only receive their commissions from the state but get their pay checks from the same source as well; this makes a vast deal of difference, I find.

Instead of strappings, a convict who persistently refuses to work may be placed in solitary confinement on a diet of bread and water, for not more than thirty days at one time, provided a competent physician, after the third day, declares he is able to bear the punishment. Among the Negroes this punishment is dreaded more than the strapping.

As another and more personal inducement for doing their tasks, convicts are paid in cash once a month for all coal loaded above their required work. For state convicts the rate is approximately the free labor rate, but for county convicts the rate is one-half the free rate. Every month a few take advantage of this opportunity to obtain ready cash.

Bonuses therefore for extra work, and bread and water and strappings for the men who persistently fall below the set tasks, are the recourses open to keep these mine gangs to their labor without hire. The cheapness of the contracts in the early days and the difficulty of getting free Negroes to leave the fields for the pits and to stick to work six days a week doubtless were factors in instituting the system. The scarcity of labor has tended to perpetuate it, and so even has the failure of the authorities to provide any other scheme of imprisonment, even after some progressive employers in the district have become convinced that the

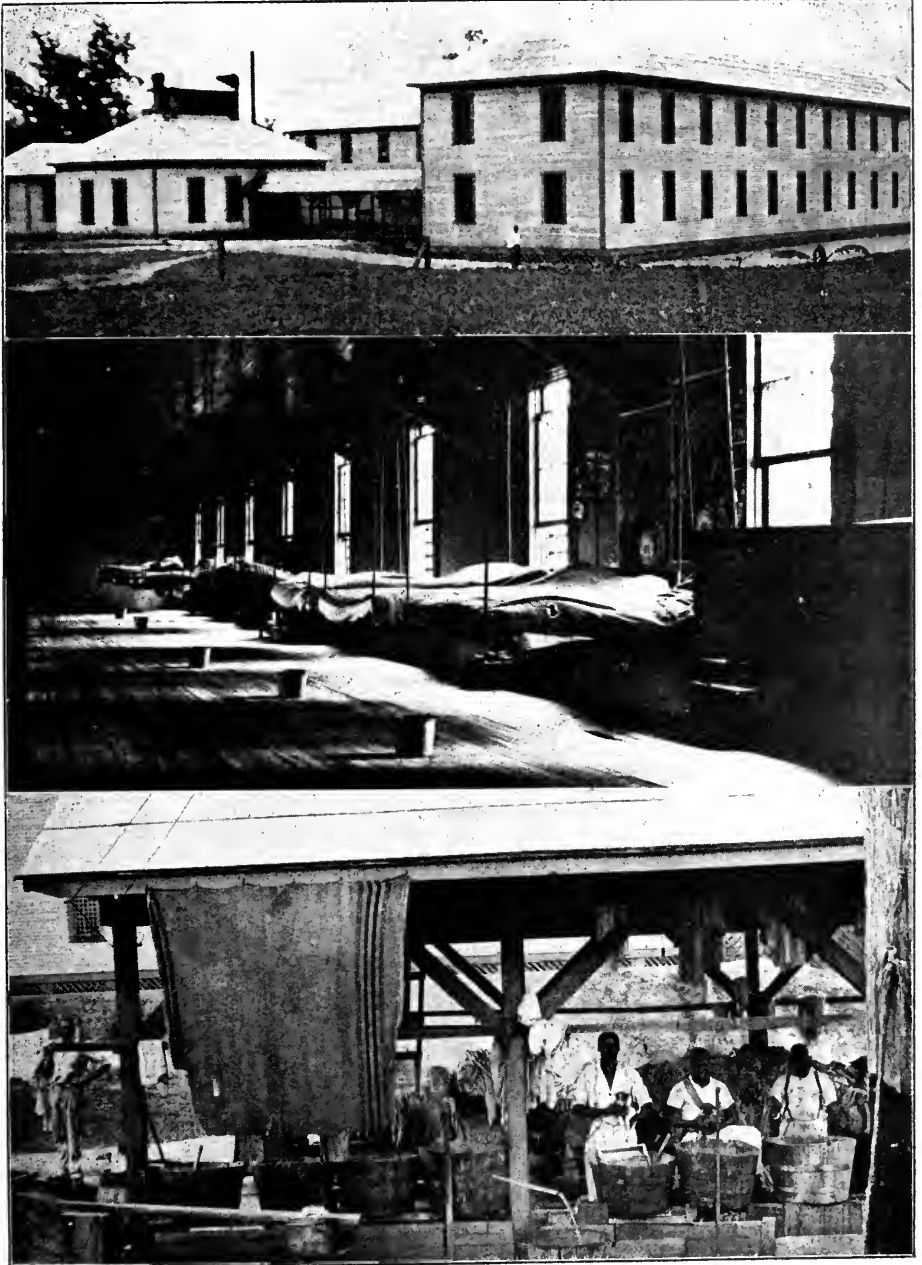
present system is ethically and economically unsound. President Crawford of the Tennessee company was outspoken last spring in condemning the system, and stated that his company was ready to give it up just as soon as the state would provide other means for taking care of the men. This action has since been taken by the company.

More questionable, perhaps, than the methods employed to force unpaid men to do a day's work is the effect of the system upon outside free labor. Contracts for the labor of state convicts are not advertised and let on the basis of the highest bidder, but are made privately by the president of the convict board. The Tennessee company has been paying the most liberal rate for its state convict labor of any companies mining coal in the district, and it estimates that its cash payment averages from one-half to two-thirds of the free labor rate. Several years ago, when the last contract was drawn, the company agreed to a sliding rate, which slides upward with increases in the rate of free labor, but not downward with decreases. At that time the company agreed to pay \$46 per month per man in the first class, and \$10.50 per fourth-class man, the second and third classes falling proportionately between these amounts. Changes in free labor prices have twice increased the payment for all grades, the state being paid \$50.70 now instead of \$46 for first-class and \$11.57 for fourth-class labor. This cash payment, however, does not represent all of the cost of the state convict labor to the company. Free labor supplies its own explosives, tools, and illuminating oils. These must be furnished for convicts. Guarding costs something, although not much, since the convicts are in the mines during the time the companies are responsible for them. The prisons, including hospital and bath-houses, are furnished by the companies; and the interest on the investment—\$54,570 at the Slope 12 of the Tennessee company, for instance—and wear and tear of the buildings should be counted as part of the labor cost. So should extra wear and tear on mine equipment, since convicts have no interest in protect-

ing it, most of them working only to get their tasks done and being glad of a breakdown. These extras have brought the cost of state convicts up approximately to the rate for free labor in this particular company. Other companies which do not increase the convict rate with increase in free labor prices have at least that much advantage in their labor cost. In general, however, it may be said that state convict labor is not enough cheaper to the companies than free labor for the difference alone to mean any very great reduction in labor cost.

County convicts are on a different basis, however. They are contracted to the highest bidder at so much per person per month. G. B. McCormack, president of the Alabama Coal Operators' Association and head of the Pratt Consolidated Coal Company, estimates that the average price paid to the counties for convicts leased to the coal companies is \$12.50 per month, by which he means all convicts sixteen years of age and over, whether cripples, sick, or weak. In some cases female convicts are paid for at the male rate, but in most cases an allowance is made. However, the present contract of the Pratt company for Jefferson county convicts, which average 200 and more all the time, furnishes male convicts sixteen years old and over for \$10.50 per capita per month, and boys under sixteen and female convicts for maintenance only. The companies not only furnish tools and explosives, as is done in the case of state convicts, but they maintain the prison and a hospital; feed and clothe the convicts; guard them day and night; furnish each with an extra suit of clothes when his term expires; send a man to the place where the prisoner is convicted; bear the expense of both back to the mine; also the expense of returning the convict to the place of conviction when he is discharged; and provide a chaplain for religious services. Officials in two of the largest companies in Birmingham agree that the total cost of this maintenance averages from \$15 to \$15.50 per person per month. The \$12.50 paid to the county brings the total cost up to \$28 per month. Now,

STATE FACILITIES FOR HANDLING CONVICTS.



PRISON AT SLOPE NO. 12, PRATT CITY.

- I. Kitchen on the left, dining room and sleeping wards on right.
- II. Interior sleeping ward, showing double swinging beds.
- III. Wash house, work done by convicts.



CONVICT PRISON, BANNER MINE, LITTLETON, ALA.

Each story in a wing of the building constitutes a ward and can shelter thirty or more persons.

deducting from the convict force 10 per cent who, because sick or crippled, are totally inefficient and another 10 per cent who are partially efficient, who "fiddle" around in the company gardens and truck patches; and the remainder, 80 per cent, are found to average somewhere between the second and third-class tasks. That means that the cost of county convict labor averages at least from 6 to 10 per cent less than that of free common labor in the district.

This profit to the companies employing county convicts amounts to a considerable sum in the course of a year, but there are additional advantages. I was told time and again by convict employers as well as others that what they like about convict labor is its regularity. Three hundred men, for instance, go to bed at night and three hundred men go to work in the morning, for 310 days in the year. There are no picnics, no general laying off to attend funerals of fellow workers, no excursions. Prac-

tically a constant number of men are certain to be on duty every day.

Moreover, free wages are kept down by this completely controlled labor supply constantly recruited from the four corners of the state. With the coming in of machine mining, the old-time skill of the pick-miner is no longer so essential in the soft coal beds, and 1,500 convicts can appreciably affect the wages of 20,000 free men.

But this system reacts against the miners' interests in another way. If it has not been entirely responsible for killing unionism among the miners, it has at least been a great factor. Convict laborers cannot strike. If convicts strike, they can be beaten for it. If free labor has a grievance which it would make emphatic by quitting work, the convict miners keep grinding out enough coal to take the edge off the protest. In the big strike in 1908, which broke the back of unionism in the coal mines of the district, convict labor turned out its daily quota of coal right through the period.

James Oakley, president of the Board of Convict Inspectors, states that the convict system is partly responsible for keeping the miners unorganized. President Crawford of the Tennessee company said last summer that, in his judgment, the employing of convict labor undoubtedly blocks unionism. "It furnishes us a nucleus of labor and of coal out-put." And he was broad-minded enough to add, "And I really don't think we ought to have this club over the unions."

But viewed from a still more important angle, the Alabama convict system has failure written across it. Public opinion sanctions imprisonment of men in a free society on two grounds: first, self-protection, when they are a menace to other men, and this protection to the community must be real and effective. Mere fear of punishment was thought sufficient in eighteenth century England to secure public safety, and on this theory there were a hundred acts punishable by hanging. The theory did not work; and criminologists have long since discarded it. Nor is a prison system which turns back men who have served their time, no different from when they went in, an effective safeguard against crime. The second ground justifying imprisonment is rehabilitation, and the two are thus seen to be bound up in each other. A school which turns out illiterates, or a hospital which sends back patients infested with contagion, is to be compared to a prison system which turns out men embittered, with weakened vitality, without vocational training, with new vices, and with the stigma of crime upon them to batten them down into the ranks of maulers.

As already stated, the prisons at the mines in Alabama are owned by mine operators and are built primarily as work-barracks; the builders neither being, nor professing to be, experts in prison planning or construction. As barracks for single men, away from home, with little or no taste for recreation and indifferent to privacy the prisons would answer fairly well. But they afford no provision for segregating different classes of prisoners, a factor as vital to prison architecture as quarantine is to a hos-

pital. The prevailing type is a two-story, T-shaped wooden dormitory building, with a dining hall, chapel, tailor shop, and warden's office. Through the barred windows you look out upon perhaps a dozen acres of green jail yard. A high and closely built board fence hems it in, and little cupolas balancing on the fence ridge shelter armed men guarding against escape either by day or night.

Let us take one of these convict mining establishments which, in the matter of hygiene, well-kept buildings, hospital facilities, etc., is distinctly high grade, and which therefore will illustrate the inherent shortcomings of the system, quite apart from any question of physical neglect such as is freely charged against some of the mines and more of the turpentine camps. In June, at Slope No. 12, there were 363 convicts housed in the six large sleeping rooms—that is, 60 in each—Negroes and whites, of course, being separated¹. Sanitary conditions in the buildings and in the yard were good; kitchen windows were screened, floors were scrubbed²; and the company had provided shower baths with hot and cold water. The bath houses contained dressing rooms where the men leave their work clothes on coming out of the mine and put on their prison clothes. In the mornings they make the opposite exchange. The wards were clean, airy, and well supplied with modern sanitary facilities.

But the sixty men in each ward furnished abundant support to the objections of prison experts against the mass handling of convicts. Thirty double beds with sixty convicts using them; sixty convicts made up of old criminals and young adventurers, murderers and petty offenders mingling freely in the ward; three hundred and sixty convicts

¹At this prison there were no women. The women prisoners are employed in some mine prisons to do cooking, cleaning, etc. Where they are thus kept, arrangement is made for their separate custody; although the plan followed in one prison at least was not altogether convincing as to its effectiveness, and the women were in charge of a male guard—always a thoroughly unwholesome state of affairs.

²As to food, the men get enough, and its quality averages up with what they would get out of prison—perhaps its variety also, but the latter I doubt. The meat is invariably what the negroes call "sow belly"; vegetables usually rotate with cabbage, peas, onions, and potatoes; and either corn bread or biscuits are always included.

of all sorts, loose in the darkness of the mine; this is in no sense a school of reform. It is a school of crime. Gambling goes on all the time, to put it as one man did, "from shoe-strings to a chew of tobacco," and the long Sundays are especially given over to it. "Why", said he, "they will gamble the buttons off their clothes."

But gambling is of course only the outward sign of the commerce in criminal ways which tends to drag down the whole gang to the level of the meanest. In spite of the efforts of some wardens to prevent it, sodomy is prevalent among these massed men; perverted lust wreaking all the more degradation because the older men pick out the young ones to make advances to. It is commonly said in some of the camps that every prisoner has his "gal-boy"; and when the warden breaks up this abuse in the prison rooms at night it goes to the mines in the daytime. In the Kansas prison-mines two years ago cases were unearthed by the state commissioner of charities of Oklahoma where Negro brutes worked their will by force on young boys in the far entries. It is to this sort of preparation for right doing that Alabama sends her first offenders.

But, turning from the negative side, what is offered in the way of positive training? Some of the few men, variously estimated—for no one has kept any statistics on it—from 15 to 20 per cent of all the convicts, learn coal mining and go into it after their release. One case was related where a convict, through the efforts of the company which owned the mine in which he was working, obtained a pardon two years ago, and is still at exactly the same kind of work in the same mine. He lost but one day when he came to town to get his pardon. If 20 per cent became trained miners, that is something in favor of the system.

But the general run of released convicts do not like this man stay on in the convict mines after their release. They scatter. And the test is not merely one of learning a trade, but of equipment for good citizenship in the communities to which they go. There are no statistics whatever on the point. I asked the question generally and there was a

consensus of opinion that fully 25 per cent of the convict population had been in prison before. Furthermore, there is a distinct feeling in Birmingham that one reason why its ratio of crime rivals that of almost any city in the world is because the convicts who learn mining and who consequently stay in or come back to the Birmingham district after serving their sentences are not reformed criminals but are released criminals.

The system as far as the mines are concerned makes no other provision for learning a trade, except that perhaps 1 per cent of the men, by making clothes for the other convicts, learn the beginnings of tailoring. There is no schooling of any sort; the religious services fall far short of their possibilities; and although some of the prisons have a ten to fifteen-foot shelf of books, it is nobody's business to make them mean anything to the prisoners. Recreative exercise is so absolutely neglected that it is little wonder that the men seek diversion in gambling. The one notable exception to this rule is Warden Gibson's ball games. During the summer Gibson on Sundays would take 100 convicts employed in the Pratt company's mines, a mile across open country, with no guard but himself, to play ball. He was umpire. On the way home after the game the men were allowed a swim in the river. They appeared anxious during the week to be selected for the trip, and although taken on their honor not a man tried to escape during the summer.

One physical need of the men is to-day well looked out for at Slope No. 12, where excellent hospital facilities with constant medical attendance is provided. The physicians examine all men who complain of illness, and are particularly on the alert for tuberculosis; for they say it is not only a loss to the individual but the state to allow convicts to go beyond the incipient stage of that disease. Those found to have tuberculosis are sent to the prison at Wetumpka. Men sick or too weak for heavy work are assigned to tasks like sweeping, scrubbing, or tailoring. Cases of accident are treated in the hospital, men being brought there at times from other prison mines.



CONVICT BURIAL PLACE OUTSIDE PRISON WALL, SLOPE NO. 12.

With neither scripture nor prayer, deceased prisoners are placed in the soon obliterated graves in the woods.

This considerateness breaks off with a sickening finality at the death of a convict worker—whose enforced labor, it must be remembered, is in an occupation where the hazards to life and limb are from two to three and one-half times those of ordinary callings, and whose incarceration is in camps where the death-rates far exceed those of men of the same age in the community at large. It was the prison physician of one of the damp bastiles of the North who said New York was sentencing felons not to the gallows but to tuberculosis! To the chance of capital punishment as real as that, Alabama sends not only her murderers but her youth convicted of trivial and in some cases negligible infractions of the law. In a case of death either from accident or disease, the body is held for but ten to twelve hours, and if not called for in that time by friends or relatives, it is put in a rough pine box and buried just outside the wall. The

soil happens to be rocky in the dismal cemetery in the woods, and so the grave is not dug more than four feet deep. Into the shallow hole, with neither scripture nor prayer, is dumped the human off-fall of a convict system which brings \$500,000 a year into the state treasury.

The system might have some basis for justification if the profit from this labor were turned over to support the families dependent upon these men. In some cases, wives and old folks and children are punished even more than the law-breakers themselves by the sudden cutting off of the bread-winner. This plan of prisoners' earnings is practised, for example, at the Detroit house of correction and is gaining a hearing throughout the country. The bonuses for excess work are indeed paid to these Alabama convicts, but nothing is done to encourage savings among them, and facilities for handling accounts have not

been developed.¹ Thus the state itself tends to snap the strands of social obligation between its law-breakers and those closest to them, and in that way further to weaken the ties that would if strengthened tend to hold them to normal life. It sees brawn and money-worth under the skin of recidivist and young misdemeanant alike, and sets out to squeeze revenue therefrom; but moral fibre, human relationships and sense of responsibility such as Warden Gibson found in his ball-players, the good in men which changed environment, discipline, and vocational training would bring out, its prison system is in no wise fitted to conserve. Rather these are discarded and dragged lower by the process of it all.

Not only state and county convicts but

¹In contrast the state—and this thing is so petty in the exploiting process as to be pathetic—has a store in at least one prison yard where it offers food for sale to the convicts. I asked the man in charge whom he sold his goods to, and he said, "Oh, the prisoners buy these when they want a little variety." His variety consisted of canned tomatoes, peaches, and staple, not fancy foods. If the average convict goes out of prison in Alabama with any money saved for his work either for himself or his dependents it is not the state's fault.

violators of city ordinances are turned into revenue producers in Alabama. The city of Birmingham, for instance, has in custody an average of 140 young or older men the year round and they are kept at work sweeping the streets. The great majority of the city convicts are Negroes, but white men are put in irons also. It took some time, however, before the public conscience was sufficiently seared by seeing Negroes on the street in shackles before it allowed white men to go the same way in irons. Iron bands are put around the men's legs and chained together; and wherever they go, whether in the congested districts or out in the highland residence section, the clank, clank of their shackles proclaims them as law-breakers from that time on. Ten hours a day they work in leg-irons, except the fifteen men who clean the business section on a six-hour night shift; and several times I saw boys working in chains at night who looked to be not a month over sixteen years of age. Until last summer the prisoners wore shackles even while locked in jail and asleep. The new city commission ordered them



ONE SQUAD OF THE BIRMINGHAM CHAIN GANG.

City convicts are put in leg-irons and required to work on the public streets. This picture taken in one of the best residence districts.

removed at night; but when the Jefferson County Medical Society published a resolution condemning the use of shackles on the streets also, the commissioners refused, clinging doggedly to the theory that the fear of vengeance and degradation is the only whip that will keep men within the law. Said one of them: "Unless damnation is held out as a punishment to some people, few of us would get to heaven." Men who cannot pay their fines and costs work them out in this way, the city allowing them a rate of 50 cents a day. Thereby it achieves an economy, getting this work done for less than half what it would otherwise cost. It often happens that the offense committed is so small as to call for a fine of only one dollar, yet the costs mount up to \$20, even \$25 and more, which means forty or fifty days at least in irons for the youth or man who was guilty of the small offense.

Contrast this painstaking care with which irons were kept on a young lad's ankles, fast asleep behind the bars of the jail, with the utter disregard of consequences when a hardened criminal, his time up, the law satisfied, is turned loose to ply his force and cunning once more upon whomsoever he chooses to attack.

There are individual citizens in Alabama who have seen the farce of the existing prison system; there are individual citizens, men with the South's viewpoint, who have positive convictions on the needs of their law-breakers, whether white or black.

"Before you leave Birmingham, young man, I want you to go down here and see an old nigger named Sam Daily. I want you to see what he is doing, sixty miles away, for the little nigger boys that get into trouble in this city." That that is where, in an interview, Judge N. B. Feagin turned from his own work for Birmingham boys to what was being done by an old Negro on behalf of the boys of his own race. But not because Sam Daily is a Negro, nor because he takes care of Negro boys, but because his work has set a mark so far ahead, in principle at least, of the general run¹ of that done by the state of Alabama for its delinquent and semi-delinquent populations as to make a contrast be-

tween them instructive, let us make room for Sam.

A word first about Feagin. He is a son of Alabama with a record of admirable service in the army of the Confederacy. The venerable judge, a number of years ago, began trying out in every-day practice a few ideas which had come to be convictions to him; and for twelve years, while judge of the Recorder's Court, he operated what was in some sense a juvenile probation system. He did it without a probation law, relying upon the common sense and cooperation of the mayors, city officials, and public-spirited citizens. He believed that most of the young boys who came before him were not criminals, but that they needed teaching and interests, not fines and punishment. His interest in the Negroes goes a long way back—back even of the faithful old Negro body servant that went along to the war; and it was a big element in the cases that came before him. He made repeated appeals through newspapers and in court for some good Negro to take it in his heart to look after some of the Negro children. After a while came Sam Daily with a plan.

Sam is of unfractioned African descent and, as near as he can tell, is about fifty-three years old. For ten years he was a janitor at the University of Alabama where he says he "got on to a few things"; and after that he drove a hack in Tuscaloosa, the university city. "That was killing me out, being up day and night," he said; and, tired of the city anyway, he bargained for a 531 acre farm and made a beginning payment. Once on the farm he was still not happy, but restless to be of more direct help to somebody somewhere and somehow; and he pondered whether missionary work did not answer the somehow uncertainty, and whether among the Negroes of Africa he would not find the somebody somewhere. With matters pending, Sam

¹An institution for delinquent white boys, the Alabama Industrial School, is described by Mr. McKelway. Another farm reformatory, modeled on this plan, was started at Mt. Meigs, Ala., by Mrs. A. C. Dungee, a colored woman. It is run entirely by Negro women and takes care of boys from the central and southern part of the state. But Daily's farm is the only place to which Judge S. D. Murphy, Birmingham's new juvenile court judge, can send Negro boys from the northern part of the state.

heard of Judge Feagin's appeal for "a good Negro with a heart for the boys of his race." He offered 125 acres to help the Negro boys of Alabama, and several Birmingham men, who as students, knew him when he was janitor at the university, vouched for his reliability. Feagin began giving Negro boys into his custody at once—away from the city and where fresh air, sunlight, and elbow room are plenty. There was no state money to pay the boys' railroad fares, and Sam has paid that from the beginning—\$1.40 from Birmingham—and his own horses carry them the remaining fourteen miles. The Southern Railroad has given him a pass for himself, however.

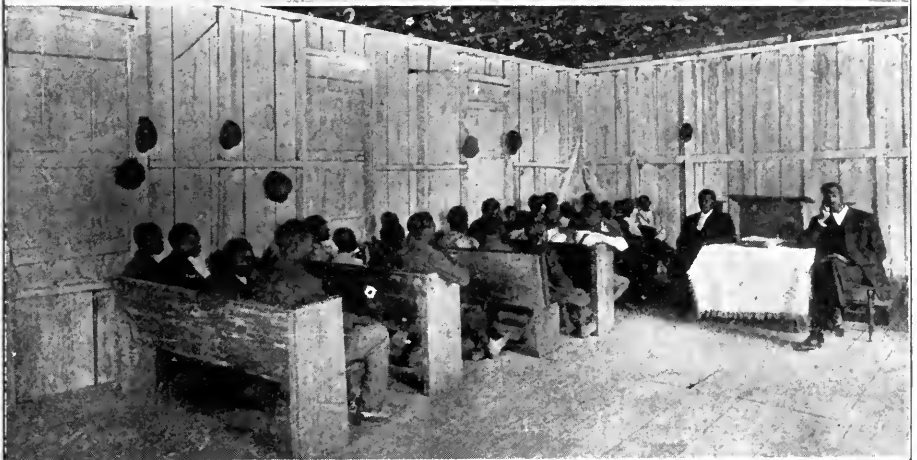
In seven and a half years he has had 202 different boys, the yearly average being around thirty-five. One of his first five boys is still with him, and he is now one of his older paid leaders. Excepting a few gifts, Sam has supplied all the shoes and clothes; he built a two-story log cabin to shelter them, and another building for an eating place. His wife and his five daughters make the beds, do the boys' mending, and cook wholesome food practically on a hotel basis, 365 days out of the year; and thirty-five growing boys have fathomless appetites.

But Sam's program goes beyond food and shelter. Throughout the usual school year his boys receive instruction two and one-half hours daily, in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and general behavior. Last year the instructor was a recent graduate of the Stillman Institute in Tuscaloosa, and his services were paid for by the Executive Committee of the Southern Presbyterian Church. Sunday mornings and Wednesday evenings there are religious exercises for the boys in the building which is at once chapel and school-room. The boys get the rudiments of farming, and Sam's own industry and earnestness undoubtedly react favorably upon them. He has no shot-gun, no chains, nor iron bars for keeping the boys at work or in custody. They are in the charge of his older boys, his "trusties." Once in a while a few boys get away, but he gets most of them back again.

Sam Daily's reformatory is a private enterprise, the land being owned by himself, his deficits when they occur being made up by his white friends, and he, his wife, and his helpers devoting time and energy to an effort to reconstruct these boys and send them out prepared to do something useful—all this without a cent of help from the state.¹ The reason a poor, old, un-schooled Negro should so out-distance the public action of his times seems to be found in the simple fact that he has centered his work upon the improvement at whatever cost to himself of those given into his custody; while the present convict labor and fee system on the other hand loses sight of the individual in the money-stake there is in handling the annual crop of law-breakers. It is to the financial profit of practically the entire personnel of the governmental authorities having to do with crime in Alabama to roll up a great bulk of arrests and convictions, regardless of guilt or innocence. This is not saying that every official feels and acts that way. It is saying that the pressure of the whole system is in that direction. And it applies to the attitude not only toward convicted men but toward all persons taken into custody. It grows out of the "iniquitous" practice—to quote a recent Jefferson county grand jury—of paying the sheriff and, in Birmingham, the clerks of the circuit and criminal courts, on a fee instead of a salary basis. The sheriff receives fees for over forty different services which he performs, the amounts ranging from twenty-five cents to ninety dollars each. For executing a warrant or writ of arrest in misdemeanor cases the fee is \$2, and in felony cases \$4. Similarly, fees for clerks of the circuit and crimi-

¹The farm cost him something over \$2,000; and C. F. Verner of Tuscaloosa, son of a Confederate veteran, his friend and heavy creditor, has helped in the purchase of mules and machinery. But Sam's zeal for helping Alabama boys of his own race has stood in the way of his making further payments on the land. He is today in serious need also of money for new buildings to take the place of his ramshackle structures, and to care for the increasing number of boys sent to him. Last year the Legislature was about to make a small appropriation, when a member from an outlying district made capital out of a Negro crime and was able to kill the bill—about as sensible as to attack a hospital because there is a case of small-pox in town.

A PRIVATE EFFORT IN CARING FOR BOY LAW-BREAKERS.



SAM DAILY'S FARM REFORMATORY, RALPH, ALABAMA.

- I. Thirty of Sam's boys. Sam stands at the extreme right.
- II. School room and chapel.
- III. The boys are taught the rudiments of farming.



ALABAMA INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL, EAST LAKE, BIRMINGHAM.
An institution for both delinquent and dependent boys.

court, a clerk can double a good share of his fees for docketing again, duplicating subpoenas, etc. By such means, as well as by the gross bulk of cases, these clerkships become so lucrative as grossly to inflate their importance, overshadowing, as they do, the judgeships in the same court. At conventions, for instance, the fight centers around the clerkship, it being generally understood that the clerk chooses the judge.

With regard to the sheriff, however, the case

nal courts range from 10 cents to \$5, depending on the service.

In rural communities, where these officers devote only a small part of their time to public duties, the fee system has worked satisfactorily; but in big industrial communities it becomes a mis-fit. No figures are published showing what the Jefferson County sheriff makes out of his office; but leading citizens, men who know the under-currents of county politics, and who have taken interest in public affairs, estimate his average income to be between \$50,000 and \$80,000 per year. None of them thought less than \$50,000. And this at a time when Birmingham, the county seat, is so cramped in finances that the public works have been starved.¹

Next to this shrivealty, the clerkships of the criminal and the circuit courts of Jefferson county are the best paying political jobs in the state. These are estimated to pay about \$25,000 per year in fees—an amount probably as great or greater than that received by the heads of most of the manufacturing or mining companies in the state. By the simple device of docketing more cases than can possibly be tried at any term of

¹Recent efforts have been made in the Legislature to put Jefferson county on a separate basis from the other counties, so that it might more easily solve not only its fee problem but its complex tax situation; and the efforts met temporary defeat largely because of the opposition of the sheriffs, who are politically strong throughout the state.

is even more serious. There the fees are unquestionably an incentive to unnecessary arrests, and the belief is general and freely expressed among Birmingham citizens that such is the effect. State Representative Walker Percy of Birmingham is authority for the statement that "there are more judges in Jefferson county, Ala., to the total number of people than in any other similarly populated area in the civilized world." Unless people are abnormally criminal in this county (and the degree of abnormality would need to be very great), something in the system must bring persons to court who would be arrested nowhere else. Furthermore, the charge has been made against practically every Jefferson county sheriff in the last dozen years that he has sent out decoys to the mining camps to engage the workers, especially the Negroes, in games of cards or dice on Sundays, so that the sheriff's deputies might drop down upon them and lug the crowd to court. Whatever the facts may be, the sheriff's force has a success in locating these games which is uncanny compared with that of an ordinary city policeman. For instance, on a Sunday last May, while I was in Birmingham, sixty crap shooters, thirteen of them white, were arrested in a single raid on the mining camps at Palos, Bessie, Pinckney City, and Blossburg. The free

working force is disrupted, and the "poor devils who can't pay for a lawyer"—to use a common local expression—may be shunted off to the convict mines.¹

Moreover, the Alabama law gives the sheriff power to pass upon the sufficiency of the bond offered by persons under arrest; and because of the profit which the sheriffs make out of the county's allowance for feeding prisoners, the incentive is strong to hold surety requirements high, and clap men into jail whose bail is ample.

When a state fee system steals a man's liberty it steals about all he has; but when officials go beyond that and take most of his food allowance, they have stripped him bare indeed. It is a safe estimate, that the sheriffs of the larger counties appropriate for themselves, two-thirds of the money designed by the state to be spent upon prisoners' food.² The state auditor's report for 1910 shows the sheriff of Jefferson county to have received \$22,877 for feeding prisoners in that year. Two-thirds of that would mean a rake-off of \$15,250 over and above fees.

Hand in hand with this exploitation go jail conditions that explain why it is that the managers of the prison mines claim it takes a month for a new prisoner to get "fit" after he has been held awaiting trial in a county lock-up. With a few rare exceptions, the county jails are unsanitary, overcrowded, crawling with vermin, dark, poorly ventilated, without facilities for bathing or exercise. A number were visited, and between the worst type, such as found in

¹Alabama laws play into the hands of the sheriffs. For instance, any person who on Sunday "engages in shooting, hunting, gaming, card playing, domino-playing, or racing," whether or not any money is involved, breaks the criminal code and may be fined from \$10 to \$20, or imprisoned. Again, "any person or persons who play or engage in the playing of any baseball, or football, or tennis, or golf on Sunday in any public place where people resort for such purposes is guilty of a misdemeanor and may be fined between \$25 and \$50." Still another law provides that cards and dice at any public place of any kind, and betting at cards or dice anywhere, are against the code and fineable.

²The allowance to sheriffs for feeding prisoners varies from 30 to 60 cents per prisoner per day depending upon the total number of prisoners on hand. In the Jefferson county jail the number is usually large enough to bring the daily allowance down to 30 cents, but that is sufficient to provide a handsome annual profit. In all of the county jails of the state the average daily cost of food per person this fall was between 7 and



W. H. OATES, M.D.

State prison inspector who has been vigorous in cleaning up the county jails.

Pell City and the best, as seen at Tuscaloosa, the city jail in Birmingham was authoritatively pointed out as representing a little under the average of jails of the state. Conditions there may be summarized briefly:

The building is two and a half stories high, with four tiers of seven-foot cells in a central cell block—forty in all. On the lowest tier were white men; next above them Negro men and boys; next up, Negro women; and on the top tier white women (since removed to rooms formerly used as a hospital ward). All cells were separated from the small windows by an eight-foot corridor running round the cell block. Three sweat-boxes, tin-lined, stood at one end of the

9 cents. Several years ago the warden of the Birmingham city jail testified in open court that he could feed fifty prisoners at a cost of ten cents a day, and from fifty to one hundred prisoners at from six to eight cents per day. His estimates were for three meals per day, the city jail ration. The county jail, on the other hand, gives but two meals, morning and noon, and usually has over 250 prisoners.

At the county jail in Anniston I found the sheriff shared his rake-off with his jailer. Their prisoners were fewer and the allowance is usually 50 cents per day. Of that, the sheriff gets 20 cents per person per day, and the jailer gets all he can make out of the remaining 30 cents. On the day I was at the jail, there were fourteen prisoners, thus netting the sheriff \$2.80 per day or \$920 per year in clean cash.

There, too, the prisoners were fed only at morning and noon. I asked one prisoner whether they ever get hungry at night. "No, sir," he said, "we usually have something left over from noon." Cold fat pork, potatoes in cold grease, or a biscuit—held over in a tin plate from noon till evening!

room. The floors were black, dirty, and showed no signs of regular or irregular cleaning; and water from the wash stands had overflowed the floor at one end of the corridor. Provision was made for four prisoners to sleep in each cell, and one prisoner who had been in jail a month said there had been no change of bed-clothes in that time. He didn't think there ever was. The blankets were vile. This prisoner said he preferred to sleep on the bare strap iron bed rather than touch any of the bed clothes. The air was hot and odorous. Prisoners were allowed to mingle freely in the cells making up their own tier; no recreation facilities were afforded; and there was no opportunity for exercise beyond pacing up and down the corridor. Attention to the prisoners seemed to end after the jail door slammed behind them. One white woman, for instance, showed a small bottle which she claimed she had filled with cocaine daily by friends from the outside. Outside of the cell-room was a hospital room which looked clean, especially on coming out of the jail proper.

One of the most heartening factors in the present prison situation is the work to improve such conditions as these in the local lock-ups undertaken by the new state inspector of county jails and city prisons, Dr. W. H. Oates. His first move after taking office less than two years ago was to get more legal backing, and he therefore framed and got through a new law defining the duties and powers of his office. The law gives him large latitude for the improvement of conditions, and he has lost no time in using it. Jails have been systematically visited, a number of them condemned (among them the county jail at Anniston), prisoners removed to adjacent counties when his orders were disregarded, some of the more flagrant unsanitary conditions cleaned up as a beginning of complete renovation, and a system of monthly reports from jailers to the state inspector's office instituted. All this has not been done without opposition, however, and opposition of such strength that it is likely to be crippled unless the citizens of Alabama rally on quick call to the support of a courageous officer who is doing his duty.

This house cleaning of local prisons, coupled with the advances of the juvenile court, as described by Mr. McKelway, with the abandonment of the convict-operation by the largest employing corporation in the district, with the

interest taken in the Georgia system of public road-building, for confirmed criminals, with the demonstration of reformatory methods by Sam Daily, and, finally, with the crystallization of public wrath against the shackled street gangs and the fee system, are the big hopeful elements in the situation.

Alabama is not alone in clinging to methods which had their justification in the conditions under which peace and order had to be preserved in the middle ages, and which made shift fairly well when transplanted to agricultural regions in this country. But there are special reasons which aggravate the situation in this Southern state.

Over the door leading into the county jail at Anniston the jailer's children had last summer innocently pinned in three-inch letters the word "Welcome." Behind their play lay the whole grim situation I have described. It is to the economic interest of everybody concerned—deputies, sheriffs, court clerks, jailers, coal, lumber, and turpentine companies, county, and state—to have men arrested and to keep them in custody. The sheriff and his men are paid a fee for every arrest; it is money in the sheriff's pocket if he refuses the man's bond; more money, the more prisoners are lodged and fed in jail, and the more days they are kept there; the continuing of cases from one term to the next, the piling up of red tape and court fees play in with this profit in the food bill; the greater the number of convictions and sentences to labor camps and the larger the sentences, the greater the profit of such companies as get convicts for less than they have to pay for free labor: the greater the profit of county, the greater the prison fund which the sheriffs can raise for more fees, more prisoners, more profits, more funds, till the tale grows sick in the telling.

Courts and jails and prison systems are warped out of their right functions when they are counted on and expected to produce revenue. They rightly belong in the department of justice—or, if you will, of moral health—not the department of taxation or public finance nor as feeders for political pork barrels.

RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION

III

PERSONALITY A SOCIAL PRODUCT AND FORCE

GRAHAM TAYLOR

Persons have always been God's first chosen means for fulfilling his purposes. Upon them the selection, use, and efficacy of all other instrumentalities depend. This primacy of personality is everywhere asserted in the Old Testament and the New. In the persons of law-givers and prophets Jehovah revealed himself as clearly, if not more closely, to men, as by the words they wrote or spoke.

In the New Testament the incarnation is God's own emphasis upon personality as a prime social force. His love for the world, wise enough to choose from all possible choices and great enough to make the last sacrifice, could suggest no higher instrumentality for his loving service. So, first of all, God gave all that he was for us, all that he could be to us, in the person of his Son. And nothing that he does for us or gives us, apart from himself, can be compared with what Jesus is to us. No pardon of sin, no salvation of the soul, no heaven hereafter that can be conceived of apart from him who is our Brother, Saviour, and Life can measure the Christian's "unspeakable gift." For every other gift "without the giver is bare."

For Christianity was born with him in his manger, it appeared among men when he "became flesh and dwelt among us," it died with him on his cross, it was buried with him in his sealed sepulcher, it was resurrected when he arose from the dead, it has been going into all the world since he has been with us always, it has been achieving its ascendancy ever since he ascended on high. Christianity is Christ. And the old Christ-life is still lived as personally as ever before, if not more so. After twenty centuries each one of us has the opportunity of knowing Christ better than any generation which has preceded our own. For through all these ages

he has been drawing nearer, out of history into experience, out of the letter into life, out of creeds into deeds, out of criticism into reality, even out of the Bible and the Church into the daily walks and work of the world—its customs and laws, its government administration, its justice and charities, its institutions and agencies, its commerce and labor, its literature and art, and all the relationships and movements of our lives.

If the Church is still his shrine, the whole world is his sphere. The Good Shepherd still says, "I know mine own, and mine own know me." But he also reminds those who claim him for themselves alone, "other sheep I have, which are not of this fold; them also I must bring, and they shall hear my voice; and they shall become one flock, one shepherd." So the life of the Lord is lived out in the open, where it belongs, with the stars and the green earth, with the trees and the common soil, with every other living thing which God has made, so that every one who seeks may find him, and in him live, and move, and have his being.

CHOICE OF MEN AS MEANS

He who was thus given and gave himself to us, from all possible choices of agencies for the fulfillment of his mission, chose men and women as his first means. His first public act was to call men to be with him and to help him. Following the determination of the rulers to reject him when he felt the greatest need of help to finish his work, "He called his disciples; and he chose from them twelve, whom also he named apostles, . . . that he might send them forth to preach, and to have authority."

Persons, then, are God's first and chief means. He chose them before, and has used them beyond, organization, ritual,

code, or book. He has made the efficiency of all those other means depend upon his chosen persons, however much he made them depend upon these other means.

What is it in the human personality that is thus first chosen and most used in religious and social work? Was it any one thing, or any certain characteristics, that he chose in them to the exclusion of all else that pertained to them? Was it only John's heart, and Peter's zeal, and Andrew's brotherliness, and Paul's intellect and learning that he chose for his service? Is there anything to be discovered in these men that he did not choose for his use? He had need for all they were or could become. The whole manhood of each man was required for every service he was called upon to render. All that each of them was appears in everything they did or said or wrote. Our personality, therefore, as chosen and used for service, consists of all that we are or can be. He whose own self we need has use for nothing less than our whole selves. The whole man is his choice.

WHAT IS COMMON TO ALL

He chooses also for highest and greatest use what there is in each one of us that is common to all. As it is his own capacity "to be touched in all points like as we are" that enables him to touch us all, so we touch men the best with his power who can be touched the most by human need. The number of points which we have in common with men and at which we touch our fellows measures our practical and efficient service in most lines of Christian usefulness.

We are apt to forget this law of selection and service in our not altogether unselfish ambition to be distinct from and to be distinguished above others. Although there are undoubtedly place and use for the characteristics which do distinguish one from another—an Elijah from an Elisha, an Amos from an Isaiah, a John from a Matthew, a Paul from a Peter, a Chrysostom from an Augustine, a St. Francis from a St. Bernard, an Erasmus from a Luther, a Wyclif from a Wesley, a Spurgeon from a Shaftesbury, a Moody from a Phillips Brooks—

yet, however much a man seems to be used because he differs, his larger usefulness is to be seen in the fact that he has more in common with men. That really distinguishes men—the truly great from the actually small. A greater proportion of our common human nature makes a greater man for the divine Spirit to dwell in and work through. Personality is a larger instrumentality than peculiarity. The Son of Man was distinct from men in having everything in common with them, except sin. That which distinguished him from them allied him to them. He set himself apart to God by "taking part" with men (Hebrews, ii. 11-18). His sanctification was consecration to service: "For their sakes I sanctify myself" (John xvii. 19).

Such is the distinction we should seek if we would be used by him. Having in us the most that is common to others distinguishes us the best in Christ's work for men. In the light of the incarnation the most human is the most divine. In Christian experience, the more the divine possesses us for use, the more our humanity develops in service. In doing anything with us the Spirit makes more of us. The use God makes of a man enlarges his manhood for further service. Manhood, womanhood, and childhood are, then, *the* means of ministry, to which God prefers none other, than which he uses none more.

REINCARNATING THE DIVINE IN THE HUMAN

There is something like a reincarnation in a godly life. The Word becomes flesh again in every one whose human nature has become a partaker of the divine and dwells on earth among men in every such life. Christian character is another and better Holy Land. Paul, the toiler and the sufferer, seemed to himself to be the scene for the re-enactment of his Lord's life and work before the eyes of men. He is "made a spectacle"—a place for seeing, the stage of a theater—"unto the world and to angels and to men" (1 Cor. 4:9). What is best shown forth in the world is, therefore, most wrought into some one's experience. This thought may well comfort us all, but especially those whose mission seems to consist only in bearing and

being. They, too, are doers. Bearing is letting God act upon you and in your stead. To be wrought upon by him may be the greatest work for him. When laid aside and seemingly doing nothing, one possibly may be doing the most. What he tells us in darkness may be spoken in light, what is heard in the ear may be proclaimed upon the rooftops. The "shut-in" may "show forth." As we need what others may be to us more than anything they can do for us or give to us, so others need what we can be to them more than anything we possess that we can part with. What the parent is to the child does more for it than anything he can give to it. The child more surely becomes what the parent is than anything he says or does to make the little one what he desires him to be. The poor, the neglected or self-neglectful, the sinning or unfortunate all need what we are more than what we have. "Not alms but a friend," is the motto of modern philanthropy. Spiritual friendship is rarer, yet more needed than alms or even preaching. It costs more to be something to others than to give almost anything we have to them. But being measures doing. Character is the fulcrum for accomplishment. We can really do for others no more spiritually than we are willing to be to them.

This thought, that the Lord Jesus finds in our lives a place in which to live his own life again before men and angels, is most suggestively and beautifully wrought out in the poem of a contemporary writer which has in it much of the realistic mysticism of the medieval hymn-writers.¹

But O my soul, as I thy goal
 And evil ways explore,
 I seem to see the Christ in thee.
 His earthly life live o'er,
 Thou art another Holy Land
 (Ah, holy mightst thou be!)
 The olden joys and griefs of Christ
 Repeat themselves in thee.

No longing for His coming,
 No greeting Him with scorn,
 No mountain for His praying,
 No sea by tempest torn;
 No cheer of friend, no wrath of foe,
 From manger to the tree,
 But finds its faithful counterpart,
 Mysterious heart, in thee.

¹Wortman, RELIQUES OF THE CHRIST.

Scarcely more definite and explicit are the terms which describe his own incarnation and life upon earth than those in which he declares our union with him, and in which the apostles recognized his union with us. "Ye in me, and I in you," is the mystical message of his consciousness and ours (John xiv. 19-23). "It is no longer I that live, but Christ liveth in me," is Paul's response (Gal. ii. 20). And John, who leaned upon his bosom, whispers, "We abide in him and he in us" (John iv. 4, 12-17). The counterparts to his life in our experience are wonderfully close and real, as they are suggestive to us by those who live closest to him. He is said to be "formed" in us at our regeneration as at his birth; we "suffer" and are "crucified" with him, "die" and are "buried" with him; we are "risen" and "glorified" with him. It reads like the repetition of the gospels of the letter in the book of his people's life. In Christian experience there is a continuous reproduction of the life of Christ. It is a perpetual incarnation. The Word becomes flesh as faith becomes life, as creed becomes deed. Christ is recognized as dwelling among men in no way so soon or so surely as in the Christian's life.

The continuation of his work in and through ours is also implied. The preface to the Books of the Acts of the Apostles (Acts i. 1) implies that its real title should be the Book of His Acts. It was Peter who took the lame man by the right hand at the beautiful gate and raised him up. But when he and John went to their own company they prayed "while *thou* stretchest forth thy hand to heal" (Acts iv. 30). "According to the working of his power," Paul declares himself to have been made a minister (Eph. iii. 7), and describes himself as "striving" to accomplish the ends of his ministry "according to his working, which worketh in me mightily" (Col. i. 29). "I labored," said he, "yet not I, but the grace of God which was with me" (1 Cor. xv. 10). Our own salvation as that of others we "work out," "for it is God who worketh in you both to will and to work" (Phil. ii. 12, 13).

This wonderful change in Africa, bringing light out of darkness, removing superstition and cruelty, unyoking the woman from the plow, taking the witch from the stake, loosening the chains of the slave, and changing the slave-catcher into a brother—who did it? Who did it? There are two different names given to him. Sometimes he is named God, sometimes he is named David Livingstone; God is in him, sending him; and if Livingstone with God in him is there, then God is working in this marvelous and mighty change.¹

A CORPORATE PERSONALITY

But the apostles' thought goes further than identifying Christ with the individual Christian only. They suggest that God effects greater results through us unitedly than any one of us, apart from others, can accomplish, however wholly consecrated one may be, or however much in common with men and God one may have. Paul declares that "we all attain unto the unity of the faith, and of the knowledge of the Son of God, unto a fullgrown man." In thus emphasizing "we all," instead of each one of us, he gives the suggestion of all coming together into one; of the putting together of all that we are into a common life—all our hearts into one greater heart, all our little lives into one larger life. Moreover, he speaks of us as "fitly framed and knit together." Each is dependent for the supply of what is necessary to all upon being "joined" to every other. "All the body"—to which he likened us when we thus grow together—increases and is built up in its common life and love, "according to the working in due measure of each several part." What "we all" are, when thus merged and blended together into "a fullgrown man," is a great common life made up of many lives, a corporate personality consisting of many personalities. It is like the body of one great person. Paul calls it "His body." Addressing the Corinthian Christians he reminds them and us of what they and we really are, "Now ye are the body of Christ, and members each in his part" (Compare Eph. iv. 12-16 and I Cor. xii. 12-27).

This then is the grandest definition of the ideal and function of the Church and also the most practical conception of its

mission among men. It is all of us growing together into "a fullgrown man"; becoming "his body," the fulness of him that filleth all in all"; living, loving, and laboring among men; "unto the measure of the stature of the fulness of Christ." His personality and ours in one; his spirit in our lives, his mind in our thought, his heart beating in our hearts, his eyes looking through ours, our hands in his pierced hands lifting like one hand, our feet going about as his, doing good; this is "the Church which is his body," something like a divine-human personality again on earth, dwelling and working in every community.

This definition in the letter is not larger than that which we may read in life's need of the Church's ministry. What men needed it be, that its founder meant it to be. They need it to be among the sinning, suffering, struggling, sorrowing, aspiring, despairing people of today what he was among such when he "dwelt among us" in the body. We need the Church to be his visible representative among us, the manifestation of his presence in our midst, the medium of his ministry to us; to be what he was and is to us all, to express what he feels and thinks for us all, to do what he did and would do for us all. The personal, organized, and unified ministry which the world needs of the Church, and the Church was meant to fulfil in the world, is all included in this definition—"His body."

THE SOCIAL EMPHASIS IN PSYCHOLOGY

This Scriptural idea of each individual life in its personal relation to Christ and fellow men is remarkably substantiated, illustrated, and applied in many particulars by the modern view of the social nature of personality. Modern psychology traces our very selfhood to what others have contributed to us or done for us.

Self-consciousness is our most personal possession. It comes nearer being our very self than anything else we possess. It has been taken for granted to be something for which we are indebted to God and our own natures and not to others. But those who are gaining new

¹Dr. Alexander McKenzie before the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions.

and deeper insight into child psychology assure us that even our self-consciousness is due in such part to others that it cannot be accounted for apart from them. Thus Professor Royce, of Harvard University, writing of the development of self-consciousness in the infant child, informs us:

As early as the second month it distinguishes its mother's or nurse's touch in the dark. This is the child's very first step toward a sense of the qualities which distinguish persons . . . the *ego* (that is, the I) and the *alter* (that is, the other) are thus born together . . . are thus essentially social. My sense of myself grows by imitation of you, and my sense of yourself grows in terms of my sense of myself.

Prof. J. Mark Baldwin, of Johns Hopkins University, after quoting these and other opinions of Professor Royce, sums up and adopts them in these words:¹

The essence of the theory is that the child gets his material for the personality sense from persons around him by imitation. So that his growing sense of self is constantly behind his growing sense of others.

ROUNDING TO A SEPARATE SELF

Tennyson long anticipated these scientific conclusions of the psychologists in his seer-like insight into the developing self so beautifully described in these well-known lines:

The baby new to earth and sky
What time his tender palm is prest
Against the circle of the breast,
Has never thought that "this is I."

But as he grows he gathers much,
And learns the use of "I" and "me,"
And finds "I am not what I see,
And other than the things I touch."

So rounds he to a separate mind
From whence clear memory may begin,
As through the frame that binds him in
His isolation grows defined.

This use may lie in blood and breath,
Which else were fruitless of their due,
Had man to learn himself anew
Beyond the second birth of death.¹

SOCIAL SOURCES OF SELFHOOD

For our use of the very faculties upon which our self-development depends we are as dependent upon others as we are for our birth and self-consciousness. We

¹Baldwin, *SOCIAL AND ETHICAL INTERPRETATION OF MENTAL DEVELOPMENT*, Chapters 1 and 2.

¹Tennyson, *IN MEMORIAM*, XLV.

could not teach ourselves to talk unless we heard the speech of others. The only reason why those born deaf are mute is that they have not heard others speak, and so do not put their own vocal organs to use.

Schools and all other educational means and agencies are made possible only by the co-operation of many. To educate each child, the state or church or private agencies invest personal and financial resources, and teachers and pupils co-operate. The university is the universal life helping the individual to share the experience and achievement of the race.

Dr. William T. Harris, one of our greatest national commissioners of education, has given us our best definition of education in these memorable words:

Social life is the realization of ideal man in a far higher sense than the life of the mere individual realizes it. Thinking, reason, a rational moral will, a religious culture in the soul are not of the particular man, but they are the ideal of the species and denote the ascent of the individual into the species. This is not a loss of the individuality, but a deepening of individuality into personality, which is the unique phenomenon found in social science.

In effect he defines culture to be the rise of the individual into the life of the species. That is, we are educated only as we let another individual, age, or race into our lives. For the uneducated person is the one who is shut up to his own little experience and observation, who starts all over again by himself alone, just as though no one had lived before him and no one were living about him. But as we let the experience and observation, the successes and failures, the knowledge and aspiration of others into ourselves, back goes our sky-line, out goes our horizon, greater grows the world in which we live, and larger is our own life.

Professor Baldwin's conclusions are therefore sound:

Man is not a person who stands up in his isolated majesty, meanness, passion, or humility, and sees, hits, worships, fights, or overcomes another man, who does the opposite things to him . . . so that he can be considered a unit. On the contrary, a man is a social outcome rather than a social unit.

He is always, in his greatest part, also some one else. Social acts of his—that is, acts which may not prove anti-social—are his because they are society's first; otherwise he would not have learned them nor have any tendency to do them. Everything that he learns is copied, reproduced, assimilated from his fellows. When he acts quite privately, it is always with a boomerang in his hand; and every use he makes of his weapon leaves its indelible impression both upon the other and upon him.

CULTURE A SOCIAL OBLIGATION

If all this be true, then education is a debt, culture an obligation, which can only be honestly discharged by turning back into the common life the best results of what others have made it possible for us to acquire. He or she who appropriates the self-development acquired through education solely to himself or herself, who thus takes as much out of others and gives as little back as possible, dishonestly misappropriates what was given for another purpose. For neither the family nor the Church, neither the state nor private endowments provide educational advantages for exclusively personal use. The service of others or of the public is expected of every one whom others educate. And there is no self-educated person, as there is no "self-made" man. Those who think they have made themselves generally worship their maker.

BALANCE BETWEEN CULTURE AND SACRIFICE

Selfhood rounds itself out by service. It culminates in offering the highest expression of our best selves to others. Self-sacrifice in service is really, therefore, self-development. Phillips Brooks has given us the finest balance between these two apparently opposite, but actually supplemental, elements of a normal life:

And so these two, self-culture and self-sacrifice, both present themselves as true and pressing duties of a human existence. No man has any right to contemplate the life before him, no man has any right to be living at any moment of his life, unless he knows himself to be doing all that he can to develop his soul and make it shine with its peculiar luster in the firmament of existence. And no man has a right to be living at any moment unless he is also casting him-

self away and entering into the complete and devoted service of his fellow men. In order to cultivate himself more completely, the man is to sacrifice himself more completely. In order to sacrifice himself more completely, he is to cultivate himself more completely. These two great principles of existence will only come into harmony with one another in mutually administering to one another, as they pour themselves out together and mingle with one another, and find themselves a part of the great plan of God. Self-culture and self-sacrifice—these two have been the great inspiring forces of existence in all ages, in every land.

LIVES HIDDEN TO REAPPEAR

If he who reads shrinks back from this as from self-extinction, he should listen to what the apostle Paul said to those who were long ago overheard murmuring, "This is to die." "Yes," replied the apostle, "ye are dead, and your life is hid with Christ in God. When Christ who is our life shall appear, then shall ye also appear with him in glory." Thus all the great servants of God and men have disappeared in the hidden life; Moses to deliver Israel from Egypt, Elijah to save Israel from Ahab, Paul himself to turn to the Gentiles, David Livingstone to heal "the open sore of the world" in the dark continent of Africa, Florence Nightingale to assuage the horrors of war as the angel of the battlefield, John Howard to deliver the captives from the dungeons of Europe, Lord Shaftesbury to do justice to England's working men, women, and children in the factory acts, Lincoln to save the union which could not exist "half free and half slave." But these all reappear in the glory of our saved country, of England's industrial democracy, of furled battle-flags, and in the rising of "the sun of righteousness with healing in his wings" over all lands and peoples. Time enough, then, for us to reappear from our hidden life when Christ appears in the glory of what we are working with him to achieve.

[THIS IS THE THIRD OF PROFESSOR TAYLOR'S SERIES ON RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION, WHICH ARE RUNNING SEMI-MONTHLY IN THE SURVEY THROUGHOUT THE MEN AND RELIGION CAMPAIGN. PREVIOUS ARTICLES WERE: I. LIFE AND RELIGION, DECEMBER 2; II. THE HUMAN POINT OF VIEW, DECEMBER 16. ON JANUARY 20 HIS SUBJECT WILL BE: CALL AND EQUIPMENT FOR SOCIAL SERVICE.]

THE COMMON WELFARE

FEDERAL COMMISSION ON INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

The committee which on December 30 presented the communication to President Taft suggesting the appointment of a Federal Commission on Industrial Relations was received at the White House with expressions of interest and sympathy. Press dispatches sent out from Washington indicated that it is entirely possible that the president will embody the proposal in one of his post-holiday messages to Congress. Commissioner Neill of the Federal Bureau of Labor has expressed himself as wholly in sympathy with the constructive program of inquiry proposed, and it has received substantial endorsement elsewhere. The following editorial is from the *Chicago Tribune* of January 5:

Miss Addams, Rabbi Wise of New York, and a number of America's leading student and workers in the sociological field have made an admirable proposal to the president. It is that he recommend to Congress the creation of a commission to study the relations of employers and employes under present conditions of commerce and industry. Miss Addams suggested that this commission should compare the rules and records of trade unions and employers' associations in their relation to each other, the condition of the trades in which unions are strong and those in which the labor has not been organized, to examine into the methods and resources of the state and federal labor bureaus to improve their work, and to make exhaustive study into the practicability and working principles of schemes of economic government such as the trade legislation in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry; the joint arbitration board which in New York controls the building industry; the Wisconsin industrial commission, the Canadian industrial disputes acts, and the minimum-wage board work in Australia and the recently established similar board in England.

It also was suggested that the commission should consider the trend of legislation and judicial decision touching the status and rights of labor and report upon the cost of strikes.

It is highly desirable that such a broad investigation be undertaken. Public opinion is active but uncertain for lack of firm footing of facts. There is no question that

radical discontent is growing in the wage-earning class, and the causes of this growth should be searched out. The commission report will not bring about the millenium, but it will do much to enlighten us and crystallize wise action.

The communication to the president was drafted as a result of a series of conferences held in New York during December. The first conference was called at a time when the great bulk of comment provoked by the McNamara confessions was that of reproach, betrayal, and condemnation. The need felt by this group of representative Americans for more facts on the larger bearings of the situation, more light and less heat, projected itself ultimately into an appeal for further information through the appointment of a Federal Commission on Industrial Relations. In this recommendation there was complete unanimity. The communication was published in *THE SURVEY* for December 30, together with the signatures of the group of business men, churchmen, lawyers, and social workers who had taken part in the conferences. The conventions reported on pages 1582-1587 were meeting in Washington at the time the communication was presented to the president and several university men of national standing in sociology and economics attached their names to the recommendations. The additional signers include:

- Geo. E. Barnett [Johns Hopkins University].
- T. N. Carver [Harvard University].
- Garrett Droppers [Williams College].
- Irving Fisher [Yale University].
- Ernst Freund [University of Chicago].
- J. W. Jenks [Cornell University].
- Alvin S. Johnson [Leland Stanford University].
- S. N. Patten [University of Pennsylvania].
- Edward A. Ross [University of Wisconsin].
- W. F. Willcox [Cornell University].
- Jane Addams [Headworker, Hull House, Chicago].
- Mary Kingsbury Simkhovitch [Greenwich House, New York].

MINNESOTA INDUSTRIAL SAFETY CONFERENCE

An Industrial Safety Conference was held at St. Paul and Minneapolis, December 7-9, under the joint auspices of the Minnesota Bureau of Labor, Industries and Commerce, and the Minnesota Employers' Association. Approximately 350 employers, the state and insurance company factory inspectors, the municipal elevator inspectors, workmen, and many of the general public attended the various meetings.

From the first meeting, called to order by Philip Herzog, president of the Minnesota Employers' Association, until the last, interest increased. Stereopticon lectures on safety devices, by Messrs. Price, Young, West, and Van Schaack, showed several hundred guards that have proved effective and practical by use. The address by R. C. Richards on Enthusiasm for Safety; How can we get it? related in graphic language the organization of employes' committees on the Northwestern Railroad. R. J. Young and C. W. Price also described the methods used by their companies to train employes in safety, and one of the most hopeful results of the conference was a determination on the part of the leading Minnesota employers to proceed along these lines.

A conference on factory inspection resulted in a permanent association, to be composed of state, municipal, and insurance company inspectors, for the purpose of improving factory inspection methods and standards. The association will meet periodically to discuss specific inspection problems. It will be strictly a working association—as contrasted with an agitative—and will tend to strengthen the various staffs. Among the visitors at the conference were Mr. Cameron of the Safety Committee of the American Foundry Company, Mr. Robinson, safety inspector of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, and member of the company's Safety Committee; and Mr. Crownhart, chairman of the Wisconsin Industrial Commission.

The keynote of the gathering was struck by Mr. Richards in his opening remarks, when he said:

One thing that we are paying too much attention to in this safety movement is *things*.

We do not pay enough attention to the *men* who are going to operate the things. Get the right kind of men to run your machines and the right kind of men to run your trains. Too many are running machines and too many are running trains who ought to be clerks, and *vice versa*.

While no speaker overlooked the importance of guards, safe construction, and careful maintenance of equipment, and the stereopticon addresses were devoted primarily to this aspect of the subject, every speaker emphasized the importance of enthusiasm, knowledge, and co-operation on the part of the employes as fundamental to success in a safety movement. Said Mr. Richards in another part of his address:

The whole idea of our safety movement is cooperation with the men. If we cannot get them to cooperate towards safety, nothing can be done in the way of reducing accidents. We must have their cooperation. You can put up the signs, put the guards on the machines, and do anything else that you please, but unless the men are interested you won't accomplish much. But you get the men enthusiastic and have them devise and install your guards and your movement will succeed. Once your work is organized it takes less time to prevent an accident than it does to report it.

A RIOT OF WRONGDOING IN NEW YORK'S PRISONS

"A riot of management, waste, and wrongdoing" are the findings of the commission appointed by Governor John A. Dix to investigate the Republican administration of New York's state prisons during the last ten years. The report of the commission, made public after some delay last week, singles out particular individuals for accusation and declares that

as the evidence of the examination has indicated that there has been a constant defiance of the statutes and frequent violation of the penal law, the commissioners recommend that the report be submitted to the consideration of the attorney-general.

More important than the personal aspects of the findings is the conclusion of the commissioners, William Church Osborn, George E. Van Kernen, and John D. McMahon, that

prison industries have not had a fair chance in this state. If managed under the superin-

tendent of prisons by such a man as would ordinarily be employed to conduct a business of \$5,000,000 to \$10,000,000 a year they would give better results. It is possible that they would make the prison system self-supporting.

New York's three prisons are Sing Sing, Clinton, and Auburn. The report continues:

Of a possible market to the state and municipal departments of not less than \$20,000,000 per annum, the prison industries with the free labor of 4,400 men and no overhead charges, except supervision, have supplied less than \$1,000,000 per annum. With an ample field for labor, prison industry has paid only 15½ per cent of the cost of prisoners' maintenance. The failure to fill the orders open to the prison industries keeps a third of the prisoners in absolute idleness. Those who are given work are occupied much less than the legal working day and are allowed to idle away most of their time at that. We believe that the prison industries must continue to be unsatisfactory until the more profitable industries are extended and additional facilities are provided for the employment of the idle convict population and the work of each convict is so arranged under the present statutory conditions that his efforts will be of the highest efficiency from the point of view of production.

As usual in such a case, wrongdoing has gone hand in hand with mismanagement and waste. Thus, the superintendent of industries at Sing Sing, John P. Powers, whose connection with the prison was severed recently, uniformly violated the law by opening bids in private, communicating the contents to favored bidders, and relaxing the specifications in their interest. He has diverted to the industries moneys appropriated for maintenance, the warden concurring. He has paid out-lawed and unauthorized bills. He and others have repeatedly used prison labor and prison material for private purposes. He has been absent over one-third of the time besides his vacations, and has included such items as a trip to Europe in his travelling expenses, which have averaged over \$700 per year. A contract for royalties in connection with the dump cart business at Sing Sing has cost the state \$7,500 a year, and the surrounding facts make the last destination of those funds a question.

Our examination of the plans for more prison

facilities shows that a saving perhaps of \$2,000,000 can be had by a reconsideration of the scheme in contemplation at the present time. The superintendent of state prisons informs us that he now has a separate cell for each prisoner, so that we cannot feel the urgency of expending \$3,000,000 or more on this department when the other custodial departments of lunacy and charities are in dire stress for housing their wards.

While the investigation was confined primarily to business methods, the commissioners say they incidentally found conditions of discipline to be "incredibly lax," particularly at Clinton and Sing Sing.

Lax discipline is the direct cause, also, of the many murderous assaults and the revolting crimes which have occurred at the institutions mentioned. A great number of convicts secure materials from which to manufacture knives. A more effective supervision would have prevented a number of serious attacks upon prisoners and officers, with knives and firearms, which have taken place in the past. This lack of discipline has impeded an effective operation of the shops and has had a demoralizing effect upon the population.

CLEANING UP A CITY'S BEDROOM

Plainfield is one of the many New Jersey towns "within an hour" of New York that have come to be looked upon in Manhattan as places where its business men go home to sleep. But Plainfield has demonstrated recently that it is a city on its own account, with problems like those of the greater city and with a



WHEN THE WIDOW GOES FORTH TO DRIVE THE WOLF FROM THE DOOR, NEGLECT AND OTHER MONSTERS ENTER.

sincere desire to recognize and meet those problems. The demonstration took the form of a public welfare exhibit that had its origin in the chance circumstance that the local Charity Organization Society was unable to respond with adequate facts and figures when invited to send an exhibit of its work to the county fair in October. This lack of material awakened the society to a sense of the lack of public knowledge and public interest in local problems and resources. Out of a population of not far from 30,000, it was found that only one thousand, and the same one thousand in all cases, were contributing to the various movements for improving social conditions. Ignorance of local conditions was felt to be the cause, and the society in co-operation with the anti-tuberculosis society formed a committee of which William M. Wherry, Jr. was chairman and Hugh F. Fox, president of the board of trustees, was a member. This committee set about collecting the facts and preparing to present them to the public. Within a month the ground floor of a factory in the business district was rented and a public exhibit was installed. The chamber of commerce, churches, and press announced the exhibit, factory managers advertised it among their workers, and delivery wagons and street cars carried posters heralding it. For four days it was thronged with visitors. As far as publicity and public support went it was a success.

LOCAL COLOR

All the local movements contributed. Exhibits from the National Consumers' League, the New York Milk Committee, the Pennsylvania Anti-tuberculosis and Housing Associations, and the Russell Sage Foundation furnished backgrounds for the local material. Local charts recorded the fact that though in the last thirty years the work of the health department and other factors have cut the death rate from tuberculosis from twenty-nine per 10,000 to fifteen per 10,000, it yet appears in 1911 as the second great cause of death in Plainfield. At present there is hospital accommodation for a very limited number of tubercular patients, but an excellent

model was shown of Bonnie Burn Sanatorium at New Providence, N. J. which is to be available soon for Plainfield patients. Native genius composed an educational alphabet on the subject of tuberculosis which was posted in large type around the upper half of the wall.

The booth of the visiting nurses' association showed that though Plainfield has three nurses, one of them especially assigned to school inspection, it has no dental clinic nor even a diet kitchen, and the nurses' work is seriously handicapped by these lacks. The King's Daughters showed photographs of their old day nursery and plans for their new one as well as photographs of their summer camp, where 1281 children were entertained in 1911. There are four playgrounds connected with the Plainfield public schools and one large play field in the country district, and the daily attendance at these grounds last summer was almost 600 children. Incidentally the interest of the school children has been bespoken for the exhibit by a prize offered by a member of the committee for the best descriptive essay. As there is no local society for the prevention of cruelty to children, the Charity Organization Society has a special children's secretary, Mabelle C. Phillips. Miss Phillips combines the work of court officer with other phases of work for children, such as superintending the planting and care of fifty fruitful back-yards, one of which was represented in miniature at the children's booth.

The major part of the exhibit showed the various activities of the Charity Organization Society, the second oldest in this country. A group of tiny cottages illustrated the relation of the society to churches, institutions, the law, and the private philanthropist. The society's exhibit showed the housing problem of Plainfield to be bound up in the small, unsanitary, dirty, and overcrowded house, of the type represented in the "Widowhood" cartoon. In Plainfield the "flat" is too expensive for the very poor. The dark unventilated room exists, but not for structural reasons. Cartoons and charts showed that though a legacy was left some years ago for an old people's home the money was so

tied up by the law that old age in Plainfield bids fair for some time to come to have no home but the almshouse. They showed too, that throughout New Jersey there is no home for the blind, and nowhere near Plainfield is there a suitable place for young girls who had gone wrong. The feeble-minded, too, are inadequately provided for, as a cartoon of the institution at Vineland with a "no-admission" sign and a waiting list of 200 showed. Side by side with these figures was the photograph of a little idiot boy of Plainfield who has to be tied to the back-yard fence because there is no institution to which to send him.

FOR CHICAGO'S BETTER HOUSING

Unless all signs fail, Chicago is just now entering upon the most thorough and effective movement in its history to improve housing conditions. Through a recently appointed special committee on housing, the Association of Commerce, whose 4,000 members form the most widely representative organization of business men in the city, has attacked the problem vigorously and with enthusiasm. Three hundred members of its ways and means committee recently heard with keenest interest the story of New York's efforts and achievements for better tenements as told by Robert W. deForest, president, and Alfred T. White, director of the National Housing Association, who had come from that city for the purpose.

With L. W. Messer, of the Chicago Y. M. C. A., as chairman, and W. Scott Bond as secretary, the association's committee on housing has secured an executive secretary, John C. Kennedy, a resident of the University of Chicago settlement, and recently a lecturer in the department of political economy of the University of Chicago. His observations during the past summer of housing developments in Europe add to the other exceptional qualifications which fit him for the work. As a step of immediate importance, representatives of this committee and allied civic organizations whose interest it has enlisted have appeared before the mayor to urge his sup-

port for larger appropriations in the budgets for 1912, to increase the efficiency of those divisions of the health and building departments charged with enforcing the present law respecting tenements.

The present movement is a culmination of many efforts which during the past ten years have been directed toward better housing or toward civic improvements which bear directly upon it. The investigation by the City Homes Association, the findings of which were reported in 1901 in a volume entitled *Tenement Conditions in Chicago*, resulted—through the ensuing campaign waged by the association—in a new law which improved materially the standards of space, light, and air required in tenement construction. Last year, through a revision of the building code, several additional gains were secured. Better definition, more intelligible arrangement and clearer records, and inspection of all new buildings prior to occupancy cleared the way for better enforcement. Appreciable reductions were made in the lot area which may be covered. The minimum for size and height of rooms and for size of light and air courts was raised, and a notable chapter on ventilation was added.

A City Club committee on housing gave much study to these portions of the new building code and to many outlying aspects of the whole question. Its chairman, Prof. James H. Tufts, of the University of Chicago, made an investigation of housing conditions in the smaller cities of the state, and through his discussion of the subject at the state conferences of charities and other gatherings has stirred up much interest not only in Chicago but throughout the state. The comprehensive city plan proposed by the Commercial Club, on the basis of studies and reports made under the direction of Daniel H. Burnham, which is now being considered by an official commission of the city, aroused much sentiment for better housing among large numbers of people who felt that this plan did not adequately deal with the home conditions under which great masses of the people live.

ROOMS IN STOCKYARDS DISTRICT TOO TINY

The Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, through its research department, has just devoted a year to a new inquiry into the housing conditions of the city. In supplying the basis of knowledge of conditions on which the present movement will push forward, this bids fair to prove of even greater value than was the information which served the efforts of ten years ago. It shows, for example, that in thirteen blocks in the stockyards district there were 1,459 rooms under seventy square feet in area, the minimum size now prescribed by city ordinance; there were 935 rooms under eight and a half feet high, the minimum similarly prescribed; there were 372 rooms with window area less than 10 per cent of the floor area, the minimum prescribed for new houses; there were eighty-one rooms practically without windows; there were 1,616 dark and gloomy rooms; there were 1,119 out of 1,616 apartments where the families had no private toilet facilities; there were 1,981 sleeping rooms crowded beyond the legal maximum, which prescribes 400 cubic feet of air for every adult and 200 cubic feet for every child under twelve. Similar conditions were found in South Chicago as well as in certain districts of the west and northwest sides.

The vigor with which the Association of Commerce and its committee on housing have taken up the movement is encouraging to all who have borne a share in the efforts of the past ten years, and justifies the belief that through the interest of this largest business organization of the city and the cooperation of civic organizations Chicago is soon to move forward in a noteworthy improvement of her housing conditions.

The addresses of Mr. deForest and Mr. White were made from the standpoint of business men speaking to business men. Mr. deForest explained that the first step of the New York Tenement House Commission of 1900 was to study conditions. On the basis of the facts discovered the new law was framed. Under its provisions, which re-

quire especially open spaces at the rear of houses, wide courts, a separate toilet in each apartment—none in the yards—and adequate fire-proof construction, there were built, in the ten years ending September 1, 1911, no less than 19,574 so-called "new law" tenements having 252,147 apartments and housing, on the basis of five persons to the family, 1,260,735 people at a construction cost of \$600,000,000. His statement that up to the present date not a single life has been lost in a tenement fire in a new law tenement left a deep impression. He cited the fact, moreover, that the death rate of New York declined from 20.057 in the thousand in the year before the new law went into operation to 15.034 at the present time—which means that in a city of 5,000,000 people, 25,000 fewer people died during the present year under existing conditions than died in 1900 under the conditions existing then, and that an immeasurably larger number of people who otherwise would have been ill or diseased are well. He pointed out that many other causes, of course, contributed to this great result, but said that he considered better housing to be an important factor.

Mr. White's description of the model tenements built on a commercially profitable basis was particularly convincing to the business point of view of the men present, but they were equally struck by his statements of the appreciation by tenants of good conditions. He made vigorous denial of the old fallacy that the poor will not properly use improved facilities.

The enforcement of existing ordinances in Chicago depends, according to the statements made to the mayor by the representatives of the Association of Commerce, upon a larger staff of inspectors and clerks in the departments of health and building. The commissioner of health has asked for ten additional sanitary inspectors, ten additional plumbing inspectors, six ventilation inspectors, and two additional clerks—calling altogether for an increased expenditure of \$35,000. The commissioner of buildings has asked for twenty additional building inspectors, one additional chief inspector, and six additional clerks, calling for an additional expen-

diture of \$36,000, at least two-thirds of which would be covered by additional fees coming into the department because of the increase of its work of inspection. It is urged that the tenement house department alone in New York city spends as much as \$800,000 a year—more than the total annual appropriation for the whole department of health in Chicago.

For future building Chicago has an immense advantage over New York, as Mr. deForest pointed out, since it has not nearly so many built-up brick and mortar tenements, but a vast number of wooden buildings which are already in such a state of deterioration that new tenements must take their places before many years go by. New York has 82,000 tenement houses which, with every degree of change which can be made in them, are not the kind of houses in which people ought to live. With a chance to prevent conditions of this sort and to work out in almost unlimited space the modern housing methods for a metropolitan population, the movement to which the Association of Commerce is now directing its attention is of great potential significance to Chicago's future.

governmental work and much of its advanced social legislation are due in part to the interest and even the initiative of departments in the university. Professors have been leaders of public sentiment and have effectively devoted their services to state work such as is carried on by commissions on employers' liability, industrial conditions, public utilities, and taxation.

Recently this public service on the part of the university has been extended by the establishment of six positions which are virtually working fellowships for graduate students in economics in connection with the tax commission, the railroad commission, and the commission on insurance. A candidate must satisfy the commission to which he is nominated by the university regents that he is qualified for the work he desires to undertake. He must satisfy as well the requirements of the university for the fellowship. As a result of the arrangement, graduate students secure admirable opportunities for practical training in the fields mentioned, and the various commissions obtain a grade of service much higher than they have hitherto been getting for the same expenditure of money.

That the plan is significant, extending more widely than before the co-operation between the university and the state government, is apparent not only to those who believe in this movement, but also to those who for various reasons oppose it. Among the latter is Prof. C. P. Cary, state superintendent of public instruction. In a recent public letter he has sharply criticised the university as having an ambition to dominate the state government and declared that the movement, if unchecked, will give the people of Wisconsin "a university state instead of a state university."

It is announced that the matter will be laid before the board of regents, of which Mr. Cary is, *ex officio*, a member. The people of the country will watch keenly any attempt to handicap or retard a movement which is considered by large numbers of them to be leading the way to an extensive application of the service of education in working out the problems of American democracy.

EDITORIAL GRIST

UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN PUBLIC SERVICE

GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR

The part played by the University of Wisconsin in the public affairs of the state has attracted the attention of the entire country. The extension work which has brought practical help to the particular difficulties of the most remote farmer, or to the administrative problems of the state's first city, has connected this center of knowledge and scientific experimentation directly with the welfare of the people in their daily life. The university has become a dynamo of economic and social progress geared up to the entire commonwealth.

As is well known, several of the progressive lines of activity in the state's

HOMES ON PITTSBURGH HILLSIDES

JOHN IHLDER

National Housing Association

Pittsburgh manufacturers are noted the world over for their readiness to scrap obsolete machinery in order to replace it with more efficient apparatus. Why would it not be just as good investment to scrap obsolete housing in order to obtain more efficient workmen?

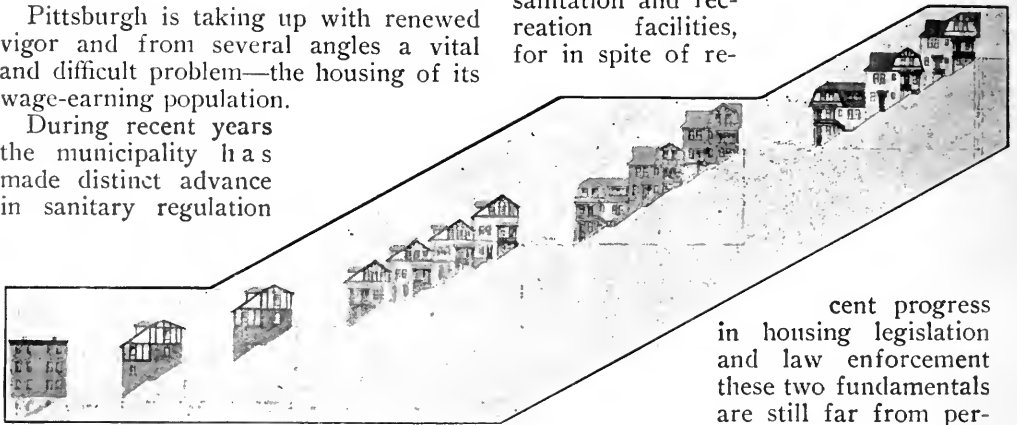
"The fewer the slums, the fewer hospitals, insane asylums, and jails, for from bad environment and housing are such institutions fed.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON HOUSING CONDITIONS, PITTSBURGH CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

Pittsburgh is taking up with renewed vigor and from several angles a vital and difficult problem—the housing of its wage-earning population.

During recent years the municipality has made distinct advance in sanitary regulation

this proposal are strong organizations, among them the Pittsburgh Civic Commission, the Chamber of Commerce, and the Civic Club of Allegheny county. These three, through their housing committees, organized last month a Pittsburgh conference on housing¹ and adopted a resolution declaring Pittsburgh's future and present prosperity dependent in large measure upon the housing accommodations and the health and recreative facilities offered workingmen. Last year the provisions of the health code as it relates to housing were the subject of much study; now will come rather investigations of over-crowding, rents, sanitation and recreation facilities, for in spite of re-



PLANS A AND B. PROFILE SHOWING TREATMENT OF ENTIRE HILLSIDE.

Description, left to right: apartment house; end views of two rows of houses (plan A) fronting on two streets thirty-two feet apart; front views of houses facing steps and terraces between streets (plan B) showing blocks of four or three houses between circumferential streets ninety-two feet apart.

of living conditions. Among other things, under Dr. James F. Edwards and now under Dr. E. R. Walters, the health authority has abolished thousands of the unspeakable privy stacks and vaults which disgraced it, as they do so many American cities. Then it strengthened its housing law. Now the civic bodies propose the building of attractive homes which may be rented at low rates and yet yield a fair return on the investment. And here a word of commendation should be spoken at once—Pittsburgh proposes to build homes, one-and two-family houses, not tenements. Back of

cent progress in housing legislation and law enforcement these two fundamentals are still far from perfection.

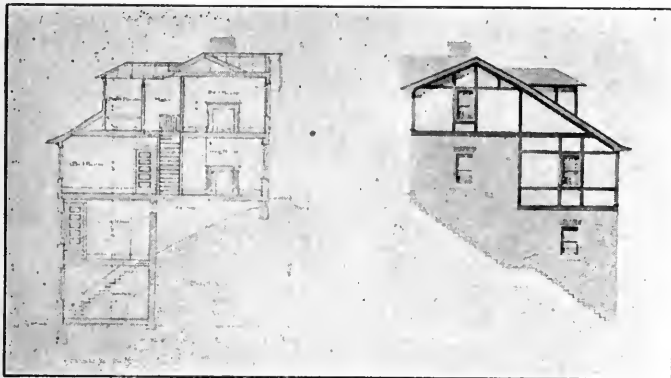
Meanwhile the organizations represented in the housing conference are each doing work which will help to advance the cause. The Housing Committee of the Chamber of Commerce, in its report, said:

We cannot too strongly recommend that all plans affecting the workman's home and environment be made of primary importance, and that many other questions be made secondary.

Of the two methods of housing the workman, namely, the tenement and the single dwelling, we find the latter plan preferable; moreover, it was adopted by the last International Housing Congress as being by far the most desirable. It is, therefore, towards the single dwelling that we desire to guide the sentiment of our builders.

In furtherance of this policy the committee is seeking for the best plans for one-family houses and is trying to inter-

¹C. P. Hill of the Chamber of Commerce, chairman; Mrs. Franklin P. Iams of the Civic Club, vice-chairman; Sherrard Ewing of the Civic Commission, secretary.



PLAN A. END VIEW AND VERTICAL SECTION (REVERSED) OF A HOUSE FRONTING TWO STREETS.

Sectional view shows arrangement of two bed-rooms, living-room, kitchen, laundry, and bath-room, with ample window space in every room.

The originality of this second arrangement of building sites makes it the most striking feature of the report. Houses would front on a more or less private way made up of terraces and flights of steps leading above and below to the circumferential streets. Little space is given for yards, the plan being that a tract at the top of the hill would be reserved for a children's playground and a recreation park for adults.

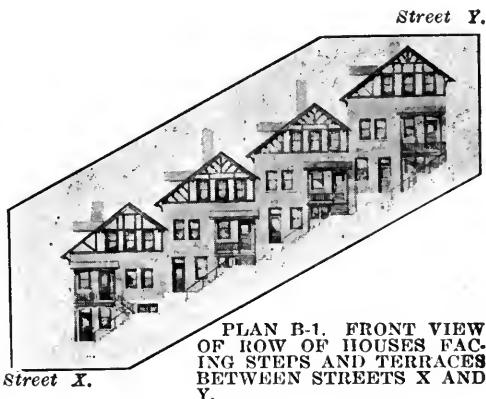
est capital in their erection. Here it may be assisted by the Industrial Commission, whose primary purpose is to bring diversified industries into the Pittsburgh district. This commission in a statement of its plans said recently that it had

definite offers from prominent capitalists to build such homes and rent the same at rates that would not only satisfy the workmen but reduce their cost of living.

The general report by the Chamber of Commerce Housing Committee gives great timeliness to results of two years' study on the part of the Housing Committee of the Civic Commission which have just been given to the public. Here we have brought forward unique inventions in domestic architecture; for the plan is to utilize the unused, steep, and ugly hill-sides which break up the city's site as locations for inexpensive, healthful, and conveniently located homes.

These house plans are of two distinct types. One (plan A) is for streets encircling a hill. This calls for horizontal, double rows of small houses, fronting on two streets only thirty-two feet apart but one on a considerably higher level than the other. The other scheme (plan B) is for rows of attached houses fronting on long terraced ways running up and down a hill, the terraced way being intersected at right angles by streets. Foundation walls would serve as retaining walls for the hill side.

The accompanying illustrations explain the scheme much more clearly than it can be described in words. A real appraisal of the constructive ingenuity of these plans in securing a household footing on the slopes back from the mill and commercial sites along the rivers can best be appreciated by those who have seen the topographical difficulties which Pittsburgh presents. Yet one criticism must be made. Plans B-1 and -2 show houses in blocks of eight, four in a row and built back to back. Such an arrangement prevents through ventilation. The end houses will have fair ventilation, as they have two exterior walls, but the four middle houses in each block



PLAN B-1. FRONT VIEW OF ROW OF HOUSES FACING STEPS AND TERRACES BETWEEN STREETS X AND Y.

The streets are ninety-two feet apart. These houses are only one room deep. They would have a window open into every room, but unfortunately no through ventilation.



[Wag.]

PLAN B-2. SIDE VIEWS OF HOUSES AT UPPER END OF ROWS.

These houses face on a way made up of steps and terraces connecting street levels. The view shows four houses, built in pairs, back to back, each house one room deep.

will be simply pockets of dead air. If the Pittsburgh Civic Commission would know how serious a defect this is it has only to read the report of Dr. Darra Mair on back-to-back houses, published by the English Local Government Board. Further study by the Pittsburgh architects will enable them to devise a plan by which every house will get adequate, which means through, ventilation. With such modifications, the plan is one that offers a remarkable opportunity for a housing experiment which would be picturesque and dramatic. Moreover, its demonstrated success would have a practical bearing for every hill city in America.

SUPREME COURT AND THE LOAN SHARK

ARTHUR H. HAM

The recent decision of the Appellate Division, Second Department, of the New York Supreme Court in the case of Thompson against the Erie Railroad Company comes as a disappointment to all who would see the evils of the loan shark business eliminated. The case arose from an attempt by a loan shark to evade the protective laws of New York by operating from another state in which no usury laws are in force.

An employe of the Erie Railroad Company applied to a New York loan broker for a loan of \$37. He signed a power of attorney authorizing another person to act as his attorney in the execution of notes and other necessary papers. His attorney executed in Portland, Me., a note for \$45 payable in one month, which she sold to a loan

office in that city. The borrower received \$36.85 as the proceeds. The note was not paid upon maturity, whereupon the attorney made an assignment of the borrower's wages in the sum of \$90 and the copy was filed with the Erie Railroad Company more than a month after the loan was made and the notes were executed. The Erie Railroad Company refused to honor it, the claim was then assigned to a resident of New York who entered suit against the railroad company and obtained judgment in a lower court. The railroad company appealed and the appellate division has affirmed the judgment of the lower court.

The case involved the construction of Section 42 of the Personal Property Law of New York, which provides that lenders of money upon security of assignment of wages shall not acquire any right to collect or attach the wages while in the hands of the employer unless within a period of *three days after* the execution of the assignment or notes and *the making of the loan* the lender shall have filed with the employer a copy of the agreement or assignment or notes under which the claim is made. The law further provides that no action shall be maintained in any court of the state in which it is sought to charge the employer unless a copy of the agreement, assignment, or notes was filed with the employer within three days after the loan was made and the agreement, assignment, or notes were made.

The court holds that the purpose of the law was simply to provide the employer with a copy of the assignment to protect him in withholding the wages assigned. The decision reads in part:

If the statute is to be construed to require a notice of every step in the transaction before the defendant has any possible interest in the matter, it is such a denial of the constitutional rights of the employes that it could not stand in any court where the question is properly raised. . . . It is not the province of the law to make it impossible for people to make foolish or improvident bargains; it may limit the extent to which it will permit its own citizens to be imposed upon in the matter of interest, perhaps, but if its citizens will by themselves or through their agents go outside of the state and make bargains, it is not the duty of the courts

to give forced construction to language for the purpose of relieving them or those who stand in their places from liability. Dougherty's contract made in the state of Maine to be performed there was a Maine contract and if it was lawful there it was lawful in this state, and we ought not to put impediments in the way of its enforcement which are not required by the orderly administration of the law, simply because the original contract if made within this state would have been void because usurious.

The court has failed to recognize that the important question involved is not whether the Erie Railroad Company must pay to the money-lenders a few dollars that it has already paid to its employes, but whether these sharks shall be allowed to exact unreasonable interest charges from citizens of this state by a device that is as unmistakably a scheme to evade a remedial statute as the time-worn "pretended purchase" used as a cloak for a usurious loan. It could not have been the sole intent of the legislature to give notice to the employer only to protect him from the possible necessity of paying wages twice, for if so the law would have applied to all assignments of wages and not simply to those given to secure loans. The main purpose of the law was undoubtedly to protect borrowers from the loan shark practice of withholding notice to the employer until the borrower has defaulted in his payments and then playing upon the borrower's fear of discharge by a blackmailing threat to notify the employer. Moreover, the employer has an interest in the borrowing of money by employes beyond that admitted by the court. The strain and worry resulting from the payment of interest charges running as high as 500 per cent per annum, the consequent decrease of the employe's efficiency, and the temptation to appropriate his employer's funds for his own use render the transaction one in which the employer is vitally interested from the start.

The question of the denial of constitutional rights of employes has recently been decided in a court of higher jurisdiction than that whose opinion we are now discussing. On December 11 the Supreme Court of the United States

held that the Massachusetts "loan shark" law which makes necessary the written acceptance of the employe's wife and of his employer to an assignment of wages does not deprive the money lender of due process of law under the constitution of the United States.

It would seem that even if the contract has been made in Maine and is valid in that state the lender must comply with the procedure prescribed by the laws of New York if he wishes to enforce his rights in New York, and it is not "to give forced construction to language" or "to put impediments in the way of its enforcement which are not required by the orderly administration of the law" to require the lender to file a copy of the assignment within three days of the making of the loan and the execution of the assignment or notes.

It is interesting to know that earlier in the year the Appellate Division, First Department, handed down a contradictory decision in a similar case. The prevailing opinion read:

The statute was, I think, enacted not merely in the interest of the employer but with a view to encouraging economy on the part of employes and in the expectation that knowledge of such assignment on the part of the employer within a reasonable time would have a tendency to discourage such assignments and would tend to minimize the evil consequences resulting therefrom.

From the decisions of both these courts appeals have been taken and it is to be hoped that the Court of Appeals will hold with the Appellate Division, First Department, in its more enlightened construction of this law.

We cannot upbraid the court for its refusal to protect unfortunate borrowers from the consequences of their own ill-advised acts in time of need, if doing so would mean the substitution of vague sentiment for the fixed rules of law. But we may justly criticise the court if it fails to grasp the purpose of the statute and to take into consideration the undisputed fact that the scheme in question was devised to evade and defy the laws of this state enacted to protect small borrowers from those who would exploit their need.

A NEW KIND OF PRISON

O. F. LEWIS
 General Secretary Prison
 Association of New York

At the recent annual meeting of the American Prison Association at Omaha, W. C. Zimmerman, state architect of Illinois, presented to the careful scrutiny of most of the principal wardens in the United States a half-section model of the new cell house which is to be the unit of construction in the proposed Illinois state prison, of which Mr. Zimmerman is the architect. The novelty of this prison plan in American experience, coupled with the general approval, often enthusiastic, which the wardens gave to it, made this matter one of the significant facts of the conference.

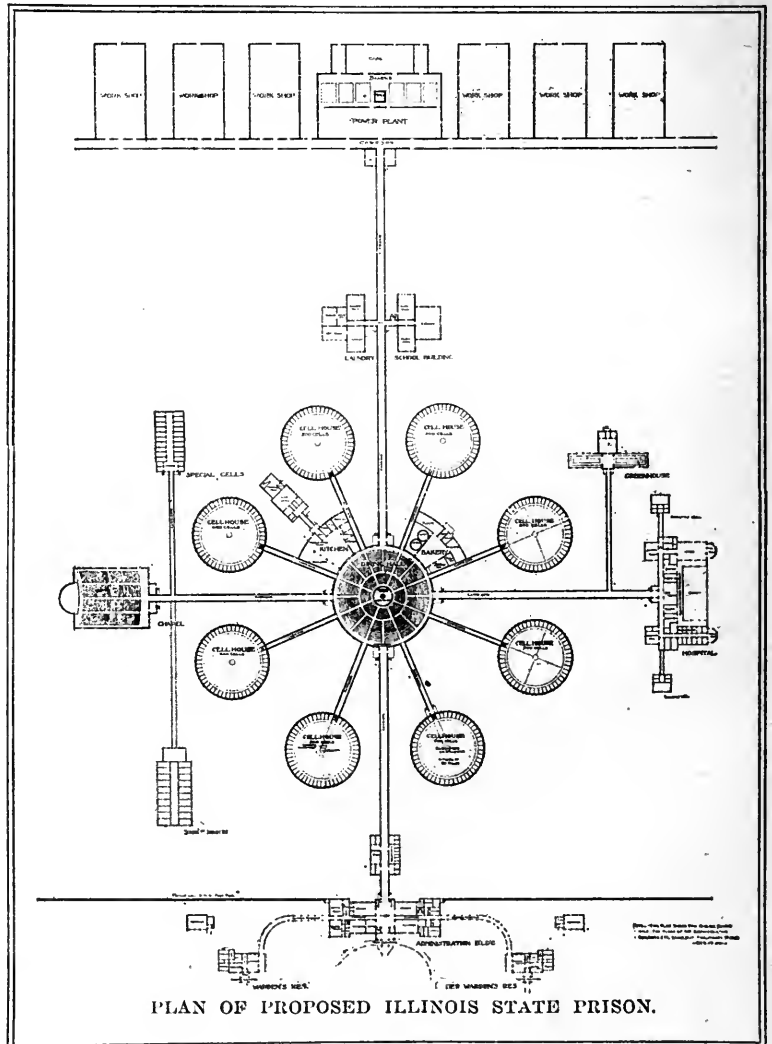
At present the prevailing construction of cell blocks in the United States embodies the following features:

- (a) The walls of the building.
- (b) The corridor next the wall.
- (c) The cell blocks, which are back to back, except for the so-called utility corridor which separates the rows of cells.

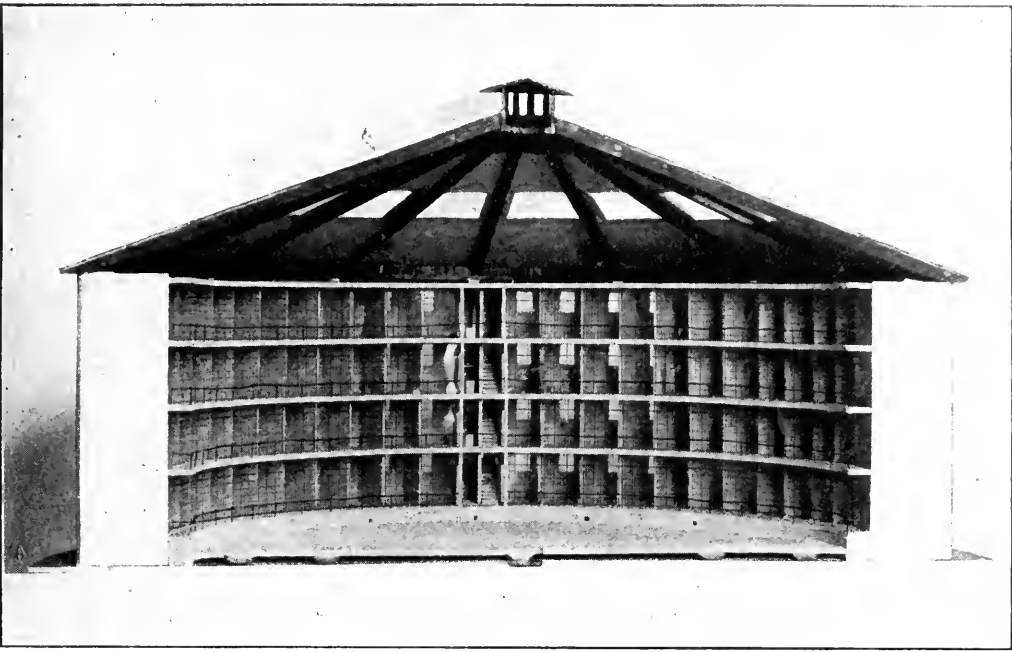
In short, it is a double cell block built within a building known as the cell house. It is obvious that the natural light for the cells must come across the corridor through windows in the wall of the building.

European prison construction is the exact opposite in that the cells are built on the "outside" principle, that is, up against the walls of the cell house. The corridor, therefore, is in the middle of the cell house and each cell is a room in itself, with a barred window to the outside air.

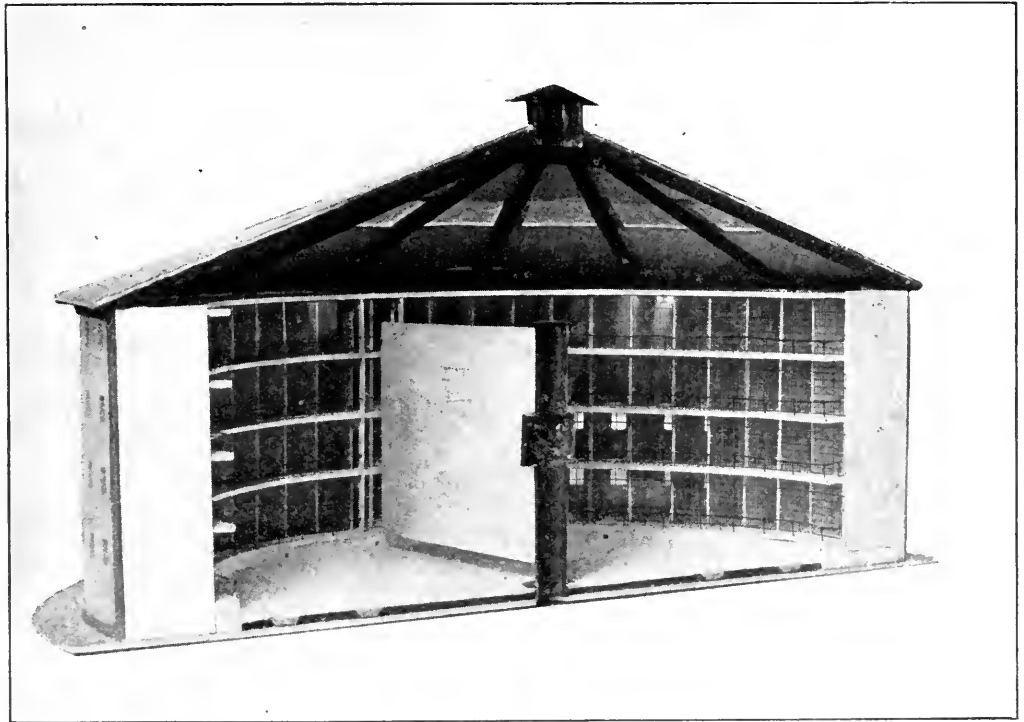
The "inside" cell construction in the United States has been held to have several distinct advantages. The utility corridor, containing the various pipes, wires, etc., is an economical form of construction. The cells on the "inside" are furthermore safer, in that the cell door acts as a barred window and the prisoner



PLAN OF PROPOSED ILLINOIS STATE PRISON.



HALF-SECTION MODEL OF PROPOSED ILLINOIS STATE PRISON CELL-HOUSES.



HALF-SECTION MODEL OF PROPOSED ILLINOIS STATE PRISON CELL-HOUSES, WITH PARTITION AND CENTRAL CONING TOWER.

in order to escape must first get through the cell door, then through the wall of the cell house, and then over the wall of the prison grounds.

Prisons built on the "inside" plan are often strongly criticised because of the limited amount of direct sunlight and direct fresh air that may be admitted to the cells. The importance of these two essentials of life is obvious. A further objection to the "inside" cell plan is that, as the cells have no doors, the acts and the words of one prisoner can be readily heard or learned throughout a good part of the cell house. Supervision with either the "inside" or the "outside" plan is at present carried on through the patrolling of the corridors by a guard.

The plan evolved by Mr. Zimmerman for the cell house of the new Joliet prison seemingly overcomes the objections above named in a most careful manner. Mr. Zimmerman proposes to build circular-shaped cell houses, about 120 feet in diameter, placing the cells against the cell house wall, thus assuring direct light and air. Now comes the novelty. Instead of having an open front of steel bars, heavy glass will be fitted in the open space between these bars so as to make a completely closed room out of the cell. A full view, however, of this room is possible from a central point. This central point is a steel shaft in the center of the cell house, enclosing a circular stairway. The stairway will be as high as the highest tier of cells, and from a position half-way up the circular stairway, which is completely sheathed with steel, the guard within the "conning tower" has a full view of each and every cell, at the mere turn of his head. The shaft will be arranged with narrow slots opposite the level of the eye so that it will be impossible for inmates to see the guard and impossible for them to know at what time they are under observation. The shaft will be bullet-proof, and in case of possible mutiny assures absolute safety for the guard. An armed guard could undoubtedly from his secure position readily control a mob, even though the mob be fully armed. Entrance to the shaft will be possible only through a tunnel which opens into the administration building outside the prison en-

closure.

A number of these circular cell houses will be erected as indicated in the group plan here published. That this arrangement lends itself most readily to extension is evident.

Another novel feature is the possibility of classification of prisoners in different groups. Easily moving partitions will be erected as high as the upper tier of rooms and placed with sufficient frequency so that no prisoner will be able to see from his cell into any other cell, an arrangement which does not interfere with the view of the guard in the "conning tower" into any room.

Escape seems practically impossible, for the guard in the "conning tower" will have at his hand a complete system of levers, push-buttons, etc., electrically controlled in such a way that at any time the locks of any or all of the tiers may be locked or unlocked and the lights in any or all of the cells may be dimmed or increased.

In order that all rooms may obtain direct sunlight the roof will be made largely of glass, and the diameter of the cell house is sufficiently large to admit of the sun shining into the lowest tier of rooms facing the north.

The building of this prison in Illinois will be watched with great interest by all in the United States who are interested in the construction of prisons and in the proper housing of the delinquent. The circular form of prison is not new. In 1901 a modern circular prison was built in Haarlem, Holland, to accommodate about 400 inmates. The Haarlem prison, however, has wooden doors for each cell, which renders the supervision of the prisoners much more difficult. The new features of Mr. Zimmerman's plan are the glass inside front, the circular form of construction, the central stairway with its "conning tower," the partition providing for the obstruction of vision and for the classification of prisoners, and the elimination of a large number of the attendants otherwise needed for supervision. Mr. Zimmerman believes that this cell house can be built for 10 per cent less than the familiar rectangular cell block containing an equal number of inmates.

BOOKS

LILIAN BRANDT, Contributing Editor

INDIVIDUALITY

By EDWARD L. THORNDIKE. Houghton Mifflin Company. 56 pp. 35 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 39 cents.

A new vitality is given to the arguments and the sentiment for individual treatment in every kind of work by Professor Thorndike's impressive statement of the scientific basis on which such arguments and sentiment rest, or might rest. We all know, of course, and even realize, that millions upon millions of different conditions of traits may exist; that a large portion of them do exist." But this is not all of it, and the rest is actually exciting in its contradiction of popular fallacies. Professor Thorndike shows that the varieties of human nature "do not divide naturally into distinct types," that children, for example, cannot be grouped into distinct classes, such as bright, average, and dull, with gaps between, but that the variations in any one trait are continuous, so that every degree is represented. He shows, further, that the variations usually cluster around one and only one type: i. e. that if human beings are rated according to any single trait it will be found that the great bulk of them have very nearly the same amount of that quality and that specially low and specially high degrees of it are found in comparatively few individuals; in other words, that "the first duty of the thinker is to learn the constitution of the one type man. His second duty is to learn each individual's variation from this common humanity. In theory it means that man is mentally, as much as physically, one species. In practice it means that each individual must be considered by himself." Going farther, Professor Thorndike asserts that our common classifications into a "quick but careless" type and a "slow but sure" type, "pre-supposing relations of compensation between intrinsically desirable traits, are almost certainly illusory," and that, on the contrary, all the trustworthy studies so far made show that "having a large measure of one good quality *increases* the probability that one will have more than the average of any other good quality. . . . Artistic ability . . .

goes *with* scientific ability and matter-of-fact wisdom. The best abstract thinker will be above the average in concrete thought also. The rapid workers are the more accurate. Intellectual ability and moral worth hang together." While this treatment of the subject is primarily for educators and from the educational standpoint there are hints of its applicability to other kinds of work. "All the sciences and arts of controlling human nature must accept the original variety of human nature as a condition for thought and action. The economist must not consider men as all seeking with steadfast rationality to buy as cheap and sell as dear as they can.

The religious worker should not hope to arouse uniformly the same sense of guilt and longing for justification to which he and his intimates testify. . . . All thought and action will be more reasonable and humane if we look for variety in men and examine each nature in a scientific spirit to learn what it really is, instead of idly judging it by some customary superstition."

MAKING BOTH ENDS MEET

By SUE AINSLIE CLARK and EDITH WYATT. The Macmillan Company. 270 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

"This book is composed of the economic records of self-supporting women living away from home in New York. . . . The records were not exhaustive trade-studies of the several trades in which the workers were engaged. They constituted rather an accurate kinetoscope view of the yearly lives of chance passing workers in those trades." So conscientious and modest a statement in the preface is a strong plea for a book based on social investigation. And indeed this one is not disappointing, as those who read the original articles in *McClure's* will doubtless agree. It is not, and does not claim to be, a comprehensive study of working-women, nor even of working-women living away from home, nor of the conditions in the trades which employ women. The authors carefully refrain even from drawing a conclusion as to what amount is a "living wage" in general for self-supporting women in New York city. What they give is a series of descriptions of the lives of actual working girls—what they earn and how they earn it and especially how they spend it, what they get for their six, or eight, or ten dollars a week in the way of food and clothes and lodging and pleasure, what it means to be "laid off" or to be sick. The stories are told carefully, with great sympathy but no hysteria, and they leave no doubt as to their accuracy. They have the impressiveness and the appeal of all genuine realism. By showing what has happened in particular establishments, moreover, and to particular girls, they raise questions and suggest improvements. The laundry report has already had practical results in New York.

THE LIVING WAGE OF WOMEN WORKERS

By LOUISE MARION BOSWORTH. American Academy of Political and Social Science. 90 pp. 75 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 80 cents.

Ten dollars a week, regularly, or five hundred dollars a year, is the amount indicated by this study as a living wage for a self-dependent woman in Boston. The basis is records of the expenses of 450 women wage-earners, one hundred of whom were living at home or in the families of friends. This

ratio makes it difficult to accept without qualification the claim of Professor Baldwin in the introduction, that "the results are fairly representative of the living conditions among working women of all ranks in one American city." Probably not more than 35 per cent of the working women of Boston, instead of 80 per cent, live away from home. The two groups are not distinguished in the statistical tables, so that it is impossible to see whether the presumption is justified that their expenditures would probably differ, and whether, therefore, the conclusions reached from the combined data are sound. No copy of the schedule is given, and it is therefore impossible to decide whether it may not have been doing violence to the material to get it into the numerous neat, finished, detailed tables which are presented. We suspect that the descriptive text, especially that large part of it which does not refer directly to the statistics, is worth far more than the figures. Especially valuable are the accounts of individual economics and makeshifts, of efforts to have "a home," of the serious difficulties in the way of getting adequate food, of the varying demands of different occupations in the way of dress, of the amount of help given to others out of even meagre wages, and the general consideration of working women as women and not merely as workers.

HOUSEKEEPING NOTES

Edited by MABEL IVDE KITTEDGE. Whitcomb and Barrows. 97 pp. 80 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 86 cents.

"How to furnish and keep house in a tenement flat" is the sub-title which tells exactly what this book is. It requires no other recommendation than the name of Miss Kittredge, who had charge of the first Model Flat in New York and to whom is due the extension of this practical method of improving the housekeeping of the tenements. Although it is in the form of a series of lessons to be used by the teachers in the "practical housekeeping centers" of New York city, it would be equally helpful to any woman who is keeping house on a modest budget in restricted quarters.

SOYER'S PAPER-BAG COOKERY

By NICOLAS SOYER, late chef of Brooks's Club, London. Sturgis and Walton Company. Pp. 130. 60 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 65 cents.

Economic advantages are claimed for this method of preparing food which, if well-founded, should make it indeed "a boon to the humblest housewife." It is said that there is no shrinkage in the weight of the food; no loss of flavor—and no odors outside the bag; less fuel required; and no pots and pans to wash or to find room for. For these reasons it is especially recommended for "the workingman's home" and a week's dinners are suggested for a family consisting of father, mother, and three or four school children. Soyer commends his invention also to working women living alone in single rooms; and he includes an account of "how a lonely

barrister entertained a guest" when his housekeeper left him suddenly. It stimulates the appetite, at any rate, merely to read the recipes, and tempts one to try them. There is no hint in them, it should be said, that a paper bag will take the place of intelligent care on the part of the cook. On the contrary, directions must be followed scrupulously, and in addition there seems to be room for judgment.

THE COMMON PEOPLE OF ANCIENT ROME

By FRANK FROST ABBOTT. Charles Scribner's Sons. 200 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

In the year 301 A. D. the high cost of living was a topic of pressing concern in Rome. To relieve the situation the emperor Diocletian issued an edict in which he fixed the maximum retail prices for all ordinary commodities, including various kinds of labor, and prescribed the death penalty for any violation. From this price list of seven or eight hundred articles, by ingenious manipulation and calculation and comparison with statistics of our Bureau of Labor (involving, it must be admitted, an uncomfortable number of assumptions and unknown quantities), Professor Abbott concludes that conditions of life for the urban workman of the fourth century must have been almost intolerable, since almost all the nutritious articles of food were beyond his means. Diocletian's law did not work. We mention it to show how Professor Abbott expresses his Romans in terms of present-day problems. He finds organizations of capitalists similar in some respects to our corporations and discovers that the pioneer monopoly was an oil trust—olive oil, to be sure. He shows that labor was completely organized, in what he calls trade unions, though he explains that their objects were social and religious, not economic. In the two traditional occasions when the plebians stopped work and withdrew to the Sacred Mount as a means of securing their demands, he sees an early instance of the general strike. He contrasts the items in city budgets of the Roman Empire and of the United States to-day, and he examines with care the effect on municipal life and on the character of the people of the lavish private benefactions which were expected of officials and characteristic of wealthy private citizens.

ARGENTINA AND HER PEOPLE OF TO-DAY

By NEVIN O. WINTER. L. C. Page and Company. 421 pp. \$3.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.20.

There are interesting glimpses of social and economic conditions in this popular description of one of the great countries of a still newer world than our own. Argentina is "one of the greatest food-producing countries on the face of the globe."—"It has a rapidly growing population which has reached 7,000,000 and may easily become 100,000,000 as far as the resources of the country are concerned."—"Immigration is encouraged by the government, with more success than has

met the efforts of any other South American republic."—"Superficiality is too often a characteristic of the education offered."—"In Buenos Aires there are twice as many [police] in proportion to the population as in New York."—"Midway on the southern coast of Tierra del Fuego, and on the Argentine side, is a bleak and inhospitable coast upon which the government has established a prison. . . . Few attempt to escape, . . . for the loneliness and desolation alone would keep a prisoner where human companionship might be found."—"A general wastefulness characterizes all classes."—"Nowhere is the discrepancy between wealth and poverty greater. In one generation hundreds have become wealthy by the growth in land values, the unearned increment, and they spend their money like water. . . . At present the country is materially prosperous and every one is able to find employment. The cost of living, however, is very high and rapidly increasing."

THE ECONOMIC PRINCIPLES OF CONFUCIUS AND HIS SCHOOL

By CHEN HUAN-CHANG. Columbia University. 2 vols. 756 pp. \$6.00 in cloth; \$5.00 in paper; by mail of THE SURVEY \$6.22, \$5.20.

In this exhaustive study by a Confucianist who has wide acquaintance with the best economic literature of the occident we shall find, so says Professor Seager in the preface, "that Confucianism is a great economic, as well as a great moral and religious, system and that it contains most, if not all, of the elements necessary to the solution of the serious problems that confront China to-day."

AN OPEN LETTER TO SOCIETY FROM CONVICT 1776

FLEMING H. REVELL COMPANY. 160 pp. 75 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 82 cents.

"Some persons offend your law; of these offenders, a few are caught; of these a few are punished. We are your punished class."—"This, then, is the weakness in your penal system: the uncertainty with which punishment follows crime."—"The tramp is your unsolved riddle."—"If you are to profit by the lessons of history, . . . if you are to prefer good citizens to desperate criminals . . . you will abolish vengeance and hatred from your system, in fact as well as in theory, and you will strive so to reform your penitentiaries and their inmates, that you will be able to undo some of the evils your penal system has been accomplishing."—"Although a very few crimes are committed as a result of real want, the greater part of the crimes against property are the result of imagined necessity."—"You cannot teach a man habits of industry when you deprive him of all the products of his labor."—"You pervert self-reliance when you attempt to break a man's spirit and to make him dependent."—"Out of the many objections to your system, or want of system, of administering justice . . ."—"You cannot administer justice while either sickly sentimentality or hate and malice influence your judgments."

These quotations will serve to indicate that the proposals of the "habitual criminal" who here addresses "Modern Society" deserve serious consideration. He suggests, constructively, that in the case of crimes against property the offender should be required to make complete restitution to his victim and to the state for the cost of his crime; that he should be placed on probation until he does so unless his crime is due to some vice or passion or "a perverted mind," in which case he should have sanatorium treatment—including work—until cured; that when he has made full restitution and been cured he should be brought into court and formally reinstated in society; that vagrancy laws should be strictly enforced; that the possibility of escaping detection should be reduced to a minimum; that professional incorrigible criminals should practically be kept in permanent custody.

HISTORY AND PROBLEMS OF ORGANIZED LABOR

By FRANK TRACY CARLTON. D. C. Heath and Company. Pp. 483. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.14.

Less than one-fifth is "history," but even at that it is the first book to attempt anything like a history of organized labor in this country. Commons's Trade Unionism and Labor Problems deals with typical unions and typical problems; Adams and Sumner's Labor Problems treats of the problems alone, as the title indicates. The first four chapters of Carlton's book, describing the successive phases of the labor movement, will therefore be welcome. After this brief history the problems and methods of the unions are considered. Then comes a third group of chapters which constitute the bulk of the book and also its distinctive contribution. They deal with the relation between organized labor and such social problems as sweat-shops, child labor, unemployment, and industrial education. It is shown that the principal causes of strikes hitherto have been wages, hours, and recognition of the union, and that comparatively little consideration has been given by unions even to questions of such vital importance to them as accidents and sanitation in factories. So large a part of the book is taken up with the social problems which have not yet been definitely recognized by organized labor as especially within its field that this feature might properly have determined its title. There are extensive bibliographies at the end of each chapter, which add to its usefulness as a text-book, but are not in every respect up to date.

THE RAILWAY LIBRARY, 1910

Compiled and edited by SEASON THOMPSON. Bureau of Railway News and Statistics, Chicago. 456 pp. 15 cents in stamps.

This is the second issue of an annual of information of current interest in regard to railway problems. It contains an historical account of American railways up to the year 1863; the annual report of the Bureau of

Railway News and Statistics for the year ending June 30, 1910; and a number of recent papers and addresses, including one on the Prevention of Railway Accidents, by the general superintendent of the Pennsylvania lines west of Pittsburgh.

THE CRUX

By CHARLOTTE PERKINS GILMAN. Charlton Company. 311 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.

From Mrs. Gilman's freely-flowing pen this time has run off a novel on the subject of the venereal diseases. A girl is saved from marrying a syphilitic (and otherwise objectionable) young man by plain words from a woman physician who had personally suffered from "the conspiracy of silence," and later she finds a man whom the author approves, though even he—the physician of the young man—had so little sense of responsibility that he declined to interfere at all in the ruin of the girl's life when that seemed imminent. In spite of numerous comic opera effects, and such carelessness as calling a lady "Miss Jessie" on the first page and "Miss Josie" on the second, the story and the characters are not without interest, and should do something to teach the lesson which is put into the mouth of the sprightly, up-to-date grandmother in the words: "Beware of a biological sin....; for it there is no forgiveness."

THE STUNTED SAPLINGS

By JOHN CARLETON SHERMAN. Sherman, French, and Company. 50 pp. 60 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 65 cents.

Mr. Sherman's thesis may be briefly stated in his own words. "The evolutionists have painted for us in lurid colors the ferocity of nature's methods, against which the individual who survives appears only as the insensate but lucky plaything of blind and ravaging powers. . . . But it is not so . . . That man who wholly conforms to the law of his own development and cooperates with the forces of nature for wise and wholesome purposes lays all creation in tribute to himself."

THE SOCIAL ENGINEER

By EDWIN L. EARP. Eaton and Mains. 326 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

The burden of Dr. Earp's message is that the church is responsible for removing those social conditions which weaken and degrade the individual, that it must stand for "preventive salvation." He also emphasizes the importance of social activity in developing the individual church worker. From the whole field of social movements are gathered suggestions of work which church organizations might undertake or which individuals might do as volunteers. It will undoubtedly be of value in awakening the enthusiasm of many who are vaguely seeking some form of service and are not aware of the many opportunities offered. From the point of view of social workers there is, however, an apparent failure to emphasize the need for ex-

perience and training before these complex tasks are undertaken. One gasp at this suggestion for providing social service departments: "The social engineer should organize in every church a group of young people who would be able to cooperate with the physicians in treating those cases in the hospitals which need social treatment as well as medical." Is there not danger that the "social engineer" might find himself a "social wrecker"?

THE INNER MISSION

By REV. J. T. ORL, Mus. D. General Council Publication House. 253 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.

An account of the history and present activity of the Inner Mission movement in the Lutheran church, the purpose of which is "the relief of the spiritual and physical needs of our evangelical people by means of the preached word and the ministrations of Christian love."

THE EDUCATIONAL VIEWS AND INFLUENCE OF DE WITT CLINTON

By EDWARD A. FITZPATRICK, Teachers College, Columbia University. Pp. 157. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.65.

In Massachusetts, says Mr. Fitzpatrick, the student finds that every one who did anything to forward education had a fellow-townsmen at hand to record his work or else took time later to record it himself. In New York, on the other hand, material is scanty. This contribution to the educational history of the state establishes the claim "that Clinton should be ranked with Mann and Barnard in a trinity of educational leadership in the United States." It shows that De Witt Clinton's theory of the function of education was the one currently accepted to-day: to provide for the widest possible diffusion of the social heritage by making educational facilities universal—to reach female as well as male, black and red as well as white, the dumb and the blind as well as the physically normal—and by developing the less formal educational agencies such as museums and libraries and learned and professional societies. His services in making this social conception prevail and getting it embodied in the institutions of his day are worth studying. Not all that he hoped for has yet been accomplished.

SCHOOL LIFE

Edited by T. N. KELYNACK, M.D. Charles H. Kelly. London. 160 pp. 30 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 35 cents.

The third of the National Health Manuals contains twelve articles by different "medical experts" on topics connected with the health of school children. The most interesting of the twelve, perhaps because it seems so stupendous in scope as to be fore-doomed to failure, is a summary of the "characteristics of school children," by the school medical inspector of the Liverpool District. In six pages Dr. Arkle enumerates the physical and mental conditions which are common to children from three to fourteen years of age and

which should therefore be kept in mind in plans for their welfare from any point of view.

A GLANCE AT SOME EUROPEAN AND AMERICAN VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

By MARY CROWELL WELLES. The Consumers' League of Connecticut. 64 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 60 cents.

A compact summary by the secretary of the Consumers' League of Connecticut, based on personal investigation, of the efforts which are being made in Holland, Belgium, Germany, England, and the United States to provide vocational training for children between twelve and sixteen years of age.

LONDON PRIDE AND LONDON SHAME

By L. COPE CORNFORD. P. S. King and Son, London. 1910. 174 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.58.

Short papers about such objects of "pride" as St. Paul's, the Abbey, the port, Fleet street, the bus driver, and such reasons for "shame" as the casual laborer on the docks and undernourished children. The final chapter combines the two by a dramatic contrast. It shows two children setting forth from a wretched, hopeless home to celebrate Empire Day at school. There is some good writing in the book—the reportorial descriptions of a Hyde Park meeting, for example, of an editor's office, of a suffragist demonstration, of an operation by a skilled surgeon—but no social message. The author realizes this. He tells us in the preface that after his first book in which he described distressing conditions, called the Canker at the Heart, he received many letters asking him "what ought to be done," to which he could not give a satisfactory answer. The only answer he suggests now is that "each individual in each class of society" should do his "duty," but he leaves the impression that he would hardly expect this to be adequate.

WOMAN'S PART IN GOVERNMENT

By WILLIAM H. ALLEN. Dodd, Mead, and Company. 377 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

"Outside is inside to stay." This is one of the cryptic sayings with which Mr. Allen stimulates the curiosity of his readers. It appears first as an entire paragraph, in the middle of the first page, and the key to its meaning is supplied by the rest of the page. It is itself characteristic of the style of the book, which is made up so largely of short, crisp, epigrammatic, not infrequently enigmatic, sentences that it reads much like a collection of proverbs. While it is addressed to women, "the suggestions here made," says the author, "relate as well to men as to women." It seems to be, in fact, a collection of things which Mr. Allen has thought, or has thought of saying, about the responsibility of the private citizen for the way in which the public business in general, and various parts of it in particular, are conducted. Why he should complicate this by applying it to one sex, and why he should keep recurring to the question of "Votes for

Women" only to argue its irrelevancy, are not clear to this one of his chosen audience—though to be sure he explains at intervals throughout the book. Mr. Allen's object is "not to settle but to raise questions" and for that he has an extraordinary faculty. His dogmatic assertions challenge attention and make you feel it necessary to decide whether you agree or not—unless you happen to have that reverential attitude toward books which accepts as true any statement that gets into one. One of the questions we should like to argue with him is that "no unofficial citizen can ever be as interesting to a community as a citizen official," which he substantiates by saying that "when the president of a private university speaks his message goes directly to that limited portion of the public which subscribes to his college yell," while "when . . . the president of the state university speaks, or the secretary of the state board of health, every person in the state involuntarily feels that he himself is speaking," and, inferentially, takes a profound interest in the utterance. On the other hand, here is a sentence which arouses in us nothing but sincere gratitude for its felicity: "If we can ever get rid of the man or woman who wants \$10 worth of satisfaction for five cents, it will be easy to get rid of the man or woman who wants five cents or \$5 for a hard luck story." We should expect the book to be more popular with men than with women, because, as one of them has expressed it, it might have been called "What women can do for us without our doing anything for them." Perhaps, however, for that very reason it will appeal to women; perhaps, after all, that is just what they want to do, and Mr. Allen has only, whether by instinct or by deep design, found the secret spring which controls feminine psychology. Perhaps they will not even resent being told that "woman has no right to be a social problem or problem creator," humbly recognizing that that should remain man's prerogative.

BOOKS RECEIVED IN DECEMBER

THE COMMON PEOPLE OF ANCIENT ROME.
By FRANK FROST ABBOTT. Charles Scribner's Sons. 290 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

THE SOCIAL TASK OF CHRISTIANITY.
By SAMUEL ZANE BATES. Fleming H. Revell Company. 234 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.34.

THE MIND OF PRIMITIVE MAN.
By FRANZ BOAS. The Macmillan Company. 294 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

COMMISSION GOVERNMENT IN AMERICAN CITIES.
By ERNEST S. BRADFORD, Ph. D. The Macmillan Company. 359 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

SCIENTIFIC MENTAL HEALING.
By H. ADDINGTON BRUCE. Little, Brown, and Company. 258 pp. \$1.58; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

THE LAW OF THE EMPLOYMENT OF LABOR.
By LINDEY D. CLARK. The Macmillan Company. 373 pp. \$1.60; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.70.

THE WAY WITH THE NERVES.

By JOSEPH COLLINS, M.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 313 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.58.

THE LIFE OF JOHN RUSKIN.

By E. T. COOK. The Macmillan Company. 2 vols. 1165 pp. \$7.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$7.40.

SONGS IN THE EVENING.

By EMILY A. DINWIDDIE. Sherman, French, and Company. 79 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.

SOME CHEMICAL PROBLEMS OF TO-DAY.

By ROBERT KENNEDY DUNCAN. Harper and Brothers. 254 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.15.

SEX IN RELATION TO SOCIETY.

By HAVELOCK ELLIS. F. A. Davis Company. 656 pp. \$3.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.20.

JEREMIAH'S SAMMY.

By CHARLES SUMNER GABRIEL. The C. M. Clark Publishing Company. 303 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

THE CRUX.

By CHARLOTTE PERKINS GILMAN. The Charlton Company. 311 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.

SOME FUNDAMENTAL VERITIES IN EDUCATION.

By MAXIMILIAN P. E. GROSZMANN. Richard G. Badger. 118 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.06.

SOCIAL EVOLUTION AND POLITICAL THEORY.

By LEONARD T. HOBBHOUSE. The Columbia University Press. 218 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

JINKS' INSIDE.

By HARRIET HOBSON. George W. Jacobs Company. 248 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.

AMERICAN SOCIALISM OF THE PRESENT DAY.

By JESSIE WALLACE HUGHAN. John Lane Company. 255 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

AUTHORITY.

By A. and C. P. HUIZINGA. Sherman, French, and Company. 270 pp. \$2.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.40.

A HANDBOOK OF HEALTH.

By WOODS HUTCHINSON, A.M., M.D. Houghton Mifflin Company. 348 pp. 65 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 77 cents.

THE RECORD OF AN ADVENTUROUS LIFE.

By HENRY MAYERS HYNDMAN. The Macmillan Company. 422 pp. \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.87.

THE HEREDITY OF RICHARD ROE.

By DAVID STARR JORDAN. American Unitarian Association. 165 pp. \$1.20; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.26.

THE GIRL THAT GOES WRONG.

By REGINALD WRIGHT KAUFFMAN. Moffat, Yard, and Company. 226 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

THE AMERICAN PEOPLE, VOL. II.

By MARGRICE LOW. Houghton Mifflin Company. 608 pp. \$2.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.40.

SEARCHLIGHTS ON SOME AMERICAN INDUSTRIES.

By JAMES C. MILLS. A. C. McClurg and Company. 299 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

THE NINE-TENTHS.

By JAMES OPPENHEIM. Harper and Brothers. 319 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.37.

THE BOY WITH THE UNITED STATES CENSUS.

By FRANCIS ROLT-WHEELER. Lothrop, Lee, and Shepard. 354 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

THE INDIVIDUALIZATION OF PUNISHMENT.

By RAYMOND SALEILLES. Little, Brown, and Company. 322 pp. \$4.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$4.70.

INCREASING HUMAN EFFICIENCY IN BUSINESS.

By WALTER DILL SCOTT. The Macmillan Company. 339 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

THE BROKEN WALL.

By EDWARD A. STEINER. Fleming H. Revell Company. 219 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.09.

THE RAILWAY LIBRARY, 1910.

Compiled and edited by SLASON THOMPSON. May be obtained from the Bureau of Railway News and Statistics, Chicago, for 15 cents in stamps. 456 pp.

THE SUPERSTITION CALLED SOCIALISM.

By G. W. DE TUNZELMANN. J. B. Lippincott. 394 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.59.

CAUSES OF THE ELIMINATION OF STUDENTS IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY.

By JOSEPH KING VAN DENBURG, Ph.D. Teachers College, Columbia University. 206 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

MY LARGER EDUCATION.

By BOOKER T. WASHINGTON. Doubleday, Page, and Company. 313 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.65.

GRANTS IN AID.

By SIDNEY WEBB. Longmans, Green, and Company. 135 pp. \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.83.

A MANUAL OF MENTAL SCIENCE.

By LEANDER EDMUND WHIPPLE. The American School of Metaphysics. 221 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.

THE HOLIDAY CONVENTIONS

ECONOMICS

SOCIOLOGY

STATISTICS

LABOR LEGISLATION

THE AMERICAN ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION

T. N. CARVER

The twenty-fourth annual meeting of the American Economic Association, Washington, D. C., December 27-30, was, all things considered, the most noteworthy in its history. The attendance was larger than ever before, though not in proportion to the to-

tal number of members. The sessions attracted more visitors from the general public than any meeting within the memory of the oldest members. The address of the retiring president, Prof. Henry W. Farnam was one of the best of the series of annual addresses. He took for his subject the Economic Utilization of History, which he was careful to distinguish sharply from the economic interpretation of history. The

economist, he said, finds in the utilization of historical data all that the physical scientist finds in the records of his own laboratory experiments and those of others. While the economist can not himself perform experiments in social economy he finds in historical records and other data the record of countless experiments, sometimes on a vast, sometimes on a small scale. Witty and humorous, Prof. Farnam's address won the admiration of an audience of trained and general hearers.

This was the first meeting to be honored in person by a president of the United States. Mr. Taft was the association's guest at luncheon Thursday and spoke on the need of more scientific methods of framing a federal budget. The president gave a clear, strong, and courageous address which was endorsed by every one present. With clearness as to the need of a method of co-ordinating the income and the outgo of the federal budget, there was combined practical statesmanship in his minute knowledge of the political difficulties in the way.

Tariff Reform, Rural Conditions, and Immigration were the themes of three separate sessions. Chairman Emery, of the Tariff Commission, opened the discussion Thursday morning with a paper on economic investigation as a basis for tariff legislation. He outlined the plans of the Tariff Commission and the methods pursued in receiving information necessary for rational tariff legislation. Prof. H. Parker Willis followed with a paper in opposition, pointing out with some particularity the unsound assumptions on which he said all proposals for scientific protection are based. Particularly telling was his analysis of the "difference in cost of production" theory, and his contention that in a given line of production the most efficient American producers need no protection against foreign competition, while the more inefficient American producers need protection against their more efficient American competitors more than they do against foreign competitors.

At the session on Rural Conditions there were two principal papers, one by Dr. John L. Coulter on Rural Conditions in the South and one by Prof. B. H. Hibbard on the Decline of the Rural Population. The former was discussed by such well known Southern students as Principal Frizzell of Hampton, President Branson of Athens, Ga., Professor Glasson of Trinity College, and Professor Du Bois of Atlanta. Dr. Coulter gave an admirable statistical analysis of the tendencies with respect to land tenure since the Civil War. Professor Hibbard showed that there were two main areas within which there has been a general decline in the rural population, the first the northeastern section, taking in western New York and northwestern Pennsylvania, the second taking in the corn belt of the Middle West. Confining his attention mainly to the latter he showed that the decline in the number of rural workers was in a certain sense balanced by the in-

crease in the number of work-horses and the value of farm machinery, so that the land was being better cultivated and was actually producing more per acre and a great deal more per man. From this point of view it appears that the migration to the towns and to the Canadian Northwest is a means by which the standard of living of the western farmers is being raised. This paper was in the main endorsed by Prof. H. C. Taylor of the University of Wisconsin and George N. Lauman of Cornell, both students of rural economics.

The session on Immigration was opened by Prof. H. P. Fairchild of Yale with a paper on Restriction of Immigration, in which he reviewed the pros and cons in a comprehensive manner. While not accepting all the arguments given in favor of restriction, Professor Fairchild left no doubt that he was a restrictionist, mainly on the ground that unrestricted immigration menaced the standard of living of American labor. In the long discussion which followed, Dr. Mary Walker had no difficulty in finding a connection between immigration and dress reform; Dr. J. L. Cowles found the solution in free transportation, while Dr. Kohler thought that the country needed larger supplies of cheap labor for its proper development.

Prof. Emily G. Balch, while not opposing restriction, very effectively punctured some of the arguments commonly used for restriction. Professor Willcox showed statistically that the net immigration is less than is commonly supposed, there being a large return migration to the Old World. Professor Jenks, representing the Immigration Commission, corrected certain misstatements by the opposition relating to the methods and conclusions of the commission.

W. W. Husband read an illuminating paper on the significance of immigration, particularly to Canada. In the discussion which followed, Prof. E. A. Ross, who never speaks except with the vigor and insight of an ancient prophet, pointed to the inevitable outcome of the present tendency of substituting cheaper and cheaper labor with lower and ever lower standards of living for existing standards. With the English, Scotch, German, and Scandinavian laborers already practically ceasing to come to us because our conditions seem not sufficiently attractive to tempt them from their own countries, and with the Italians beginning to show signs of preferring to stay at home, we may look forward to a time when our laboring population will be reduced to such conditions that even the Slavs, Greeks, and Armenians will cease to be attracted; then Afghans, Hindus, and other Asiatic coolies will pour in until even they will eventually reduce our conditions to a level with their own.

At the business meeting Professor Fetter, of Princeton, was elected president for 1912, and Boston was chosen as the place of the next annual meeting. Membership in the American Economic Association is open to

all students and others interested in economics, who should correspond with the secretary.

THE AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY

HERBERT M. SHENTON

The headquarters of the American Sociological Society were, with those of the American Economic Association, at the Hotel Raleigh. The program of this sixth annual meeting was significant of the vital relation of social theory to public policy. This was evinced in sessions devoted to such themes as the City as a Socializing Agency, Recreation as a Public Function, and the Selection of Population by Migration. A number of the addresses were given by men studying social theories in the field as well as in the cloister.

The presidential address at the opening session was delivered by Prof. Franklin H. Giddings of Columbia University on the theme, the Quality of Civilization. Emphasizing the need of social solidarity—which is so difficult of attainment with our ethnic heterogeneity—he said he held that as a nation we "acknowledge a certain solidarity of sentiment, and it appears to be fortified and more or less guided by our increasing solidarity of public opinion." He named as the three forces principally effective in the assimilative process in American life first, the standardization of consumption, a phase of economic evolution which "while producing differentiated ability as an incident of production is also producing a remarkable uniformity of mind and habit in respect to consumption and therefore an ever-increasing consciousness of kind to balance and control the consciousness of difference." The second influence is the scientific view of nature which eliminates the sectarian tendencies of religions of luck, magic, and special providence in a universal consciousness made possible by a broad scientific interpretation of nature. The third influence is the attention to social justice and an interest in things rather than men in the course of the class struggle now begun in our political evolution. These influences "will slowly blend the feelings and thoughts of our ethnically variegated populace. They will create in our mighty population the true solidarity of mind and heart."

"The corruption of our cities is not personal but institutional. We invite it and then wonder at it," said Dr. F. C. Howe of New York city in opening the session on the City as a Socializing Agency. "Poverty could be reduced to the vanishing point in our cities if the city would provide for the social rather than the individual gain," if there might be a city planning for social good, rather than city building by individual landlords anxious for and forced by competition to hasten quick returns. Washington was cited as an object lesson in city planning. Prof. Howard B. Woolston, of the College of the City of New York, followed this ad-

dress with a paper on the Urban Habit of Mind which was descriptive and semi-analytical in character. The development of nervous desires, the means of their satisfaction, and the results were effectively set forth, as well as the tendency of the personal element to fade away and the type to be recorded by numbers rather than by individuals. Paul U. Kellogg, associate editor of THE SURVEY, presented a study of the City and Industrial Cleavage.

To as many as could crowd into the hall Jane Addams, of Hull House, Chicago, spoke on Recreation as a Public Function in Urban Communities. In her characteristic manner Miss Addams traced most carefully the sociological principles on which her work has been so successfully constructed. She very especially emphasized the boy gang with its leader as the school for the training of political bosses skilled in the holding of personal allegiances through a superior knowledge of subterfuge, or powers with the men "higher up." Opposed to this she placed the public playground, with no one gang in charge, as the school of democracy where leadership was attained by really superior ability in prowess, imitation, the imaginative, and the constructive, resulting in an admiration for the variate, and thus tending to progress which must come through the variate. She decried the large amount of passive entertainment provided by showmen, which calls forth no democratic self-expression or discussion. C. W. Hetherington, of the Joseph Fels endowment in Play and Educational Athletics, then discussed Recreation in Rural Communities. He outlined the difficulties in the way of the introduction of the play idea, declaring that these are due to the lack of social and mental flexibility of elders as much as to any other conditions. He also held that democracy requires moral stability, social and mental flexibility, and self-expression, such as can best be developed by wholesome and constructive play life.

In the session on Selection of Population by Migration, Prof. H. P. Fairchild, of Yale University, read a paper setting forth the objectionable features of immigration and the remedies proposed. He claimed that no one of the proposed remedies covered more than one or two of the objections and some of them covered none. He proposed a number of elaborate plans, more or less ideal, which opened live discussion. Professor Walter F. Willcox of Cornell University presented some figures showing an increase of assimilation and a diminution in the percentage increase of immigrants if the emigration be considered, and suggested the fact that it is cheaper to import than to rear children. Prof. J. W. Jenks of the Immigration Commission called attention to the massive reports of the commission recently published for distribution. He pointed out that the literacy test was not an ideal of the commission, but the most "feasible" method of meeting a present exigency of excess in numbers.

Prof. Emily G. Balch of Wellesley University contended that the government should rather require than forbid contracts and should aid in the protection of the immigrant in making the same, advocated Mr. Kellogg's minimum wage scheme¹, declared the literacy test "stupid," suggested provision for the return of the disappointed immigrants, and urged the abolishment of the steerage.

The committee of ten appointed to suggest subject matter for a fundamental course in sociology submitted a printed report containing an outline of such work by each member of the committee.

The following officers of the society for the year 1912 were elected: president, Albion Small, Chicago University; vice-presidents, E. A. Ross, University of Wisconsin, George E. Vincent, president of the University of Minnesota; secretary-treasurer, Scott Bedford; executive committee, Charles Cooley, J. P. Lichtenberger, Emily G. Balch.

THE AMERICAN STATISTICAL ASSOCIATION

JOHN H. SHERMAN

This was the seventy-third annual meeting of the American Statistical Association and four open meetings were held besides the business meeting. At the first, December 28, President Frederick L. Hoffman presided. Roger W. Babson spoke on Forecasting Business Conditions by a Study of Statistics. Mr. Babson's address was able and direct and covered a subject which, for a thorough treatment, needed much more than the time allowed. He emphasized strongly that the federal government should forecast business conditions just as it now forecasts weather conditions for the different sections of the country and said that the census bureau should undertake this work. John Franklin Crowell, of the *Wall Street Journal*, who led the discussion, was in general agreement with the essentials of Mr. Babson's address. He expressed doubt as to the feasibility of applying the work on such a comprehensive scale as proposed by Mr. Babson. Mr. Crowell also spoke at some length on particular factors in the general business condition which experience has shown to be valuable indicators of future tendencies, and warned against too much faith in others.

In a convincing speech Prof. Walter F. Willcox, of Cornell University, former chief statistician for the census, answered Mr. Babson's criticism of the work of the Census Bureau. Professor Willcox called attention to the inverse ratio existing between promptness and accuracy, pointing out that the work proposed by Mr. Babson is largely in the nature of estimating, and that there is a clear distinction between statistics and scientific estimating. He emphasized also the greater importance of the work the bureau is now doing as a groundwork for other studies. Other discussion was noteworthy only for the fact that the speakers showed little or no grasp

¹See *THE SURVEY* for January 11, 1911.

of the theory underlying Mr. Babson's work, and no appreciation of the scope of its object.

The second meeting was held jointly with the American Economic Association, John Koren, in the absence of Dr. E. Dana Durand, director of the census, presiding. Papers were read by J. L. Coulter, of the Bureau of the Census, and Prof. B. H. Hibbard, of Iowa State Agricultural College, on Rural Conditions in the South, and Decline of the Rural Population of the United States. Principal points brought out were the growth of tenancy in the South, the increase of the proportion of hired labor, and the migration from the rural districts towards the large centers of population. Specially invited to lead the discussion were Dr. H. B. Frissell, Hampton Institute; E. C. Branson, Georgia State Normal; Prof. W. H. Glasson, Trinity College; Prof. W. E. B. DuBois, Atlanta University; Dr. A. E. Cance, Massachusetts Agricultural College; Prof. H. C. Taylor, University of Wisconsin; and Prof. G. N. Lauman, Cornell University.

The third and fourth meetings were on the Uniform Reporting of Industrial Injuries and the Naturalization of Immigrants. Papers on the first subject were read by L. W. Hatch, New York State Department of Labor; L. W. Chaney, United States Bureau of Labor; J. R. Commons, Wisconsin State Industrial Commission. On the second subject papers were read by F. C. Croxton of the United States Immigration Commission; and W. J. Lanck, statistical expert. The discussions brought out few definite conclusions, other than those already published by the Immigration Commission.

Officers elected for the year 1912 are: President, Walter F. Willcox, Cornell University; vice-presidents, E. Dana Durand, director of the census; H. W. Farnum, Yale University; H. W. Seager, Columbia University; Secretary MacVeagh, of the U. S. Treasury; Commissioner Neill, of the Bureau of Labor; Henry B. Gardner, Brown University; secretary, Carroll W. Doten, Boston; treasurer, S. B. Pearmain, Boston; Editor, John Koren, Boston.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION

HELEN L. SUMNER

Practical methods of conserving human life and energy were discussed by practical men at the meetings of the American Association for Labor Legislation held in Washington, D. C., December 27-30. How to prevent accidents and occupational diseases in the mining industry, how to compensate workmen for injuries and their dependent relatives for deaths, and how to obtain the statistics of industrial accidents and diseases necessary for a thorough solution of the problems of prevention and compensation—these were the subjects before a series of three memorable meetings. A fourth was

devoted to the increasingly pressing problem of unemployment.

That an association which has taken as its slogan "the conservation of human resources" has need of a 365-day-a-year campaign was repeatedly demonstrated by the speakers. In the face of the acknowledged fact that in protective labor legislation the United States is the most backward of the great industrial nations the following points were brought out. The "land of the free and home of the brave" kills more miners in a year, according to Dr. John R. Haynes, of Los Angeles, than all the rest of the world beside. The proportion of deaths of railroad employes, long known to be disgracefully high as compared with that in other countries, is higher even than generally realized, for the representative of the Interstate Commerce Commission stated that if a man fails to die within twenty-four hours after an accident—if he lives just twenty-four and one-half hours—he is officially classified as "seriously injured." Of all the men injured in work accidents not more than 15 per cent, according to John H. Wallace of the Industrial Insurance Commission of the state of Washington, are able to obtain compensation under the common law. For the rest the cost of injury must be borne by themselves and their families. Only thirteen states have special compensation acts and I. M. Rubinow, formerly of the United States Bureau of Labor and now statistician of an accident insurance company, charged that the United States government is a much worse employer in this respect than many large corporations.

At the meeting on Safety and Health in the Mining Industry, Dr. S. C. Hotchkiss of the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service spoke of occupational diseases. Director J. A. Holmes described the work of the United States Bureau of Mines, and Dr. Haynes showed that under state regulation during the past twenty years 30,000 coal miners have been killed and 80,000 seriously injured. He vigorously urged the formation of an interstate mining commission with power to enact and enforce regulations in this industry. The tendency toward federal action was further emphasized in the discussion of the relation of state to federal workmen's compensation and insurance legislation. This discussion was closed by an illuminating exposition of the constitutional status of workmen's compensation by Prof. Ernst Freund, of the University of Chicago.

From the standpoint of the practical work of the association perhaps the most important meeting of all was that devoted to the uniform reporting of industrial injuries. Here statisticians and representatives of insurance companies discussed point by point the schedule prepared by a special committee headed by Leonard W. Hatch, chief statistician of the New York State Department of Labor.

The interest of this schedule, the form of which has already been adopted in the state of Washington and

which it is hoped will soon be so widely used as to make it possible for the first time to compare statistics from different states, is evidenced by the fact that, when the morning meeting adjourned, it was arranged to have a special round table discussion of the subject in the afternoon. Nothing more clearly emphasized the practical, constructive character of the Association for Labor Legislation than the patience and earnestness which its members devoted to deciding the exact points upon which the employer, in case of accident, should furnish information to the government.

Unemployment, too, was earnestly discussed. William Hard, of the editorial staff of *Everybody's Magazine*, pointed out that the penny paper jokes about tramps and hoboes are dying out and we are coming face to face with grim facts—for example, that in the state of New York there are 100,000 more jobs in October than in January. The experience of the National Employment Exchange was described by its manager, Edward W. Carpenter, and Prof. Charles R. Henderson, of the University of Chicago, told of recent advances in the struggle against unemployment. Professor Henderson emphasized the need for statistics, for industrial education, and for continuation schools, and stated his belief that the best known form of unemployment insurance is the trade union out-of-work benefit, subsidized by the city or state and supplemented by similar benefits paid by independent associations of workmen who are not members of unions. At the close of the meeting a committee was appointed to work in harmony with and ultimately to organize an American branch of the International Association for the Struggle against Unemployment.

Prof. Henry R. Seager, of Columbia University, was re-elected president and Dr. John B. Andrews secretary. Professor Seager called attention to the large number of labor laws passed by state legislatures in 1911 as compared with previous years. Though the association, he said, could claim credit only for the laws requiring physicians to report certain industrial diseases, passed by six states, the building up of a strong organization is developing a nation-wide interest in the legal protection of workmen and is paving the way for wise labor legislation in the future. Though neither of the measures advocated by the association in the national field—the Esch Bill imposing a prohibitive tax on poisonous phosphorus matches and the bill creating a Federal Commission for the Study of Industrial Diseases—had yet been passed, he believed that the former would soon become law and free the country from the disgrace of fostering a loathsome and totally unnecessary disease, and that the idea of the latter would grow rapidly in popularity. Special exhibits of phosphorus poisoning and of mine safety work excited great interest.

Dr. Andrews reported rapidly expanding

work, larger offices, additions to the office force, increased membership in spite of an advance from \$1 to \$3 in dues, and the establishment of a regular quarterly publication, the *American Labor Legislation Review*. Many members of the medical profession, he said, were cooperating in drafting a schedule for the reporting of occupational diseases. The immediate program before the association he stated as follows:

- (1) Secure the passage by Congress of the Esch Bill;
- (2) Extend the uniform reporting of occupational diseases to five additional states;
- (3) Secure the adoption of our standard industrial, accident, and disease schedules;
- (4) Provide that one day of rest in seven be granted no matter how continuous the industry;
- (5) Co-operate in establishing through legislation the maximum ten-hour working day for women;
- (6) Aid in the enactment of additional laws insuring just systems of compensation; and
- (7) Prepare for the supreme test of law enforcement by helping to develop more efficient machinery for the administration of all of the regulations in the different states.

TREND

The *Common Cause*, in the words of its prospectus "a magazine devoted to the great social problems of the day," has as its text: "There is no need, no excuse for Socialism. But there is great need for social reform." While this magazine purposes to discuss all social problems, it will devote its main attention to exposing what it conceives to be the fallacies of Socialism, as a means of clearing the ground for reform.

"In every respect," says the prospectus, "the *Common Cause* will be conducted along the broadest American lines. In such an important constructive campaign of education no account can be taken of racial, religious, or class distinctions. The great social problems of the day do not affect one faith or one class more than another. Socialism is not a peril to one body of citizens alone, but to all. To protect the nation from the dangers that are now threatening its institutions is a labor of love to which all patriotic citizens should contribute—the *Common Cause* for the success of which all who cherish the high ideals of American freedom must work together."

In the interests of fairness the *Common Cause* will maintain a Question Box, to which socialists are invited to contribute. The publishers are the Social Reform Press, 154 E. 23d street, New York. This press announces that it will maintain also a publicity bureau for matters related to social reform and Socialism, an information bureau, and a list of lecturers on Socialism. The board of

editors is made up of James T. Walsh, M.D., dean of Fordham University School of Medicine; Conde P. Pallen, managing editor of the Catholic Encyclopedia; Charles H. McDermott; Thomas F. Woodlock; Peter W. Collins, secretary of the Brotherhood of Electrical Workers; George E. Rines, managing editor of the Encyclopedia Americana; and John R. Meader, managing editor.

A South Orange Clergyman finds the same social problems in South Orange as in New York, and, perhaps, a more "stiff-necked generation" to meet them. Speaking the other day at Trinity Presbyterian Church on the program of Christ, the Rev. Alvin E. Magary, its pastor, contrasted the evangelizing with the social spirit, to the disadvantage of the former. "I have had many shocks of late in South Orange," he says. "I was shocked to find how many Christian men in the Oranges were without any real interest in social effort. They will go into evangelistic campaigns, but nakedness and poverty and captivity and thirst do not interest them.

"Do you know how many girls have gone to ruin in this sweet little village of South Orange? If I were to tell you of the cases of which I have heard you would hardly believe me. What is there to prevent? A lonely girl here has no place to which she can go and pass a free evening. Some of the communities about here are so proud of what they call their 'good taste' that they will not allow even a moving-picture show within their limits. What right have you in the name of 'good taste' to deprive a poor man or woman of an enjoyable half hour, which he can secure for a nickel?

"You have a school building which cost thousands of dollars. Why should it not be used as a gathering place for people who will come to a schoolhouse when they could not be dragged into a church? We are not doing our duty when we help the fallen only; it is our business to prevent lives from falling.

"All summer there was not a band concert in this town. Even when some public-spirited men arranged an old-fashioned Independence Day celebration, which provided a day of enjoyment for hundreds, there were those mean enough to criticize and sneer. Give men and women and boys and girls opportunity for a little harmless fun, and they will not be driven out to the crossroads dance hall, there to fall among thieves, who strip them, and leave them to what is worse than death."

COMMUNICATIONS

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS COMMISSION TO THE EDITOR:

This is apropos of THE SURVEY's symposium on the McNamara case, with the petition to the president for a Federal Commission on Industrial Relations.

The brewers' experience in dealing with or-

ganized labor refutes many of the statements made by your correspondents. The brewing trade is completely unionized; the men in the 1,500 plants are members of 500 local unions, and the various crafts are all federated in the International Union of United Brewery Workmen. The labor contracts provide for arbitration, and many disputes have been settled in this manner to the satisfaction of all parties concerned.

The Socialists probably dominate the brewery workers, but there have been no strikes of violence, no destruction of property, no attempts to impair machinery or to tamper with the stock of beer in the storage vats. The national leaders of this radical group of workmen have, in fact, stood staunchly for peaceful methods; they insist that their "locals" shall live up to their agreements and have refused to allow them to take part in "sympathetic strikes," such as that of the street-car men in Philadelphia. Of course, there are frequent differences, but none of them have proved very serious; and, on the whole, the solidarity of organized labor in the brewing trade has been a matter of mutual benefit, and justifies the policy of "collective bargaining."

Just a word about the petition to the president. Already there is available an enormous mass of undigested data on most of the points that you raise. (Witness the reports of the commissioner of labor, the bureau of mines, the state factory and labor bureaus, the various commissions on immigration, employers' liability and workmen's compensation, and the publications of private organizations such as the National Child Labor Committee and the Russell Sage Foundation.) The investigation you propose would, no doubt, serve to unify this data and I am not questioning its value. But it does not go far enough.

Make the objective of the proposed commission a permanent body with judicial authority and administrative power, created perhaps by extending the powers of the present bureau of labor; give it the right to enjoin and restrain, pending its investigation of strikes and disturbances affecting articles of interstate commerce; provide for its compulsory arbitration of disputes in which the public welfare is concerned; provide for its right of supervision of factory inspection and of the installment of safety appliances in mines and on railroads, etc.; and—most important of all, perhaps—enable it to establish farm and other labor colonies, and an employment bureau.

HUGH F. FOX.

New York.

CHURCH AND CHANNELS FOR ACTION

TO THE EDITOR:

Much discussion has been provoked over the relation of the church to organized agencies of social service. The discussion is no longer primarily as to what the relation should be, but rather as to how it can be

brought about. The closer the cooperation between religious idealism and the social agency, the greater is the inspiration for both.

This cooperation is being rapidly effected in municipalities where the work deals with specific cases which appeal to human sympathies. The church is learning to cooperate with such charities as the day nursery; it is learning the futility of a needless duplication of charitable institutions, which has often sprung from a desire to gratify denominational pride rather than to render effective service. Likewise neighborhood agencies are losing some of their impatience with the church and are coming to realize that close cooperation is mutually advantageous.

But the next step in cooperation should bring about a closer reciprocity. The relation at present existing between the church and the larger agencies which are endeavoring to strike at the root of social evils is spasmodic and loose. The National Child Labor Committee may be cited as an instance where closer contact would be mutually beneficial. Churches are naturally favorable to the conservation of human life. But the church unfortunately plays an almost negligible part in obtaining better hours and conditions for working children, because its organization is not closely articulated with child labor associations. Another instance may be found in the campaign now being waged by peace societies. Churches want peace, and peace societies want the churches. But if the arbitration treaties now held up by the senate Committee on Foreign Affairs are ratified, it will not be primarily because of the activity of religious organizations, though they might be a specific compelling force.

Churches are appealed to spasmodically by secular institutions, but their response is scattering and faint-hearted. Is not the primary reason the fact that the appeal is from outside, often from sources unknown to ministers, and consequently not considered as imposing a vital duty? To support moral legislation is not made a part of denominational polity, and therefore whatever appeal may come does not carry with it the highest ecclesiastical sanction. But if the order came from some official within the organization, the response would be whole-hearted and vigorous.

The next step in a closer cooperation between the church and secular agencies will therefore be the appointment of social specialists, who already exist in every denomination, who will keep in close touch with legislative needs, and who will issue appeals with the authority vested in them by their own governing body. Such officers could act as the intermediaries between secular agencies and their own constituencies. This would make possible the more effective and united utilization of the moral forces of religion. Some such plan is evolutionary and inevitable. The church, under the tremendous social impetus of modern times, is destined to come into closer contact with politics. It is tragic to

witness the almost universal passion of the religious element of this country to serve the cause of a moral reformation in social life, and to see how ineffective that passion is because of the lack of definite channels for its expression.

The Christian churches, the Jewish synagogues, and other religious organizations represent an enormous capitalization, the greatest single "interest" known. Their millions of stockholders, if aroused, may surpass any commercial "interest" in influence. These millions have but to speak authoritatively and their voices will be heard through all the earth. And the social service body striving to secure better legislation has but to secure their cooperation in order to insure success.

CLARENCE R. SKINNER,
Grace Universalist Church.
Lowell, Mass.

JOTTINGS

CONSUMERS' LEAGUE IN CONVENTION

The National Consumers' League will hold its thirteenth annual meeting in New Haven, Conn., January 19-20. President Arthur T. Hadley of Yale, who is an honorary vice-president of the league, will present greetings to the public meeting on Friday afternoon, Jan. 19. The Rev. James Goodwin of Hartford, president of the Connecticut league, will also address this session, and Arthur Holcombe of Harvard University, chairman of the league's committee on Minimum-Wage Boards, will discuss at the evening meeting of Friday the progress of the past year in that field of the league's activity. Other speakers will be Prof. Henry W. Farnam of Yale, and Prof. Willard Fisher of Ohio Wesleyan University.

The meeting will have a more cheering report of work accomplished, funds raised and expended for organization and education, and members added, than any preceding annual meeting. The public is invited.

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

JANUARY CONFERENCES.

- Jan. 15, 1912 *Colorado Association for the Prevention and Control of Tuberculosis*—Denver, Colo. Secretary, S. Poulter Morris, State House, Denver, Colo.
- Jan. 19-20, 1912 *National Consumers' League*—New Haven, Conn. Secretary, Mrs. Florence Kelley, 105 E. 22nd street, New York city.
- Jan. 25, 1912 *New York Peace Society*—Hotel Astor, New York city. Corresponding officer, William H. Short, 507 Fifth ave., New York city.
- Jan. 25-28, 1912 *National Child Labor Committee*—Louisville, Ky. General secretary, Owen R. Lovejoy, 105 E. 22nd street, New York city.
- Jan., 1912 *Nebraska Conference of Charities and Correction*—Omaha, Neb. Secretary, Ida V. Joutz, City Hall, Omaha, Neb.

LATER MEETINGS. International.

- Feb. 19-24, 1912 *Pan-Pacific Congress*—Honolulu, Hawaii. Secretary, H. P. Wood, Honolulu, Hawaii.

- Sept. 4-13, 1912 *Chemistry, Applied*—Congress on Washington, September 4, and New York, September 6-13. Secretary, Bernard C. Hesse, M. D., 25 Broad street, New York city.
- Sept. 23-28, 1912 *Hygiene and Demography*—Fifteenth Congress on Washington, D. C. Secretary, Dr. John S. Fulton, Army Medical Museum, Washington, D. C.
- Sept., 1912 *Labor Legislation*—Association for Zurich, Switzerland. Secretary, Stephen Bauer, Basel, Switzerland.
- 1913 *Fight Against Unemployment*—International Association for Ghent, Belgium. American corresponding officer, J. B. Andrews, 1 Madison ave., New York city.
- 1915 *Prison*—Quinquennial Congress. London, England. Secretary, F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.
- 1915 *Relief*—Committee on Public and Private. London, England. Secretary, Charles S. Loch, Charity Organization Society, London.

National.

- March 5-7, 1912 *National Civic Federation*. Washington, D. C. Chairman Executive Council, R. M. Easley, 1 Madison ave., New York city.
- March 11-14, 1912 *Religious Education Association*.—St. Louis, Mo. General secretary, Henry F. Cope, 332 South Michigan ave., Chicago, Ill.
- April 3-4, 1912 *American Academy of Medicine*—Lehigh University, South Bethlehem, Pa. Secretary, Charles McIntire, M.D., Easton, Pa.
- May, 1912 *American Federation of Arts*—Washington, D. C. Secretary, F. D. Miller, 1741 New York ave., Wash., D. C.
- June 12-19, 1912 *National Conference of Charities and Correction*. Cleveland, O. General secretary, Alexander Johnson, Angola, Ind.
- June, 1912 *National Probation Association*—Cleveland, O. Secretary, Arthur W. Towne, The Capitol, Albany, N. Y.
- June 9-12, 1912 *National Conference of Jewish Charities*—Cleveland, O. Secretary, Rose Sommerfield, 225 E. 63rd street, New York city.
- June 25-July 8, 1912 *Women's Clubs*—General Federation of San Francisco, Cal. Corresponding secretary, Mrs. Frank Shiek, Wheatland, Wyo.
- Sept., 1912 *Catholic Charities*—National Conference of Washington, D. C. Secretary, Rev. Dr. William J. Kerby, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.

State and Local.

- April, 1912 *New Hampshire Conference of Charities and Correction*—Place not chosen. Secretary, Mrs. James W. Remick, 80 School St., Concord, N. H.
- April, 1912 *Connecticut State Conference of Charities and Correction*—Waterbury, Conn. Secretary, Charles P. Kellogg, Waterbury, Conn., probable date, 15 to 17.
- May 7-9, 1912 *Third New York City Conference of Charities and Correction*—New York city. Secretary, John B. Prest, 287 Fourth ave.
- Autumn, 1912 *Massachusetts State Conference of Charities and Correction*—Secretary, Parker B. Field, 229 Tremont street, Boston, Mass.
- Oct. 29, 1912 *Massachusetts No-Licence League*—Sixth annual conference. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Robert H. Magwood, 310 Equitable Bldg., Boston, Mass.
- May, 1912 *Kentucky Child Welfare Conference and Exhibition*—Louisville, Ky. President preliminary organization, Mrs. Morris Belknap, Louisville, Ky.
- June, 1912 *American Society of Superintendents of Training Schools for Nurses*. Chicago, Ill. Secretary, Jessie E. Cotton, Springfield Hospital, Springfield, Mass.
- May 22-23, 1912 *Canadian Association for Prevention of Tuberculosis*. Toronto, Ont. Secretary, Dr. George D. Porter, 162 Crescent Road, Toronto, Ont.
- May 11, 1912 *Lehigh Valley Child-Helping Conference*. Mauch Chunk, Pa.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

CITY LEGISLATION FOR THE NATIONAL CAPITAL

Representatives of the Monday Evening Club, Washington's organization of social workers, have gone to President Taft with the request that he make mention in his message to Congress on District of Columbia affairs of four matters needing readjustment in the federal city.

First they have asked for his favorable report on the loan shark bill, which the social workers after a severe fight pushed through the Senate last session. It is now ready for a hearing in the House on the first District of Columbia day.

The second measure would carry forward the movement to abolish the alley courts found in the center of many blocks, even in good sections of the city. Where other cities that were born small towns have a housing problem because they have been allowed to grow up haphazard, the federal city has a problem on its hands because the streets were laid out in blocks of too generous proportions. A year ago the Bureau of the Census made a map of the city indicating the alley courts. The bill which the club is pressing calls for an appropriation to cut the alley courts through to the streets on either side, thus doing away with their most unsavory characteristics by making them into thoroughfares.

An appropriation for school nurses and more medical inspectors is the third item. Washington has no municipal school nurses and the work in the school rooms has been done by nurses borrowed from a private organization. Last year, when there was demand for dental inspection, two dentists were granted, but two doctors of the twelve who were far too few to do the school work adequately were removed. Health Officer Woodward wants more doctors and a corps of nurses.

Fourth comes the much disputed question of the municipal hospital. Washington at present has no proper city hos-

pital, while Congress and the District taxpayers have appropriated several hundred thousand dollars in the last few years to private hospitals over which the District authorities have practically no control. The Monday Evening Club advocates a discontinuance of the appropriation for the emergency hospital and a small appropriation instead for the erection of a new city hospital on a site which has already been purchased.

THE INSPECTOR AND THE CHURCH

THE SURVEY published a few weeks ago the notable sociological platform accepted at the recent meeting of the General Conference of Unitarian Churches, in Washington, D. C. This platform was closely modelled after the platforms previously adopted in rapid succession by the Methodists, Congregationalists, Baptists, etc., but in certain particulars was felt to be an advance upon them. More exceptional, however, was the specific practical method for social action by the church blocked out at a so-called "sociological session," to which was devoted one whole meeting of the conference. This session was given over to the consideration not of abstract principles and ideals but of "inspectorships" as implements for standardizing the minimum conditions to be tolerated in charities, in education, in labor, and in the public health. With the "view of enlisting the hearty co-operation of the Unitarians of America in the work of elevating inspectorship in all social relations," and thus obtaining those "indispensable data for a relentless publicity which are a prerequisite of intelligent action for human betterment," this method was discussed by experts in the fields of charity, education, labor, and public health, and the whole focused in an address by Anna Garlin Spencer on "Why is Inspection a Religious Duty?" The purpose of the conference was set forth in a set of resolutions, unanimous-

ly adopted, without parallel perhaps in the official proceedings of modern religious assemblies. They follow:

Resolved, that the Unitarians of America in national conference assembled, very desirous of contributing their rightful share to the present-day efforts at social readjustment in the interest of justice, humaneness, and the common weal, recognize in the principle and administration of skilled inspectorship a fundamental and indispensable factor in the initiation and prosecution of such efforts.

To all individuals and churches asking, in what way can we put forth our unit of personal force to the best advantage in the betterment of the common lot, we would commend:

First. A survey of the various fields of needed inspectorship in the home city or town and state.

Second. A campaign of publicity to set forth the inadequacy of present inspectorship and the minimum standards tolerable in a civilized community.

Third. The organization of all the social forces of the community to secure proper standards and their spirited enforcement.

We recognize that this is merely an initial work, but it introduces the men and women of good-will to the inevitable succeeding steps of social readjustment through a gateway of well-mastered facts. This experience will be of utmost value in contributing both to their wisdom and enthusiasm in all the subsequent work to which their passion for "social justice" and social betterment may lead them.

STRIKES FOR GOOD HEALTH

The cloakmakers' union of New York recently reported to the joint sanitary board in that industry that the union had within the year called twenty-eight successful "sanitary" strikes. It is safe to say that, all combined, these strikes have not received as much newspaper publicity as one day of the garbage strike, which affronted the noses of private citizens, and made "news" with its sporadic street violence. Yet they reflect a remarkable and dramatic forward movement in the great garment trades of New York, in which the workers, with the sanction and cooperation of progressive employers, are attempting to secure through the force of collective action what neither self-interest on the part of some employers, nor the good opinion of the trade, nor state law and enforcement have been able, hitherto, to effect. The earliest of these strikes was in December, 1910, when the employes of a firm occupying an old building at 87 Ridge

street struck in protest against dangerous fire conditions. Backed by the Joint Board of Sanitary Control, on which employes, the unions, and the public are represented, the workers succeeded in forcing the firm to remove to safe quarters. Another characteristic strike was that against a firm in 27th street, who had put up six-foot partitions within the shop, thus shutting off the light from the pressers and compelling them to work by electric light. The workers went out until their employers agreed to abide by the expert decision of Dr. George M. Price of the board. On his recommendation the firm cut down the wooden partitions by two and a half feet. Incidentally the board compelled the installation of extra fire exits. The majority of the strikes were enforced by union pickets against cellar work-rooms on the East Side. The pickets warned union and non-union employes away from these establishments until the proprietors secured better quarters.

In one instance the cloakmakers' board was called in to help another union, the ladies' tailors. The latter had not yet organized the sanitary board provided by the terms of settlement of their recent strike. A shop in 59th street went out in protest against overcrowding. Dr. Price found that the shop was violating the law in this respect and compelled the employer to come to terms.

BOSTON LEAGUE TO DEVELOP RECREATION

Several definite efforts are being taken up by the Public Recreation League of Boston in line with its announced purpose

to focus and co-ordinate various efforts for better service from parks, playgrounds, gymnasiums, water facilities, and other means for recreation, so that improvements may be accomplished instead of being merely discussed and resolved upon.

The league aims to be a clearing house for all information within its field. This is accomplished in part by the establishment of close relationships with various organizations that are concerned with athletics, playgrounds, gymnasiums, social or civic centers, and other phases of recreation, or that take up such mat-

ters incidental to other work for community betterment. The league considers the development of an adequate recreation service a subject worthy the best thought and action of Boston's citizens and officials. It is taking active interest in advancing the ordinance now before the city council to create a park and recreation department, which would tend to reorganize the municipal recreation service of the city. This ordinance proposes to consolidate into a single department the parks, public grounds, baths, gymnasiums, and music, now in charge of four separate departments. The idea has the official endorsement of the mayor, the city council, and the finance commission.

The league has so far organized five committees, with several others in process of formation. A Committee on Evening Recreation, of which the chairman is Carl Carstens, secretary of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, is considering such matters as extending the use of school buildings and other public property, lighting of parks and playgrounds, and, specially, dance halls and other provision for dancing of various types. The Committee on Use of Parks, Warren H. Manning, chairman, is working out definite measures for extending the use of parks. A Committee on Play, Jane R. McCrady, chairman, takes up this matter on a broad basis, applicable not only to children but to youth and adults. A Committee on Observance of Holidays, William C. Ewing, chairman, is to consider ways and means for celebrating the Fourth of July and other public holidays according to modern methods.

Working relations now exist with the Municipal Athletic Association and the Youth Conference of Boston-1915, as well as with the Playground and Recreation Association of America. Definite means for co-operation are established with the United Improvement Association, and with representatives of the Women's Municipal League, Central Labor Union, Boy Scouts of America, School for Social Workers, Boston Social Union, etc., who are associated with the league.

COST OF CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT

Some facts as to the costs and methods of the recent Kansas City Child Welfare Exhibit, reviewed in *THE SURVEY* for December 2, will be of interest to other cities contemplating such undertakings—especially in view of the fact that the sums spent in New York and Chicago seem prohibitive to the smaller cities.

The attendance at the Kansas City exhibit during the eight days of its duration was 95,007. Considering the length of time during which the exhibit was open and the size of the city, the attention attracted was relatively greater than in either New York or Chicago.

Dr. Anna Louise Strong, who was employed in connection with both these former exhibits, was director. The exhibit consisted of various models such as model playgrounds, hospital rooms, toys, baby camp, etc.; of various screens containing pictures and statements with regard to conditions and agencies affecting child welfare; and of various entertainments and dramatic performances. There were about 200 of the New York and Chicago screens exhibited in Kansas City. Besides this, there were about 150 local screens representing conditions and agencies in Kansas City. In Kansas City each exhibitor paid for the preparation of his own exhibit. There were exhibits by the Park Board, the Health Board, the Board of Education, the Board of Public Welfare, and the Juvenile Court, besides exhibits representing about thirty-five private institutions, an exhibit representing the churches, quite an extensive exhibit made by the thirteen state charitable institutions of Missouri, and an exhibit by the City Club. This distribution of costs left a comparatively small amount of expense to be provided for by the executive committee out of a general fund. It is not known just how much was spent by the various departments, but the expense paid out of the general fund was between six and seven thousand dollars.

The co-operation of private organizations and individuals ranged from the painter who painted 125 screens for \$10,

a cost barely covering the paint, because "It's for the children and Mr. Volker has to pay for it if I don't," to the management of Convention Hall, which placed its resources of ushers, janitors, and floor-management so freely at the disposal of the exhibit that the \$600 to \$1000 estimated for "running expenses" was reduced in actuality to \$50. Before the close of the exhibit, three places were offered, rent free, for a permanent museum in which the "screens" might be displayed and added to from time to time. This museum will prove a valuable definite result of the exhibit.

FEEBLE-MINDED ON INCREASE

According to a report made last month by C. C. Carstens, chairman of the Conference of Charities and Correction of Boston-1915, feeble-minded persons in Massachusetts are rapidly increasing in number, owing to improper segregation. There are to-day at least 9,000, the report estimates. The total cost up to the present time and the estimated future cost for the care of this group amounts to \$64,775 or over \$2,200 for each person. The report points out that this is a very conservative estimate as no account is taken of the probable cost to the state of those who have been discharged from the care of the State Board of Charities. Nor does it take into account the estimate of the expense of the children of those now at large in the community. The report states that the public will be obliged to bear this burden of expense until some system of segregation is decided upon.

Of the proposed segregation the report says:

As specialists tell us that 80 per cent of feeble-mindedness is caused by the inheritance of that characteristic it would seem the part of good sense for the state of Massachusetts to face the question of the care of its total feeble-minded population of 9000 as a whole, just as we have faced the total care of the insane. To meet this problem it seems desirable that the burden should be distributed over a period of years, and it is therefore suggested that the commonwealth of Massachusetts equip itself to provide for the total number before 1925.

The report has been sent to Governor Foss in the form of a letter, with the suggestion that the recommendations have his careful consideration.

FOR LIBERTY AND PROPERTY

Under the slogan "Self help vs. state help," announcements are being sent out by the American Liberty and Property Association, which is described as "a non-partisan organization in upholding property rights, maintaining freedom of contract, and restricting paternalistic legislation."

"In view of the alarming growth of revolutionary and restricting legislation," the association announces the following principles in opposition to all attempts to establish the government as competitor or controller of any department of social activity or industry which can be well conducted by private enterprise:

1. As the proper function of government is to maintain equal liberty, we are opposed to all class legislation, whether directed against the rights of individuals or of corporations.
2. Every man has a right to labor at whatever useful occupation he chooses, and is entitled to all that he earns by proper mental or physical exertion.
3. It is not the duty of the government to save men from the results of their own improvidence, nor to make them virtuous by law.
4. Our system of taxation should not discourage the accumulation of capital by taxing the results of superior ability, industry, or thrift.
5. The best results to the community are attained under such open competition and personal liberty as does not interfere with the equal liberty of others.

Among the names signed to these resolutions are the following:

Edwin H. Weatherbee, president Arnold, Constable, and Company.

Henry Holt, Henry Holt and Company.

Frederick Reidemeister, treasurer Steinway and Sons.

James McCutcheon, president James McCutcheon and Company.

P. Tecumseh Sherman.

George Haven Putnam, president G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Bolton Hall.

Rt. Rev. David H. Greer, bishop of New York.

Edward Holbrook, president the Gorham Company

Rev. Dr. Henry Van Dyke.

John Moody.

Charles H. Ingersoll, of Robert H. Ingersoll and Brother.

F. D. Waterman, president L. E. Waterman Company.

John F. McClain, vice-president Remington Typewriter Company.

C. D. Cheney, Cheney Brothers.

Frank H. Dodd, president Dodd, Mead, and Company.

Hammacher, Schlemmer, and Company.

In a circular letter accompanying the announcement, Robert Schalkenbach, chairman of the temporary executive committee, with offices at 29 Broadway, New York, describes the program of the association as follows:

The purpose of this association is to conduct a national movement in opposition to paternalistic legislation of all kinds; to disseminate sound economic principles respecting the rights of property, both of individuals and corporations; to protest against legislative invasion of personal liberty, and to oppose the enactment of state or national tax laws that tend to discourage the accumulation and investment of capital.

The recent elections show a remarkable increase of socialistic sentiment in all sections of the country, and unless prompt action is taken to set forth the true principles of government it is evident that public ownership of private property will seriously threaten the established order of society. While we do not believe that our institutions are perfect we do assert that the basic principle of individualism is scientifically sound, and that the attempt to improve conditions due to unwise laws by enacting more restrictive laws only produces greater evils than those which it is sought to cure.

We believe that a full and fair discussion of the economic and social problems of the time will convince the great masses of the people that Socialism is unsound and unscientific; that it is contrary to the spirit of American institutions, and that it is a menace to the welfare and prosperity of our workers, farmers, business men, and all other citizens of the country. We recognize the newspapers as the only agency through which the facts relating to this all-important question can be fairly put before the people, and confidently appeal to them for their co-operation and support.

EDITORIAL GRIST

MONTESSORI METHOD OF EDUCATING CHILDREN

R. R. REEDER

Superintendent New York Orphanage

In three interesting articles appearing in the May and December, 1911, and January, 1912, numbers of *McClure's* magazine a new pedagogy called the Montessori Method of Educating Children is proclaimed and described by one of its disciples, Josephine Tozier.

The following editorial note prefaces the article in the December number:

Four years ago Maria Montessori, an Italian physician and educator, opened the first "House of Childhood" (Casa dei Bambini) in Rome, and began to apply her revolutionary methods of education to the teaching of little children. Her work has set on foot a new educational movement that is not only transforming the schools of Italy but is making rapid progress in other countries. In June, 1911, Switzerland passed a law establishing the Montessori system in all its public schools. Two model schools were opened in Paris this September, one of them under the direction of the daughter of the French minister to Italy, who has studied with Montessori in Rome. Preparations are being made to establish Montessori schools this year in England, India, China, Mexico, Corea, the Argentine Republic, and Honolulu. In the United States schools have already been started in New York and Boston and Montessori has received applications from teachers in nearly every state in the Union who wish to study with her in order to apply her methods. To meet the demand for instruction, Montessori will open a training class in Rome this winter for teachers from England and America.

Pedagogy as an applied science is still in such an empirical stage of development that enthusiastic teachers with a vision will no doubt continue to startle the profession with new theories of education for some time to come. Each founder of a new school of pedagogy will usually make some valuable contribution to the still imperfect science. However sound and clear the views of the leaders in education may be, the actual work of teaching is so largely in the hands of inexperienced and poorly trained teachers and so liable to run into formal and unmeaning grooves that

nothing short of a renaissance of method from time to time will provide the necessary corrective tonic. From a somewhat careful study of the description of the Montessori method as set forth in the articles mentioned, I am unable to see anything not included or implied in the educational doctrine of Froebel. If the kindergarten theory of education were extended upward into the grades and outward in a practical way to include the care of the child's person and apparel as well as simple household duties, there would be no scope nor demand for the Montessori vision of education.

The particular contribution to education in this country which the Montessori method offers is a new emphasis on the freedom of the child in school. It is greatly needed. We have developed great school systems and in the process suppressed the spontaneity of the child. In our curricula and programs we have measured everything and timed everything until the child does not study and produce with his own mind but is crammed and made to recite; he does not sing and in other ways express himself because he loves to and wants to, but has the music squeezed out of him almost after the manner of a mechanical toy. Probably nine-tenths of the effort put forth by the pupils in our graded schools is constrained or demanded rather than inspired. It is not spontaneous, not of the child's own choice, and not, therefore, of the highest order and expression of energy. Only free self-activity can be truly educative. The Montessori method demands this freedom for the child. It would place him in an atmosphere where there are no restraints, where there is no opposition, nothing to make him perverse or self-conscious, or to put him on the defensive.¹

The teacher must be patient and passive much more than active; and her patience shall be composed of anxious scientific curiosity, and an absolute respect toward the phenomenon that she wishes to observe. The teacher must understand and feel her position of observer; the activity must lie in the phenomenon. . . . To be thus helpful, it is necessary rigorously to avoid the arrest of spontaneous movements and the imposition of purely arbitrary tasks. It is,

¹McClure's for December.

of course, understood that here we do not refer to useless or dangerous actions, for these must be suffocated—destroyed. . . . This idea that life acts of itself, and that to study it, to divine its secrets, or to direct its activity it is necessary to observe it and to come to know it without intervening, is very difficult to grasp. The teacher has too thoroughly learned to be the free activity of the school, for too long it has been virtually her duty to suffocate the activity of the pupils.¹

When we contrast this point of view with the regular practice in our schools, we appreciate at once the great change that such an innovation would make in our methods of teaching and in the child's manner of studying and reciting. It is, of course, more or less poetic—perhaps I ought to say anarchic—to say that there should be no restraints. But since the actual condition in the schools is that of almost total restraint, it is not strange that an educator with a vision of school as it ought to be—life really being lived—should put the demand so unqualifiedly.

Freedom of the individual child to let life act of itself, and to work out his own educational salvation under the benevolent guidance of a teacher whose attitude as an observer and recorder of phenomena is truly scientific, and who takes her cue for each act from the situation at hand, is the inspiring and helpful message of this much heralded new pedagogy.

But is it new? Teaching by objects, sense-training, education through supervised play, etc., certainly are not new ideas in pedagogy. Montessori would place the child in "an atmosphere where there is no restraint," and make of the teacher "an observer rather than an arbitrary personage imposing her authority upon a helpless charge."

Nearly two centuries ago Rousseau expressed his theory of education in very similar language. His *Emile* "is to be under no restraint" and he would base education "entirely on a study of the child to be educated." He says:

I wish some discreet person would give us a treatise on the art of observing children. The first thing for us to see aright is the subject on which we have to act.

It would be easy to continue this

¹McClure's for December.

comparison and parallelism of ideas and statements between the Montessori methods as presented in the three articles above mentioned and those of Pestalozzi and Froebel. In the use of objects and geometric forms, in the emphasis placed on sense-training, instruction in color, etc., the Montessori system seems to follow the lead of Froebel and the kindergarten theory of education. But the kindergarten idea of Froebel presents a much more comprehensive view of education. Stories, songs, and social games are staples of the kindergarten. These are apparently not significant factors in Montessori's system. Her method is more individualistic and practical. There is less appeal to the imaginative and social side of the child's life. The analytic method of learning to read by first learning to spell strikes the modern student of education as crude and outgrown. Learning to read has not been a tedious and mechanical process with well trained teachers for many years.

The following statement is almost startling in its musty flavor:

In teaching to read, Maria Montessori banishes the traditional syllabary—the *a, b, ab; b, a, ba*, of our childhood.¹

This sounds very much like saying that the Post Office Department no longer transports mail by "pony express" and the stage coach. Such a method of teaching reading was discarded in the better schools of this country nearly a half-century ago.

Such early instruction in writing as the Montessori schools encourage is, in the light of present-day physiology, unnatural if not injurious to the child. I quote again:

Children of four years learn to write. The usual interval between the first preparation and the accomplishment of writing is, in children of four years, a month and a half; in children of five years the period is shorter, usually only a month; and one of the little ones learned to write, with all the letters of the alphabet, in twenty days. After either a month or six weeks, according to age, the average child writes all the simple words he pleases, and usually begins to write with ink. After three months most of them write well.²

¹McClure's for May.

Who would want his four-year-old child to write well? If muscular development proceeds from fundamental to accessory, that is, if large muscles and movements come into play first and the finer, smaller muscular activities follow, it is certainly a perverted pedagogy that would train little children of four years to execute such fine and precise muscular movements as ordinary penmanship requires.

In reading the description of the Montessori methods one cannot resist the impression that Dr. Montessori and her followers are either not familiar with the history of modern pedagogy or they have set out to make the re-statement and new application of its principles a renaissance of educational progress. With this latter purpose we are in full sympathy for the Lord knows we need it. To undertake to quicken into new life and meaning the dead formalism and arbitrary sway of much of our educational procedure is a noble endeavor. "Who shall deliver us out of the body of this death?" If Montessori and her enthusiastic disciples in their campaign for freedom, spontaneity, and the individuality of the child, on the one hand, and the scientific attitude and rational functioning of the teacher, on the other, can emancipate us, we shall all bid them "God speed."

A NORTHWESTERN PRISON

ISABEL C. BARROWS

The biennial report of the North Dakota state penitentiary, at Bismarck, affords an example of back-water penal institutions the country over, which such an investigation as that proposed by Attorney General Wickersham would bring to public attention. Happily it is a small prison, with only 232 prisoners, and but one woman; but those men and that woman have rights which North Dakota does not grant them. The first right is to have pure air, and it would seem as if in that great wind-swept country it would be easy to supply it. Yet after an existence of twenty-five years, no great progress has been made in the mere matter of sanitation, as is evident

in the following extract from the warden's report:

At the present time the sewerage from this institution is discharged into Hay Creek, with the result that Hay Creek nearest the discharge is becoming very foul, owing to the fact that the water does not run through Hay Creek only about once or twice a year; that is, during the spring time when the snow goes off, when there is a flow of water; and usually during the summer months there is a freshet that raises the water in the creek sufficiently to carry off the floating deposit. The result is that there is a very vile stench coming from the mouth of the sewer, producing a very unsanitary condition. I would therefore recommend that an appropriation of \$3,500 be made, for the purpose of installing a septic tank, so that danger from this source may be prevented.

With such a physical condition one need hardly look for efforts at moral sanitation. There is not the slightest allusion to the up-building of the character of the men. The various industries are described: the twine plant, the brick yard, the making of briquettes, the carpenter shop, the plumbing, tinsmithing, and painting. That is all. Is there a school? Is there a library? Are there any reformatory influences, save the perfunctory chaplain's duties? Are the men graded? Who knows? Yet 173 of these are American-born. They ought to be under the best influences, for 143 are under thirty. They should be learning trades, for precious few among them know how to do anything that is really useful. One-half are listed as having no trade, and fifty-six are listed as having "no religion." It is in small prisons like this that reforms could be most easily begun, if only the proper spirit were created, and the necessary intelligence were at the head.

EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

ALBERT H. YODER

The term "exceptional children" has been used recently in the name of a society for the study of children and as the title of a bulletin issued by the Federal Bureau of Education. While not used to include exactly the same group in both cases it indicates in the main a class of children not normal nor yet abnormal, but exceptionally gifted or

handicapped. The term is likely to prove more acceptable to the pedagogue and the parents of backward children than to the fortunate parents of the talented. It is another effort to find an acceptable name for a group of supposedly misfit children by classifying them with the gifted. At the second conference of the National Association for the Study and Education of Exceptional Children held at New York University last month, much was said about prevention of marriage of the unfit, asexualization, size of family, habits and conditions of parents resulting in abnormality in offspring, compulsory registration of all children mentally below normal, separation of the child and the weak parent, and other ideals more or less related to the subject in hand. Criticism was heaped upon the public school, and only once, and then by an outsider, was there any protest. The family shared the blame with the schools. If severe condemnation were effective these two fundamental institutions of society would be reformed immediately. One speaker advocated the feeding and clothing of all school children by the city or state, saying that it would cost less and would be better done than under the present arrangement. Another said that the right way to redeem atypical children was to take them from the parent, especially when there is emotional disturbance in either. Wealthy homes, thought this speaker, should be invaded quite as freely as the homes of the poor.

Naturally the various speakers, some of whom were not affiliated with the association, did not agree as to the classification of exceptional children nor as to the method of treatment. It was said that the exceptional child is the rule and the normal child the exception, and that in place of having one teacher for twenty children there should be twenty teachers for one child, a condition which might be approximated if most of the critics were practicing in place of preaching. Such ideas were somewhat confusing to one looking for a constructive program for the care of exceptional children. However, the main topic, the recognition and treatment of children

who, while not abnormal, are peculiar, slow, handicapped by amenable physical defects, blessed with one talent, unfortunate, misunderstood, and socially misfitted, enlisted the thought and sympathy of most of the speakers.

Dr. Maximilian P. E. Groszmann, the organizer and guiding spirit of the association, best represented its purpose. He estimates that there are 500,000 blind, deaf, delinquent, and feeble-minded children of school age in the United States and that many of these are really atypical. There are many more children, millions, he says, suffering from preventable defects—truants, bad boys, and incorrigible girls, who if not saved are in grave danger of becoming destructive factors in society. The backward form another group of exceptionals. Natural ability is sometimes obscure in these and in the foreign-born, embarrassed by strange language and customs. The same is true of unfortunate transplanted children and those suffering from minor physical defects. Slow development is not unusual, for the rate of growth varies within normal limits, nor is it always undesirable; for some of the most useful people make slow progress as children. Exceptional children often need special sympathy; just as it takes a special climate to bring some fruit to maturity, so some children need an ordered home and school environment.

The association makes a clear distinction between arrested and retarded development—its interest being wholly with the latter. It grants that public interest should naturally be aroused first in the more striking cases of arrested growth. A feeble-minded child is one who has stopped growing, or will stop at an early age, and will never become normal under the most favorable conditions. On the other hand, retarded development is the result of slow growth, temporary interference with growth, or an amenable handicap, and in all cases the condition can be remedied by known means and the child made normal. That such conditions are not always removed is evident, one important cause being the failure to distinguish between the

two types of interrupted growth. Emphasis must be placed upon diagnosis: all children must be understood. To this end there should be complete co-operation of parents, teachers, physicians, and social workers. Society can care for the abnormal only under conditions which make them as small a burden as possible. Let it save those who can be saved—the exceptional children, who, if understood, can be trained into complete usefulness. Check the increase of the feeble-minded and unfit, redeem the exceptional child by special opportunities for the gifted and by medical, social, and educational treatment of the sub-normal, and the end for which the association exists will be realized.

Dr. Leonard P. Ayres of the Division of Education, Russell Sage Foundation, identified his study of retardation with the purpose of the association:

Your subject is the great school problem. It is these exceptional children who bring about the condition throughout our country that not half the children who enter school remain to finish the elementary course.

He presented data for the year ending June, 1911, gathered from 29 large cities, to show how the amount of retardation by age and grade can be definitely determined. Retardation is found in all schools and is not a problem peculiar to large cities, foreign populations, or certain states, as some have assured us. Dr. Ayres thinks that it is safe to assume that there is less retarding in cities where the school system is efficient and provides for the needs of the various kinds of exceptional children. As examples of extreme retardation he mentioned two cases coming under his observation: one that of a pupil who had entered school before some of his classmates were born, and the other of a pupil who had taken more time for one grade than others in the same school had given to the entire eight-grade course. Such children should be cared for in special schools; they are probably feeble-minded, and not exceptional in the sense in which the term is here used. The report also showed the aggregate number of years lost by the slow and gained by the brighter. For a few cities the

amounts were equal; but for most places it was much greater on the side of lost time. In one city the ratio was 1 to 28, and in one large town in a middle western state it was 1 to 150. In general, it seems true that there are ten pupils retarded to one accelerated. Investigations of this kind offer real help and will eventually aid in solving such questions as: At what age is it best for a child to enter school? Is the present scheme of education based too largely upon memory power? Is a course of study fitted for the "average" child the best the public school can do? Should the need and ability of the individual actually determine the service which the public school shall render to every child?

Evidence that our public school teachers are alive to the needs of exceptional children is shown in the bulletin, No. 14-1911, just issued by the United States Bureau of Education. It was prepared by Supt. James H. Van Sickle of Springfield, Mass., Dr. Lightner Witmer, director of the psychological laboratory of the University of Pennsylvania, and Dr. Ayres. It reports the provisions made for exceptional children in 898 cities, with descriptions of the work done in thirty-nine of the largest school systems.

The bulletin ventures an estimate upon the proportion of children in the various groups as follows:

Talented, 4 per cent; bright, normal, and slow, 92 per cent; feeble-minded, 4 per cent. The largest group is composed of normal and bright children who have no difficulty in completing the work of the grades satisfactorily in the allotted time.

This is not in accord with the estimate of the association, but appeals to one's judgment as being correct. The slow, backward, or laggard children form the second group, numerically

constituting anywhere from 10 to 50 per cent, made up of those not mentally deficient, but who make slow progress. They make up about one-third of the total school membership in the average city and are a great, if not the greatest, school problem.

One half of 1 per cent are truly deficient, to the degree that they should be excluded from any public school sys-

tem; the balance of this class, 3.5 per cent, should be cared for by the school authorities, but are not to be classified or trained with the backward children.

The opening chapter discusses the individualization of the child, which it says is necessary in case of all exceptional children; but the normal and bright children can safely be left to the mass treatment which has proved a failure with the former class.

Education is primarily concerned with the task of transmitting from one generation to the next the intellectual traditions and the moral standards which have been acquired by the race. The public school must never give up, as its chief function, the teaching and training of children in relatively large groups by teachers who look upon the class as a fairly homogenous unit.

There does not seem to be any immediate danger of such change.

Provision must also be made within the modern public school for training many children not as members of a group but as individual or exceptional children.

Since the establishment of a public system of education, we have cared first for the most abnormal, then for the next most defective, and now we are to make provision for socializing and individualizing the slow and backward. When shall we learn to give to normal children the same opportunities we now give to special classes? When a community admits an obligation to provide its children with certain school training, it should furnish to each according to his need and ability to take, within the limits of the community resources. All children should be understood; to accomplish this involves a program not yet fully undertaken, but feasible, in many of the large cities. This should be the first step. Afterward provision should be made for each according to his need. Only a small part of a course of study is necessary for the training of an individual child. With a minimum uniform requirement involving some of the essential facts of human experience, stated formally, let each child appropriate from all the vast training material now available only enough to develop efficiency.

RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION

IV

THE CALL AND EQUIPMENT FOR EFFECTIVE SERVICE

GRAHAM TAYLOR

Two great needs are found to be in a deadlock everywhere. Not only more workers but more kinds of workers are everywhere imperatively needed. And in nearly every community there are undeveloped capacities and untrained aptitudes, not only unutilized but actually perishing because unused or misdirected. These personal resources are adequate and diversified enough to meet the need of almost every community. Much of the energy and ability of our youth, aroused and spending itself with glorious abandon, is misdirected and "spent." How shall we apply this precious power? Talents of the first order lie folded in the napkin of manly reserve and womanly delicacy. People's willingness to work is gradually overcome by their fear that they cannot do anything, or by their certainty that they cannot do it well. They thus become unwilling to attempt that for which they come to believe they have no ability nor aptitude. How shall we put them to work? Our leaders are trying to do the work of a thousand people, instead of putting a thousand people to work. Is there any way of doing so except by making each one conscious of what he or she really is, how he or she is actually equipped by nature and acquirement to serve, and of the opportunities available to train himself or herself for service?

From our former studies we have gleaned Scriptural and scientific reasons for thinking that our personality, which consists in what we share with others, measures our capacity to serve them by the number of points at which we come in contact and are identified with them; that our individuality is as necessary and useful in sharpening up our aptitudes to meet those points of contact. Both personality and individuality are required to make any one serviceable.

Phillips Brooks' greatest description

of preaching and preparation for it as practically describes the pith and point of all other social work:

Truth through personality is our description of real preaching. It has in it two essential elements, truth and personality. Neither of those can it spare and still be preaching. The truth must come really through the person, not merely over his lips, not merely into his understanding and out through his pen. It must come through his character, his affections, his whole intellectual and moral being. It must come genuinely through him.

In balancing the use to be made of personality and of individuality, the principle of personality once admitted involves the individuality of every preacher. Every preacher should utter the truth in his own way and according to his own nature. It must come not only through man but through men. If you monotonize men you lose their human power to a large degree. If you could make all men think alike, it would be very much as if no man thought at all—as, when the whole earth moves together with all that is upon it, everything seems still.

His conclusion is as true of all ministering as it is of "the ministry," that the preparation for all human service

must be nothing less than the making of a man. It cannot be the mere training to certain tricks. It cannot be even the furnishing of abundant knowledge. It must be nothing less than the kneading and tempering of a man's whole nature till it becomes of such a consistency and quality as to be capable of transmission.

Such work is done only by men and women ministering, and the ministering is always and everywhere measured by the manhood and womanhood of those who minister.

THE "CALL" TO WORK—WHAT AND WHY

Light is greatly needed upon the call to usefulness. The conception as to what a "call" is not only keeps many young men out of the ministry, but prevents the great majority of church-members, and others who have the religious spirit, from recognizing and responding

to their varied callings. The general warrant for everyone doing something may be acknowledged; the need for all that can be done may not be denied; the desire and impulse to do more may be admitted in a conscience-stricken way; the accessible sources of knowledge concerning the work and its message may be well known; and yet, if the consciousness of the special call or personal duty be lacking, there may not be sufficient momentum given by all these general considerations to carry even a devout soul over specific obstacles.

The study of the call to discipleship (John i. 35-51) and the call to apostleship (Mark iii. 13-15) discloses the way by which the worker is drawn to the work. Here, and throughout Scripture history, it is a process of selection by which work and workers are brought together. Far too much emphasis has been laid upon the invariable necessity of a direct, supernaturally expressed "call," such as some of the prophets and the apostles are supposed to have actually heard from heaven. How far, even in these few most exceptional cases, the call may have been heard only within, and how far what was "said" found its utterance to them through such circumstances and experiences as are common to the religious life, is a fruitful theme of study. Even some of the most direct calls made upon the workers of Bible days came to them out of plainly discernible processes of experience, by which they had been gradually prepared to be called, and without which they could hardly have been capable of hearing or obeying.

Excepting these few extraordinary cases, the "call" by which the person was led into discipleship and service was a process. In John's Chapter of Eureka's those whom the seeker "finds" exultingly cry, "We have found him!" They whom he thus silently sought had been silently seeking, until at last they needed Jesus only to approach, and John only to look upon them and speak. In order to recognize their call to follow and serve him. Thus drawn, they run after him. Seeking, they are found. Beneath the consciousness of their response, and accounting for it, is to be

discerned the operation of a great law of spiritual selection.

There, on the Jordan's banks, as everywhere else since, there have been "diversities of workings, but the same God." As John the Baptist introduced Andrew to Jesus, and Andrew "findeth first his own brother Simon, and brought him unto Jesus," so personal influence continues to be the medium of communication between the will and its duty. Prayer, too, has its preëminent place given in this great scene of the choice of the Twelve. Nowhere is its solemn importance and practical efficacy more impressively set forth than in Luke's preface to the Master's call of the cabinet of his Kingdom: "He went out into the mountain to pray; and he continued all night in prayer to God. And when it was day, he called his disciples; and he chose from them twelve, whom also he named apostles."

THE PULL OF NUMEROUS FORCES

To the type of this first call to discipleship and service modern experience conforms. In very much the same way in which every other decision of life is or ought to be reached, this call to religious and social work is being and must be decided. Out of the providential combination of circumstances, through the convergence of influences from above, about, and within, "by the pull of numerous forces," the divine call is to be expected. The whole trend of life may generally be seen to lead up to it. In his impressive treatment of the call to the ministry, Dr. Nathaniel J. Burton¹ thus impresses upon us the comfort and significance of a growing call to minister:

Calls may begin feeble (they often do), but as the years go on and our work goes on, the call ought to go on too, from strength to strength, being more and more articulate, affirmative, and inspiring. There is a band of music moving about the streets of the city and it is curious to notice in what alternating swells and falls it comes to you. Now you hear it and now you hear it not. A waft of wind has caught it. A line of buildings intervenes, or possibly the musicians themselves have ceased from their strong blasts, and are moving through their gentler and half inaudible passages. So it is with this other and ore heavenly music, the music of God's voice inviting us to be co-workers with

¹Yale Lectures on Preaching.

him in the gospel of his son. That great authentic voice comes to us through this and that medium, even as the air at large is made to deliver itself melodiously through the several instruments of the band; but for various reasons, some innocent and some not, that one dearest music of our life, as chosen men of God, finds its way to our ears inconstantly. Various unpardonable winds sweep in. Various infirmities whereunto we were born and from which we cannot wholly escape interpose their confusion. Possibly an occasional miserable gust from the outlying hells of the universe points this way to hinder our hearing. All this is incidental to a life on earth. But no real minister will consent, or will be called upon to consent, to a lifelong loss of a supernatural commission. By and by the old music will come back. In some watch of the night, in some moment of prayer and mourning, in some studious hour, in some praying assembly of God's people, by some bed where a saint lies dying, in the uplifted delivery of some sermon, somewhere and before long, he will catch again that voice of voices, that call of his Heavenly Father, and straightway his work will be transfigured before him again and he will bear the strength of ten.

CHARACTER-TRAINING FOR SERVICE

The sense of personal unfitness for service which often counteracts the consciousness of the divine call to render it suggests the study of the character-training by which prophets, apostles, and the "chosen people" were fitted for their work. It is selected, equipped, and trained personalities that are the chosen means for ministry. The purpose and manner of this training are both emphasized by the fact that "he calleth unto him whom he himself would; and they came unto him. And he appointed twelve that they should be with him, and that he might send them forth to preach, and to have authority." (Mark iii. 13-15). To "be with him" we are called first of all. And being with him is both an end in itself and a means to a further purpose. Character is religion's greatest achievement and the instrumentality of all its accomplishments. Our sending forth depends upon our being with him. The forthgoing upon service is measured by our incoming to fellowship with God and fellowmen.

Nowhere is the relation between preparation and service more impressively stated than by Jesus' own life. How disproportionately long seem those thirty years of silent preparation to the three

brief years of his public ministry! Yet in what contrast with any three years of any other life or with all the years of the longest and greatest of lives stand those three years of his toil! The fact that he was but three years in doing all that he did is not without its connection with the other fact that he was all of thirty years in becoming what he was and in preparing to do what he did.

The place in the plan of Christ's life given to the training of the twelve is also most emphatic testimony to the divine sense of the necessity of preparation for service. More than by anything else his life-plan is to be discerned in the requirements of and provision for the training of the disciples. This was the purpose that lay nearest to his heart. Every act and word, miracle and discourse, took its bearings from and had its bearing upon the development of their characters. The study of our Lord's life as the school for the training of his disciples reveals new plan and purpose in his whole earthly career.

NEGATIVE AND POSITIVE TRAINING

Two distinct aims are apparent in this training, to the accomplishment of which two different periods of their discipleship and his life were devoted. The first effort of their great teacher was negative—to liberate them from the limitations of their natures and surroundings. Fundamental qualities and capacities are discoverable in the first six of the disciples which became the basis for attainments of character that qualified them for their service. The brotherliness of Andrew and Philip (John i. 41, 45), reappears in larger mold in John xii. 20-22. Through the Simon of John i. 42, Jesus saw the Rock-Man, Peter, of Matthew xvi. 16-19. John's coming to Christ, to see and abide, stands for that love and loyalty to which all the promises are made (John i. 39). Nathaniel's guilelessness is the lowermost layer of the foundation of Christian character. (John i. 47 compared with Nat. vi. 22-24.)

Yet these very fundamental elements of character were fettered and bound down by the limitations of their own natures, the force of fixed habits, the

restrictions of false teaching and custom, and the iron-earth and brass-heavens of their hard age.

To the rescue of their imprisoned spirits and their suppressed hearts the great Liberator came proclaiming release, the recovering of sight, the binding together of their fragmentary lives, the opening of the prison, and the liberty of life. Through all the early part of their discipleship he did little else than ring in their ears this proclamation of their emancipation. Most of his words were blows to strike off their shackles of self and sin. Most of their trials of heart and faith were the forges in which habit and custom were melted off. Most of the wonder-works they saw him do were done to let the oppressed go free and to display the glorious liberty of the children of God.

Such, too, must be the initial experience of our spiritual apprenticeship. It lies in the deeds that must be undone, in the thoughts that must be unlearned, in honest dissent from hitherto careless assent, in squaring "hearsay" theories with facts, in surrendering self and the very consciousness of it. But this conquest is the price of our liberty to live, to labor, and to love. Dispossession is the condition of being possessed with the divine purpose.

With the opening of the last year of their training a great change is noticeable in the form and purpose of Christ's teaching and discipline. In the main, the manner of his speech becomes more direct and plain, more unreserved and confidential. He talks with them no longer as servants but as friends. He turns from what they should not be and what they should not do to tell them what they are to be and do. Affirmatives replace negatives in doctrine as well as in morals. Gradually he teaches the hard and high things as they are ready to bear them. Such is the positive training in character for which negative discipline is only and always preparatory.

Thus, the first disciples shared his purpose not to be ministered unto but to minister; they saw that greatness is measured by service and service by sacrifice.

THE TOOLS WE ALL HAVE TO WORK WITH

We have already seen that **there is** more use for the whole man than for any of his parts. We are bidden by St. Paul not only to present "yourselves unto God as alive from the dead" but also "your members as instruments of righteousness unto God." Our personality is thus represented as a whole armory of weapons for service. We should learn the serviceableness of each—intellect, conscience, imagination, memory, will, and heart; and by exercise and discipline we should cultivate their capacity and develop their power.

"The body is for the Lord; and the Lord for the body" (Cor. vi. 13). All its members, also, are instruments of righteousness unto God. The whole man is sometimes described as a "voice." The eye is the outlet and inlet of the soul. "Beautiful upon the mountains are the feet of him that bringeth good tidings, . . . that publisheth salvation." Awful is the desecration of the body which is "a temple of the Holy Spirit." Terrible is the destruction of that temple when it is defiled. Nothing in the education and religious training of the young is more needed than developing and informing "a physical conscience" for the protection and spiritual culture of the body.

Besides the implements for service with which we are equipped by nature there are those which, in the language of religion, are called "gifts of grace." Repentance, faith, hope, and love generally stand connected in Scripture with the words "in," "by," or "through." This means that they are the instruments in, by, or through which something is done. Almost always what is said to be done by means of these instrumentalities is what is done through them for and upon the individual who possesses them. But there is warrant enough both in Scripture and in experience to study these gift-growths of the religious life as implements in, by, and through which we may work for others.

Experience with our repented sins gives us capacity to be touched with the feeling of others' infirmities and to share in David's and Peter's power to

"turn the disobedient to the wisdom of the just." Kindled by love, the faith and hope by which our own souls are saved are the means of believing and helping others into the better life who have no faith nor hope in themselves.

"God sends us a soul-friend once in a life-time," writes Harriet Beecher Stowe, "who loves us not for what we are or have been, but for what by God's great grace we may become." And she likens this soul-friend to the mother of Augustine, who dreamed that she saw him clad in the white robes of a Christian priest, ministering at the altar, when he was a prodigal in the far country, until he became the saint his mother's prayer-dream hoped he would be. Lord Byron, on the other hand, is said to have lamented, "Men thought me to be so much worse than I was that I became as bad as they thought me to be."

These natural endowments and gifts of the religious spirit, which we have been considering as "instruments of righteousness unto God," must not be considered apart from ourselves. They are the living organs of our new life. They do not belong to any part of us. They are the organs of the whole man, through which the entire person acts. Man is a unit. We live one life. Mind is a man thinking. Will is a man willing. Faith is a man believing. Partition is the paralysis of the parted member and the crippling or death of the dismembered body. "Soul" and "spirit" have almost perished from our consciousness by being regarded, and so constantly referred to as something a man has. Soul is the self, all I am or can become. And the body is also so much a part of what we now are that it is difficult if not impossible to conceive of ourselves as disembodied. Browning enjoins us:

Let us not always say
'Spite of this flesh today
I strove, made head, gained ground upon the
whole.'

As the bird wings and sings,
Let us cry, "All good things
Are ours, nor soul helps flesh more now than
flesh helps soul."

EACH ONE'S PART IN THE GREAT COMMISSION

The great commission of Judaism to invite the world to come into the Covenant,

and of Christianity, "Go ye into all the world," commits every disciple of both faiths to fulfill this mission of the whole congregation and church. Although general enough to include the work of all, each one must read in it his own part in the common cause. It proclaims from the housetops all that is spoken in the ear and within the inner chamber of each one's heart. Whatsoever has been said in the darkness to each solitary worker is here heard in the light. Its great common elements enter into every one's summons. "All nations" indicates the catholicity in our ideals and efforts which are requisite to obedience and success, the all-comprehensive purpose of each one's mission. No one can do more. Nothing less will do. Debtorship to all prompts the best impulse and efficiency for striving to serve each.

But to be good is not enough. We must be better than good, if we would do good. We must know how to do it, we must be efficient. "The goodness fallacy" is well said by William H. Allen¹ to be fatal to both religious and social work. No education should be considered "liberal" which does not fit for public service of some kind. No public school fulfills its function that does not fit for citizenship. No religious character or culture should satisfy any church or church member that does not inspire and equip for serving others. To schools of philanthropy and civics leading students should be sent from colleges and seminaries, Sunday schools, and training institutes for graduate study and practice to learn to do efficient social work.

For all the qualifications to meet the requirements of the world-field are identified with the duty and privilege of service in that imperative mandate in each one's great commission, "Go Ye."

[THIS IS THE FOURTH OF PROFESSOR TAYLOR'S SERIES ON RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION, WHICH ARE RUNNING SEMI-MONTHLY IN THE SURVEY THROUGHOUT THE MEN AND RELIGION CAMPAIGN. PREVIOUS ARTICLES WERE: I, LIFE AND RELIGION, DECEMBER 2; II, THE HUMAN POINT OF VIEW, DECEMBER 16; III, PERSONALITY A SOCIAL PRODUCT AND FORCE, JANUARY 6.]

¹EFFICIENT DEMOCRACY. By William H. Allen. Dodd, Mead, and Company. New York. 1908. 346 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.61.

CIVICS

CHARTERS AS TOOLS, NOT CURE-ALLS

GENEVIEVE W. BEAVERS

Robert L. Stevens Fund for Municipal Research in Hoboken

A charter conference held at Hoboken, N. J., with Governor Woodrow Wilson presiding, has given state-wide impetus to the cause of efficient government. This conference was called by the mayor and the Board of Trade of Hoboken at the suggestion and with the co-operation of the Robert L. Stevens Fund for Municipal Research in Hoboken. Invitations were sent to the mayors, city attorneys, and boards of trade of twenty New Jersey municipalities, several of which will petition the legislature of 1912 for new charters.

In opening the conference Governor Wilson sounded a call for efficiency in public affairs when he said:

We are entering upon an era of scientific efficiency in all lines of business endeavor. What we need in this country is to attempt to introduce business efficiency into our government. There is no place where greater success would follow such an effort than in our city government. The governing of a city is not a political matter. It is not a party matter, or should not be. We all know, however, how often attempts to run municipal affairs along non-political, non-partisan lines fail. The one thing that we do not apply business efficiency to is the one thing where it is most necessary. . . . Sooner or later you will find that there is only one way to get efficiency and economy in public office and that is to turn the spot-light upon all those who conduct the public's business and upon every act they perform. There should be nothing done in the public's business that is private. Nobody has the right when I go to the City Hall and ask a question about the city's business to say "That is not your affair." It is my business and I have a right to be informed regarding the slightest detail of it.

This conference on charter planning was timely because of the wide-spread desire for a form of charter which would serve as an instrument of better municipal government in New Jersey cities. That charter change is desirable was shown very emphatically during the past year in a campaign for commission government, which resulted in the adoption of this system by Passaic and Trenton and by a dozen smaller towns, and its rejection in other cities by very small majorities.

The fact that some twenty cities were represented at this gathering by about eighty conferees shows that although the commission form of government was generally defeated, charter revision is by no means a dead issue, and it further reaffirms the principle first clearly laid down by Governor Hughes, when he removed Borough President Ahearn, "that the majority has no right to impose inefficient government on the minority." Because of the great interest manifested in the commission government movement, much time was given to a consideration of one or another of its forms.

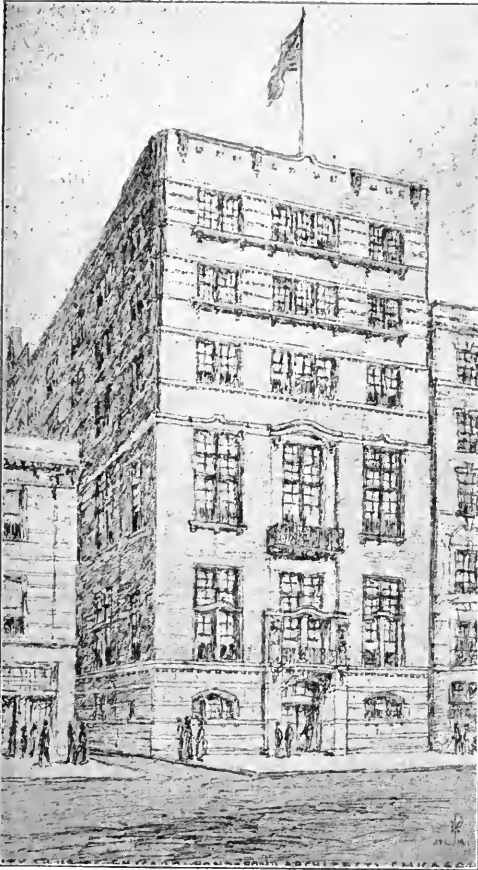
The different forms of government in New Jersey at present are: mayor and council; mayor and council plus finance board; mayor and commission; commission.

Mayors of five New Jersey cities—Hoboken, East Orange, Trenton, Jersey City, and Paterson—gave fifteen-minute talks on the charter needs of their own cities. Following this part of the program those present joined in a general discussion of charter-making from the point of view of their own experiences.

It is significant that none of the speakers advocated the retention of the council as an administrative part of city government. The preferences expressed by the speakers, except Governor Wilson, who favors the five-headed commission form, were for a strongly centralized government, giving the mayor power to appoint his heads of departments or commissioners, and holding him solely responsible for their acts.

Both Governor Wilson and Mayor Gregory of East Orange urged greater home rule in municipal affairs and deplored legislative interference in local matters as being pernicious and harmful.

Henry Bruère, director of the New York Bureau of Municipal Research and of the Robert L. Stevens Fund for Municipal Research in Hoboken, sounded the keynote of charter needs and requirements. Mr. Bruère, who has just made a study of commission government in ten western cities, said:



THE CHICAGO CITY CLUB.

What cities chiefly need is something which commission charters and practically every other charter that has been framed in America fail to supply. They need the incentive to good administration and the danger signals of bad administration which come from orderly methods of doing business, from scientific accounting, from budget making, from scientific purchasing methods, from cost keeping, from service and efficiency records, from good specifications, from employes selected for efficiency, and from efficient business administration which most charters never mention at all.

In framing a charter a fundamental thing to consider besides the form of organization are the definite aims towards which government will be supposed to operate. It is all important that a new plan of government should be conceived with reference to a definitized community program of service.

I do not advocate overloading your charter with detail, but I do advocate framing it with a definite idea of, first, all the different kinds of service which you expect your city government to perform; second, how it will go about performing this service, how it will

organize, and what methods it will employ; and, third, laying the basis in records and administrative checks for good government to the prevention of bad government.

By self-analysis, study of your local problems, comparison of methods, and a contrast of results you should be able jointly to formulate a code of business procedure and a program of community effort for the cities of New Jersey which will prove the strongest incentive to obtaining efficient government, because it will make efficient government possible and will give to the initiative, referendum, and recall a vitality which they cannot possess in a community uninformed regarding government results, out of touch with government business except when heroic remedies are invoked.

Mr. Bruère closed by saying:

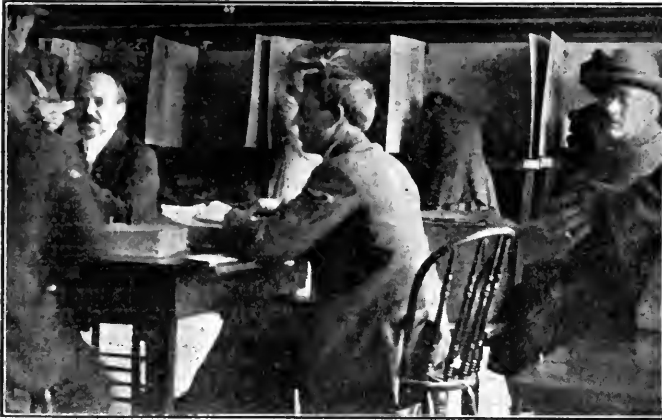
New Jersey cities can place the whole nation in their debt, as have Galveston and Des Moines, if they take the next step in progressive government by formulating comprehensive community programs, and by standardizing administrative practice. By this they will help save these progressive cities from disappointment.

It was unanimously decided to request the governor to appoint a committee to draft an administrative code for New Jersey cities which would prescribe scientific methods of doing the city's business. This the governor has promised to do and the work is already under way.

CHICAGO CITY CLUB IN NEW HOME

The City Club of Chicago opened its new club house during the week of January 8 with a series of receptions and dinners which set a new standard in occasions of this sort. Each evening witnessed a noteworthy gathering designed to interpret to some group in the community the civic spirit and work which the club exists to promote. Presidents' Night, when every former president spoke, with President Henry B. Favill as toastmaster, was the opening event. The main address of the evening was by Secretary of the Interior Walter L. Fisher, who was president in 1909-10. This evening was for members only, but on each of the remaining nights the club had as its guests 250 representative Chicago people.

Tuesday was Government Night, with Governor Francis E. McGovern of Wisconsin as the principal speaker, and public officials—city, county, state, and national—as the club's guests. On Education Night the club's invitation to teachers, superintendents, librarians, and others concerned in a wide range of educational effort brought a large representation from this group to listen to talks by Charles McCarthy, of the Wisconsin Legislative Reference Bureau, Ella Flagg Young, superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools, and Henry B. Legler, librarian of the Chicago Public Library. Nationalities Night, Thursday, brought people from nearly a score of



VOTING IN THE SCHOOL HOUSE, LOS ANGELES.

a civic problem in all Chicago that they do not touch. They investigate and report upon the particular subjects within their province, and on approval of the directors of the club take such steps as they deem wise to give effect to their recommendations. About thirty discussions on questions of public interest are held each year, most of them at luncheon time. These are reported in the *City Club Bulletin*. The club maintains, moreover, a free lecture bureau through which churches, societies, clubs, and other organizations in Chicago are supplied with speakers — all volunteers

from the City Club membership. With its splendid new building and its membership swelled to over fifteen hundred, the City Club of Chicago is now in a position to push forward far more effectively along all the lines of its important public service.

countries to meet a large number of club members. Judge Julian W. Mack's address was followed by several short talks by representatives from some of the larger national groups in Chicago. National songs and instrumental music and folk dancing added to the interest of this occasion, at which Charles R. Crane presided. On Civic Associations Night guests gathered from various organizations for civic welfare in Chicago to congratulate the City Club and wish it "God-speed." The principal speeches were by Congressman William Kent, Jane Addams, and Harry A. Wheeler of the Chicago Association of Commerce. The final event was Labor Night, when John P. Frey of Cincinnati, Professor George H. Mead of the University of Chicago, John C. Kennedy, and Mrs. Raymond Robins, as well as several others representing trade unions and other organizations devoted to improving labor conditions, spoke. An extensive exhibit illustrating the work of the City Club's committees was on view throughout the week.

The new building is at 315 Plymouth Court, just south of Jackson Boulevard. It is six stories in height, but two of the stories—those containing the lounge and the main dining-room—are of such height that mezzanine floors are inserted in the rear half. Its architects, Messrs. Pond and Pond, have sought to combine the home-like quality that belongs to a club with the dignity that is suited to an organization which exists primarily to fill a civic function. The attractive lounging, dining, reading, and billiard rooms will serve excellently the social side of the club's activities, while the library will house a collection of books, pamphlets, and reports of special value for the club's civic work. The private dining-rooms will facilitate the committee meetings in which public affairs are discussed and the efforts of the club formulated.

These twenty-four civic committees, composed of about fifteen volunteers each, afford the working machinery whereby the club's influence is brought to bear. There is scarcely

from the City Club membership.

With its splendid new building and its membership swelled to over fifteen hundred, the City Club of Chicago is now in a position to push forward far more effectively along all the lines of its important public service.

PHILADELPHIA'S CITY CLUB

The City Club of Philadelphia, which was organized in 1906 after the success of the reform campaign of the previous year, has taken on a new lease in life. This result is due partly to the victory of the independent ticket at the last municipal election, and partly perhaps to the activity of a special committee on the future of the club which did a great deal of its work prior to the election. Owing to the expiration of the club's lease on its present quarters a change of location was necessary. This fact offered an opportunity for a forward movement which the committee was not slow in seizing. The club has moved into temporary quarters on the seventeenth floor of the Real Estate Trust Building, corner Broad and Chestnut Streets, the most central and acceptable location available in the city. These will be occupied until the plans for a club house are realized.

As regards permanent quarters for the club, the committee on future plans, through Otto T. Mallery, its chairman, presented two plans and recommended the appointment of a special committee of nine club members with power to carry out either of these two plans, preferably the one for a civic center if that should prove to be feasible.

The project for a civic center, while not a new one, has not previously been officially sanctioned by the club. The plan involves the co-operation of a number of philanthropic, social, and civic organizations in an effort to furnish suitable offices and facilities in a large civic building, centrally located. It involves an expenditure of approximately half a million dollars.

The responsibility for working out a de-

tailed plan of campaign and a feasible method of participation therein on the part of the organizations interested was delegated to a committee appointed upon the initiative of the president of the City Club, but which represents a number of philanthropic organizations in the city. Should it not be possible to carry this plan to an assured success by March 1, 1912, the committee is authorized to provide comfortable and adequate quarters for the City Club similar to those of the New York and Boston City Clubs.

JOTTINGS

LOS ANGELES VOTES IN SCHOOL HOUSES

Los Angeles witnessed at its recent municipal election the working out of a new idea for improving election machinery. For the first time on record, it is claimed, a city utilized its public school buildings, churches, and libraries as polling precincts. Instead of hunting for dingy polls located in livery stables, cigar stores, and barber shops, often in out-of-the-way places, the citizens in a large number of districts had merely to walk to the nearest school, the location of which is always well known and the same from year to year.

Partly owing perhaps to the environment of attractive buildings, spacious entrances, wide hallways, and large, well-lighted polling places, the women did not hesitate to come out, while the ample space made it possible to handle the crowds quickly. In some precincts more women than men voted. Pupils were not inconvenienced and studies are said to have proceeded as usual. A concerted movement will now be made to have all future elections in Los Angeles polled at public buildings, donated churches, and like buildings, at a saving of \$50,000 in rent.

That Los Angeles should change its system of voting places was the idea of Meyer Lissner, who presented it to the City Club for action. The City Club conferred with the superintendent of schools, and, aided by the

Woman's Club, the use of thirty schools, one branch library, and a church was secured for polling places. The principal of one of the schools used, when asked regarding the results of the experiment, said: "I cannot say as to the political side, but school proceedings have not been interfered with in any way. We gave up one room in this case, but a mere transfer of some class pupils was made and there was no interruption in studies or recitations.

"Everything has been quiet and orderly. So far as the school is concerned, use of a room for the booths does not interfere in any way."

A MUNICIPAL GENERAL MANAGER

Staunton, Va., owes much to the happy thought of one of its citizens which led to the hiring of a general manager. Although this town of 12,000 people had been spending a great deal, there was little to show for it. The streets, sewers, and water supply were all in bad condition and getting worse. The city authorities selected a civil engineer who had had experience as a railroad man and placed him in charge of the eight municipal departments, with instructions to run them as if he were employed by a business house. The superintendent has been at the task for nearly four years and has remade Staunton. Its sidewalks are laid more cheaply, more paving is done, the water shortage has been overcome, garbage is collected hygienically, and the sewage system is in good condition. All this has been done without adding to the debt or increasing the tax rate, although by voting against the issuance of saloon licenses a revenue of \$12,500 a year was lost, while a cave-in and a fire entailed expenses amounting to \$40,000.

Other achievements of the past three years have been the creation of a city health officer, an increase of park acreage, of the police force, in the wages of a large number of employes, and in the appropriations for schools.



WAITING THEIR TURN.

This election line is in front of a school house in Los Angeles.



November 2, 1911.



—Courtesy of Park and Cemetery.
November 5, 1911.

CIVIC IMPROVEMENT

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON, Contributing Editor

GARDEN CONTESTS

Week by week, all through the fall, the public prize garden contests were closing. In Salem, Mass., the Civic League announced that 723 entered its competition this year—twenty-one more than a year ago. Their endeavors must surely have added not a little to the attractiveness of a city which is, not very large. The contest in Salem is conducted through the public and parochial schools. In this way it reaches a multitude of boys and girls who in a few years will have homes of their own and more opportunity to indulge the love of gardening. The grouping of the prizes is by wards, which is not, perhaps, as good a plan as by frontage of lots. Prizes are given, in each group, for "general garden," for wall or fence planting, for vegetable gardens, and for window boxes. The award of the prizes was made at a big public meeting under conditions which added much honor to success.

BAY STATE LEGISLATION

The suggestive annual report of the Massachusetts Civic League for 1911 shows that during the last session of the Massachusetts legislature the league introduced no measures of its own. The governing committee, however, acted upon fifty-five measures affecting social problems, urging either their passage or defeat. Furthermore, it tried strenuously, though ineffectively, to substitute a constructive act regulating Sunday play in place of the dozen or more measures which dealt with Sunday baseball. Special emphasis is given in the report to the league's recent study of housing legislation. For many months a committee of the league

has been working on a housing law for small places—a very difficult problem, "owing to the fact that there are no models." There are many examples of housing laws for large cities, but the needs of the small town have been little considered. Edward T. Hartman, secretary of the league, says: "For many years we have had in Massachusetts a succession of short-lived organizations developed to improve the appearance of towns. They have in the main died, because their aim was superficial. Beauty cannot easily be engrafted upon rottenness." The report does not contain an outline of the new housing law which the league is preparing.

TRENTON WANTS A CITY PLAN

The public-spirited citizens of Trenton, N. J., are convinced of the value of a well-thought-out city plan for correcting existing faults and directing future growth. They have been ably supported in their campaign for one by the Trenton *Evening Times*, so that now a large body of public sentiment is back of them. As a result, the City Commissioners lately adopted the following resolution:

Whereas there exists no definite plan of the city of Trenton providing for extension and growth in a logical and definite manner; and

Whereas it is deemed desirable to make provisions for the future growth of the city; therefore, be it

Resolved, that the city clerk be and hereby is directed to correspond with the city clerks of such other cities as have had prepared plans for their future development, to obtain copies of such plans as far as possible, to

ascertain what is the usual cost for the preparation of such plans, and to report such information to the board as promptly as possible."

NEW YORK CHILDREN AT PLAY

Inspiring and impressive figures are those contained in the first annual report of the Bureau of Recreation of New York. William J. Lee, supervisor of the bureau, in an article summarizing the work of the first year, which appears in *City Life*, states that the attendance for 1911 at the playgrounds and the one indoor gymnasium is estimated at more than 3,000,000. During the summer months it ran half a million a month. Thirty children, sixteen years of age or under, were killed in the streets during September, but "among the 3,000,000 children who have participated in the sports and festivals of the playgrounds of Manhattan and Richmond no deaths have occurred, and all accidents have been of a minor nature." In the park playgrounds and athletic fields of Manhattan and Richmond, 5,000 boys competed last spring for the athletic championship; and "fully 10,000 inhabitants of the lower East Side" enjoyed the festival, the Parade of the States, which was held at Hamilton Fish Park playground on July 1. Five hundred teams, twelve boys on each, competed for the Park Playground Baseball Championship. The final game was played before 10,000 spectators. Girls also had championship competitions. Each year about 10,000 children are arrested in the streets for trivial offenses and taken to the Children's Court. Most of these offenses, such as playing baseball, roller skating, football kicking, etc., "if committed on the playgrounds would not be a violation of law."

THE CHILDREN'S CHRISTMAS

Rochester, as a municipality, celebrated the Children's Christmas. The idea originated with the Playground Committee of the Park Board. Previously to 1911 the committee always had a Christmas celebration in one of the larger grounds and invited deputations from the other playgrounds to attend it. This time it was decided to hold a monster celebration in the big convention hall, to admit all the children of all the playgrounds, and make it a memorable occasion. The date chosen was the Thursday after Christmas—Holy Innocents' Day—but a bit of legal red tape interfered with sentiment, as red tape so often does, and the celebration had to be held the following day. But no one who saw or heard it felt there was any inappropriateness in the failure to make connection with the holy innocents. For never was bedlam less restrained. Long before the appointed hour, the children had begun to arrive, by companies, by ones and twos, and by hayrick loads from outlying wards. Each had a ticket which could be secured only from the director of his own playground, so that playground children alone were admitted.

The entire ground floor of the vast auditorium was reserved for them, and it was none too big for the 2,000 children, of whom the oldest could hardly have been more than twelve or thirteen. In the galleries were the parents and friends of the children, and it was a tossing, sun-kissed sea of faces in very truth upon which they looked. The Park Band played America, and the voices of the multitude of children and of the crowd in the gallery almost drowned the music. Then the curtains of the stage were drawn aside. On a built-up tier of green, children from one of the playgrounds formed the Human Christmas Tree. With dolls in their arms, they sang a lullaby. As an encore—an encore which Patti might have envied for its whole-heartedness and vigor—they sang Santa Lucia. They were all Italian children and the enthusiasm with which they sang that Italian Christmas song put a lump in many a throat. This was followed by a folk dance by children from another playground. Next, the president of the Park Board made a short address. In the course of it, he said that Santa Claus had not left Rochester yet and might be expected at the hall a little later. Immediately there was a shout of glee, a tossing of caps, and a waving of handkerchiefs that filled with sudden, happy tears all the eyes in the galleries. After that, little playground girls in costume gave the Witches' Drill with faultless precision. There was music again by the band, and finally a little play, in which Santa Claus and toys that came to life were the leading characters. But Santa Claus did not leave the stage. When the play was finished he called to his side three funny little gnomes who pulled aside a great blue curtain that hung from the ceiling, and there, in all its thrilling splendor, was a giant Christmas tree, with an orange and a box of candy for every child. That was Rochester's Children's Christmas.

BLOCK IMPROVEMENT CIRCLE No. 1

Baltimore is testing an idea that promises much for the civic development of that city. Block Improvement Circle No. 1 was organized last summer and already a considerable number of similar circles have been started and more are being formed. The working plan of these organizations is simple. The residents of a block unite to produce more wholesome conditions in the core of the city square in which they live. Unsightly fences are cleared away and replaced with wire to protect vines and hedges. Objectionable back-buildings are demolished. A carefully planned beauty-park is arranged inside each block. Grape-vines, wisteria, clematis, and climbing roses are trained to grow on the front and back walls of the houses. One factor that partially compelled the development of this plan was the depreciation in real estate values due to rapid transit and the rush toward suburban homes. The scheme has the support of the Baltimore Women's Civic League.

HEALTH

TUBERCULOSIS PREVENTION COSTS IN 1911

PHILIP P. JACOBS

Assistant Secretary National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis

If a toll of a billion dollars in wasted human life is exacted annually by tuberculosis, as Prof. Irving Fisher claims, it is of first importance that we take count from time to time of expenditures to prevent this waste and to measure our progress.

The National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis has just compiled its third annual statistical summary of the anti-tuberculosis movement in the United States, and has found that in 1911 approximately \$14,500,000 was expended, as compared with a sum slightly larger in 1910, and with about \$8,000,000 in 1909. It is too early to be able to give exact information, but fairly close approximations can be made. The figures are based largely on reports from anti-tuberculosis agencies in various parts of the United States, such as associations, sanatoria, hospitals, dispensaries, open-air schools, and boards of health; and when reports were not available, the figures are estimated from data on file in the office of the national association.

The aggregate expenditures in 1911 are practically the same as those for 1910, but it is noteworthy that during the past year there has been a continued increase in the percentage of public money spent. In 1909, out of \$8,000,000 only 53.5 per cent was from public funds. In 1910 the percentage

and maintenance of sanatoria, hospitals, and camps. In 1911 about \$11,800,000 was spent for this purpose, as contrasted with \$11,300,000 in 1910. This increase is explained by the fact that several large public institutions made heavy outlays for construction, and a number of new institutions were put into operation, the increase being largely from public funds.

The association expenditures show a decrease in 1911. This would seem to indicate a transferring of responsibility to the public, since several large organizations have put some of their activities under governmental auspices. The Chicago Tuberculosis Institute, for instance, this year turned over its entire dispensary system to the Municipal Sanitarium Board; and in Cleveland, Cincinnati, and other cities similar changes were made. The association expenditures were \$200,000 more than the receipts from Red Cross Seals, indicating that a considerable sum of money must be otherwise raised. The association's total outlay was \$500,000, and that has been directed largely toward keeping up or increasing money spent from public sources.

The amounts paid out in the last three years for the various classes of work covered are collected and comparable in the following table:

CLASS.	EXPENDITURES 1909.	EXPENDITURES 1910.	EXPENDITURES 1911.	TOTAL FOR THREE YEARS.
Sanatoria	\$5,300,000	\$11,300,000	\$11,800,000	\$28,400,000
Associations	975,000	750,000	500,000	2,225,000
Dispensaries	650,000	800,000	850,000	2,300,000
Other Tuberculosis Work..	1,100,000	1,800,000	1,300,000	4,200,000
TOTAL	\$8,025,000	\$14,740,000	\$14,450,000	\$37,215,000

increased to 62.6, and in 1911 to 66.2 per cent. Since the principal aim of the anti-tuberculosis movement at the present is to place responsibility for the stamping out of this disease upon the shoulders of the public, the steady increase in the percentage of public expenditures may be viewed as a marked sign of progress.

The class of expenditures which shows an increase over 1910 is that for the erection

Of the total expenditures for the three years, *i. e.*, over \$37,000,000, more than three-fourths is for treatment in sanatoria and hospitals, thus showing that this is the most expensive form of anti-tuberculosis work, as well as probably the most effective. The last item, "Other Tuberculosis Work," includes expenditures for open-air schools, state and local boards of health, hospitals for the insane, and penal institutions giving special

treatment to tuberculosis cases. About \$50,000 was spent on the maintenance of open-air schools.

Among the states New York again heads the list, with a total expenditure amounting to over \$3,500,000, of which nearly 70 per cent is from public funds. Of the ten leading states, however, Ohio, the fifth in order of gross outlay, leads in the percentage of public money spent, with 89.6 per cent. This is due to the their large number of county and district hospitals and small number of private institutions. Maryland, which comes next with 83.3 per cent, is tenth on the list in point of expenditures. Illinois and Connecticut spent practically the same percentage, the former 78.1 per cent, the latter 78.2 per cent. Colorado's public money supplied only 8.8 per cent, the smallest proportion of the ten.

Prospects for the year 1912 are promising. Already state legislatures and county and municipal bodies have made appropriations for tuberculosis work of over \$10,000,000; and in addition the federal government spends about \$1,000,000 every year in maintaining its several special tuberculosis sanatoria.

The loss from tuberculosis is enormous and the inroads upon this human waste are all too small. The provision of adequate hospital facilities for segregation of dangerous cases, which are foci for the spread of the disease, is the greatest need in the campaign of prevention. A conservative estimate places the number of consumptives who cannot afford and who cannot get proper hospital attention at from 200,000 to 300,000. For this horde of indigent sick, the total number of available hospital beds would not be more than from 15,000 to 20,000, a comparatively negligible number in handling this afflicted multitude.

Many schemes for stamping out tuberculosis in five, ten, or twenty years have been advanced. Few of them, however, take into account that the securing of adequate hospital facilities for 200,000 or more indigent consumptives requires patience, political influence, and education—all of which take time. If, for example, it takes from three months to two years to get one county hospital of fifty beds in New Jersey, or from three to five years to get a score of similar institutions in New York, what length of time will be required to secure a sufficient

number of beds for the whole 200,000—many of them scattered in parts of the United States where the prevention movement has only recently begun to be understood?

An annual expenditure of from \$50,000,000 to \$100,000,000 would in a comparatively short time provide adequate hospital facilities for this number; but with the necessarily slow method of work that American conditions require, the expenditure of \$15,000,000 a year and much more in tuberculosis prevention must be continued for many years before the death rate of this disease will have become so low as no longer to be alarming.

A detailed account of public, private, and total expenditures in each of the states as made up to date is as follows:

EXPENDITURES FOR TUBERCULOSIS WORK
IN 1911, BY STATES.

STATE.	PRBLIC.	PRIVATE.	TOTAL.
Alabama	\$7,500	\$4,500	\$12,000
Arizona	27,000	87,000	115,000
Alaska	2,000	2,000
Arkansas	45,250	1,750	47,000
California	314,200	350,000	670,700
Colorado	68,000	680,000	748,000
Connecticut	467,500	122,500	597,000
Delaware	28,500	31,000	59,500
District of			
Col.	45,500	11,200	56,700
Florida	3,000	15,000	18,000
Georgia	105,000	46,000	151,000
Hawaii	1,000	11,000	12,000
Idaho	619	619
Illinois	370,825	103,595	474,420
Indiana	64,000	73,500	137,500
Iowa	90,000	9,500	99,500
Kansas	14,000	2,000	16,000
Kentucky	107,500	44,500	152,000
Louisiana	29,000	97,000	126,000
Maine	73,000	19,000	92,000
Maryland	325,000	74,000	399,000
Massachusetts	814,000	294,000	1,108,000
Michigan	155,000	47,500	202,500
Minnesota	122,000	97,000	219,000
Mississippi	13,000	13,000
Missouri	196,000	79,000	275,000
Montana	1,000	1,000
Nebraska	5,100	1,000	6,100
Nevada
New Hampshire	75,500	11,000	86,500
New Jersey	336,000	49,000	385,000
New Mexico	245,000	345,500	590,500
New York	2,495,000	1,055,000	3,550,000
North Carolina	22,100	111,500	133,600
North Dakota	5,500	1,000	6,500
Ohio	647,000	75,000	722,000
Oklahoma	1,000	500	1,500
Oregon	25,000	23,300	48,300
Pennsylvania	1,720,000	545,000	2,265,000
Philippine Islands	45,000	1,000	46,000
Porto Rico	30,000	23,000	53,000
Rhode Island	67,500	59,500	127,000
South Carolina	15,000	7,000	22,000
South Dakota	20,200	300	20,500
Tennessee	35,000	58,100	93,100
Texas	71,000	115,500	186,500
Utah	600	600
Vermont	2,000	25,500	27,500
Virginia	76,000	26,000	102,000
Washington	9,500	30,000	39,500
West Virginia	10,500	7,000	17,500
Wisconsin	162,000	81,000	243,000
Wyoming
Total	\$9,606,275	\$4,977,605	\$14,566,630



—Newark, N. J., Star.
A TOAST.

FIRST CANADIAN CONGRESS ON CONSERVATION OF PUBLIC HEALTH

MADGE MACBETH

Just twenty-five years have passed since the first public discussion of public health in Canada. In 1885 the American Public Health Association enlarged its constitution to include Canadian members, and the following year the first annual session was held in Toronto. This, however, was only a provincial organization. In 1900 the Canadian Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis was formed, and in 1910, at the call of the Commission of Conservation of Canada, a conference of federal and provincial public health officers was held and formally organized for future work.

The ideas of the conference in 1910 have been broadened into the First Canadian Congress on the Conservation of Public Health, which took place December 13, 14, and 15, 1911, and which became the first concrete illustration of the unity of purpose in Canada along the lines of public health in all its phases.

The congress was formally opened at the Royal Victoria College, Montreal, by His Royal Highness the Duke of Connaught. The papers presented touched every phase of public health from the sanitation of military camps to the greatest of all problems—infantile mortality.

The first paper, read by Col. G. Carlton Jones, director general of medical services, Ottawa, on Military Aspects of Sanitation,

pointed out in brief that efficient sanitary rule in a camp was not only beneficial to the camp, but that the men took away with them lessons which were put into practice in their homes. In replying to this paper, Dr. P. H. Bryce, chief medical officer, Department of the Interior, Ottawa, said that he had just returned from Cuba, the only country he knew which had a Minister of Public Health, and he spoke in terms of high praise of the manner in which Cuba looked after the health of her people—especially in the rigid inspection of construction camps, and the treatment of spots which might become the breeding-places of the mosquito and the fly. He spoke of Cuba's successful fight against malaria, yellow fever, and other contagious diseases. Subsequently, Dr. Bryce read a paper entitled Conservation of Food by Cold. This in the main urged a better refrigerating system, especially for fruits and fish. Chief Food Inspector Tustin of Winnipeg said in this connection that he had found almost invariably that the cars were not to blame for the condition of berries shipped from the east—that pre-cooling stations were needed. Immediately upon picking, berries required to be cooled, in order that the heat of the earth might be absorbed and further change in ripening arrested.

Dr. Page's address included a plea for more efficient service among ship's surgeons. The immigrants in the first place, and the country of destination in the second, suffered by the "experience" these men received on ship board. He said that corporations would not pay an adequate salary to insure efficient service because there were always more applications for the position of ship's surgeon than could be filled. He cited Italy and the Argentine Republic as having handled this problem satisfactorily. Dr. Seymour, public health commissioner of Saskatchewan, in this connection said that the prevalence of tuberculosis in his province could be attributed largely to immigrants who had been passed through the ports, also to easterners who had been sent west to recover. Dr. Seymour is the only public health commissioner in Canada—the other provinces having a Board of Health—and he believes it due to this administrative arrangement that the sewage disposal system in Saskatchewan is far ahead of that in the East.

The section devoted to Town Planning and Re-housing dealt frankly with the overcrowding of cities. Dr. Hastings, medical health officer of Toronto, said that 25,000 people in New York were living in cellars, and 1,000,000 without baths, and that this number was not proportionately more than could be found in large Canadian cities; further, that the landlords who closed their eyes to everything except financial gains were accepting blood money; and that the dreadful housing conditions were responsible for the high death-rate among babies. Mr. Rickson Outhet suggested several improvements which should be made in municipal by-laws in order to increase their effectiveness, and

he held up as an example the Town Planning and Housing Act of England of 1909, granting to municipalities powers over adjacent suburban areas which heretofore have been in the hands of speculators. A statistical paper by Percy E. Nobbs, professor of architecture, McGill University, treated the financial aspect of re-housing those people who had been dispossessed of their homes because of unsanitary conditions.

In the section on infant mortality, the establishing of milk depots to insure pure milk for infants who must be fed artificially was recommended. Ellen Babbitt of the Child-helping Department Russell Sage Foundation, told of the educational work for mothers which was being carried on with encouraging results in England, and referred briefly to the travelling Caravan, an institution in Ireland. This caravan is a miniature travelling museum, exhibiting diagrams, charts, pathological specimens, open-air shelters, magic-lantern slides of the right and the wrong way to bring up children, and giving cookery demonstrations. In short, it contains everything necessary for the interesting and educating of the women who could receive instruction in no other way.

Women as Sanitary Inspectors, by Ethel Hurlbatt, arguing that women make more successful sanitary inspectors than men, was convincing. Papers dealing with sewage disposal, engineering, chemical and bacterial problems created lively interest and vigorous discussions, the trend being to emphasize the individuality of sanitation problems in different localities and the need of special treatment by experts who can see all sides of varied cases.

The following resolution was referred to the general executive:

"In view of the fact that tuberculosis is universally recognized as infinitely more destructive than all contagious diseases combined, causing more waste of life and money and leaving more suffering, misery, and poverty in its trail than any other disease, and since it is above all a preventable disease, which can only be controlled and ultimately eradicated by some comprehensive and co-operative scheme carried out by the Dominion Government and the municipalities of the Dominion, the Canadian Public Health Association would recommend the adoption of such a plan, and places itself on record as approving of a comprehensive scheme of co-operation between the federal and provincial governments and the municipality, and will further, by propaganda and otherwise, the attainment of such a scheme as one which will, in its opinion, be the most efficient in the control and eradication of this disease; and to that end would suggest:

"1. That laws be framed in such provinces which have no compulsory notification of tuberculosis which will require notification of the disease.

"2. That the various provinces enact such legislation as will require municipalities, counties or combination of counties,

or districts over a certain population (to be decided upon) to establish, build, and equip dispensaries, sanatoria, farm colonies, and hospitals for the care and treatment of the tubercular, and that the establishment of such institutions be not left optional with the aforesaid municipalities, etc.

"3. That a branch laboratory of the proposed laboratory of the commission be established preferably in connection with some municipal tuberculosis sanatorium, where material will be available for investigations and research, and where data as to the value of the most recent methods in tuberculin and vaccine therapy may be collected, which data would otherwise be unobtainable, and which would be available for all other sanatoria for the tubercular.

"4. That the Federal Government through its federal commission take steps to engage a number of experts on the various branches of tuberculosis; that one of these experts be an authority on the management and operation of hospitals for advanced cases; another be an expert on sanatoria and the work colony (farm colony); a third be an authority on dispensaries and their administration, including the social service and nursing branches; and still another be an expert in charge of the laboratory. That these experts together with the secretary form the Board on Tuberculosis of the Conservation Commission.

"5. That the purpose of this board on tuberculosis be to act as adviser and expert to all present institutions for the care of the tubercular and to such institutions as may hereafter be established; to advise municipalities as to the most efficient methods of entering upon and handling a tuberculosis campaign; to advise as to the most economical method of building, equipping, and maintaining such institutions; to advise those in charge as to the best and most recent advances in the methods of the treatment of the disease, etc.; and, finally, to act as supervisors and see that the methods advocated are consistently carried out."

It was unanimously approved that the opinion of the convention was that all children and unvaccinated persons should be vaccinated and non-immune adults should be re-vaccinated.

In regard to town planning it was recommended that provincial legislatures should take steps toward increasing the power of municipalities over town planning and land purchase schemes, when such schemes should extend beyond suburban and adjacent areas; in other words, that legislatures should give municipalities power along the lines of the English Town Planning Act of 1909.

The association placed itself on record as approving and endorsing the valuable work already done by the Canadian Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis in its educational campaign to arouse public interest in the subject of tuberculosis by the formation of anti-tuberculosis societies, etc.

The association signified its appreciation of Field-marshal His Royal Highness the Governor General's kindness in inaugurating the convention and delivering an address; also to Lord Strathcona for the material interest he showed by donating \$2500 to the convention for the furtherance of its work.

The patron of the association is His Royal Highness the Governor-General of Canada; the vice-patrons are Lord Strathcona and Premier Borden; the honorary president is Sir James Grant; the honorary vice-presidents include the premiers of all the provinces, together with the federal ministers whose departments deal with phases of public health work, the chairman of the conservation commission, and his chairman of the health committee. In its active membership are all the professors of hygiene in our colleges, the officials of the public health services of the dominion and the provinces, the officers of health of hundreds of municipalities, with associated architects and engineers and social workers generally; these are co-operating with our medical men and women in every part of Canada.

The new officers of the Canadian Public Health Association, elected on Friday, are: president, Chas. A. Hodgetts, Ottawa; vice-presidents, M. M. Seymour, M.D., Regina, J. W. S. McCollough, M.D., Toronto, and E. Bayard Fisher, M. D., Frederickton; general secretary, Major Lorne Drum, M.D., D. P. H., Permanent Army Medical Corps, Ottawa; treasurer, G. D. Porter, M.D., Toronto. A number of representative men and women form the executive council. Toronto will be the next meeting place of the congress.

JOTTINGS

HAUL DOWN THE ROLLER TOWEL

At a recent meeting of the New York city department of health the sanitary code was amended so as to forbid the use of the common towel. The new section of the code reads:

"No person, firm, or corporation having the management and control of any public lavatory, wash-room, or public comfort station shall maintain in or about such lavatory, wash-room, or public comfort station any towel or towels for use in common."

The terms in the section are construed by the department to prohibit towels intended

Passing of Roller Towel Kills National Institution.



—St. Louis Republic.

"AY, THERE'S THE RUB."

for the use of more than one person, in railroad stations, ferry-houses, schools, hotels, theaters, concert halls, dance halls, department stores, cafés, restaurants, or beer,

wine, or liquor saloons and municipal buildings.

The *St. Louis Republic* recently announced an attack in the city council upon the roller towel as follows:

"Councilman Fletcher proposes that a law be passed abolishing the roller towel. He would limit the scope of his law to saloons and public buildings at first, but once a breach is made in the defenses the friends of the roller towel will plainly see the beginning of the end—not of the towel, of course, because it has no end."

Continuing, facetiously, the *Republic* observes:

"The Bureau of Soil Analysis in Uncle James Wilson's Department of Agriculture hasn't got any more kinds of soil than can be found on a truly representative roller towel. A roller towel is not merely a thing. It is a collection, a museum, linking itself with the annals of bygone years, and holding out its hand to the future as a promising field for the scientific study of bacteriology."

A GOOD CHEAP TUBERCULOSIS DISINFECTANT

The January *Journal of the Outdoor Life* gives the following suggestions for a good cheap way of fumigating and cleaning house against tuberculosis infection:

"It does no real good to sprinkle either carbolic acid or lysol solution for the purpose of disinfection. In a room, thorough cleaning with strong washing soda solution is the most efficacious means in tuberculosis. This should be done to all of the walls as well as to the floors. If the room is papered the paper should be removed and renewed, and the woodwork repainted. After cleaning with the soda solution, the following method of disinfection will complete the process. Seal all the cracks of the windows and doors carefully, preferably with gummed paper, measure the room, and estimate the amount of cubic feet of air space. For each 1,000 cubic feet, use the following formula for generating formaldehyde gas: Potassium permanganate crystals, one-half pound; add formaldehyde, 40 per cent solution, one pound. The permanganate crystals should be placed in a wide deep pan and the formaldehyde solution poured in upon it. The gas is quickly generated. The room should be kept closed for six hours. Bedding can be satisfactorily disinfected only by live steam."

January 20, 1912.

INDUSTRY

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION AND PENSION PLAN IN THE BREWING INDUSTRY

JOHN A. FITCH

The brewers and brewery workers of America have embarked together upon a plan which, if carried out, will go a long way to demonstrate that a constructive program for the improvement of conditions of labor can be carried out by independent corporations acting in concert, and, even more revolutionary, by a co-operative agreement between the employers and the unions.

For nearly two years, a committee representing the Brewers' Association and the International Union of United Brewery Workmen of America has been working out a scheme for accident compensation and old-age pensions, the provisions of which are this month being sent out to the various unions and companies for ratification. As a basis for this plan, an investigation of the accidents in the brewery industry was carried on, and reports received from 16,374 workmen.

In line with the German insurance system the plan recognizes at the outset the crucial importance of accident prevention. The rules as worked out provide that the employers must comply with the state laws dealing with safety in factories, but the Board of Directors and Award may require further safety devices to be installed and may also make rules with regard to proper sanitation. This provision virtually gives the board of directors the power of supervision over the breweries in matters that fall naturally under the jurisdiction of the most effective and best equipped state boards of factory inspectors. This provision will, it is felt, be a most effective supplement to state inspection. Moreover, if a workman is injured because the employer has failed to install such safety appliances, the employer is liable to a fine, imposed by his fellow employers, equal to 5 per cent of the total compensation which has to be paid to the injured workman.

Under the terms of the plan a fund will be created, each employer paying 1.5 per cent of the amount of his pay roll and each employee paying .5 per cent of his wages. The compensation is to apply to all workmen or other

persons employed by the brewers, and the pension provision is to apply also to the salaried officials employed by the union. Such a piece of recognition of a union as a legitimate organization, qualified to employ agents whose standing in the industry is recognized and incorporated in a mutual benefit plan for the whole trade, is calculated fairly to take the breath away from the officials now in control of the National Manufacturers' Association. An employee must, if he takes advantage of the compensation that is offered, waive all other legal rights to recover it. An employer, if he is sued, may pay damages out of the compensation fund.

In brief, the compensation is as follows: First aid is to be provided for all injuries. In case of temporary disability, a workman is to receive from the fund 65 per cent of his wages after the first week, unless he is disabled for a period longer than four weeks, in which case he will receive compensation for the first week also. In case of total disability not resulting in death within two years, the workman is to receive 65 per cent of his wages for a period of five years. In no case, whether of temporary or permanent disability, is a workman to receive less than \$5 or more than \$20 per week; yet, in the latter case, his total benefit must be no less than his death benefit would have been in case he had died. In case of "unquestioned" total disability, a man may be paid a lump sum, equal to the total weekly payments for five years.

In case of death resulting from accident within two years from the date of accident the widow, or the dependents of the deceased, are to receive a sum equal to 300 times 65 per cent of his weekly wages at the time of the injury (roughly 4 years' wages), but the total must not exceed \$3,400. Funeral expenses to the amount of \$150 may be advanced and later deducted from the benefit. This compensation is to be paid irrespective of negligence, assumption of risk, or any other statutory or common law defense.

Under the pension provisions, which are to be paid out of the same fund, a man who has been in the service of a member of the association for twenty-five years, and has arrived at the age of sixty years, may be retired and receive a weekly pension for the remainder of his life equal to one-half his average weekly wage during the six months prior to his retirement, and a man may also be retired at any time on the same pension on account of incapacity. Twelve months' cessation of work for any cause is not to interfere with a man's record of continuous employment. Furthermore, a man may freely change his employment from one brewery to another in the association without losing his record for continuous service—an arrangement which would be quite impossible under such pension schemes as those of the Pennsylvania Railroad or the United States Steel Corporation. The compensation is to go into effect as soon as adopted, while the pension provisions are to be in effect January 1, 1913.

The fund is to be administered by a board to be known as the Board of Directors and Award. Three men from the Brewers' Association and three from the Brewery Workers' Union are to constitute this board. There are also to be local boards of award with the right of appeal from the decisions of the local boards to the Board of Directors and Award. The plan is to go into effect when approved by a majority of the members of the Brewery Workers' Union as expressed in a referendum vote, and by

brewery proprietors whose output represents 40 per cent of the output of beer in the United States. The Brewery Workers' Union has already expressed itself as favoring the principle involved in the plan, nor is it thought that there will be great difficulty in securing the co-operation of more than enough brewery proprietors to put the plan into effect.

It is felt that with the co-operative plan for preventing casualties the accident rate in the brewery trade will be brought down in the same way that the New England mill owners have reduced fire risks through their mutuals; that the stable relations established through the agreement with the unions will prove beneficial from an operating standpoint; and that the brewers will gain by setting the highest labor standard of any industry in America.

The significance of the plan will be seen when it is noted that the Brewers' Association represents 65 to 70 per cent of the output of the United States and that its members employ in the neighborhood of 70,000 men. It is also a significant thing that the union members of the committee that drew up the plan took the ground that their members ought to contribute to this compensation and pension fund. The compensation provided for in the plan is much more liberal than that of the Steel Corporation or the International Harvester Company. Nor does it tend to hamper the freedom of action of the employe, as does the service pension scheme advocated by the American Electric Light Associations.

The plan as worked out by the joint action of employer and employe appears to be one that will make for greater harmony and mutual good-feeling in the industry. Its operation will be watched with great interest.

RAILROAD MEN AND THE ENGLISH CONCILIATION BOARDS

MARY BROWN SUMNER

Less than a month ago it looked as though the holiday season would see at least 80,000 British postal employes, 300,000 railway servants, and 700,000 miners on strike in England. By a turn in events, instead of this truly "general" strike, the holiday season was distinguished by a lockout of 160,000 or more cotton operatives. By far the most momentous development in the British Labor movement on account of the issues involved is the history, so far as it can be followed in the newspapers and the trade and union periodicals, of developments among groups of transportation workers since the epoch-making strike of last August.

After two months' session, the urgency Royal Commission appointed by the terms of the settlement of this strike rendered towards the end of September its report and recom-

mendations for the reform of the railway conciliation boards. The recommended reforms tended to relieve somewhat the complication of the system established in 1907 and to lessen delays.

The system of 1907 provided that disputes in regard to wages and hours which could not be settled by direct agreement between company and men should be referred to sectional boards in the individual railway systems made up of the representatives of the class of workers who made the complaint and of the companies, half and half, with a chairman appointed from their number. Failing adjustment, the matter under dispute was referred to a central board, made up of representatives of the sectional boards, and, failing adjustment there, was referred to the

¹See THE SURVEY for September 9, 1911.

Board of Trade for arbitration. Applications to the sectional boards must be responded to within two months, but no time limit was set for the adjustment of grievances.

Soon after the system went into effect, the men began to complain of its workings; but the London *Daily News* well sums up the attitude of the government toward these complaints when it says that the greatest gain of the August strike was that the government acknowledged for the first time that there might be defects in the system of 1907 which demanded its reconsideration.¹

The system of 1907 covered hours and wages alone and the men's witnesses before the commission charged against it that this included only about one-fifth of all grievances; that, furthermore, this rigid limitation of its scope made it possible in many cases for the rail-ways to evade the boards' awards. Witnesses gave instances of reclassification of workers into other grades following an award of increased pay or shortened hours in a certain grade of work; of time work changed to piece work or *vice versa*; of over-time awards defeated by the lengthening of the number of hours constituting a day's work; of a certain grade of workers being shifted into a lower grade of work on days when their own work was slack, to keep their pay at the same level per week as before the award. They told of the employment of casual laborers, who do not come within the scope of the boards, to do the work of graded men at common labor rates, and of awards limiting hours being evaded by requiring tasks to be done in less time than was possible: as, for instance, the allowance of thirty minutes for reshedding an engine—work which it was claimed requires forty minutes.

Besides evasion of awards the men complained of the expense of the system, and, worse still, of its delay. Starting with a possible initial delay of two months before a petition was even taken up by a sectional board, the testimony was general that it was a common thing for a case to drag on for fifteen or eighteen months and then be referred to the Board of Trade for settlement. The long time agreements made under the awards also met with the men's disapproval, as they claimed that they were often held bound to one scale for years, in spite of regradings and of changed conditions in their work. Finally, they complained that intimidation was inevitable on the boards, from the fact that their position compelled them to choose an official of the company as chairman, and, further, that they were allowed to have no representatives on the boards and no advocate-secretary who was not an employe of the company. A general complaint which is not connected with the constitution of the boards, but seriously impairs their usefulness, was that the companies were not compelled to give full information in regard to hours and pay and other details and the men were therefore often at a disadvantage

in making demands.¹ In addition they claimed that the superior education and social advantages of the representatives of the company put the working-class members of the boards at a permanent disadvantage.

As the first step toward reforming their grievances the majority of the men—all, indeed, except the representatives of the locomotive engineers—demanded the abolition of the sectional boards and the recognition of the union: the latter in the sense that a union official not in the pay of the companies should be allowed to represent them both in deputations to the companies and on the boards.

To the formidable list of complaints put forward by the men the representatives of the railway companies replied by denying practically every allegation. They said that there was no evasion of awards, little or no delay, and that the scope of the boards was quite wide enough. Recognition of the union the companies, with one exception, would concede under no conditions, but they would "deal directly with their men." Several of the most prominent of the officials recommended penalizing strikes, putting the men in a military relation to the government and forbidding peaceful picketing. The only railway to uphold the principle of recognition was the North Eastern, which has never adopted the conciliation system, but has dealt with its men through the unions. The manager of this railroad testified that he had always up to the August strike found trade unions to be conservative and desirous of meeting the employer half way and avoiding strikes. His bitter complaint was that the August sympathetic strike on his road violated all conservative trade-union traditions.

The representatives of the companies did not strongly urge any changes in the conciliation boards but suggested that, if the commission deemed changes desirable, the central boards might be done away with, a time limit might be set during which a case must be taken up by the sectional boards, and an outside arbitrator might be called in when desired by the boards. Those who did not recommend penalizing all strikes strongly urged that the men be forbidden to strike on account of dissatisfaction with a board's decision.

In the reports of the sessions the testimony and recommendations of many of the railway officials and directors indicated, in the view of the *Daily News* (Liberal), that "the gulf between directors and men is about as wide as it can be." It was this gulf which the commission attempted to bridge. The commission ordered—for both sides were expected to regard its decision on all points as final—that the central boards be abolished, the sectional boards retained. Questions to

¹The shunters on one road secured an award increasing their pay. The company thereupon looked into the matter, declared that this group had before the award been in receipt of 2 s. more than they should have had, and that they therefore would pay them only 6d. extra. The company's decision prevailed, because the men did not know the customary scale of pay.

¹See THE SURVEY for November 12, 1910.

be considered by these boards must be referred by at least 25 per cent of the men in the grade of work affected. The boards were to meet at regular intervals, six months apart, or, in case a special meeting was necessary, fourteen days' notice was to be allowed. In case the board could not come to an agreement a chairman selected from a panel drawn by the Board of Trade would be called in to arbitrate, his arbitration to be final and thus to do away with the necessity of appeal in such cases to the Board of Trade. An agreement was to hold good for one year, a decision by an arbitrator for two. On the moot question of union recognition the commission had this to say:

"The members of each board shall be at liberty to select a secretary-advocate from any source they think proper. We mention this in connection with the subject of recognition as it may be regarded as pertaining to it."

The commission set July, 1912, as the date for the new system of conciliation boards to go into operation.

The commissioners' decision has proved highly unsatisfactory to the men.¹ The scope of grievances covered by the boards was not widened and evasion of awards by the companies was not provided against. These evasions are, the commission believes, not common. Some of the companies, however, says the report, apologetically, "did take this action. Assuming that in doing so they acted in good faith and were within their rights, the carrying out of these economies [this refers to regrading especially] at the very time the awards came into operation, was, in our opinion, unfortunate and calculated to excite feelings of disappointment and irritation."

When it comes to the observance of the awards on the part of the men this gentle admonishing attitude is lacking in the report. One passage is regarded as a warning to the men of possible compulsory legislation to secure adherence to contracts, although "opinion," says the *London Times*, "was not yet ripe" for the penalizing of strikes. After citing compulsory or semi-compulsory laws of other countries for the settlement of labor disputes, the passage continues: "Men have the right to determine their engagement by giving a lawful notice, but in the exercise of their freedom in this respect they should not, in our opinion, be permitted to incite or coerce by threats, or by any form of intimidation, men who desire to give their labor." In support of future claims by the men the report states: "The British public is prepared to support the men in any fair claim fairly put." A "public," British or otherwise, that is ready persistently and effectively to support the workers in their

The commission was made up of the legal adviser of one of the railways, a large mine owner, a government official (chief of the Dublin Constabulary), a man who had originally been a trade union official but for years an agent of the Board of Trade, and a trade unionist who was not a representative of the railroad men. This fifth man, Arthur Henderson, is the only one that the men considered the representative of their interests.

claims has not yet, the men believe, been found.

Nothing in the report was so deeply disappointing to the men as the refusal to allow them pointing to the men as the refusal to allow them to present their grievances through union representatives. After a short conference of their executive board they repudiated their tacit agreement to abide by the decision and submitted the question of a second strike to referendum vote in case the executive board failed to force the companies and the commission to make some compromises. Throughout the fall months the companies took their stand on their own adherence to the commissioners' report; but on December 11, before the full returns from the referendum were in, facing a strike in the holiday season, and influenced to some extent by pressure from Parliament [where a resolution of censure on their refusal to confer with the men had been introduced by the Labor party], they agreed to meet the men's representatives in conference.¹

By the first of several concessions made at this conference questions of hours, wages, and conditions of labor² can be referred directly to the boards instead of being presented first to the company by depositions of workmen. This should to some extent get around that "direct dealing with our men" which the men regard as involving victimization. In those questions where direct deputation to the company is still to be made use of by the men, it is conceded that a reply shall be given to petitions within two weeks' time, and that petitions may, within certain limits, be presented by less than the 25 per cent of the men provided as the minimum by the commission. Notice of reduction of pay or increase of hours is to be given in advance and may be reversed by decision of the next sitting of the conciliation board. By another concession casual laborers are to receive the same rate of pay as the regularly employed unskilled laborers on the railways.

There seems little doubt that the "arrival of democracy," as a writer in the *Fortnightly Review* called the August strike, has accomplished a decided improvement in the long-hated conciliation boards. It has, however, accomplished much more for the railway men. There was a tacit understanding after the strike that the companies would raise wages. This they have practically all done and that too with special attention to the

The newspapers report that the count of returns on the vote up to that time appeared to be favorable to a strike, the vast majority in favor being the lower-paid workers. It is a significant fact in this connection that in all the recent activities and efforts at united action of the railroad unions the organization of the relatively high-paid locomotive engineers and firemen has acted as a conservative check. In fact it is said that the three unions of low-paid workers, the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, the General Railway Workers' Union, and the Signmen's and Pointmen's Society, would have struck a year or more ago if they could have been assured of support by the locomotive engineers. See THE SURVEY, November 2, 1910.

²This latter phrase seems to imply an extension of the scope of the boards.

lower-grade men. On some lines the upper grades have not been increased at all or have received shorter hours or a summer holiday in place of more pay. As one-third of the total number of railway workers receive under £1 a week—lower pay than in almost any other group of permanently employed workers in England—and only 11 per cent receive over 30 shillings a week, the gross amount to be paid out even if the rate of raise is small is very large. The companies are frankly planning to recoup themselves by raising fares and the government is as frankly promising to help them by legislation in Parliament.

So much for the immediate results of the great strike. Its permanent results are shown in the new spirit in the unions, not only on the railways but throughout unionism. Many of the smaller unions of lower-grade laborers are reported to be doubling and trebling their membership. One of the oldest and largest of laborers' unions, the National Association of Gas Workers and General Laborers, has grown more than a third larger in the last three months and is undertaking a campaign of propaganda among such unskilled workers as general laborers in the furniture trade, who are not eligible to membership in the unions of the comparatively small group of skilled workers in that trade. George Lansbury, M. P., recently declared that "men are tumbling into the trade unions by the thousands simply because they have learned the power of standing still and doing nothing." There is also observable an extraordinary drift toward the coalescence of unions in allied trades. The railroad brotherhoods are kept a little behind others in this by the locomotive engineers, who reflect the attitude of the old-line craft unions, though they have a working alliance. Other transportation workers and unskilled laborers' unions are joining hands and many of the building trades are coalescing. The "industrialism" of the seamen and the dockers has already been described¹. Even when there is no permanent joining of forces it has become the understanding ever since June, when the dockers vigorously supported the seamen's unions in their remarkably successful strike, that one trade will not "scab" on another. In other words, class solidarity—what the editorial writer in the *Fortnightly Review* calls "the twentieth-century practical application of the eighteenth-century ideal of liberty, equality, and fraternity"—is taking hold of vast numbers of manual workers of Great Britain un-reached by the earlier movements.²

The avidity with which they seize and act upon this principle is well illustrated by the Irish railway strike, which was reported by some of the daily papers as a joke, by others as a scandal, and which appears to have been in reality a pathetically altruistic

¹See THE SURVEY, September 9, 1911.

²The *Industrial Syndicalist*, edited by Tom Mann, and the *Syndicalist Railwayman*, started by Charles Watkins at the end of the August strike, have a growing circulation.

effort to practice the solidarity of labor to the full. On September 18, two porters at a railway terminus in Dublin refused to load the lumber of a firm whose men were on strike. They had absolutely no grievances of their own and the lumber industry is not remotely connected with railway work, but this was "scab" goods and they could not handle it. They were discharged, but others took up their cause and for almost two weeks the whole of southern Ireland was paralyzed and the railways of the central part seriously handicapped. The executive of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants was called from London, approved the principle involved, and ordered a general strike throughout Ireland. The workmen of the North would not, however, come out—whether on account of antagonism to the English executive or because the conservative locomotive engineers held the other men back is not clear—and soon after the strike came to an end in complete defeat. Nevertheless the episode remains to show the outcropping of the idea that class, not craft, is the new common bond in the British labor movement.

THE ENGINEER IN SOCIAL SERVICE

JOHN CALDER
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Ilion, N. Y.

While engineers have to some extent individually advanced the common good, their contribution as a body has not accorded with their privileges. Most of the progress in industrial betterment has been due to the increasing efficiency of the philanthropic workers, both amateur and professional, who have candidly exposed the vulnerable joints in our social armor.

Engineers can atone for inadequate performance of civic duty only by securing the predominance and co-operative action within their own ranks of men whose culture and social sympathies are not narrowed by or sacrificed to their vocations, but are wisely guided in student days and intensified and broadened by a subsequent liberalized professional discipline.

To this end various professional agencies are now operating, largely assisted by Andrew Carnegie, whose gift of the United Engineering Societies Building in New York city has been a main factor in socializing the American Society of Mechanical Engineers and making the present forward movement possible. Members are scattered through every state in the Union, and their activities underlie a large part of our modern civilization and practically the whole of our industrial life. The advent of a monthly journal supplementing the annual volume of proceedings and of monthly meetings of the society in many of the large centers ranging from Boston to San Francisco has powerfully reinforced the former semi-annual meetings and increased their popularity.

Student branches have also been established in twenty-four of our largest universities and colleges and supplement the tendency of the

times to discourage the early specialization which deprives many young engineers of the general culture necessary for effective citizenship.

The bearing of these developments upon social service in the labor world is obvious. The mechanical engineer is more and more taking executive control of the industrial arts in the widest sense of the term. The engineering students and apprentices provide our future assistants, foremen, superintendents, plant engineers, and managers. In the past their training has been severely technical and everything which broadens their sympathies and culture is a distinct social gain, particularly in the industrial sphere. By the circulation of literature and by visits and addresses from officers and members of the society, the professional ethics and social obligations of the mechanical engineer—hitherto the subjects of no propaganda—are brought effectively before the student at an early and formative stage of his career and create a lively interest in the wider aspects of his chosen profession.

Some of the topics which deeply concern readers of THE SURVEY are receiving the attention of committees of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers. Among these are public relations, conservation of natural resources, fire protection, safe construction and use of boilers, and economic administration of industrial establishments. The published monographs by members of the society on Safeguarding of Life in Theatres and Prevention of Accidents in Factories have had a wide circulation. Such contributions are certain to be greatly multiplied in the near future; and numerous other committees, though dealing with strictly technical subjects, are presenting reports of much general value.

Originally a society largely composed of men interested particularly in steam engineering and its related arts and sciences, the trend of industrial progress has greatly altered the complexion of the membership, a large part of which is now actively engaged in directing industrial plants of all descriptions. The socializing of the engineer and of the problems to which he applies his mind has been logically followed by the socializing of related industries.

This is but the beginning of a far reaching development. Already the technical and financial interests contributing to form the large industries of gas-power, cement, and textiles have been represented in three strong committees of the society which will procure the effective presentation and discussion of all the problems of each industry, including those relating to labor, safety, and sanitation. About thirty such committees in all will be organized.

All the steps here outlined are quite recent and there is no doubt that the combined effect of the policy of decentralization in meetings and discussions and of expert concentration on specific industrial problems will be to place before long at the public service a body of authoritative opinion and practical sagacity

which has been wanting in our industrial and social affairs for lack of suitable means of expression.

BRITISH UNEMPLOYMENT AND HEALTH INSURANCE LAW

The London *Daily News* publishes a digest of the amended insurance bill which last month became the law of Great Britain. Readers of Dr. Brodsky's review¹ of Lloyd George's campaign and the various compromises between the medical profession, the friendly societies, and the insurance interests are familiar with the steps which led up to its enactment as a Liberal measure. The contributions of the compulsorily insured are, for men earning 15s. a week or over, 4d. from the worker, 3d. from the employer, and 2d. from the state. The same rate applies to all male workers under twenty-one years of age. Those above this age receiving wages of 2s. 6d. a day pay only 3d., the employer paying 4d; those receiving 2s. pay 1d.; the difference being made up by state and employer in equal shares. Those who receive 1s. 6d. as wages make no contribution themselves. Women workers pay 1d. less contribution and receive 1d. less benefit. In domestic service and agriculture, two industries about which a fierce controversy was waged, the employer's and worker's share can be each reduced by 1d. for men, and for women by ½d. off the employer's and 1d. off the worker's share, provided the employer pays full wages for the first six weeks of illness. To voluntary contributors' payments—of not less than 6d. a week—the state will add 2d. No contributions will be required during illness and allowances are made for unemployment arrears, with a maximum of thirteen weeks.

Benefits, with free choice of a doctor, are as outlined by Dr. Brodsky. A special grant will be made by Parliament of one and a half millions for sanatoria for consumptives, to whose dependents a benefit will be paid while the patient is under treatment. Those societies which show a surplus will after three years pay additional benefits. Sickness benefits may be exchanged for pensions or superannuation benefits.

Administration of the law is through an approved society or the post office. An approved society is defined as a self-governing benefit society not on a profit basis, having a minimum membership of 5,000, or as a group of smaller societies with a joint committee to deal with surpluses or deficits. A surplus of any member of the group is to be divided evenly between that member and the joint committee; a deficiency is to be met by a levy or a reduction of sick pay. A reserve is allowed each society to meet loss due to the flat rate for all ages. Membership in employers' funds is voluntary, and the managing officials are to be elected by the workers. Where the employer is responsible for the solvency of the fund, however, he may have one-fourth representation.

THE SURVEY, December 2, 1911.

Compulsory post office depositors are to receive money benefits only to the amount of their contributions, but sanatorium or medical care is to be given as long as the funds of the local health board allow. The post office scheme is tentative for three years.

Soldiers and sailors are cared for under a special government fund, but deductions of 1½d. from pay are made to enable them to become members of the approved societies on leaving the service. Sailors in the merchant marine are cared for under a special clause of the Merchant Shipping Act. On marriage, one-third of a woman's share in the fund is kept as a reserve for widowhood. The remaining two-thirds may be used in time of sickness at the rate of 5s. a week or to enable her to become a voluntary contributor with a contribution of 3d. a week and reduced benefit. Employed persons over sixty-five years old may insure with much reduced benefits.

Five-eighths of the local health board members must be representatives of the societies or post office contributors; the rest of the membership are to be physicians and experts. The duties of the boards were described by Dr. Brodsky.

During illness a recipient of the insurance benefit cannot be evicted from his home if the doctor certifies that this will endanger the patient's life. Special provisions, including a general reduction in contributions, are made for Ireland. Separate commissioners will be appointed for the four countries, but the whole system will be directed by a joint committee. The act will come into operation in May.

The unemployment insurance scheme covers compulsory insurance for all manual workmen over the age of eighteen and below the grade of foremen in trades connected with building construction, ships, vehicles, ironfounding, and sawmilling.

Contributions from both employer and workman are 2½d. a week, from the state 12/3d. For short term employment contributions will be diminished. No contribution is to be required during unemployment.

Benefits will be given after the first week at the rate of 7s. for a period not to exceed fifteen weeks in any twelve months. The beneficiary must have been employed at his trade for at least twenty-six weeks and must be registered for work at a labor exchange. Refusal to accept work on account of a labor dispute or for less than current rates shall not disqualify for the unemployment benefit, but the benefit will not be paid to men who are on strike or who have lost their work through misconduct or voluntarily. The system will be administered as far as possible through the labor exchanges.

As the first step toward preventing unemployment the following provisions are made:

An employer will receive back one-third of his share of contributions made in respect of a workman continuously employed for twelve months.

After membership for 500 weeks, a workman at the age of sixty or his representatives

if he dies after attaining the age of sixty may withdraw from the fund the whole of his own contributions with 2½ per cent compound interest, less the amount he has actually received in benefits.

During trade depression an employer who puts his men on short time, and pays their insurance contributions himself, will be entitled to the repayment of the whole or part of these contributions.

An employer who engages his casual labor through a labor exchange may be allowed to treat successive periods of employment of the same or different workmen as continuous employment, and thus avoid paying several contributions for each week. Corresponding arrangements are made for the workman.

Arrangements may be made for providing technical instruction for a workman frequently unemployed through lack of skill.

The Board of Trade may extend the compulsory system to other trades. In the meantime, to the trades insuring voluntarily, the government will extend the state contribution and will grant a subsidy of one-sixth (maximum 2s.) to all trade unions giving unemployed pay.

MINIMUM WAGE BOARDS

JOHN A. RYAN¹
St. Paul's Seminary

Massachusetts was the pioneer state in factory legislation. May we not hope that it will, and that soon, occupy the same eminence in minimum-wage legislation, and that the state commission which has been investigating the subject will lead to the creation by that commonwealth of pioneer minimum-wage boards or of a public commission to the same end?

Investigations carried out by the Department of Research of the Women's Industrial and Educational Union of Boston, the results of which have recently been published in book form,² show the need for such legislation. Among the more striking facts brought out are the following: In lodging houses the girls commonly entertain their guests in their rooms, even when the house provides parlors for that purpose. The housing problem is more difficult for single women than for families. Less than one-fourth of the girls visited were living at home. Loss of time through unemployment and other causes ranges from 4 to 14 per cent, and is greatest among the poorest paid. The food provided by working girls' homes is usually sufficient, but that obtained in basement dining-rooms at \$3 per week "is of the poorest quality, badly cooked."—"Professional women, clerical employes, sales-girls, and kitchen workers pay in actual amount approximately the same

¹Author of *THE LIVING WAGE*. The Macmillan Company. New York, 1909. 346 pp., \$1.00; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.10.

²*THE LIVING WAGE OF WOMEN WORKERS*. By Louise Marlon Bosworth. Edited with an Introduction by F. Spencer Baldwin, Ph.D., American Academy of Political and Social Science. Reviewed in *THE SURVEY* for January 13, 1912.

rent, between \$1.50 and \$1.60 per week, while factory girls and waitresses pay a little over one dollar per week" (p. 69). Of those receiving less than \$9 per week nearly one-ninth live in windowless rooms, nearly one-third in rooms with no sunlight, and considerably more than one-half in rooms devoid of artificial heat. Working girls are not so extravagant in dress as most persons think, and especially among saleswomen parsimony in dress prevents one from holding a good position. Factory girls spend more for clothing than those of any other class except professional women. "Workers receiving low wages are often obliged to do without needed medical attention, although, by reason of small earnings and consequent hardship, they may need it the more." Most working girls do not try to save money for future wants. The average working woman devotes more of her surplus income to the welfare of others than to frivolity or pleasure.

In an introductory chapter, Prof. F. Spencer Baldwin interprets the most significant facts presented in the body of the volume. His most interesting conclusion refers to the amount of pay that constitutes a living wage. "It appears accordingly that annual earnings of approximately \$500 a year, or \$10 a week, may be taken as the amount of a living wage for women workers in Boston. The investigation shows clearly that on the whole it is not possible for a self-dependent woman to live on this amount in decent comfort with any margin for saving" (pp. 11, 12).

To persons who have made no special study of the matter, this estimate will probably seem unduly high; yet the reasoning upon which it is based (pp. 9-11) is very weighty indeed. The burden of proof, and a heavy burden it is, falls upon those who would reject the estimate. Among the women who receive less than nine dollars a week, there is a large excess of expenditure over income, and the amounts set aside for future needs, as well as those paid for food and rent and miscellaneous purposes, are clearly insufficient.

Nevertheless 79 per cent of the adult female workers of Massachusetts were in 1908 receiving less than \$450 annually (Nearing, *Wages in the United States*, p. 52). Hence the most pressing phase of the labor problem is insufficient wages, and the most fundamental solution must be found in some method or methods of displacing these by rates of remuneration that will be adequate for all the reasonable requirements of life. To accomplish this for more than three-fourths of the women wage-earners of the country is, indeed, a stupendous task, but so long as it remains unaccomplished, all other reforms will touch only the edges of the labor problem. The most effective means to this end would be legal minimum wages, either through wage boards or a public commis-

JOTTINGS

LOCKOUT IN ENGLISH COTTON MILLS

Following the refusal of 2,500 cotton mill operatives at Accrington to work with two non-union workers and of 400 others at York to tolerate one non-union woman, the Lancashire Cotton Spinners and Manufacturers' Association declared a general lockout on December 27, which affects about 160,000 weavers directly and will probably put an equal number of spinners on part time.

AN UNDERGROUND HOSPITAL

The St. Louis industrial district has the distinction of possessing the first underground emergency hospital in the Central West. At Collinsville, Ill., a St. Louis firm—the Donk Brothers Coal Company—has established a hospital under the earth. Its walls and roof are solid concrete; its location is in the heart of the workings to be served; its equipment is representative of the best practice of the day. The underground hospital will save the agonizing journey of a bruised and bleeding man to the pit's mouth in a mine cart, and the trip in litter or ambulance before even first aid can be extended.

THE WASHINGTON CONSUMERS' LEAGUE

The baby Consumers' League of the District of Columbia, organized last fall, has already had a man's size responsibility thrust upon it in the shape of an eight-hour bill for the protection of women in industry which must be defended. The infant organization with its seventy charter members and its willing but inexperienced officers took part in urging early Christmas shopping, and is now busily engaged in trying to persuade department-store buyers to carry white label goods and the indifferent public to demand them. In the "Shop Early" campaign the Retail Merchants' Association were in the field ahead of the league. "Do your Christmas shopping now" legends appeared on the fenders of the street cars in the early days of the month, and similar notices appeared among the advertisements within. In mercantile and factory laws and enforcement the District is laggard, however.

In Washington, the playground of the nation, the city "without any social problems," the league has already found at least one factory employing girls on a fourteen-hour night shift and doing so legally; for the only law on the statute-books of the District designed to protect women in industry is one requiring seats for department-store clerks. And it takes only a cursory glance about the stores to see how unenforced this ordinance is. The officers of the league are:

Mrs. Harvey W. Wiley, Constance D. Leupp, Mrs. W. G. Stuart, Ruth Noyes, Mrs. Wm. D. Hoover, Mrs. Medill McCormick, Elizabeth Bryan.

SOCIAL AGENCIES

THE BALTIMORE SOCIAL SERVICE CORPORATION

ROBERT GARRETT

Tell it not to Taft, publish it not in the streets of Washington, lest the Sherman Law be invoked, for a wicked trust has invaded the field of social science!

Dangerous as its name sounds, however, the Social Service Corporation need not frighten the faint-hearted. There is nothing essentially new in it, but it is untried in its adaptations and combinations. The theory on which it is based is that the greatest efficiency of organization is needed in this field just as it is in business. Able secretaries and field agents and a strong working force are essential for the greatest success in any particular task, but they do not by any means constitute the whole of the necessary machinery. They cannot do their best work and get the best results when they are burdened by a clumsy organization, especially if this organization is top-heavy with men and women of limited experience, narrow vision, and sometimes little zeal. Many of our worthy societies are only partially effective because they do not or cannot strengthen weak points, eliminate human hindrances or red tape, or remold the very form of the organization. They jog along in a contented way, unwilling or maybe unable because of lack of vision or perspective or both to see their faults. What we need—all of us who are engaged in social work—is, first, able craftsmen; second, an organization sound in form; and, third, a proper environment, comprising experienced and well balanced officers and committeemen and a fertile field.

For the purposes of this discussion I am considering only large organizations covering wide fields, except in so far as those doing a limited work may form a part of the larger body.

Now the question arises, What are the distinguishing marks of an efficient organization? What differentiates such an organization from one that is trotting along at the pace of the street-car horse of sainted memory? There are negative marks of the mediocre body, such as a paucity of results, dull, lifeless reports that tell nothing, jealousy of other bodies doing collateral work, and consequent lack of

co-operation. But in the efficient society we see a power that causes it to grow rapidly and yet to take good care of this growth, that achieves results of great value to its community, that pitches in and co-operates heartily where such cooperation is worth while.

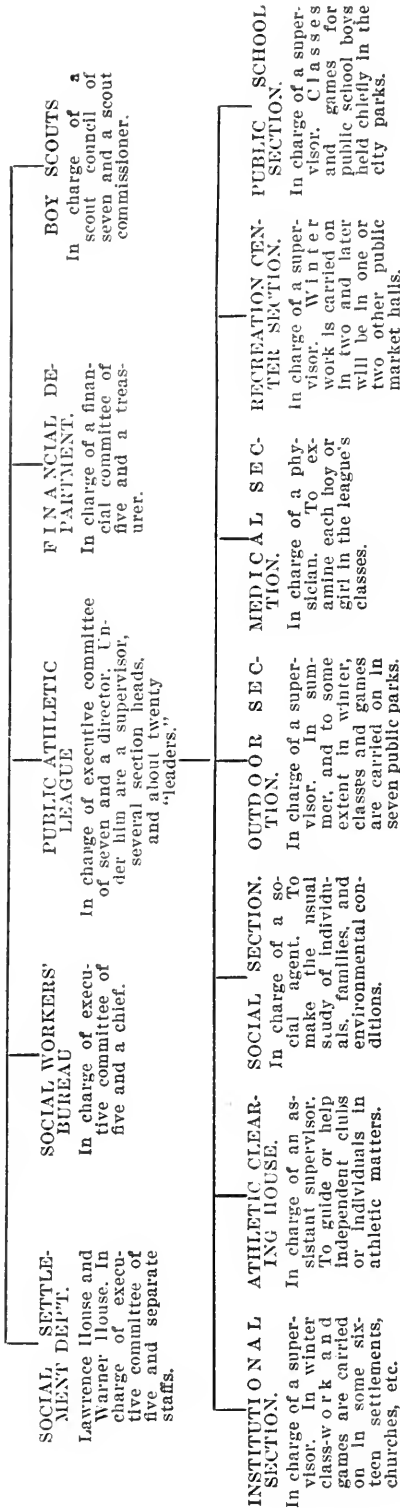
These are some of the superficial marks, but the real, the fundamental ones, are: (1) centralization of authority with elasticity of operation; (2) a strong staff of experts to whom is committed all or nearly all of the active work of the organization; (3) small boards or committees—as many as may be needed for the different parts of the work—containing no dead-wood, but composed of men and women of social experience and wide horizon, acting largely in an advisory capacity. To avoid duplication or other conflict it is also well to have a combination of many agencies following similar aims but different methods.

In other words, what we need in the sociological field are organizations that resemble the most efficient business corporations and also a centralized government at its best. Centralization and combination are the tendencies of the day and, properly safeguarded, they are desirable. Decentralization spells inefficiency, weakness, stagnation. Large sociological organizations should be much like the railroads: a board of directors determining the general policy, but, so far as the every-day business of the road is concerned, acting as an advisory body; the president and vice-presidents, the executives and the general counsel, the general manager, the general freight traffic manager, the general passenger traffic manager, and the other heads of departments forming what I have called the "staff"; the stockholders corresponding to the subscribers; and the laborers corresponding to the clientèle of the social organization.

The Social Service Corporation has been formed to produce this efficiency in several lesser organizations that now form departments under the central body, and also to develop their work and to enter new fields when

SOCIAL SERVICE CORPORATION OF BALTIMORE

Composed of: ADVISORY BOARD, 50-250; NINE TRUSTEES, ONE OF THEM PRESIDENT AND ONE VICE-PRESIDENT OF THE CORPORATION; AND IN CHARGE OF THE GENERAL SECRETARY.



opportunity offers. These societies have had some of the marks of inferiority already described, but the main difficulty has been an unconquerable financial weakness. Most of those persons concerned with their administration have had little time to spare or else they have not possessed the requisite zeal and power to perfect the machinery of the several bodies. And then there were many new things of importance to be done, which because of these inherent weaknesses could not be done.

The accompanying diagram will show at a glance the form that the new body takes. It is composed of a central corporation or "holding company"; five departments, ranking next to it, three of them corporate entities; and nine sub-divisions or sections. The Financial Department is still lacking and two of the sections of the Public Athletic League are likewise lacking or are in rudimentary form, preparatory to being developed in the near future. With a minimum of effort and change, an indefinite expansion is possible. A new department could be added by the adoption of a special set of by-laws and a new sub-division could be created by a resolution on the part of an executive committee, subject to the ratification of the central board of trustees, and, in both cases, the selection of suitable working forces.

The central body is composed of an Advisory Board with minimum and maximum membership limits of fifty and two hundred and fifty, respectively. This board is expected to meet only once a year, except in emergency. The supervision of the affairs of the corporation is entrusted to a Board of Trustees of nine members. The active administrator is the general secretary. This central organization will keep the community alive to its aims by frequent lectures on social questions, and by reports and other publications covering the work of all the departments.

In view of its size and its scope, the Public Athletic League is at present the most important department. It is in some respects similar to the Public Schools Athletic League of New York and is in a measure modeled after it, but it covers a wider field. Besides the public school boys and girls, it has in its groups many working boys and men, and it forms and carries on the activities of these groups in a number of settlements, church buildings, market halls, a suburban Young

Men's Christian Association, and other institutions, as well as in a number of the public parks. Contests of various kinds are arranged, such as track and field games, soccer, basket-ball, swimming, and several of the playground games of recent origin. It is the aim of the league not only to supply these desired activities for boys, and for girls in so far as they want or can be induced to take part in them, but to provide examinations to prevent avoidable injury and also to remedy physical defects. This work has been developed to some extent and has proved very important. The league is conducted by a director who has as his immediate superiors an executive committee of seven. Under his charge are some twenty "leaders" skilled in physical training.

The settlement department is the next most important part of the activities of the corporation, in that the two houses comprising the department are well established neighborhood centers. They are doing valuable work in their respective localities, conducting the usual settlement activities, such as boys' and girls' clubs, industrial classes, and mothers' clubs. This department is under an executive committee of five members and the general secretary of the central corporation is to have a more immediate oversight over it than over the other departments. A head resident and several assistants live in each settlement house.

The Boy Scouts department is one of the new activities of the corporation. As a department it is directed by the scout council of seven members and the scout commissioner. It is a branch of the Boy Scouts of America, and has been formed to promote the purposes of that organization in Baltimore.

The social worker's bureau is a second new activity and one that is not systematically attacked elsewhere, I believe, except in a very few instances, such, for example, as the college department of the New York Young Men's Christian Association—though even in that case the field covered is somewhat restricted. The aim is simply to do on a large scale what nearly every society is doing in a small way, namely, to enlist workers in the social army. The bureau will sift out the great mass of young men and women who have finished their courses in college or secondary school, and endeavor, where necessary, to interest them in some form of service to the community. Special attention will be given each year to the most recent graduates. The gain will supposedly accrue pri-

marily to the clientèle of the agency to which the volunteer is sent, but the benefit to the individual is not unimportant, and in both ways the community is sure to win out. The bureau, in fact, is simply an employment agency for volunteer workers, and its scope will not be limited to the several branches of the Social Service Corporation, but will be extended to all agencies whose work it can endorse and which, in turn, desire its services. It is conducted by an executive committee of five and a "chief."

The financial department has not been organized, mainly because the man to take charge of it has not yet been found. He must have unusual characteristics, for he must be a business man familiar with bookkeeping, he should have a persuasive personality, so that ample funds will be forthcoming from the community, and he must have the altruistic instinct well developed. In a sense, this is the most important department of the corporation. Its basal idea is that in a large work such as this the man to secure and care for the funds should be a member of the staff, just as he is in a railroad or in any other business organization. It is all very well to have a prominent business man of the community lend his name to the social agency. That method has its advantages under some circumstances. For instance, if the organization does a restricted work and needs only a comparatively small income, the problem can be handled in this way. Or again, if it is endowed, this method is quite proper. But it does not go well in a large unendowed work. In that case workers other than the treasurer do the job, and there is apt to be a burden of red tape or else a great degree of slovenliness. To avoid these evils the Social Service Corporation will employ a treasurer and put him at the head of the financial department. He will have as his immediate superiors a finance committee of five members.

The corporation has been criticised in some particulars. It has been said, for instance, that social settlements on the one hand and such activities as those of the athletic league or the Boy Scouts on the other can hardly fit together in one organization. But those who say this miss the very point of the form of organization that has been adopted. The several departments are to all intents and purposes independent of each other—they do not have to fit. The only time that they need be aware of each other's existence is when and if one should take some step that is contrary to the interest of another department, and then the improvement over the old condition of separateness would be shown in the existence of the necessary machinery to adjust the differences aroused.

After all, like everything else in life, this enterprise depends upon how the work is done. It could not stand long with inefficient management, but with strong guidance it is capable of large things. It must now work out its own salvation and prove its right to survive.

"MOVIES" AND THE LAW

JOHN COLLIER

The Committee on Moving Pictures appointed by Mayor Gaynor has reported after seven months' continuous work on the problem.¹ The committee was charged with the framing of a suggested ordinance to be laid before the New York Board of Aldermen. This proposed ordinance, which has been introduced with some minor amendments by Alderman Folk, contains some features of national interest.

Down to the present the six-hundred-odd motion-picture shows in New York have been licensed and regulated, as in many other cities, through laws framed before motion-picture shows came into existence. The result has been inadequate regulation and waste, duplication, and large neglected areas in law enforcement. The committee's report treats the motion picture as in every respect a special problem. The points of main interest are here indicated briefly:

The proposed ordinance would work toward moral regulation through administrative action rather than through minute statutory requirements enforced through the courts. All matters physical, concrete, or definable which pertain to the picture theater would be covered minutely by law; the law would be mandatory on the administration, and there might be possible a court review in questions of fact. But the regulation of the performances, morally viewed, would be left to the mayor with complete discretion, and any action by the mayor would be reviewable by the courts only on grounds of reasonableness. The mayor could revoke or suspend a license, and his action would be final; he could specify the kind of performances that were to be allowed; could bring about the submission of film, songs, etc., in advance; could pursue practically any method which experience might show to be desirable in regulating the performances. On the other hand, he might elect in this particular to do nothing at all, and in such case citizens would have to use their accustomed remedies for bad government. The ordinance in its present form would, however, specifically charge the mayor with moral responsibility for the performances; and, independently of the proposed ordinance, the penal laws of the state are very severe. In a nutshell, the committee proposes to create a censorship radically *administrative* in character rather than *statutory*, and would eliminate the courts as far as possible from the problem of morally regulating the performances. The committee seems to have proceeded on the theory that collective control must be exercised over the morals of public performances, but that this control should be exercised by officials directly responsible to the people, vested with complete discretion, and free to reflect public opinion.

¹The members of the committee are Michael Furst, J. P. Warbasse, Maurice Wertheim, William B. Crowell, and John Collier.

The report defines a motion-picture theater:

"[Sub-section A:] Motion pictures shall be deemed a display on a screen or other device whereby pictures are displayed of characters or objects in motion, whether or not accompanied by music, lecture, recitation, or song.

"[Sub-section B:] A motion-picture theater shall be deemed any public hall or room in the city of New York, in which motion pictures are exhibited, in which the seating capacity does not exceed six hundred, and in which there is no stage or scenery."

The above wording would eliminate vaudeville from all motion-picture shows seating 600 persons or under. This clause is made retroactive, so that existing picture theaters which give vaudeville must, in case they seat less than 600 people, either discontinue the vaudeville or re-build in conformity with the very stringent building requirements for regular theaters. The object in eliminating vaudeville is two-fold—public safety, in that the stage with scenery and costumes increases the fire hazard; and public taste and morals, in that the committee believes cheap vaudeville to be inherently poor, almost impossible to control, and socially objectionable.

The committee recommends that ultimate responsibility for motion-picture theaters be concentrated in the License Bureau, which would be provided with an adequate force of inspectors; the keeping of records is enjoined on the License Bureau; the License Bureau must demand reports from every appropriate city department before issuing a license, but has ultimate discretionary power to overrule any departmental report, except that the rather minute provisions of the proposed motion-picture ordinance will be binding on the License Bureau itself. The motion-picture abuses in New York (and in many cities) have been due in the past largely to a lack of definite law, made worse by an indefinite responsibility and power scattered through many departments.

The committee offers provisions, which have been worked out with great care, covering the ventilation and lighting of motion-picture shows. The section on lighting is quoted entire:

"Every portion of a motion-picture theater, including exits, courts, and corridors, devoted to the uses or accommodation of the public, shall be so lighted by electric light during all exhibitions and until the entire audience has left the premises, that a person with normal eyesight should be able to read the Snellen standard test type 40 at a distance of twenty feet and type 30 at a distance of ten feet; normal eyesight meaning ability to read type 20 at a distance of twenty feet in daylight. Cards showing types 20, 30, and 40 shall be displayed on the side walls, together with a copy of this paragraph of the ordinance."

The section on ventilation embodies the most advanced results of scientific work in this field. The fresh-air requirement per person is cut down from 2,000 cubic feet per hour (the general rule in this country) to 500 cubic feet; temperature must be kept between 62°F. and 70°F.; electric fans must be used to keep all air in motion. The committee believes that the proper humidity will be secured if the fresh air and temperature features of the ordinance are conformed to. The ventilation of the booth in which the picture machine is operated is likewise provided for; a vent flue must go from the booth to the open air, with a diameter of approximately seven inches, and air must pass constantly through this vent at the rate of thirty cubic feet per minute. Not merely the health of the operator but the safety of the audience in case of fire in the booth are taken care of by this provision. For violations in this or any other section of the ordinance the penalty may be either suspension or revocation of license.

The provisions for construction of galleries, width of aisles, exits, etc. are very minute and may well be studied by the lawmakers of any city, as they are applicable wherever motion pictures are shown. Practically, there is created an intermediate type of theater, less costly to build than the large regular theater, and yet safe and commodious substantially fire-proof although not of the most rigid fire-proof construction, and capable of being built in the poorer neighborhood-districts of the city. Picture shows are excluded from tenements, and from factories unless surrounded by unpierced fire-proof walls. The existing state law on projection looths is supplemented, so that under the proposed ordinance a fire could burn indefinitely within the booth without any possibility of spreading and without the knowledge of the audience. All fire hazard is concentrated in this booth; rewinding of films, repair work, etc. must be done in the booth, or in a neighboring fireproof room. The committee believes that if its suggestion is adopted the fire hazard in motion-picture shows will be virtually eliminated, and likewise the panic hazard.

Special provision is made for open-air motion-picture theaters and motion-picture exhibits conducted by educational institutions and in private houses.

The mayor's committee makes a supplementary report dealing with the admission of children to motion-picture shows. The New York State law at present forbids the admission of unaccompanied children at any time. The Commissioner of Accounts has reported that this law is radically violated in more than three-fifths of the shows in New York. The testimony of social workers is even stronger. Probably 20,000 children in one day in New York city, it has been estimated, attend motion-picture theaters in violation of law. In two and a half years there has been one conviction followed by imprisonment for this offense and one

revocation of license, with numerous petty fines. Apparently the law does not command support either in local public opinion or in the courts, and the premium in favor of violation seems to be overwhelming from the standpoint both of the child and of the show proprietor. In addition, the determination between real and pretended guardianship is difficult for the courts, as parents are strongly tempted to side with the show proprietors.

The committee merely gives its opinion that the law cannot be "strictly enforced," and suggests as a solution of the problem that the state law be amended to permit children in motion-picture shows after school hours and on days when schools are not in session, and up to seven o'clock in the evening, no children to be admitted, however, after six o'clock in the evening. In addition, the committee proposes that there be segregated seats for the children and a matron in every show-house, who will be over 40 years of age and licensed by the Mayor.

The supplemental report of the committee has aroused vigorous controversy among social workers, with no apparent unanimity of opinion save on the one point that the law is in fact almost universally violated. Probably the more serious and dangerous opposition to the proposed ordinance will not be publicly voiced but will be the opposition of the vaudeville interests and the opposition on the part of those existing picture theaters which occupy plots of ground incapable of enlargement to meet the conditions of the new ordinance. These shows would not be eliminated directly by the proposed ordinance but might be indirectly eliminated through competition of larger and more attractive houses which would be built under the terms of the new ordinance, and would be immediately subjected to increased burdens of expense through those features of the proposed law which are made retroactive on all existing shows.

JOTTINGS

LIGHTHOUSE FOR THE BLIND

The first settlement house for the blind in the world is being erected at No. 111 East Fifty-ninth street, New York city. It is to be called "Lighthouse." President Taft laid the cornerstone December 20. In the crowd which saw him were hundreds who did not see him—delegates from most of the large institutions for the blind in other states and 100 blind boys and girls from the public schools. Winifred Holt, secretary and founder of The New York Association for the Blind, which is erecting the settlement, called to mind the numberless forgotten blind, the unnecessary loss of sight, and the intelligent blind walled up in institutions, pe r-houses, lunatic asylums, and prisons. She told of an old blind woman who had brought a pair of knitted slippers, the work of her

own hands, saying: "Sell these for me toward the building of the new Lighthouse, that more people may be taught to find the light as I have found it."

The new Lighthouse will be a six-story building, and the cost will be more than \$100,000. It will occupy a lot 40 by 100 feet.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR MEETING

The relations between child labor and education will form the main body of discussion at the eighth annual conference of the National Child Labor Committee, at Louisville, Ky., January 25-28. Leading experts on both topics will speak.

The employer is usually blamed for child labor. "But there are other reasons," says Owen R. Lovejoy, general secretary of the committee, "and one of the most perplexing elements in the problem is the fact that the children themselves are against us. They want to get out of school at the earliest possible moment and enter wage-earning industries."

Prominent educators will tell how they are making the school so interesting and useful that children will be eager to stay there. The conditions under which children work in cotton mills, glass factories, coal mines, sweat shops, oyster and shrimp-packing houses, street trades, and other industries will be described in addresses and by an extensive exhibit of charts and photographs. The sessions of the conference will be devoted to the discussion of practical measures for reducing the abuses of child labor and for keeping children in school until they are equipped for efficient citizenship.

The National Child Labor Committee, which has helped to get better child labor laws in thirty states this year, will bring together representatives of its twenty-seven affiliated state committees and has also invited the governors of all states to send delegates to the conference.

THE FARM AND BOYS

A conference on agricultural education for dependent and delinquent boys is to be held at Hotel Chelsea, 23rd street, near Seventh avenue, New York city, January 26-27, under the auspices of the New York Child Welfare Committee. At the first session R. R. Reeder, superintendent of the New York Orphan Asylum, Prof. E. K. Eyerly, of the Massachusetts State Agricultural College, and William R. George, founder of George Junior Republic, will tell from the standpoint of the institution and the boy what place agriculture has in institutions for dependent and delinquent boys. Among other topics on the program are equipment, the curriculum, and cooperation with other agricultural agencies. William Church Osborn will preside at the session Friday afternoon on management of the institution farm. William J. Gaynor, Mayor of New York city, will speak Friday evening.

TO STRENGTHEN SCOUT MOVEMENT

The second annual meeting of the National Council of Boy Scouts of America, to be held in New York February 9-10, will be but the first move in a tour of the country by Lieutenant-General Sir Robert S. S. Baden-Powell and Chief Scout Executive James E. West. It is planned by visits to some twenty large cities to give increased strength and usefulness to the Boy Scout movement. Coincident with the meeting of the national council in New York will be a conference of scout commissioners and another of scout masters. On Saturday afternoon, February 10, there will be a mass meeting for boys over twelve years of age.

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Attitude of American Courts in Labor Cases

A Study in Social Legislation

BY

George Gorham Groat, Ph. D.

Homer E. White Professor of Economics and Sociology in Ohio Wesleyan University.

8vo. Paper Covers, \$2.50; Cloth, \$3.00.

(Columbia University Studies in History, Economics and Public Law, Vol. XLII)

The purpose of this volume is to present the various views expressed by judges in their decisions in labor cases. They are stated as nearly as possible in the words of the judges themselves.

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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

A FULL GROWN NATIONAL RESPONSIBILITY

Typhus fever, yellow fever, cholera, and plague are to many Americans only words which suggest old world ideas or nightmares of former generations. In sober fact they are constantly menacing public enemies requiring, to prevent their invasion, the constant vigilance of a quarantine service at all ports of entry, adequately equipped and efficiently administered. Diphtheria, measles, scarlet fever, and chicken-pox are not foreigners, like the four first named diseases, but rather, like small-pox, well assimilated immigrants or native born, amenable only to the police power of an efficient internal quarantine and public health service. Yet as these diseases may also prevail on shipboard, and in the ports from which incoming vessels have sailed, and in the countries which lie upon our borders, it becomes a legitimate part of the national defense to put up barriers against them in the ports of entry and at the frontier. Even the infectious diseases which are communicable but not contagious, such as tuberculosis, typhoid fever, and pneumonia, offer a problem to those who are responsible for guarding the public health against foreign attack.

These military metaphors, however, though they may help us to visualize the danger, become misleading if they cause us to think of the sick persons as public enemies. It is not the patient but the infection of which he is the victim against which protection is necessary. Temporary isolation may indeed be involved, but it should be under conditions as favorable as possible, with the best medical care, with the maximum of physical comfort, and the minimum of expense and hardship. It is elementary that the quarantine service should be free from partizan politics and from every taint of the spoils system; that it should be uniform and standardized in all ports; that its hospital and laboratory equipment should be adequate; that it should represent the highest scientific authority in sanitation and the best administrative methods in its business organization; that it should be duly considerate of commercial interests and of the personal convenience of passengers, so far as these can be harmonized with the safeguarding of the public health and welfare; and that, with all these fundamental conditions, the service should yet be economically conducted.

With these considerations in mind the moral of the recent heated discussion over the investigation of Dr. Doty's administration of the New York quarantine station and the appointment of his successor is evident. Neither should the appointment be made at Albany, nor should the expense of making the necessary alterations and enlargement of the equipment be imposed upon the state of New York. Here we have the largest quarantine station in the world. Eight hundred thousand persons and eight hundred million dollars' worth of goods come into the port in a year. Many ships do not so much as touch at a New York dock, but proceed directly from the New York quarantine to a New Jersey landing, from which both goods and passengers may go directly to the interior.

of the country without crossing the Hudson. If there ever were a port in which the quarantine should be national it is that of New York. The magnitude of the shipping and the imperative concern of the entire country in the efficiency of the health protection alike point to a national responsibility and obligation. For a nation to look to any one state, even to the empire state with its great resources, to enforce the national quarantine regulations, is undignified and illogical. In more than forty other ports of entry small and great the public health and marine hospital service of the federal government presides over the enforcement of its own regulations and the maintenance of its own standards. Here in the chief port of entry, into which three-fourths of all immigrants, including more than that proportion of those who come from dangerous localities, the nation steps aside and leaves the port of greatest responsibility and danger in the whole circuit of our coasts to become the foot-ball of local politics, and its financial support to the dubious outcome of all the varying influences which control a more or less indifferent state legislature.

The question as to Dr. Doty's personal efficiency or that of his successor in office is not involved. The principle is the larger one of national responsibility and the natural completion of the process which has substituted national for local quarantine in San Francisco, Galveston, New Orleans, Charleston, and other sea ports; which has tended to increase the importance of the national quarantine and diminish that of the local quarantine where they have been in direct competition, as at Philadelphia; which has caused the superimposing of a national quarantine even in New York when exceptional danger has threatened, as in the cholera year of 1892; and has left the three local quarantine stations of Boston, Baltimore, and New York as an obviously abnormal and illogical relic of an earlier and now obsolete system.

If additional arguments were needed for a National Department of Health, they would be at hand in the further anomalous fact that our quarantine service is still attached to one of the bureaus of the Treasury Department. It is hard to see why the banker who is usually and very properly called to preside over the national finances should be thought to be especially qualified to deal with questions of public health. There is, to be sure, under him a surgeon general and there has gradually been developed a scientific staff in the Bureau of Public Health and Marine Hospital Service of which any country might be proud. This bureau, however, and the bureaus in the Department of Agriculture which are charged respectively with the inspection of foods and drugs, of meats and meat foods, and of insects in relation to diseases of men, would do far more effective work and do it at less cost if they were grouped into a single department directly charged with the protection of the public health. It is not to our credit that we have approached the subject of poisoned food and condemned meat from the point of view of the interest of the farmer and packer and the manufacturer of food products rather than from that of the consumer.

The transfer of the New York quarantine station from state to national authority, however, need not even await the creation of the National Health Department. The existing precedents are already entirely in its favor.

THE COMMON WELFARE

TWO HOURS, REDUCED WAGES, AND A STRIKE

The fifty-four hour law of Massachusetts, which had such a stormy passage through the legislature of 1911, has precipitated one of the bitterest strikes in the history of the commonwealth. On Friday, January 12, the spark was kindled among 500 Italians in the Wood, Ayer, and Washington mills of the American Woolen Company, when they learned for the first time that along with a reduction of two hours in their week's work came a corresponding cut in their pay. The mill district along the Merrimac river was immediately thrown into excitement, and before the police realized the extent of the difficulty a mob of excited men was rushing through the Wood and Ayer mills, breaking windows, and urging all the operatives to join the strike. The trouble quickly spread to the Lawrence Duck Company, and before the afternoon was over 10,000 workers—men, women, and children—were idle. By Friday night the police seemed to have the situation in hand and on Saturday, although the strike had extended to the Atlantic, Lower Pacific, Everett, Arlington, and Prospect mills, and over 4,000 operatives had struck, little violence was attempted. Pay envelopes, minus 25 or 30 cents for two hours' less work, were distributed quietly, and, as some of the Boston papers put it, "peace seemed assured." On Saturday evening, however, 1,000

strikers met in City Hall and found a militant leader in Joseph Ettor, of New York, a member of the Executive Council of the Industrial Workers of America, a young Italian of twenty-five, who took command of the situation the moment he mounted the platform.

What turn affairs would have taken without Ettor in the lead is a matter for speculation, but his speeches to the strikers on Saturday and Sunday certainly hastened the rioting on Monday, when an immense crowd stormed the city hall demanding entrance for a special meeting. Mayor Scanlon issued a precept calling out about 250 local militiamen to patrol the mill district. An effective police force could have handled the situation at any time. Although minor disorders broke out during the week, the militia has experienced little real difficulty except from slush and mud a foot deep, which has made soldiering somewhat uncomfortable. Scareheads in the Boston papers telling how "Old Glory was dragged on the ground as strikers retreated before the drawn bayonets of the militia," increased circulation rather than portrayed facts.

Four thousand strikers paraded the streets of Lawrence on Thursday afternoon and the crowds on the curbs and in the windows, and the policemen and militiamen, seemed as good-natured as the strikers themselves. About 10,000 men, women, boys, and girls are now idle and every mill in Lawrence but one is either closed or running with only few operatives.



IN LAWRENCE, MASS.

This crowd is not looking at the poster. It consists of national guardsmen mingling with strikers in the town's business section.

CAUSES OF THE STRIKE

Although the grievances of the mill hands regarding low wages are of long standing (the average weekly wage is about \$6), the immediate cause of the strike in Lawrence was the fifty-four-hour law which went into operation on January 1. This measure, backed by the labor unions largely in the interests of the poorly organized textile workers, cut down the working hours of women and children under eighteen years from fifty-six to fifty-four hours. The previous legislature had already made a reduction from fifty-eight hours to fifty-six. The new law, bitterly opposed by manufacturing interests, passed the legislature of 1911 and went into effect January 1, 1912. Although drawn in the interests of women and children the law affected equally the men operatives, as the mill owners were obliged to make their action uniform, owing to the fact that over 50 per cent of their employes are women. Apparently the first intimation of a cut in wages along with the reduction in hours came when the pay envelopes were distributed on Friday. And yet the mill men say that the trouble "came out of a clear sky"! On the afternoon of the first outbreak. Pres. Wm. H. Wood, of the American Woolen Company, said:

I believe that as soon as our employes understand the real issue, and where the responsibility actually rests, they will see that their action at Lawrence was hasty and ill-advised. There is no cause for striking and when the employes find that justice is not on their side the strike cannot possibly be long-lived.

Why the employes were not given a chance to "understand the real issue" before it was thrust into their faces in the form of reduced incomes the speaker did not explain.

Under Ettor's leadership the primary causes of the strike were lost sight of, and the following demands were made:

Affiliation by all employes with the Industrial Workers of the World.

Fifteen per cent increase on a fifty-four hour basis.

The abolishing of the premium and bonus system.

Double pay for over-time work.

That all strikers be allowed to return regardless of any part they may have had in the strike.

John Golden, president of the United Textile Workers of America, came to Lawrence the day after the trouble started but has not been in any way active in the strike. The organization of the United Textile Workers of America does not recognize the International Workers of the World, and Ettor says that Mr. Golden's organization "is in no way involved, as it has no representative in this city."

TAFT REPORTS PROGRESS IN FINDING ECONOMIES

Convinced that the administrative branch of the federal government offered a productive field for the application of scientific management and that solid results cannot be gained through the prosecution at irregular intervals of special limited inquiries, President Taft less than two years ago secured an appropriation for a general investigation of economy and efficiency in the government service. Now, after a year and a half of preliminary work, the president has submitted to Congress a report of progress. In this message he shows his sense of personal responsibility for the demands made upon the treasury and an appreciation of the truth that the problem of good administration is not one that can be solved quickly or at one time, but that it is an ever-present difficulty. He urges Congress to continue its support of the work which has been but barely commenced and says:

It is clearly the part of wisdom to provide for the coming year means at least equal to those available during the current year; and in my opinion the appropriation should be increased to \$200,000, and an additional amount of \$50,000 should be provided for the publication of those results which will be of continuing value to officers of the government and to the people.

Until now the vast organization of the national government, which expends nearly \$1,000,000,000 annually and employs more than 400,000 persons, has never been studied in detail as a single

piece of administrative mechanism. No comprehensive effort has ever before been made to list or group its activities in such a way as to present a clear picture of what the government is actually doing. To provide Congress, the president, and the administrative officers with more complete information of the public agencies through which the work of the nation is performed, the commission drew up a report on the organization of the government as it existed on July 1, 1911. This shows for the federal departments at Washington each such final unit as a laboratory, library, shop, and administrative subdivision; and for the services outside of Washington each station and point at which any activity of the government is carried on.

PROPOSED REVISIONS

From this outline the commission is preparing reports to show how the functions of the government should be grouped in departments. For the first time it is possible to tell the number of units of a like character at Washington and the number of services in each city in the United States. Only by such grouping can duplication of work and plant be eliminated. So long as duties so diverse in nature as life saving and the management of public finances are lodged in the same department, effective supervision and control is practically impossible. More coherent results will follow when each head of a department deals exclusively with matters in a few distinctly related fields.

Other reports under way treat of the forms of organization calculated to further the most efficient and economical performance of particular functions or services. One for instance recommends: that the lighthouse and life-saving services be administered by a single bureau instead of as at present by two bureaus located in different departments. These services have much in common. Geographically, they are similarly located; administratively, they have many of the same problems. It is estimated that consolidation would result in a saving of not less than \$100,000 annually.

Probably the greatest economy can be effected in the numerous local offices of the government, many of which were

established under laws passed nearly a century ago. Changes in economic conditions make some of these worse than useless and needless financial burdens.

A thorough-going proposal advocated by the president in his message is that all administrative officers of the government in the departments at Washington and in the field be placed under the civil service rules and that their terms of office be not limited to four years as now. The removal of local officers especially from the realm of politics would in many cases reduce the payroll of the field services. At present, President Taft declares,

the incumbents of many of these positions leave the actual performance of many of their duties to deputies and assistants. The government often pays two persons for doing work that could easily be done by one.

The president promises with the help of the commission to submit to Congress a plan for the retirement of aged employes in the civil service which will safeguard the interests of the government and at the same time make reasonable provision for the needs of those who have given the best part of their lives to the service of the state.

Among the other subjects of which detailed studies are being made are the following: The cost of handling correspondence, which varied in different departments from \$5.84 for 1,000 incoming letters to \$34.40; the distribution of public documents, which travel half around Washington in order to get from the government printing office to the railway station a few feet away; the excessive cost of travel due to the use of single-trip tickets instead of mileage books; and the standardization of specifications, accounts, and reports.

The president says that it is a mistake, which is becoming more serious each year, to assume that the individual citizen and voter is interested only in questions relating to the sources of revenue and not in what the government spends and what it gets for its money. For this reason he says that the United States should no longer continue to be the only great nation whose government is operated without a budget which presents a definite annual program of business to be financed, that is a summary both of revenues and expenditures.

In appealing for the continuance of the Commission on Economy and Efficiency, the president explains that in New York and other cities, after five years of work both by the municipality and by private citizens, at an expenditure that is greatly disproportionate to the cost incurred by the federal commission, there is still much to be done. To show that the work is worth while the president makes legitimate capital of the fact that

Economies actually realized have more than justified the total expenditure of the inquiry to date, and the economies which will soon be made by executive action, based upon the information now in hand, will be many times greater than those already realized. Furthermore, the inquiry is in process of establishing a sound basis for recommendations relating to changes in law which will be necessary in order to make effective the economies which cannot be provided by executive action alone.

It was the hope expressed many times over by the economists and social workers gathered at Washington during the holiday conventions that Congress would not, in anxiety to reduce expenditures, economize by cutting off an appropriation which the president now shows in detail is likely to offer opportunity for savings far greater in amount and far more real than can be effected in any other way.

"PHOSSY-JAW" HEARINGS

The Esch Phosphorus Bill to prohibit the use of poisonous phosphorus in matches came up in Washington for a hearing before the Committee on Ways and Means on January 10.

Congressman Esch of Wisconsin cited the experience of foreign countries to show that there is no known method of dealing with phosphorus necrosis or "phossy jaw," except to prohibit the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture. The taxing power of the constitution could do this effectively. The Esch bill so provides.

Later the whole scope of the bill was reviewed and arguments were presented to show the prevalence and character of "phossy jaw." A list of thirteen of the leading countries of the world, which

are more progressive than the United States and protect their workers from the poison by the enactment of laws preventing its use, was submitted. The futility of any other method of preventing "phossy jaw" was set forth by a rehearsal of the sincere efforts Great Britain had made, only to reach the conclusion that the poison must be absolutely prohibited.

Recent death certificates of sufferers from "phossy jaw" who had worked in the best regulated and most sanitary factories of the United States were presented as local proof of how sanitation fails to prevent infection. A New Jersey manufacturer of non-poisonous matches demonstrated their practicability and favored uniform prohibition of the poison.

John T. Huner of Brooklyn, N. Y., the only match manufacturer to oppose actively the passage of the bill, declared again at this hearing that there had never been a case of phosphorus necrosis in his factory. A doctor's certificate was presented to the committee alleging a case treated among Huner's workers. Also a former superintendent's letter was offered in evidence, in which the statement was made that cases had occurred in the Huner factory with the direct knowledge of Mr. Huner.

The Brooklyn match man, moreover, was much disturbed by finding in the morning papers on the day of the hearing that the Municipal Explosive Commission of the City of New York had enacted a rule prohibiting white phosphorus matches within the city limits after January 1, 1913. The rule is as follows:

Section 2. On and after the first day of January, 1913, it shall be unlawful for any person to manufacture, transport, store, sell, or give away within the city of New York any matches in the manufacture of which white phosphorus enters as an ingredient.

It is speculated that this regulation, which is not designed as a health measure, but is solely in the interest of the public safety from explosions and fire, will possibly turn Mr. Huner to active cooperation with those manufacturers who want the Esch bill passed in the interest of uniformity. The incident is

held up as another indication of the chaotic situation which may prevail if federal action is not taken.

Among those who appeared on behalf of the bill were Prof. Henry R. Seager of Columbia University, Dr. Godfrey Lowell Cabot of Boston, Dr. C. T. Graham-Rogers, New York state medical inspector of factories, Dr. John B. Andrews, secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation. A review of other points at the hearing appears on page 1643.

EXIT THE FELLOW SERVANT DOCTRINE

Last week saw the final disposition by the United States supreme bench of several cases under the Federal Liability Law of 1908 appealed from various states. This law has to do with interstate commerce, but it afforded a base for far-reaching and clear-cut decisions from the court of last resort on some of the principles underlying advanced liability legislation.

The objections urged against the federal law in the various cases appealed (Edgar G. Mondou, plaintiff, *vs.* the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad, Circuit Court of Connecticut; Northern Pacific Railroad Company, plaintiff in error, *vs.* Bessie Babcock, administratrix, in the Circuit Court of the United States for the District of Minnesota; and the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad *vs.* Mary Agnes Walsh, administratrix, in the Circuit Court for the District of Massachusetts) were that Congress in framing the federal law exceeded its constitutional powers in wiping out the old customary defenses of employers, which had been sanctioned by a long line of master and servant decisions under the common law. These included the abrogation of the fellow-servant defense and the restriction of contributory negligence and assumption of risk. It was also argued that the legislation extended the common carrier's liability to cover death, as none of these provisions tend to promote the safety of employes. Furthermore the law, it was objected, violated the right of freedom of contract and created

discrimination against one class of employers and in favor of one class of employes. Finally, the act, both in making negligence of fellow servants extend to servants in intra-as well as interstate commerce and in other ways, came in conflict in some cases with state liability laws, and called in question the jurisdiction of state and federal courts. The decision of the Federal Supreme Court, which is delivered by Justice Van Devanter, maintains that:

The natural trend of the changes described is to impel the carrier to avoid and prevent the negligent acts and omissions which are made the basis of the rights of recovery which the statute creates; and as whatever makes for that end tends to promote the safety of the employes and to advance the commerce in which they are engaged we entertain no doubt that in making those changes Congress acted within the limits of the discretion confided to it by the Constitution.

We are not unmindful that the end was being measurably attained through the remedial legislation of the various states, but the legislation has been far from uniform, and it undoubtedly rested with Congress to determine whether a national law, operating uniformly in all the states upon all carriers by railroad engaged in inter-state commerce, would better subserve the needs of the commerce.

In answer to the objection that the federal law takes away freedom of contract the court decides that Congress possesses the power not only to impose liability but to insure its efficiency by prohibiting any contract or other device in evasion of this liability. Classification of groups of employers the court holds to be within the power of Congress.

That part of the decision overruling the contention that it is within the powers of state courts to throw out the federal law when it is in conflict with state liability laws is especially important. It will be remembered that this point was the basis for one of the liveliest issues in the state campaigns in New York and Connecticut in 1910.

Judge Simeon E. Baldwin in his decision on the Hoxie case had denied the jurisdiction of the Connecticut Supreme Court of Errors on litigation under the federal act on this ground.¹ During

¹See THE SURVEY March 11, 1911.

Judge Baldwin's campaign for the governorship which followed, Theodore Roosevelt took issue with the New England jurist, and in the interchanges between them the ex-president did not come off second-best. Justice Van Devanter in turn takes direct issue with Judge Baldwin's decision and settles the relation of state and federal liability laws involving interstate commerce. By the federal laws, says Justice Van Devanter,

the state laws are superseded, for necessarily that which is not supreme must yield to that which is.

The suggestion that the act of Congress is not in harmony with the policy of the state, and, therefore, the courts of the state are free to decline jurisdiction, is quite inadmissible, because it presupposes what in legal contemplation does not exist. When Congress in the exertion of the power confided to it by the constitution adopted the act, it spoke for all the people and all the states, and thereby established a policy for all. That policy is as much the policy of Connecticut as if the act had emanated from its own legislature, and should be respected accordingly in the courts of the state.

The federal law of 1908 did not affect the principle of negligence, but threw out the various defenses under it which tended to make it harder for a workman to recover. The decisions of the Supreme Court upholding those changes in a sense help to clear the ground for the more radical proposals now before Congress, which would tend to shift the basis of settlement away from all question of negligence, make the industry bear the cost of its wear and tear as a fixed charge, and substitute for suits of law a system of compensation.

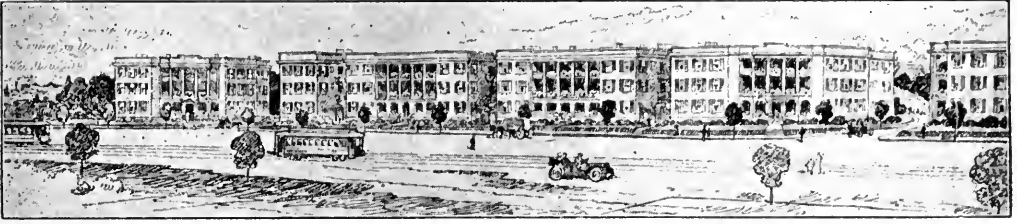
COMPENSATION BILL OF FEDERAL COMMISSION

The revised draft of the tentative bill which the United States Employers' Liability and Workmen's Compensation Commission proposes is framed along the lines of the English compensation law. It provides compulsory compensation in case of accident or death, except when caused by wilful negligence, to all except casual employes of railways acting as common carriers in interstate or foreign commerce as well as of railroads within the District of Columbia. For

cases where settlement is not made directly between employer and employe, or through an adjustment committee chosen by the employer and employes of a given common carrier, an adjuster is to have the settlement of all claims. This adjuster, who is to be a permanent official appointed and removable by the United States District Court, subject to the approval of the Circuit Court of Appeals, is to have power to summon witnesses, take testimony, and carry out the purposes of the act. One or more adjusters are to be appointed for each judicial district, at a salary of between \$1,800 and \$3,000. Written notice of an accident must be served on the employer by the injured person or his dependents within thirty days, unless it can be proved that the employer had other knowledge of the accident or unless ignorance of this provision by the injured person can be proved, in which case an extension of time to ninety days is allowed. Payment of benefit is not to begin until after two weeks, but medical expenses are to be paid by the employer during this time. Total medical expenses paid by the employer are not to exceed \$200. Before any benefit is paid and during the period that an injured person is in receipt of benefits he is to be subject to medical examinations and the amount of the benefit may within certain limits be readjusted in accordance with increasing or diminishing incapacity as revealed by such examinations.

Wages are to be computed as for twenty-six days in a month, and no compensation is to be considered on a basis of wages of more than \$100 a month or less than \$50; but no benefits are to be paid to the amount of more than the wages received.

The amount of compensation is as follows: at death 40 per cent of wages in case a widow survives; 50 per cent of wages, for a period not to exceed eight years, in case a widow and one or more children under sixteen years of age survive. If no widow survives, but one child, the amount is 25 per cent of wages, further children at the rate of 10 per cent each, the total not to exceed 50 per cent. In the case of deceased leaving no widow or children but



—Kilham and Hopkins, Boston.

A ROW OF APARTMENT HOUSES.

dependent parents the amount paid is to be 25 per cent of wages for one, 40 per cent for both; for parents partially dependent 15 per cent apiece. Amounts for other dependents range from 20 per cent to 40 per cent. To the widow or children of an alien who reside in a foreign country the act does not allow the full benefit but only a lump sum covering one year's wages. In case monthly payments do not exceed \$15, burial expenses of \$75 are allowed. Permanent total disability, which includes among other forms loss of both eyes, both legs, etc., is to be compensated by 50 per cent of wages for life; permanent partial disability by 50 per cent, for periods varying from seventy-two months for loss of use of one arm to five months for loss of use of fourth finger. With ability to earn part wages the amount of the benefit may be diminished. After six months the benefit can be commuted for a lump sum equal to total amount due with interest.

The bill leaves for future settlement the question of whether private compensation plans equally favorable for the employe may be substituted for compensation under the act.

**BOSTON TO HAVE
A FOREST HILLS**

Thirty acres of land near the Forest Hills terminal of the Boston Elevated Railway are to be devoted to a model housing suburb under the direction of the Boston Dwelling House Company. After years of endless reports and discussions on Boston's housing problems—discussions which have seldom passed the report and "resolve" stage—these Boston business men have at last determined to go in for real lath and shingles or their modern substitutes.

The prime mover in the project is

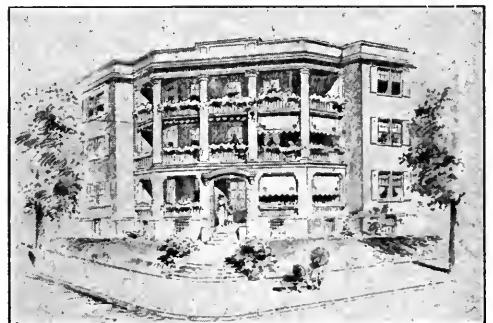
Robert Windsor,¹ of the firm of Kidder, Peabody, and Company. The plan, it is stated, is not essentially philanthropic, but rather an attempt to contribute to better living conditions on an investment that will give reasonable returns.

The architects in charge are Messrs. Kilham and Hopkins of Boston and Grosvenor Atterbury of New York.

The location of the tract, within half a mile of the Forest Hills terminal of the elevated railroad, assures good transportation at a four-cent fare.

The first construction to be undertaken will be a row of three-story, twelve-apartment buildings, which many housing reformers will regard as unfortunate in seeming to give the three-decker sanction. But back of this first row of apartments most of the houses will be for single families, although there will be some groups of two, four, and six houses arranged in blocks around attractive courts.

¹The officers of the company are: president, Henry Howard; treasurer, Robert Windsor, Jr.; secretary, Marcus E. Mahon; trustees, Frank A. Day, Earl Dreyfuss, John W. Farley, Frederick P. Fish, Bertha Hazzard, Henry Howard, Charles H. Jones, Cardinal O'Connell, James M. Prendergast, James L. Richards, Mrs. Richard L. Saiton-stall, Frederic E. Snow, Mary P. Windsor, Robert Windsor, and Robert A. Woods.



—Kilham and Hopkins, Boston.

A SUGGESTED APARTMENT HOUSE.



—Kilham and Hopkins, Boston.

PROPOSED SINGLE FAMILY HOUSES.

As in the Forest Hill Gardens Estates of the Russell Sage Foundation, the rents will not be within the reach of the general run of wage-earners. It is thought, however, that this first experiment will point the way to the successful financing of other housing groups where rent and purchase prices will be much lower. The hope is expressed that the people of Boston, with this tangible start in the direction of wholesome dwelling construction before them, may become earnest enough to enact and enforce a law which will make all Boston homes wholesome. That this hope has some basis is shown by the action this month of the Chamber of Commerce, on the initiative of its committee on housing and backed by eighteen other organizations. The chamber addressed a request to the Boston Finance Commission that it make an investigation of existing laws relating to dwellings, in order to determine what practical steps should be taken to make the work of the Health Department more effective.

THE ANOMALOUS QUARANTINE SITUATION IN NEW YORK BAY

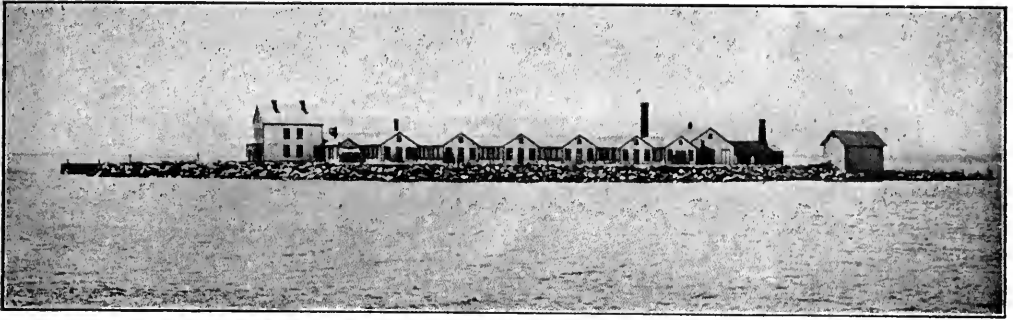
SHELBY M. HARRISON

New York is the most important quarantine port in the United States and probably in the world. For the last half-dozen years the total number of alien immigrants to the United States has averaged nearly a million, and nearly seven-eighths of them entered through the port of New York. Over 60 per cent of these came from southern and southeastern Europe, where sanitary conditions are primitive and where

cholera outbreaks are not uncommon. Between May 8 and November 1, 1910, for instance, 204,959 cases of cholera occurred in Russia, resulting in 95,673 deaths; and from August 17 to November 1 of the same year 1,814 cases and 899 deaths occurred in Italy. In the last week of September, 1910, there were 377 cases with 130 deaths from cholera in Naples alone—one of the embarking points for America. Moreover, New York is one of the most important ports of entry from the West Indies and South and Central America, where the yellow fever problem has not yet been entirely solved. Of course, vessels bringing immigrants also carry valuable cargoes of imports; and modern quarantine involves thorough and efficient inspection of passengers to detect quarantinable diseases, while at the same time obstructing and delaying commerce the minimum amount. During the last five years the value of foreign imports landed in New York city averaged almost \$800,000,000 per year, an amount greater than the imports of all the other United States ports put together. Over one-eighth of this was from southern Europe, \$50,000,000 coming from Italy. And yet, although the federal government conducts forty-four quarantine stations of its own, the station at New York, as is the case at only three or four other places, is maintained as a state station.

In view of the recent call by the governor of New York for the resignation of the health officer of the port, the time would seem opportune for raising anew the question of transferring the New York quarantine station from state supervision and control to that of the federal government.

Incoming vessels, bound for the harbor of New York, after being boarded far down the bay by their harbor pilot, must pass three kinds of barrier stations before they may land their passengers in the United States. Standing on either side of the Narrows is the first—the military outposts at Fort Wadsworth and Fort Hamilton—set up to keep out invasion by a foreign military force. Invasion of our shores by a hos-



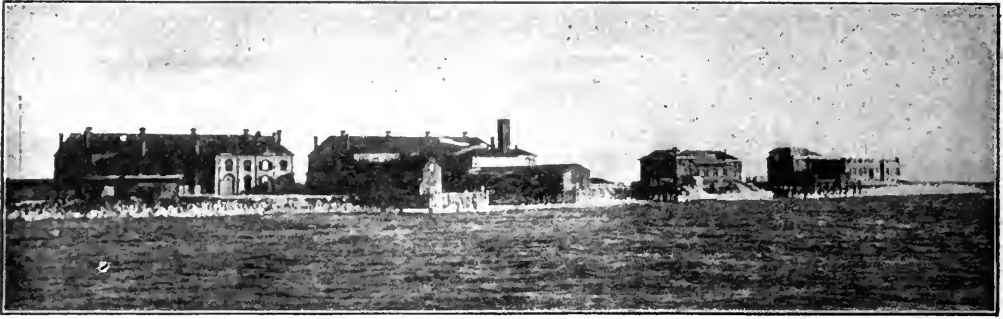
SWINBURNE ISLAND, NEW YORK QUARANTINE, LOWER BAY.

Isolation quarters where persons afflicted with cholera, yellow fever, plague, leprosy, small-pox, or typhus fever are treated. Maintained by the state of New York.

tile army has long been considered of vital concern to all the people of the United States, and means toward prevention are furnished on a national basis. The soldiers who man the forts are representatives of the national government, and the physical equipment with which they work is owned and under the control of the federal powers. While New York city would be the first and heaviest sufferer in case of forceful attack upon the United States through this port, and is therefore especially interested in strong fortifications down the bay, nevertheless the general government has assumed the responsibility for defense and spared no pains nor expense in obstructing against undesirable entrance. Furthermore, the hazards involved in possible military invasion have been thought so great that army service has been removed from either political control or local influences which might in any way weaken its efficiency.

Up the bay a little farther is the second barrier, the state quarantine station. This barrier also is set up to keep out destructive invasion; for no foreign army or fleet could play such costly havoc with the general welfare or shatter our domestic peace as could the invasion of pestilence. Such an insinuating devastator of life and homes concerns more than the state of New York, for most of the possible carriers of contagion who enter the port soon scatter through many states. For instance, out of 850,000 aliens inspected at New York in 1910, all but 280,000 intended to reside in other states than New York.

Their physical condition is therefore of interest to Kentucky, Ohio, Illinois, or Nebraska, and certainly to New Jersey and Pennsylvania, as well as to New York. Yet New York shoulders the burden of protecting the nation. Roughly, over three-fifths of the immigrants entering through New York stay in five eastern states; yet, again, the other four states do not share with New York in quarantine inspection. Two islands just below the Narrows, Hoffman and Swinburne, are fitted up for detention, observation, and treatment of incoming passengers. The administrative headquarters are on Staten Island, just at the Narrows. Swinburne has four small hospital buildings housing isolation wards; it has comfortable quarters for officers and nurses, a crematory, and a morgue. The island is used exclusively for isolation and treatment of persons suffering from any of the generally recognized quarantinable diseases; namely, cholera, yellow fever, plague, leprosy, small-pox, and typhus fever, and for observation of all except cholera suspects. Until about two years ago Hoffman, the other island, was used as a detention place for persons exposed to any of these diseases. At that time, however, the health officer prepared to detain persons afflicted with such contagious diseases as scarlet fever, measles, and diphtheria, and accordingly fitted up a building to be used as a hospital for treating these cases. Early last summer, when an invasion of cholera from Italy and southern Russia was threatening, another change was made,



HOFFMAN ISLAND, NEW YORK QUARANTINE, LOWER BAY.

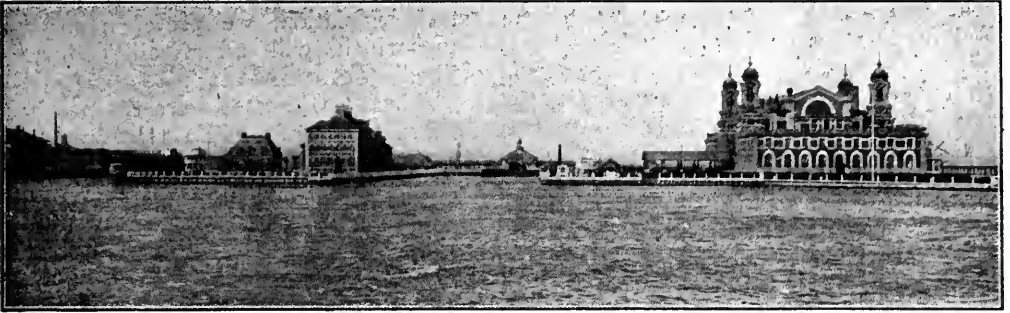
Until last summer used as detention and observation quarters for persons exposed to cholera, yellow fever, plague, leprosy, small-pox, typhus, scarlet fever, measles, and diphtheria. Now reserved for cholera suspects only. Maintained by the state of New York.

and since then the Hoffman Island equipment has been reserved as detention quarters for cholera suspects only; and immigrants suffering from scarlet fever, measles, etc., have been sent to the federal hospital on Ellis Island. The federal authorities had anticipated the increasing demand for hospital facilities and were adequately provided when this class of cases came to them.

The legislature of New York has repeatedly expressed the sentiment that the quarantine station should support itself; in other words, that the cost of quarantine inspection and other services should be assessed against the steamship companies. Almost up to the beginning of the present administration at quarantine the state felt no financial burden, for the health officer was allowed to keep all fees collected above the expense of conducting quarantine. That plan resulted in keeping expenditures for improved service and better equipment to a minimum; and the office was regarded as a "gold mine" for the incumbent. Fees assessed were: \$5 for every inspection, regardless of the size or sanitary condition of the vessel; \$2 additional for each 100 steerage passengers or fraction thereof; and from \$5 to \$50 (in the discretion of the health officer) for disinfecting a vessel. In recent years, although these fees continue to be charged, the health officer has been paid a salary, and deficits in the station's finances have been made up by the state. Owing to the increasing carrying capacity of steamers thereby reducing total fees, on the one hand, and to the

increase in sanitary knowledge, increasing cost of administration, on the other hand, these annual differences between receipts and disbursements have grown until the legislature now furnishes about \$75,000 per year for current expenses. Thus commerce into New York and the state of New York are together taxed in order that the nation as a whole may protect itself against disease.

Further up the bay at the immigrant station on Ellis Island is the third breastworks thrown up against foreign invasions; and there, as at the forts, the federal government is again in charge. The immigration station bars entrance of manifestly objectionable classes of immigrants such as idiots, imbeciles, the insane, paupers, persons likely to become public charges, persons with loathsome or dangerous contagious diseases, persons whose physical or mental defects might prevent them from earning a living, criminals, procurers, and prostitutes. The governments has expended several millions in buildings and equipment; and although there may still be need for more equipment, the comparative expenditures of the state at the quarantine islands and the federal government at Ellis island argue the greater ability to furnish and greater ease in obtaining large appropriations from the national resources. In addition to the million-dollar administration building with inspection and detention quarters, and other smaller buildings, the government has two very large hospitals, one of which includes



ELLIS ISLAND IMMIGRATION STATION, UPPER NEW YORK BAY.

A barrier set up against entrance into the United States of manifestly objectionable classes of immigrants such as idiots, imbeciles, the insane, persons with loathsome or dangerous contagious diseases, etc. Maintained by the United States.

thirteen large isolation wards. More than 500 officials, exclusive of those in the hospital service, are regularly on duty at the station. Physical examinations are made by officers in the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, who have charge also of treatment in the hospitals.

During 1910 the total number of immigrants admitted to this and other hospitals cooperating with the immigration station hospitals was 8,649; the total of days' treatment furnished amounted to 58,559; and the daily average number of patients in the hospital was 160. In that year the chief medical officer reports that 19,545 aliens were certified for physical or mental defects, including 1,735 classified as loathsome, contagious, or dangerous contagious, *vis.*: trachoma 1,442, tinea tonsuraus 94, favus 84, tuberculosis 32, syphilis 13, gonorrhoea 32, etc. Nine thousand, three hundred, and fifty-one were certified for disease or defect which affects ability to earn a living, including: senility 2,637, hernia 1,478, valvular disease of the heart 384, curvature of the spine 310, etc.

The large number of officers required in this station of the marine hospital service, as well as the 500 and more other employes, who are protected by the civil service, feel only the minimum of political interference.

Here, then, are three plainly national frontiers, and yet at one of the three New York state shoulders not only the moral and physical but the financial responsibility of protecting against foreign invading foes. At all of the smaller

ports of entry sprinkled about our shores, and at nearly all of the larger ones, protection from disease invasion has been given over by the states to the federal government. New York, with the largest and most costly port to supervise, with immigrants fast scattering to all states, with a federal station in its largest harbor protecting against the morally, physically, and economically unfit, stands most conspicuously in the way of a uniform system of inspection and detention throughout the country and a standardizing of the administration of quarantine stations.

EDITORIAL GRIST

PLAYING WITH MATCHES

CONSTANCE D. LEUPP

In comparison to tariff revision, legislation on a "dying issue" affecting three or four thousand foreign men and women instead of a voting constituency is a child's game for Congressmen. At least it was largely as a joke that several of the members of the most important committee of the House of Representatives took the hearing on the Esch bill, designed to tax the use of poisonous phosphorus out of existence and thus enable the United States in line with the other civilized nations to stamp out the unnecessary disease of phosphorus necrosis.

A dozen gentlemen lolling back in their chairs, striking matches, chaffing witnesses and each other—this is how

the Ways and Means Committee looked on January 10. When the all-day hearing closed at six o'clock, friends of the bill were quite unable to guess whether or not it would be favorably reported to the House.

The hearing was of curious interest to social workers who have followed the subject; for it showed the members of the committee ignorant of the menace and nature of the disease, suspicious of the motives of the bill's friends, willing only after extended argument to believe it a matter of much consequence anyway.

Yet the testimony was all favorable to the bill, including that of the manufacturers, with the single exception of one man who swore he had never seen a case although he had been making matches for years. With this as his cue, the chief poser asked of each witness whether he had ever seen a case. The final answer came unexpectedly when John B. Andrews, secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation, led forward an Italian from an obscure corner and let him tell his own story. The foreigner stood before the jocose Congressmen, with his shattered jaw scarred and toothless, and hopelessly handicapped in the battle of life at the age of thirty. It took courage, for your "phossy jaw" victim instinctively avoids publicity like a wounded animal; but Mr. Andrews had made friends with this man, talked to him, showed him his chance to have a hand in saving others. With almost religious zeal the man had promised to go anywhere and show himself, if it would help pass a law to abolish the poison.

The counsel of the Diamond Match Company came out frankly in favor of the bill. The French patent for sesquisulphide, which the Diamond Match Company relinquished voluntarily to the trade a year ago, is not being used today in more than one or two factories because it is slightly more expensive in manufacture than the poison.

"The match industry is between the devil and the deep sea just now," said this witness, "and we should particularly like to be let alone. But, rather than

state legislation, we prefer a national law which will affect all companies alike."

Valuable witnesses were the president and manager of the East Jersey Match Company, which in its small plant initiated the use of the harmless sesquisulphide months ago, and is now putting on the market a satisfactory product at the same price at which their competitors sell the poisonous variety.

THE SOCIAL EVIL IN KANSAS CITY

FREDERICK H. WHITIN

Chairman, Committee of
Fourteen, New York

"Another city heard from." The list lengthens of those communities which are following the precept "Know thyself" even upon the subject which has been so long tabooed in polite society and avoided by the social reformer. We are now learning for the first time the heavy cost of our squeamishness.

The little pamphlet upon the Social Evil in Kansas City (1911) is a study by the census method of inmates of disorderly houses on the "police fine list." Presumably these houses are semi-officially recognized. The scheme of toleration through a regular monthly fine, unopposed by the defendant, is one of unofficial license. The one regulation exercised is the age restriction of inmates to eighteen years. The result is that street walkers are younger girls. It is not reported that any police activity forces these girls off the street and out of the life through probation or other rescue methods. Yet many could undoubtedly be saved at that early age.

It is estimated that the fines collected amount to \$40,000 a year; to this extent do the citizens of Kansas City profit from commercialized vice! This amount is fully double the fines collected in New York, with its ten times greater population. No benefit results from the fines except to the city treasury. An estimate of \$1,500,000 is made as the cost of the vice to some 28,000 males involved. This is the direct cost. What must be the indirect cost not only to those guiltily concerned but to the innocent!

Most of those questioned reported a common school education. Twenty-eight of the 346 had completed a high school course. The report places responsibility for the conditions which it describes upon low wages and the surroundings which low wages compel, such as loose rooming houses and cheap amusement places, and also upon those employments in which women are dependent for continuance of work upon men's good-will.

The report's recommendations, summarized, are:

(1) Convince our American police of the feasibility of and public support for a program of suppression, that they may genuinely attempt a proper enforcement.

(2) A radical change in the amusements we tolerate, in public opinion, in our treatment of sex problems, in our economic system, in the attitude of the church, and the teaching and influence of the home itself.

THE LENROOT BILL

FRANK J. GOODNOW
Columbia University

When the Constitution of the United States was adopted it was believed that the sphere of civil liberty which was recognized by the political and economic theories of the day was sufficiently outlined and defined in the bills of rights in the various state constitutions. There had been, it is true, some attacks made by the states upon what were considered vested rights, which the framers of the constitution sought to render futile in the future. Therefore the states were forbidden to pass certain classes of laws, such as laws impairing the obligation of contracts. Apart, however, from these exceptional provisions, the rights of persons over against the states were left to the protection of the state constitutions.

Furthermore, inasmuch as the framers of the constitution felt that their primary problem was to formulate a system of federal government which on the one hand should provide a national organization capable of furthering the general interests of the American people, and on the other hand should leave with the states everything not requiring uniformity of treatment, they neglected to insert in the original constitution any compre-

hensive statement of the sphere of private rights which might not be invaded by the national government. This neglect was remedied soon after the establishment of the new government through the adoption of the first ten amendments to the United States constitution, which were soon held by the Supreme Court not to limit the powers of the states.

As population increased and the means of transportation improved, and as, consequently, the economic conditions of the country came to be more uniform, the people of the United States came to the belief that the sphere of civil liberty and, in a measure, that of political liberty should more closely conform to the economic conditions. Therefore the attempt was made to provide for greater uniformity in this respect through the adoption of the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth amendments. The first of these amendments endeavored to provide a degree of uniformity in labor conditions by forbidding slavery or involuntary servitude except as a punishment for crime; the second defined citizenship in the United States and the several states, and forbade any state to deprive any person of his life, liberty, or property without due process of law or to deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws; while both the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments attempted to prevent any state from denying to any citizen of the United States the right to vote by reason of his race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

When the domain of civil liberty was in most respects a matter to be determined by the states, what that domain should be and whether it was accorded proper protection were matters which could not be said to concern the people of the country as a whole nor the federal government. All they were concerned with was to prevent the states from taking any action which violated any rights guaranteed by the United States constitution, which were few in number. Therefore the first judiciary act of 1789 which defined the powers and procedure of the federal courts provided, in cases where the validity of a state statute was questioned, for an appeal to

the United States Supreme Court from the judgment of the highest court of a state only where that court upheld the validity of such a statute from the point of view of its conformity to the federal constitution. These were the only cases where an appeal was necessary, since what was desired was not uniformity but the supremacy of the federal constitution.

With, however, the attempt to nationalize the realm of civil liberty which has been made in the three latest amendments to the constitution, the present methods of appeal to the Supreme Court from the decisions of the highest state courts have become ineffective in the attainment of the desired result. For under present conditions, if the highest court of a state decides, for example as did the court of appeals of New York last year, that a workingmen's compensation act is repugnant to the federal constitution, no appeal may be taken to the Supreme Court. The decision of the Court of Appeals is now and always will be the law unless that court reverses itself. This is so even if the Supreme Court, on an appeal from the decision of the highest court of another state, should hold that a workingmen's compensation act is not repugnant to the federal constitution. For the highest court of a state is bound to follow only the decisions of the Supreme Court which hold that certain state statutes are repugnant to the constitution.

The necessary and logical result of the adoption of the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth amendments is, therefore, the enlargement of the appellate jurisdiction of the Supreme Court of the United States so as to permit it to entertain appeals from any decision of the highest court of a state which declares a state statute to be repugnant to the constitution. For it is neither seemly nor expedient that the constitution of the United States should mean one thing in one state and another thing in another state. It is not seemly that this should be the case, because under such conditions the constitution and the courts lose much of their dignity and influence. It is not expedient, because such subjects as labor

conditions, for example, must be approximately uniform throughout the country if the best results are to be obtained. As the law stands at present such uniformity is not assured. Indeed, it is believed by many that it is impossible of attainment.

For these reasons, House Bill 16808, introduced in the House of Representatives on January 4, 1912, by Mr. Lenroot, is one which should receive the support of all interested in securing a uniform interpretation by our state courts of the provisions of the federal constitution. This bill proposes to amend section 237 of the present judiciary act so as to omit the words "and the decision is in favor of their validity" from that clause of the section providing for an appeal to the Supreme Court from the judgment of the highest court of a state "where is drawn in question the validity of a statute of or an authority exercised under any state, on the ground of their being repugnant to the constitution, treaties, or laws of the United States."

The enlargement of the appellate jurisdiction proposed by this bill is of particular interest to those engaged in social reform, since it is to the Supreme Court of the United States rather than to the highest state courts that we must look for a liberal interpretation of the provisions of the fourteenth amendment. It is only as the highest courts of the states are legally bound to follow the rulings of the Supreme Court that we can expect a universal application throughout the country of any liberal interpretation which may be given to that amendment by the Supreme Court; and that we are more liable to obtain such a liberal interpretation from that court than from the state courts is hardly to be doubted by one who makes a careful comparison of their decisions. In any case the proposed enlargement of the appellate jurisdiction of the Supreme Court can have no influence whatever in bringing about a narrower view of the fourteenth amendment than is now entertained, since under the law as it now stands the Supreme Court has complete power to prevent the adoption by the state courts of views which it regards as too liberal.

THE TREND OF THINGS

SEVEN SANDWICHMEN ON BROADWAY.

Jefferson B. Fletcher, in the *Atlantic Monthly*.

Shuffling and shambling, woe-begone, they pass,
 Seven in single file, and seven as one—
 As if a spectrum of all woe the suu
 Here cast through some bewitched prismatic glass.
 From their stooped shoulders, back and fore, hang
 crass
 High-coloured chromos of a stage *mignonne*
 In tights, astride a grinning simpleton
 Squat on all fours, and lounge-like an ass.
 "Success!" "Success!" we read—yea, thy suc-
 cess
 We read, O wanton among cities: vice
 Saddled on folly, woe beneath sevenfold:
 Woe of the lust of life, and the shameful vice
 Of life—woe of that want, the wearisome—
 Of fear, of hate—of the thrice false weight of
 gold!

* * *

"The city is not the place," says the Editor of *Wallace's Farmer*, writing on the Rural Church in the *Central Christian Advocate*, "to grow big men, any more than it is the place to grow big horses." The return flow from the well recognized drift to the city, he believes, has already begun, and will be further hastened and made permanent when the rural church recognizes its social responsibility to make life in the country worth living.

A church that has so held a rural community together is described in a recent issue of the *Farmers' Voice*. This is Sangamon Bottom Presbyterian Church, in Cass county, Ill., which has made "better farms and better farming . . . provides sociables for young people and keeps them from going to town for amusement, is more strongly supported than in pioneer days, and yet remains distinctly religious."

* * *

The *Farmer's Voice*, which keeps abreast of rural social movements, reports rather fully the First International Congress of Farm Women which was held in the early winter in Colorado Springs. The object of the congress was to bring farm women from all over the world together for interchange of ideas, and among the two hundred and fifty delegates were some from Belgium and Russia. All the delegates were practical farm women and the subjects discussed—each discussion being opened by an expert—included the building of the home; food values; labor-saving devices; the laws of life, including home nursing; the reorganization of the country school; good roads; and that pest of the country stable, the domestic fly. Resolutions were passed advocating vocational schools, the establishment of a department of home economics in the Department of Agriculture at Washington, and the greater promotion of institute extension work in connection with state agricultural colleges. It was voted to hold the next session of the congress in Lethbridge, Alberta, at the time of the holding of the International Dry Farming Congress. Byrtha Stavert, Winnipeg, Man., was elected

president, and Irma Mathews, Oklahoma City, Okla., first vice-president.

* * *

An editorial article in the *Oriental Review* on the Chinese revolution, gives a view of China new to our Western minds. Instead of the fixed and unchangeable civilization we are accustomed to think of, the editorial tells of twenty dynasties swept away in the course of Chinese development. Of these the northern Manchus have had one of the longest tenures, about two hundred and fifty years.

Today the Chinese have progressed to the point where the Manchus have outlived their usefulness. The writer of the editorial is a Japanese. He hails the revolution as right, as neither unexpected nor out of the ordinary, but in accordance with modern civilization. He urges the need of support for the "New China" by Japan, primarily—and this is especially interesting to those who talk about the "yellow peril"—to avert the "white peril," to prevent occidental nations from taking advantage of an eastern nation weakened by internal war. "Whenever," says the editorial, "the disruption of one of the two Far Eastern neighbors looms large on the horizon, the other is sure to throw its whole weight against such an eventuality, because it spells nothing but western domination in Asia."

* * *

No more human document has appeared in the magazines than A Voice From the Sweatshop, with which the December *Twentieth Century* begins a "series of personal revelations in which people will write . . . regarding some momentous experience of their lives." The December story is the unexpurgated and unedited anonymous account of one free day in the life of a Jewish sweatshop worker when by chance he heard a lecturer (the editor perhaps) speak on the right of all men to equal intellectual opportunities.

"A man," says the writer, "while starving can quiet his hunger with a piece of bread, while thirsty with some water, while freezing he can cover himself with rags, which happens not seldom. What can help him who suffers from mental starvation? Who . . . must sit as a machine near a machine and do a duty that could be done by a child or by anyone with no abilities whatever? . . . To such work is a capable man enslaved for long hours." And after the long hard day the intellectual opportunity offered him is the night school where he tries to learn with a dull, tired brain in a small, noisy room without any comforts in it, in a class of about sixty or seventy men and women and other younger ones of different knowledge and understanding—in a class taught by a tired teacher who has been teaching a class in the morning, in the afternoon, and in the evening once more." "Ach," he says, "it is easy to give advices. Did these learned men who are giving them ever try to do it?"

A plea for women judges and police was made by Rabbi Stephen S. Wise, of the Free Synagogue, New York city, at the recent annual meeting of the New York Probation Society. He said:

"Deadly, defying, and damning indeed is the double standard—gold for the women and lead for the men, the poorer metal always overpowers the good, and we accept the leaden standard for all. It is important to protect society not against women, but against wrong-doing in men or women. As long as you women will stand it these conditions will remain, they couldn't stand an hour if you protested.

"You think that it is a fine thing that Miss Miner is allowed to go into the courts and talk to the women prisoners there. I shall not be satisfied until I see women judges in the courts. The police should be part women, too, and it is essential while there is commerce between the criminal classes outside and the criminal classes inside the police force."

* * *

SLUM-CRY.

John Galsworthy, in the *London Nation*.

Of a night without stars, the wind withdrawn,
God's face hidden. Indignity near me,
Drink and the paraffin flares to sear me,
Lust-colored hunger—so was I born!

Of a city noon-day—as sand through sieve
Sifting down, as dusk paddling the glamor—
I of the desolate white-lipped clamor,
Millioning fester. So do I live!

Of a poor-house morning, not asking why,
Breath-choked, dry-eyed, the death of me staring,
Faces of strangers, and no one caring—
Thou who hast made me—so shall I die!

* * *

January 1 was the twenty-fifth birthday of *Scribner's Magazine*. Devoted primarily to literature, *Scribner's* has during this twenty-five year-period found space for social and economic subjects, two at least of its contributions in these fields, Walter Wyckoff's *Workers* and Jacob A. Riis's *How the other Half Lives* having made a strong appeal to a wide circle of readers. The anniversary issue has an article on German Labor Exchanges by Elmer Roberts, who maintains that the social legislation of which the exchanges were a part has checked emigration, given Germany a smaller percentage of unemployment than other industrial countries of like rank, and encouraged the immigration of foreign unskilled labor. Mr. Roberts promises a later article on this latter subject—the admission of a million alien laborers on passports to do the rough work of the country.

* * *

It is interesting to learn from the *American Magazine* that the Boy Scouts have a rival. In this month's issue, Albert Jay Nock tells how Sir Francis Vane, "hater of war and enemy of false patriotism," developed in England the World Scout movement to offset what he believed to be the militaristic tendency of the Boy Scouts, which is under the patronage of a "first-class military cabal"

headed by Lord Roberts and General Baden-Powell. He believed that as far as civilization is concerned the Boy Scouts are retarding and detrimental and so formed this group whose ideals are "the world as opposed to patriotism, peace as opposed to war."

* * *

The Bureau of Information of the Library Department of the National Vigilance Committee (156 Fifth Avenue, New York city) contains a constantly growing collection of material on prostitution, the white slave traffic, and sex education. This material includes pamphlets, leaflets, books, state, federal, and foreign laws, and city ordinances; as well as a file of newspaper clippings received daily from all parts of the country, together with reports of organizations in the United States and abroad concerned directly or indirectly in the work against the traffic in women and prostitution. A descriptive bibliography of material in the library is on file in the building. Individual copies can be obtained for \$1. A bibliography on sex education may be obtained on request.

* * *

"Why, in the name of all that is sane and intelligent," asks Dr. Beverley Robinson in a recent issue of the *Medico-Pharmaceutical Critic and Guide*, "build sanatoria everywhere throughout our land, only later to send back patients to conditions and surroundings which are the source and origin of the widespread pest of humanity far more 'than the microbe whose inoffensiveness is demonstrable when the causes which breed it and make it important cease to exist'?"

* * *

Two companion articles—the *Strenuous Life* and a *Plea for the Study of Geriatrics*, by I. L. Nascher, reprinted from the *Medical Record*, show with the pathos of straightforward statement the manner in which our over-driven American youth and middle age are crowded to the point of breakdown, and our old age is, from a medical point of view, neglected. The argument for "a ward in our hospitals, a class in our medical schools, a column in our medical journals, a section in our societies" devoted to the special study of diseases of senility, just as we now have special study of the diseases of infancy, is convincing. "Nowadays," says Dr. Nascher, "the senile tremor goes to the neurologist, the senile gangrene to the surgeon—while still another specialist takes care of the old man's stomach, and still another of his heart." But what specialist, he asks, looks after him as a whole, so that he may be free from the discomforts of old age and avoid many of the ailments that fall to these other specialists?

* * *

Some Remarks to My friend John Smith, by a member of the Associated Charities (South Bend, Ind.) is a leaflet which addresses itself in the conversational style to the hard-headed thrifty business man who "can't see the use of helping out a lot of lazy,

shiftless people." Starting with the text that the debt of a good inheritance, a sheltered childhood, and a home filled with comfort and happiness must be paid to the community "deed for deed, cent for cent," the leaflet shows by local charitable history under what new and better methods the charity of today is administered. It then goes on to illustrate by practical examples how every penny of John Smith's social indebtedness can be made to count for the rehabilitation of families and the restoration of health and happiness. This readable method of personal appeal which could be adapted to any community, could do more than any number of annual reports to stimulate interest.

* * *

IS ECONOMY WEALTH?

W. J. Lampton, in *New York Tribune*.

I'm a 50-cent shirtwaist. Yes, oh, yes!
I'm a boon to the women who want to dress
In the most inexpensive yet pleasing way
And be fairly up on the style of the day.

I'm a 50-cent shirtwaist. Yes, oh, yes!
And the women, who spend the least on their
dress,

Go after me quick, and if I cost less
They'd go for me quicker, and yet I confess
I doubt if they stop for a minute to learn
What I mean to the women and girls who must
earn

Their living by making my kind at a price
Which means to the buyer the least sacrifice.
They don't ever stop to think what I mean
To workers whose minds and whose bodies are
lean

Because what I bring for their work is so small
They're lucky to have any shirtwaist at all.
I'm a 50-cent shirtwaist. Yes, oh, yes!
But I mean a lot more than merely cheap dress.
Still the women don't care so long as the price
Means only to them the least sacrifice.
And as long as the buyers are satisfied, why
Should a 50-cent shirtwaist put up a cry?

* * *

Bulletin No. 2 of the New York School of Philanthropy Library concerns Vocational Guidance. The bibliography is devoted in the main to industrial education connected with elementary schools, preparatory trade schools, and evening continuation schools—courses in trade training designed for pupils from fourteen to eighteen years of age. All references are annotated. They cover publications of the last three years and are therefore up to date. The bulletins are sent free to Readers of THE SURVEY, provided a request is sent to the New York School of Philanthropy Library, 105 East 22nd street. Bulletin No. 3, a survey of the Best Books for 1911 on Social Subjects, appears January 1.

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Beyond the news items in regard to the McNamara confession and the continuation in *McClure's* of Burns's reminiscences, an article in the *North American* by Walter Gordon Merritt, of the Anti-Boycott Association, on the Closed Shop, is about all the magazines offer this month on the labor question.

* * *

Articles of practical interest in the last issue of the *American Journal of Sociology* are: Infant Welfare; Methods of Organization and

Administration in Italy, by Charles R. Henderson; Minimum Wage Boards, by Mrs. Florence Kelley; and the third instalment of Emory S. Bogardus's study of the Relation of Fatigue to Industrial Accidents.

* * *

In Hints on the Treatment of Social Questions, by Samuel W. Dike, the December *Homiletic Review* departs from its accustomed field and discusses factors that enter into the successful study and treatment of social questions.

* * *

This month the *Garden Magazine* starts "Children's Gardens Everywhere," a department for reports on the school garden movement from every state that is doing such work. This month's department covers Canada, where government grants are given for the work, and the state of Ohio.

COMMUNICATIONS

ASSASSINS AND MARTYRS

TO THE EDITOR:

THE SURVEY devotes twenty pages to letters answering the question, What should be demanded of organized labor in putting its house in order? referring to the McNamara confession.

It is startling to find how far humanitarian sentiment has gone, when so many of the letters contain the question, What has driven these men to acts of violence? One expects such a question from Meyer London or Lincoln Steffens, but hardly from Louis D. Brandeis.

One might point out that exactly the same question could be asked of the members of the "Black Hand," who are also experts with dynamite.

Fortunately there are enough clear thinkers, even in the ranks of organized labor, to show that civilization revolts at assassination in any guise, and that such temporizing with its users, or their advocates, does more injury to any cause than could be gained by any possible success. When the American people are terrorized into a course of conduct, it will be when they have changed their nature and traditions. It will not be in our day.

The writer pointed out, at the time of the Phoenix Park murders, the difference between assassins and martyrs. When John Brown would free the slaves, he and his followers took their lives in their hands, and openly and boldly assaulted the government of the United States. In 1776 the patriots openly defied the government of England, and placed upon the altar of liberty, before all mankind, "their lives, their fortunes, and their sacred honor."

They also took pains to sign the document, John Hancock placing his historic signature where all might read, and "Charles Carroll of Carrollton" identifying himself beyond the possibility of error.

The Phoenix Park murderers, the Russian nihilists, the dynamiters of the houses of Parliament all injured and kept back the cause they had at heart, because they worked in the dark and tried to save their own lives.

Not out of such stuff are martyrs made; not by dynamite set off with time-clocks will the American people be persuaded to listen to the "rights" or "wrongs" of labor.

Mr. Brandeis suggests that it was because they "believed that the wage-earner, acting singly or collectively, is not strong enough to secure substantial justice." It is to be hoped that those who try to enforce their ideas by assassination will receive the substantial justice they deserve.

Let the wage-earner, or anyone who believes that he has a righteous cause, try to convince his fellowmen by argument, by organization, and political methods. Or, if this fails, let him raise the standard of mankind, as did the martyrs of old, and all who are looked upon in the pages of history as the true patriots and lovers of their kind.

JOSEPH D. HOLMES.

New York.

CONSERVATION AND INDUSTRIAL WAR

TO THE EDITOR:

The notable petition which has just been presented to the president, asking for a federal commission to "investigate, study, and consider grave problems of internal statesmanship" deserves careful consideration. These "problems of democracy and its industrial relationship" are of the first importance. In order to solve them the first and essential condition is to know the truth.

The problem which has excited most interest during 1911 is the warfare between the International Association of Bridge and Structural Iron Workers on the one side and the American Bridge Company and the National Erectors' Association on the other.

What grievance has led to this war? THE SURVEY tells us in a recent number:

"When the structural iron workers in New York were first organized, in 1896, they were working ten hours a day for 24 cents an hour. In 1898 they first secured recognition and introduced a scale of \$2.50 for an eight-hour day. In 1905 when the last written agreement was made it was for \$4.50 and an eight-hour day. Since 1905 no change has been made in the hours of labor. The wages in New York have increased to \$5 per day."

It thus appears that so far as hours of labor and wages are concerned, the structural iron workers do not complain. Nevertheless, for several years their union has been at war with their employers, the National Erectors' Association. Clarence Darrow, who has been counsel for this labor union, declared in his article in the *American*, in September, that there was such a state of war, not only in this but in other trades; that this state of war was a necessary consequence of existing social conditions. He said that these compelled employers to be selfish, and that their

only motive in dealing with their workmen was selfish; that good employers were compelled to do this by competition with greedy and selfish employers. In effect, though not in terms, he declared that the only remedy was a social revolution. It is very obvious that if the members of the structural iron workers' union believed what their counsel thus asserted, as no doubt many of them did, the action of the McNamaras was natural. Revolutions generally begin with violence and bloodshed. The question recurs: What was the cause of the war between these employers and this union? It was not wages, it was not hours of labor; it was the closed shop. On one hand, the National Erectors' Association issued a pamphlet which contains the following exhortation:

"Do not be a party to a closed-shop agreement, do not ask for closed-shop clauses in your building contracts, and do not patronize a closed-shop builder if there is an open shop in your community."

On the other hand, the union determined to compel employers to maintain the closed-shop principle. It repeatedly declared a strike, not only when employers employed non-union men to do structural iron work, but when non-union men were employed on any other part of a building of which structural iron was the frame. In the course of the warfare thus conducted there was not only the dynamiting which has been brought to light, but personal violence was frequently resorted to. The question, it seems to me, which the American people ought to decide for themselves, with or without the aid of a commission, is whether they will tolerate this demand.

It strikes me that the closed shop is, so far as the employer is concerned, industrial slavery, and the managers of the union are slave-drivers. If a man is forcibly obliged to employ only those persons who are selected for him by an organization of which he is not a member and over which he has no control, he is to that extent the slave of that organization. In my opinion no people who have the conception of personal freedom deeply rooted, as have the American people, will ever consent generally to the maintenance of this particular principle. It does not surprise me that the war which the structural iron workers have chosen to inaugurate for the purpose of compelling the adoption of this principle seems at present to be going against them. One reason for this seems obvious when it is considered that the entire number of union men in the United States (I refer again for my authority to THE SURVEY) is only 1,750,000. This is certainly a small minority of our people. How can they expect on a point like that under consideration to compel the majority to submit? Again, when the question is of war and revolution, our friends of the structural iron workers' union ought to consider that there are two sides to war—that there are blows to give as well as blows to take; that on the whole the American people are pros-

perous and unwilling to have their social fabric violently overturned; and that therefore the whole machinery of government will be put in effective motion to defeat the aggressors in this particular war.

But is there not a better way? Is the closed shop essential to the prosperity of the unions? Cannot a union stand upon its own legitimate basis and accomplish the good for which it is organized without this element of compulsion? The fact is that many successful unions have achieved success without insisting upon the closed shop. One of the most important of them is not well known to the public because it goes quietly about its business and believes in peaceful instead of violent methods. This is the American Association of Masters, Mates, and Pilots. This association has what it calls "harbors" in all the principal ports of the Atlantic and Pacific coasts and on the Great Lakes. A great majority of the masters, mates, and pilots of American vessels, which have the monopoly of the coasting trade of the United States, belong to it. They have never insisted that no captain or pilot or mate should be employed who is not a member of the union. They have never taken the ground that the ship-owners were their natural enemies, and that no improvement could be achieved in the relation between the owner and the mariner without revolution. On the contrary, they have co-operated with public-spirited men, in Congress and out of it, to reform the laws in reference to shipping, and they have measurably succeeded. Their pay has been increased, the conditions of their work have greatly improved. The percentage of lives lost at sea has diminished. One of the leaders in this movement, the late Richard H. Dana, the author of *Two Years Before the Mast*, was not a member of a union. But he was a lawyer and a patriot, and took as much interest in the condition of seamen as if he had continued to be a seaman himself.

Any one acquainted with the industrial history of England and the United States during the last century is aware that Mr. Dana was not unique. One of the fallacies which seems to have got possession of Mr. Darrow and of many other leaders of labor unions is that all the improvements that have been made in the condition of the working man are the result of labor unions. But, on the contrary, it is well known to those who study history that Lord Shaftesbury did as much in England to improve the condition of the working people, shortening their hours of labor and increasing their wages, as any union ever achieved. Plimsoll did the same in England with reference to the condition of seamen. Time would fail me to enumerate the public-spirited citizens in America who have given their best time and thought, ungrudgingly, in the same good cause. We may, however, name two noble women, Josephine Shaw Lowell and Jane Addams, who have consecrated their lives to it. In many mills conditions have been made san-

itary and just without the compulsion of legislation. I may instance the Studebaker factory in Indiana. If our trade-union friends will stop to consider, they will be aware that there is a great body of intelligent and unselfish Americans, both men and women, who are desirous of doing everything that can possibly be done to improve industrial conditions. Therefore, instead of the condition being a state of war, it should be a state of peace. The case calls for co-operation and not for strife.

Take for example the state of New York. I agree with the petitioners who presented their case to the president that the decision of the Court of Appeals in the Ives Case was unfortunate. But we must remember that it was rendered by judges who were elected by the people, and all but one of whom were unanimously elected. They decided that the constitution which the people of the state of New York had adopted prevented the legislature from passing an act compelling employers to make compensation for all industrial accidents, whether caused by negligence or not. The only way to overcome this decision is by constitutional amendment. Such a one will be introduced in the present legislature. Governor Dix in his annual message has recommended it. All good citizens, in my judgment, should co-operate to convince the legislature that this amendment should be adopted.

In short, what is wanted is not revolution, but patient, intelligent correction of existing abuses. If there are, as is alleged, any employers of labor who desire to "exterminate the labor unions," these employers should be overruled. If there are any labor union leaders who insist on exterminating non-union men, these leaders should be overruled. We must have freedom; freedom to organize, freedom to abstain from organization. If conditions in a particular business are satisfactory to the working men, if their hours are reasonable, their pay ample, and all the conditions of their work satisfactory, the impartial citizen does not see any reason for compelling the workmen in that business to form a labor union.

EVERETT P. WHEELER.

New York.

THE CHURCH AND McNAMARISM

TO THE EDITOR:

Many find in the McNamara affair merely another occasion for denunciation of the unions; but a further point should be considered. The church has long claimed the function of the supreme teacher of righteousness in society. We have claimed to have a gospel suited to all the needs of every human being, and a divine command to teach this gospel to every creature. We have thus the strongest possible obligation to society.

The union movement in this country began over 100 years ago. Its course has been accompanied by destruction of life and property and other forms of lawlessness. We have

had ample opportunity to teach the union what we would. We could have made it our chief auxiliary in carrying our message to the world. Next to the Sunday school it could have been made the main source of recruitment for our membership. No other class of people, except those in the secret societies, are so accessible to us. In the cities there are comparatively few churches without some union people as members, or unions without some church people among them. We have had the best possible means for a thorough understanding of union principles, objects, and methods, and the best possible machinery for impressing upon the unions our message of righteousness.

We ought from the beginning to have urged the best class of working men, the competent, reliable men, those of good character and judgment, to go into the union and give it their support and encouragement. We should have sent them as our missionaries to preach the gospel of Christ to their fellows.

The religious journals ought to have shown the churches how to reach the unions by pointing out the opportunities which constantly arise and explaining the best methods of work. Their columns have been eagerly opened, for pay, to any kind of abuse of the unions, but usually closed to anything commendatory. The church as a body knows nothing of the mental processes of the union people. They have repeatedly made overtures to us for a better understanding between the two bodies; but we have so often repelled their advances that matters have sometimes been made worse instead of better. In Boston the Men and Religion Forward Movement has been greatly hindered by the unwillingness of the local church people to consider seriously any matter concerning the moral and spiritual welfare of the union people.

We will have to learn that union people as well as employers have souls; that the Almighty has not delegated to us His function of sitting in judgment on our neighbor; that great masses of people do not come to suspect the sincerity of church, legislature, and court without real reason; that if the teaching function really belongs to us we are responsible for the fact that multitudes of people have come to believe that justice can be secured only through violence. We will have to recognize our responsibility for McNamaras and conditions which produce them; for the lynchings at Cairo and Springfield, at Coatesville and Purcell; for whatever evil there is in the world. We must learn that McNamaras are neither prevented nor cured by denunciation, but by the intimate, personal acquaintance of the individual churchman with the individual union man in his own neighborhood; and that it is only through such intimacy that the church can come to understand the needs of those about her.

BAYARD E. HARRISON,

[Chairman Industrial Committee Mass.
Congregational Conference.]
Malden, Mass.

INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATION

TO THE EDITOR:

In your symposium upon the Larger Bearings of the McNamara case I am surprised to see so little allusion to industrial co-operation as a means of lessening the present antagonism which all agree exists between labor and capital. Although several contributors alluded to justice as a panacea, only one directly and specifically mentioned co-operation as a means of stopping the dreadful warfare existing between the two necessary elements of production; and that allusion was only a demand for men who are "co-operative-minded."

Why are workmen so dissatisfied under present conditions? Is it not because they think they are not having a fair share of the product which they make? By being assured of a "square deal," will they not have a different spirit toward their work? It is to be hoped that the petition to the president for a Federal Commission on Industrial Relations will be granted. When once the commission is organized, its first duty should be to establish an equitable share of all kinds of manufactured articles to which each of three parties is entitled, *viz*: the capitalist, the organizer and overseer, and the laborer. When this is done and all parties are assured that their share is an equitable one, all will be clear. Of course there will be persons on both sides who will pretend to be dissatisfied with their proposed share. Let such persons be compelled by law to accede to the division. For all others, and the number of such is likely to be large, the proposed plan of division will be honestly and gladly followed. Compulsory co-operation for the greedy is not too drastic; certainly not more drastic or harder to enforce than compulsory arbitration, and that has been found to work well. By all means let the commission be formed and the good work go on.

JOHN T. PRINCE.

West Newton, Mass.

STOCKHOLDERS AND VIOLENCE

TO THE EDITOR:

I read with much interest your issue of December 30 and it seems to me that one reason the workman "throws the brick" is because, when he asks for a raise, he doesn't get it and when he makes a protest generally hears "Well, if you don't like your job, quit." What can he do then?

Can we blame the foreman, to whom he applied for the raise, for refusing it when the superintendent tells him his department is costing too much already? Can we blame the superintendent when the general manager tells him if he doesn't keep expenses down he'll have to make way for some one who will? Can we blame the general manager, whose policy is outlined for him by the president? Isn't the president dominated by the board of directors? Doesn't the board of directors want to declare big dividends for

the stockholders? Don't the stockholders want dividends and more dividends?

Then can we blame the workman if he wants his fellows to join him to force the firm to do what they will not do on simple request? Can he be blamed for wanting to do violence when other methods fail? Who knows what necessity prompted his request for an increase in salary?

Can the stockholders be taught to be satisfied with a *fair* percentage of profit so that the policy of their presidents, general managers, superintendents, and foremen could be a generous one? May we hope that some day this policy will be generous enough to make a workman really love his firm? Will there be any violence then?

Here is a possible way out. Most industries can be divided into seven major departments: finance, executive, clerical, selling, producing, shipping, and maintenance.

It would not be so hard to determine a fair scale of percentages of the net proceeds, and assign a percentage to each department. By net proceeds I mean gross proceeds less cost of raw material and power because the firm can not control these items.

Would this be a good basis of investigation and legislation?

R. A. DICKSON.

New York.

CAPITAL AND LABOR

TO THE EDITOR:

The great question raised by the McNamara case is that of the relation of capital and labor, and this means the future welfare of the whole country—all classes. The rank and file, the individuals in the labor world—those whose wrongs and rights are under discussion—are not in favor of either destruction of life or property, nor of violence in the effort to deter others from working.

These evils originate with unscrupulous leaders whose occupation is dependent upon continued warfare; and the best interests of labor suffer because of these men.

If the present leaders are seriously desirous of forwarding the cause of labor, they will leave no stone unturned in aiding the government, whether federal or state, in bringing all offenders to justice. There must be whole-hearted and *immediate* action. During the long series of dynamitings cited in your issue of December 30, did the leaders of labor make any such effort? Did they not rather seek to prevent the work of the authorities?

The answer then to question one is:

First: A reorganization of labor, by the rank and file, and the election to office, as leaders, of able men, who have the interest of the individuals, rather than their own advancement, at heart. Many unions are now officered by such men, and we hear of no trouble from these.

Second: The organization to be so broad in its aims that *all* labor will willingly come

in and be unionized. We want unions, but we want them just to all labor, and to recognize the right of all to labor.

Third: The grading of membership according to ability, and the wage to be adjusted on this basis, under the control of a committee composed of employer, employe, and the public.

The brass workers in a large manufacturing town in England are now so organized, and are graded upon examination. The results have proved beyond question the benefits to labor of this system.

It never will be equitable to pay a common wage to skilled and unskilled alike. Reward must be on individual merit to give satisfaction and stability.

Fourth: Publicity, federal, state, and local, of the needs and demands—wages, hours and conditions of labor, sanitation, accident prevention, etc. Legislation will soon follow.

Fifth: Prevent absolutely all forms of violence in case of strike. Establish an arbitration board to settle all disputes. Violence and lawlessness can never have the approval of the public; can never permanently advance their cause; are destructive of their own interests.

As to the second question:

The relation of wage to profit, and therefore to the possibility of stability of business, is so close that it is not possible to control by law the one without also regulating by law the other; in other words, government control or ownership.

We can, however, insist on laws for minimum wages, *properly established in relation to cost of living*; laws on sanitation, conditions and periods of labor, safety, liability insurance, etc. We can perhaps secure legislation preventing over-capitalization and combinations resulting in "undue restraint" of trade.

But the law cannot *regulate* wages.

The appointment of a Federal Commission on Industrial Relations—as already undertaken in the petition to the president, December 30, 1911—should be secured, and there should be added to the schedule submitted an investigation of the effect of high wages on the cost of living. For instance: the wages of the iron workers in New York city were increased from \$2.50 in 1898 to \$4.50 in 1905, an increase of 80 per cent; and during this time clerical labor received no increase. The increased cost of living thus falls much more heavily on this class than on those whom we ordinarily think of as being the only laboring class.

A third question should have been considered, *viz.*: "What should be demanded of organized capital?"

The answers quite naturally parallel those to question one:

First: A conscientious relation of wages to profit.

Second: An encouragement of broad-minded unionism, such as the "Preferential Shop."

Third: Co-operation with the union in

grading according to ability, and equitable reward for individual effort.

Fourth: Co-operation in "Publicity of Conditions," and with legislatures in establishing the highest standards for the safety and welfare of the employe. A recognition of the fact that the ultimate success of an enterprise is closely associated with the physical and mental welfare of the employe.

And the answer to the whole great question of labor vs. capital is to be found in "scientific management."

In spite of the efforts of some who are not fully informed with the aim and accomplishments to discredit this movement, those who are intimately associated with this work in its introduction, and those in whose plants it has been properly put in operation, as well as the labor in those plants, are in a position to prove to the public, to capital, and to labor that it is the solution to the struggle between capital and labor.

Labor leaders are at present antagonistic, in spite of the resulting great improvement to labor, including increased wages, permanence of employment, mental stimulus and growth. Of course the general introduction in our industries would do away with the warfare and with the need of the type of leader whose existence is dependent upon this condition.

No form of management can be described as scientific which does not have as its aim and does not result in:

The thorough understanding of both capital and labor that their interests are identical, and that co-operation is essential for success;

An equitable reward for individual effort; A continual stimulus for the individual which results in mental as well as physical activity;

A resulting continual educational effort, advancing the individual to the highest grade of labor of which he is capable, and a condition of mutual satisfaction.

The results are high wages, low cost, and stability of business, with permanence of employment.

We, then, should demand of capital, labor, and the public a thorough study and understanding of the benefits to all of "scientific management" properly applied, and insist upon its rapid acceptance and general introduction.

New York.

RUDOLPH RIEGF

COMMAS FOR COURTS

TO THE EDITOR:

As a warm friend of THE SURVEY I am constrained to protest against an editorial tendency that is sure to lessen its influence as an opinion-forming agency.

When the adverse decision of the New York Court of Appeals on the constitutionality of the Wainwright Compensation Law was greeted with the cover-page caption, "Economics, Sociology, and Morals versus the New York Court of Appeals," the slip seemed merely to be the result of a keenly

disappointed enthusiasm. Yet months later, and after the soothing intervention of summer vacations, the same epithet is dragged into a recent editorial.

As a close student of the difficult problem of accident compensation the writer is convinced that the existing law of liability is wasteful and inhuman, while the principles laid down in the Wainwright law are eminently just and expedient. But when the supreme tribunal of the Empire State gives a contrary opinion, it is the part of good citizenship to restrain suggestion derogatory to the intelligence and morals of that court. I agree that the decision in question shows a surprising lack of appreciation of the needs of the times, but the unprogressive court will be short-lived when a majority of the people persistently demand a progressive judiciary.

In the last issue is a just arraignment of the state of North Carolina for the inadequacy of its child labor laws. But the writer of the article even wields an exclamation point in his zeal to club the Supreme Court for the short-comings of the law. If the statutes "forbid the employment of any child under twelve years of age 'in any factory or manufacturing establishment,'" and no more than that, the court is obviously right in ruling that the railroad company was not a violator of the law. As an illustration of the inadequacy of the law and of the quibbling of judges over immaterial points, this case is good, but the editorial more than spoils its argument by attempting to enlarge upon the responsibility of the court.

Such utterances illustrate a fondness for loose and superficial thinking as regards the relation of government to social reform, and these attacks are most pernicious when aimed at the courts. If reform is to be accomplished through the patient rehabilitation of existing social equipment, let us reserve our exclamation points and epithets to cast at law-makers and executives, while we lead the courts towards progress with a prudent combination of public deference and wise voting.

GILBERT L. CAMPBELL.

Evanston, Ill.

"EAST IS EAST AND WEST IS WEST"

TO THE EDITOR:

An interesting difference between the spirit of East and West, each at its best, came out during the visit of Mrs. Florence Kelley to the Child Welfare Exhibit in Kansas City. The United States Supreme Court was considering the constitutionality of the Oregon law establishing the initiative, and news was anxiously awaited. Over and over again the question came up in conversations between Mrs. Kelley and various citizens of the West.

Mrs. Kelley's attitude was about as follows: "We hope that the Supreme Court may sustain the law. But we have had bitter experiences with courts, and we are some-

what afraid of this decision." It was the attitude of the seasoned reformer, rather weary of the struggle.

But man after man of the westerners took quite spontaneously a radically different point of view. "There is no chance of the Supreme Court deciding wrong," they said. "But should not we like to see them do it? Shouldn't we like the excuse to get the recall into the federal courts also, make it an election issue?"

This gaily belligerent attitude, this "spoiling for a fight," was not confined to an ignorant few. It was the attitude of Frank Walsh, widely spoken of as candidate for next governor in Missouri, of Dante Barton, editorial writer in the largest and best known paper in Missouri, of many other men actively engaged in political reconstruction in the West.

"Old men for counsel, young men for war,"—the saying holds good in a way of the East and the West. The West turns to the East for experience and advice, for the knowledge of social experts obtained through long effort. But once in a while we feel like saying to the East: "What are you worrying about, anyway? There's a whole big bunch of us out here into whose souls the mere idea of defeat has not yet entered. Cheer up, and give us a chance to fight!"

A little crude, perhaps, but rather full of hope, isn't it, for the nation?

ANNA LOUISE STRONG,

[Director Kansas City Child Welfare Exhibit.]
Seattle.

VICE AND WAGES

TO THE EDITOR:

The chief statistician of the Census Bureau in a recent letter¹ gives some figures on women's work that many readers will be either glad to be reminded of or to learn of for the first time. These figures have value as far as they go, but the statistician has read into them a positiveness and a certainty from which many, if not all social workers, will dissent. From the figures for the number of saleswomen reported as living at home, the number living with fathers or relatives, the number living in families having one other breadwinner, two other breadwinners, or no other breadwinner, the statistician concludes that about 82 per cent of the saleswomen investigated were not entirely dependent upon their own earnings.

The assumption necessary to such a conclusion is that the other breadwinner or breadwinners earn enough to support the non-breadwinners in the family, and in part the girl worker, and that they do not squander any of their earnings. Is that always the case? Is it not true that some girls living at home and with their fathers have to help support others besides themselves, and that girls living at home with one or even two other breadwinners may have to support oth-

¹See THE SURVEY, Nov. 11, 1911.

ers in addition to themselves? In view of the possibilities of the case and of the investigations already made, the writer ventures to suggest that simple inquiries as to whether girls live at home, or at home with another breadwinner or breadwinners, do not afford sufficient basis for deduction as to how many women workers are dependent on their own wages.

RAYMOND V. PHELAN.

[Department of Economics,
University of Minnesota.]

WHAT IS A HEALTHY TAX?

TO THE EDITOR:

The chairman of a Massachusetts tax commission has recently said: "The study of the commission revealed there was no science of taxation save that of its evasion".

Recommendations of tax commissions and tax assessors are based upon the problem of raising revenue. Where can they find accurate data as to the results of taxation? They perceive the economic folly of taxing productive forces into despondency, but what means are provided them that they may determine what is a healthy tax? What social agency is at work classifying civic assessments and expenses or attempting to find the relation of increasing rents, pauperism, crime, and mortality? Certainly a depressing tax rate is as susceptible of scientific treatment as the hook-worm. Is the problem as difficult as it is tedious, and who is at work upon it?

ROBERT C. SANGER.

Washington, D. C.

ITALIAN IMMIGRANT AGRICULTURISTS

TO THE EDITOR:

In connection with the recent discussion of the occupation of isolated farms by the newer immigrants, allow me to give you an incident of the beneficial results to the native farmer.

In October, 1910, I had occasion to visit the Italian agricultural colonies near Vineland, N. J., with a member of the Italian Senate. We found several hundreds of small farms in a high state of cultivation, and their owners peaceable, contented, and mutually helpful. I remember particularly one man who had come to America only two or three years before, with just enough money to pass him through Ellis Island, and he now possessed an equity of at least \$2500 in a highly productive vineyard of his own planting. This colony has received no artificial stimulus whatsoever. So far as I was able to ascertain, it is not even well known to the Italians of New York city.

But, while all this is gratifying in itself, the remarkable fact is that up to this alien invasion the land to the east of Vineland was practically unsalable, because the native farmer had abandoned all hope of making a living thereon. Seeing what the Italians have accomplished, the old farmers have taken hold, are copying their methods, and the en-

ture section is rapidly becoming prosperous.

In spite of the fears of Joseph Lee and others, there is no likelihood that the native farmer will be crowded out of existence; but he must learn, as indeed the more enterprising Yankee farmer in the prairie states must likewise learn, that intensive cultivation of the soil on a small acreage is more successful than the robbing of the soil by wholesale methods.

MORRIS LOEB.

New York.

NEW YORK FACTORY COMMISSION

The report presented by George M. Price, director of sanitary investigation of the New York Factory Investigating Commission, gives a good idea of the ground covered by the commission in its staff investigations during the past three months.

With a meagre \$3,500 appropriated to it by the state legislature, the commission has carried through a special investigation, under the direction of H. F. J. Porter, of fire conditions in New York city, and has kept in the field for the last two months eight investigators, three women and five men, who have made a rapid study of about two thousand work-places employing 51,468 people engaged in twenty-three industries in the six cities which come within its scope. How small the field covered, how necessarily "preliminary" the work has been, can be judged from the fact that there are in New York state 248 industries employing 1,203,241 operators in 44,935 establishments, using about 200,000 shops. Furthermore, an investigation of the relation of the worker to the factory must, in Dr. Price's opinion, to be complete, cover not only the general character of the work-place but the sex, age, and other characteristics of the worker himself; posture, temperature, speeding, hours, wages, and other conditions of his work, and the character of the materials he works over. Few of these latter points could be more than touched upon by the commission's small staff in its general work of inspection.

A special study of chemicals in industry was made by one inspector, an expert chemist, in co-operation with Inspector Vogt of the state factory department. The two medical inspectors of the commission have also, in conjunction with other physicians who have volunteered their services, made a physical examination of eight hundred journeymen bakers and one hundred furriers.

The information gathered by the inspectors has been further supplemented by testimony at public hearings and by reports by specialists on various aspects of industry. The commission has had the results of investigations carried out under the direction of Pauline Goldmark of the Bureau of Social Research. These include three hundred and twenty-five establishments covering fifteen industries in twenty blocks of the middle West Side streets of New York city. Josephine Pfeiffer, of the Women's Welfare Department of the Civic

Federation, made for the commission a sanitary survey of one block in the lower East Side. A report on occupational diseases and industrial poisons in the state was made by John B. Andrews of the American Association for Labor Legislation, and supplemented by a special study of sixty cases of lead poisoning by Edward E. Pratt, of the New York School of Philanthropy. Owen R. Lovejoy, of the National Child Labor Committee, also handed in a report on certain phases of child labor in New York not covered in the general investigation.

With these special studies to supplement the general information gathered by the inspectors, Dr. Price believes that, brief as was the time and limited as was its scope, the investigation "has already demonstrated a number of very important evils." These evils can be summed up in one general evil, the total neglect of the human factor in industry, where all other factors have reached a high degree of perfection. The general policy of neglect is illustrated by the fact that, since there is no license nor registration of factories, it is a matter of chance when the state labor department even knows of a factory's existence, and that, in general, factories throughout the state show a lack of state supervision, legislation, and inspection. Of specific evils, Dr. Price finds that 35 per cent of the factories investigated are located in tenements, converted tenements, or dwellings; 45 per cent in loft buildings not built for this purpose and therefore not properly equipped for fire protection, ventilation, and light, only 20 per cent being in factories built for the purpose. In respect to light he finds the majority defective, 40 per cent of these depending on artificial light alone. He finds little or no attention to ventilation in three-quarters of the factories visited, even where dust and dangerous gases exist. Twenty-seven per cent of the shops were dirty and 39 per cent of the toilets were filthy. Fifty-two per cent of the toilets had no outer ventilation; other shops had inadequate or inconveniently located toilets; others, again, insufficient light or inadequate separation of men and women. Only 2 per cent of the factories had lunch rooms, and only 37 per cent had adequate washing facilities. In a large number of factories dust, gas fumes, poisons, or infective materials were used in the work, and for this and other reasons the health and vitality of the average factory operative was observed to be low—a general observation that was borne out by the special medical inspection of bakers and furriers.

On the basis of material already gathered Dr. Price feels that it is safe to recommend as first steps legislation for compulsory registration of all industrial establishments, for the licensing of food factories—which incidentally were found by the investigators to be dirtier than any others—and for extending the time of the commission, which has, in his opinion, only begun its work. Intensive work for the future should, in Dr. Price's opinion,

be spent in setting standards for general legislation, based perhaps on a study of model factories, and for legislation in regard to home work, child labor, ventilation, lighting, physical conditions of employes, and industrial poisons and occupational diseases.

As the Factory Investigating Commission was created as the result of the public interest manifested after the Triangle Factory fire, some specific recommendations on fire protection are looked for by those who have been following its sessions. Its scope was enlarged to include practically all phases of factory conditions—a field which obviously could not be covered intensively or adequately in the fall months during which the commission has been at work. The continuance of the commission for another year would enable it to measure up to those standards of inquiry which have been set heretofore by the Illinois Industrial Diseases Commission and the New York Workmen's Compensation Commission.

But, in the opinion of social workers who have been following its sessions, the public can rightfully expect definite recommendations along the line of factory fire protection. For example, Mr. Porter has brought up at various hearings the proposal that all factory buildings should be cut in two by fire-walls extending from the ground to the roof, thus enabling occupants to escape through the wall on the same floor level. As bearing on the practicability of this suggestion, quotations from two letters may be published. The first is from P. Tecumseh Sherman, former commissioner of labor of New York, who, in writing to Mr. Porter of his bi-sectional plan, agrees that the existing fire-escapes on factory buildings such as prevail in New York city are more often causes of danger than of safety. He adds:

"I think that you have clearly pointed out the one and only way to arrive at safety in factory buildings; and that it is a great pity so much time and expense is wasted in seeking other and inefficient results."

John Williams, the present commissioner of labor, writes as follows:

"I wish most heartily to commend your suggestion of a 'fire wall' completely dividing the factory building, such wall to have openings fitted with automatic 'fire doors.' This would be ideal, provided always that both parts of such building be equipped with necessary exits."

JOTTINGS

MEN AND RELIGION SEMINAR

When the Men and Religion Forward Movement shall have finished its eight-day campaign in Buffalo, N. Y., this week, a social study of the city will be begun in the form of a seminar. Meetings will be held one evening each week through February, March,

and April, under the direction of the Rev. S. V. V. Holmes and Frederic Almy of the Social Service Committee of the Men and Religion Forward Movement. Groups of volunteer workers will make personal investigations and report for discussion. Study will be directed to Buffalo community problems, such as housing, health, industrial conditions, wages and hours of labor, the immigrant, child-labor, education, recreation, municipal government, juvenile delinquency, adult delinquency, drunkenness, public and private charities, etc.

THE CHURCH IN SOCIAL SERVICE

One session of the meetings of the Religious Education Association, which will convene in St. Louis, March 12-14, 1912, will be devoted to the topic: "What is the nature and scope of the leadership of the church in social service?" This will be discussed from the points of view of workingmen, social workers, business men, politicians, and clergymen. The purposes of this association are "to inspire the educational forces of our country with the religious ideal; to inspire the religious forces of our country with the educational ideal; and to keep before the public mind the ideal of religious education, and the sense of its need and value."

THIRD N. Y. CITY CONFERENCE

Six general subjects will be discussed at the Third New York City Conference of Charities and Correction, to be held May 7-9, 1912: municipal needs, families, the sick, children, delinquency, and public institutions. The respective chairmen of the committees in charge are Morris D. Waldman, Mrs. William Einstein, Mary C. Dunphy, George B. Robinson, H. Clay Preston, and Franklin B. Kirkbride.

CITY CLUB FOR BALTIMORE

With a guarantee membership of 300, and committees on constitution and by-laws and nominations at work, the new City Club has been incorporated in Baltimore, Md. The club is occupying a large room in the Calvert Building, facing the court house, where luncheon is served daily. Larger quarters and an early membership of 1,000 are among the plans for the future.

RUSSIAN SONGS AND SLAVIC DANCES

On Saturday evening, January 27, at 8.15, and Sunday afternoon, January 28, at 3.30, a program of Russian music and Slavic dances will be given at Henry Street Settlement, 301 Henry street, New York. The Dramatic Club of the settlement has been rehearsing these dances for several months. This program is the second part in the Russian cycle being given by the settlement, the first having been a recital on Heroines of the Russian Revolution, by Mrs. Leroy Scott. The Shepherd, an incident in the Russian revolutionary movement, will be presented by Olive D'Argan February 25 and March 3, at Clinton Hall, 151 Clinton street.

Farm Homes for Children of all Ages among intelligent, thrifty, well educated, kindly farm folk

They will care for any city children, waifs or others, placed with them. Such children will get country life, be taught to work in the home and on the land, will attend the country school and get just the kind of bringing up that develops efficiency and good citizenship. There is also a great demand in the country for both skilled and unskilled men and women help.

Any society, institution or other form of charity interested in getting such children or adults out onto the land should make their wants known through a small advertisement in the Farmers' Exchange column of the Orange Judd Weeklies.

If you want to reach the American Northwest, use Orange Judd Northwest Farmstead of Minneapolis, price 4c per word per week. For the central west and southwest, use Orange Judd Farmer of Chicago, price 5c per word per week; for the middle and southern states, American Agriculturist of New York, price 6c per word per week; for the east, New England Homestead of Springfield, Mass., price 5c per word per week.

Send cash with order. A small ad in few words will be as effective as a larger one. These Weeklies collectively reach upward of 500,000 of the best rural families. Charities that have used one or more of these papers for the above purpose testify to the efficiency and inexpensiveness of this method. Address all orders, remittance, etc., to Orange Judd Company, Publishers, Ashland Building, New York City.

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ADVERTISING RATES ARE: "Want advertisements," under the various headings, "Situations Wanted," "Help Wanted," etc., five cents for each word or initial, including the address, for each insertion. The first word of each advertisement is set in capital letters without additional charge. Other words may be set in capitals, if desired, at double rates. Replies will be forwarded by us to the advertiser.

HELP WANTED

WANTED: General Secretary of the United Charities of Little Rock; must have training in School of Philanthropy or equivalent in University; salary \$125 or \$150 a month, depending on experience and equipment of applicant. Write, giving experience and reference, to Rabbi Louis Witt, Little Rock, Ark.

VISITING NURSES WANTED

THE TUBERCULOSIS COMMITTEE of the State Charities Aid Association, Room 603, 105 East 22nd Street, New York City, has openings for several visiting nurses who can furnish first class references as to their ability. Nurses with some experience in social work or with special training in the treatment of tuberculosis are especially desired.

MATRON

WANTED—Matron for a Protestant Home for Children in Boston; must be more than thirty-five years of age, and must have had experience in a Child-Saving Institution. Address: F. H. Knight, 202 West Newton St., Boston.

SITUATIONS WANTED

A WOMAN of experience in children's institutions wishes a position as matron or housekeeper. Excellent references. Address, Matron, SURVEY.

YOUNG MAN 22, three year's experience in a Settlement and Orphanage, is now open for a position. Jewish preferred. Address, Jewish, c/o THE SURVEY.

WANTED, by an Englishwoman experienced in church and some lines of social work, a position, preferably social work, where she can have her children of school age with her. Address P., care Mrs. L. F. Ford, 105 East 22nd St., New York.

WANTED, by a social worker with intimate knowledge of factory conditions, position in or near New York. Experienced in visiting and teaching. Address Factory, SURVEY.

WANTED—Position in social work by young man of 26 where past experience as nurse (5 years) and 3 years study in Medical College (1 year to be completed later) may be of service in connection with general acquaintanceship with charity organization work. Address replies to "M.," Room 421, 105 East 22nd St., New York.

FOR RENT

ROOMS—In a settlement neighborhood, steam heat, running water, moderate rents. Ladies only. References. 221 E. 104th street.

VOLUME XXVII, No. 18

WEEK OF FEBRUARY 3 1912

THE

SURVEY

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY

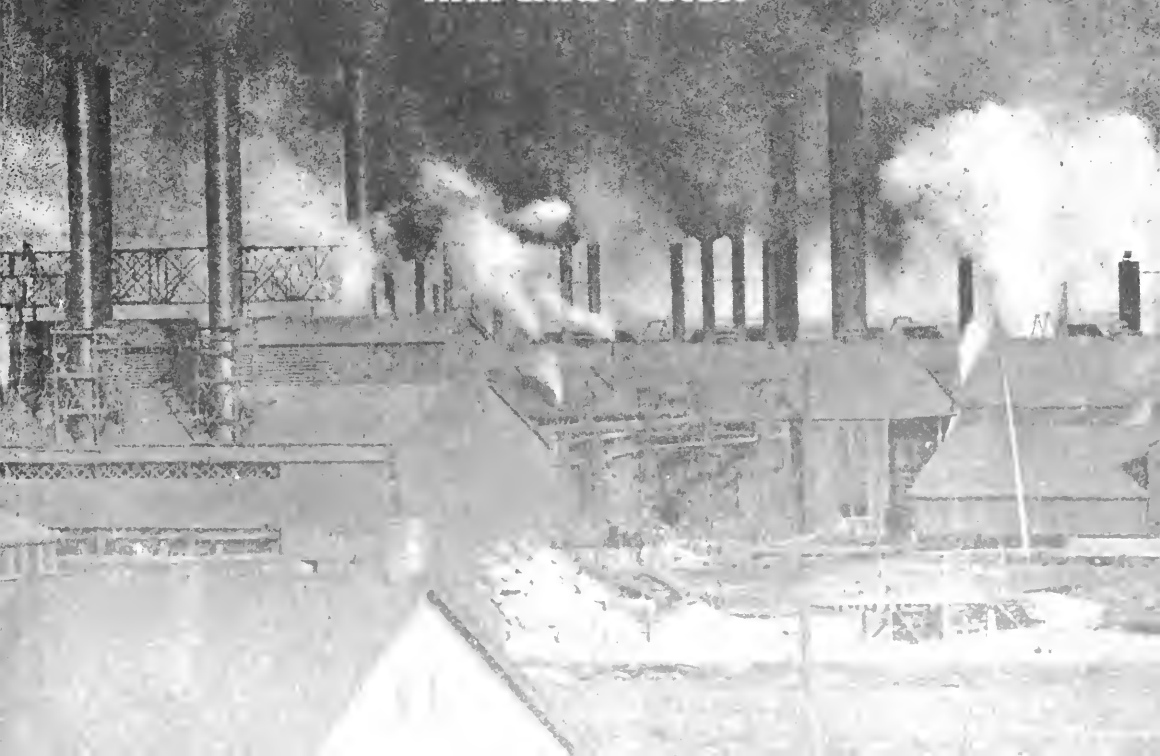
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UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO

THE MEN WHO MAKE STEEL

by John A. Fitch

Fifth article: Pueblo





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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

FEDERAL COMMISSION ON INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

1629

What the social workers and economists have proposed is an authoritative national inquiry into the means by which industrial conflicts may be prevented by being made unnecessary; and into the means by which, when not prevented, they may be settled and settled right. It is not a policy of peace at any price which is suggested, desirable as industrial peace and stability are from the standpoint of the public comfort and security. There are occasions, doubtless, when employers are quite justified in not yielding to demands of their employes, because the demands are unjust or unreasonable; as there are other occasions when even the certainty of failure should not deter workingmen from making a stand for some vital principle. Most disputes are not of this extreme kind. The situations which lead to strikes are usually complicated, involving many points of controversy, some of which may be vital to one side and others vital to the other. In this very fact lies nearly always the possibility of compromise and adjustment. Seldom indeed is there no basis for bargaining and mutually advantageous understanding, provided there is time, and some mechanism satisfactory to both sides, for carrying on negotiations and reaching an understanding.

The extraordinary success which has marked the operation of the Erdman act for preventing and adjusting strikes on the interstate railways, during the five or six years since it has come into actual use, shows what can be done by intelligent mediation when both sides have strong and responsible organizations and a mechanism exists in which both sides have confidence. Unfortunately the scope of this act is confined to those who are engaged in the operating departments of interstate railways. As an illustration of the possibilities in the direction of voluntary mediation it is most suggestive, although naturally many things must be taken into account in applying its lessons to other industries in which either employers or employes are less effectively organized, or in which the public interest is less obvious and direct than in the railway service.

Economists and social workers, we repeat, are not concerned solely to maintain peace. That is much, but it is not everything. They believe in peace in so far as it contributes to prosperity for all classes and to justice for all. If prosperity becomes too one-sided and justice is forgotten, then peace may prove to be of value only to those on the favored side, to those who are profiting by injustice; and the public interest may demand warfare rather than peace. That can be so, however, only in case there is no method except that of open warfare for securing justice. There should be some other method. Warfare, even between nations, is a very crude and imperfect method of maintaining rights and resisting oppression, although it may remain a necessary last resort until the nations have provided a substitute. As between capital and labor, open conflict, in the form of strikes and lockouts, boycotts, blacklists, and closed shops by or against the unions, is also a crude and imperfect means of securing justice and

protecting hard-won rights. Often these fail and strength triumphs over reason and justice. Nevertheless industrial warfare must be expected to break out here and there, however it may be hedged about and controlled, until other ways are devised and brought into general use for accomplishing what is recognized as the legitimate purpose of strikes and lockouts. Only let it not be forgotten that the main thing is not to prohibit strikes, which could not be done so long as there is a need for them, but to prevent the necessity for them. Not a mere superficial appearance of order is the goal, but peace based upon the sure foundation of fair dealing, a decent standard of living for the families of workingmen, and a normal relation between profits and wages, between incomes and the cost of living, between the interests of producers and those of consumers, between private interests and public interests.

Why a commission? Why not have the inquiry made by some existing agency, public or private? There is a reason which appears convincing not only to the social workers and economists who have proposed the plan, but also to all of those, as far as we can learn, who, like the Secretary of Commerce and Labor and the Commissioner of Labor in the federal government and the director of the Russell Sage Foundation, would naturally be regarded as conspicuously the ones to undertake it, if any existing agency could do so. That reason lies in the magnitude and delicacy of the inquiry, in its fundamental character, in its demand for broad statesmanship, for a sympathetic understanding of conflicting points of view, for vision and imagination, and at the same time for a firm grasp of realities and an appreciation of what is and what is not practical. Just because Secretary Nagel and Commissioner Neill have these qualities, they recognize that the proposed inquiry requires the cooperation of men of affairs and of understanding outside official life, of men who are for the time being free from pressing routine duties and whose findings would command confidence and respect. As a United States senator has expressed it, what we need is that the nation should summon its wisest, ablest, and best informed men to examine into the matter and to discover how effectively to safeguard the public interest and to secure to both parties in these industrial conflicts, in the fullest measure, their real interests, their full rights, and the redress of their grievances, without disrupting industry or resorting to violence.

It is earnestly to be hoped, and, we believe, confidently to be expected, that when this matter comes definitely before Congress it will be considered on a non-partisan and patriotic basis. There is no reason why Republican or Democrat, Progressive or Conservative, should not travel together in the middle of the road towards that public knowledge and understanding of the facts which is all that the commission would be expected to accomplish. Publicity of an authoritative and enlightening kind, as an aid in interpreting the public duty and responsibility, is the end in view, and the means proposed are such as have been tried with conspicuous success, notably in the case of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission of which Judge Gray was chairman.

THE COMMON WELFARE

BIRMINGHAM ON THE REBOUND

The entire SURVEY is a blankety blank, blank humbug. If one of those men dares to show his head in this town, we'll have him strung up. All a pack of lies! A pack of blankety blank, blank lies!

The Birmingham number of THE SURVEY has called forth no little comment, favorable and adverse, in the South, and especially in Birmingham. Much of the adverse comment is in the form of personal attacks upon the contributors of articles, as is seen in the above remarks of J. C. Maben, president of the Sloss-Sheffield Steel and Iron Company, Birmingham, as quoted in the Birmingham *Age-Herald*. Of similar sort is a statement by Walter Moore of the Red Star Company:

The articles on this district were written principally by men employed to get up colored stuff, and who are not interested in whom they blacken. Why must the Birmingham district be entered in the night, as it were, and lambasted by men whose minds never light upon anything concerned with the good, the beautiful, and the true?

Aside from sweeping denials of the statements made in THE SURVEY, coupled with personal counter charges, Colonel Maben appears in type with one specific criticism. He takes issue with representations of unsanitary conditions in the mining camps of the district, and observes:

Why, who is there in his right senses will deny that hogs are the natural and logical scavengers of a mining camp? Sanitary conditions in a mining camp! Pooh! I'd rather have twelve hogs than fifty men cleaning up my camps!

By reason of his past and present services to Birmingham, consideration of a different sort is due the criticism of Judge A. O. Lane, one of the three city commissioners. To quote:

Many of the statements are untrue, others woefully exaggerated, and still others shamefully misleading. . . . Of course I do not claim that this city is free from vice or crime or squalor or poverty. There never

has been a city free from these, and there never will be; but I protest against the false impression that Birmingham, with her splendid record of achievements, is so much worse than her sister cities in these respects.

Turning from this to what he calls "the other side of the picture," Judge Lane applauds the city's manly men, admirable women, beautiful homes, and neat cottages, details the city's monthly contributions to philanthropic work and its libraries, and describes the public schools and the extension of paving and sewerage, all with the inference that THE SURVEY did not lay stress on these matters. But it did—discriminatingly. Judge Lane himself is one of the city's big assets. THE SURVEY pointed that out, also; and will continue to point it out even though the commissioner very evidently based his sweeping criticism of our Birmingham issue on the reading of one article and a glance at the pictures.

It is unnecessary for THE SURVEY to enter a rejoinder to these charges, for that has been done spontaneously by Birmingham people, far better than THE SURVEY could do it itself. In physics the principle is laid down that a sphere thrown against a smooth surface will rebound at the same angle. In early January THE SURVEY and the city of Birmingham came in direct contact for the common welfare. THE SURVEY approached in the spirit of cooperation, and expected a local response at an equal angle. That expectation, the adverse criticisms notwithstanding, has been amply fulfilled, for the great bulk of the public discussion has been at the angle of cooperation. The charges made against THE SURVEY have been taken up with spirit. Beyond assailing the writers of the articles, the unfavorable criticism will be seen to have followed three not unfamiliar channels: charges of inaccuracy of statement; over-emphasis upon the bad in the city with under-emphasis upon the good; and absence of constructive suggestion for improving conditions.

The first point is that of accuracy; and with field work limited largely to a mat-

ter of weeks, and with groups of intelligent Birmingham people intimately acquainted with each phase of social and civic conditions carefully reading the articles, it is scarcely probable that local criticism will not put its finger on minor flaws in the various articles. Yet it is scarcely human nature for *THE SURVEY* not to quote a piquant interview which Ethel Arnes of the *Birmingham Age-Herald*, herself a contributor to the issue, had with Judge Lane. It is a fragment from a series of special articles which Miss Arnes has written, using the Birmingham Survey as text. They have been filled with gay banter, yet give free play to a rare loyalty to the city and a serious purposefulness as to its future.

"Judge," said I, "If you will name one single error that *THE SURVEY* has made I will be glad to know it."

Said the judge: "It is honeycombed with errors!"

"Name just one, Judge."

"They are too numerous to mention!" said he.

"But, instead of all these generalities, please give me just one specific instance of a false or exaggerated statement—one that I can quote in the papers, if the papers will print it."

"It's just chock full," said Judge Lane, "from cover to cover."

"Is that your view of my own article in the magazine, Judge?"

"No, it is not," he was emphatic. "I said 'in the aggregate' in the paper. I didn't mean yours."

"Whose—which of us?"

"Honeycombed with errors," replied my good friend, "just say I said that."

AS TO FACING THE FACTS

On the second point, the disproportion between the mention of the good and bad conditions in the city, the Rev. Dr. George Eaves, pastor of the First Congregational Church, takes up the cudgels. Says Dr. Eaves:

When a man of Judge A. O. Lane's position and intelligence takes up a crusade he has already earned the courtesy of special consideration. His past and present services to this community deserve all the honor that we hold toward him.

Therefore I greatly regret these gentlemen's attitude of antagonism toward *THE SURVEY* writers, based as it is on confessedly incomplete study of the magazine in question. Judge Lane says that "incalculable damage" is done our city by these articles.

But that reminds me of the complaint of those who hid the fact of the plague in San Francisco. What could damage San Francisco more than to be advertised to the world as a plague spot? Hence what more plain than that those who spoke of it were traitors and damage makers? But it was found that the best advertisement for San Francisco was the fact that it was killing the rats and eliminating the plague. So long as the plague was hushed up and hidden it was growing, spreading, menacing. So soon as it was met in the open it was conquered.

It isn't wrong and outrageous to have shackled prisoners on our streets; but it is grossly unfair to put a photograph of them in a philanthropic magazine! I could get a picture of an outhouse, of the sort not mentioned in polite society, taken within a few feet of one of our main car routes. The wretched thing is knocked into holes, but is apparently still in use. Now it isn't wrong for us to have that decoration for our visitors to see, but no friend of Birmingham must speak about it! When such pictures appear in *THE SURVEY*, we pray the Lord to save us from friends like these! Surely Judge Lane is doing less than justice to his own intelligence as well as that of the city! We had better pray, "Lord, save us from reactionism and blind conservatism!"

Now if my good friends will read the magazine more carefully they will find that the spirit they credit or debit to it is simply not there. The one motive of those writers was to get at and tell the truth. If they have in any respect failed, at least it was not because they were "muckraking" or seeking sensational items. The purpose of this truth-seeking was not at all to damage us, but to help us, to sting and rouse us. Beyond this local service *THE SURVEY* aims to inspire other cities, leading them along the new line of city development which America happily is treading.

But Judge Lane enumerates several things to prove that we are far more progressive than *THE SURVEY* credits us with being. Allow me to point out that *THE SURVEY* enumerates many more proofs of our progressiveness than the commissioner! He says that the Mercy Home gets aid from the city of \$75 a month. *THE SURVEY* says it gets \$250 a month from the city and county. He does not mention the fact that is prominent in *THE SURVEY*, that the Industrial School for Girls at Woodlawn gets \$4,000 a year from the state. He puts the appropriation of the city for the Orphan's Home at \$50. *THE SURVEY* adds the \$180 from the county. Practically all of the items Judge Lane mentions as proof of our grappling with ignorance, disease, depravity, are mentioned in appreciative terms by *THE SURVEY*, though no one in possession of the whole principle of modern energies pretends that we have yet found the most effective or economical way to do the grappling.

George B. Ward, former mayor of Birmingham, came out spiritedly in an earlier interview provoked by Walter Moore's charges. He said of the Birmingham number:

As a matter of fact, far the greater portion of it is not criticism, but a bald statement of facts. Considered as a whole the articles were complimentary, for through them all the greatness of this district stands out strong.

Our good old scout Walter should not have the city be like that long-legged, long-necked, ungainly bird which sticks its head in the sand and imagines all the world is standing by in admiration.

BUILDING FOR BIRMINGHAM

Moreover, on the third point, Mr. Ward offers testimony that the constructive suggestions in the articles did not escape him while he read, for he says:

It is giving this community for nothing what our constituted authorities would have had to pay experts thousands of dollars to furnish if they were engaged to come here solely to study and report a plan for the city's betterment.

This report should be given careful study and the determination made that ten years hence the list of assets will have lengthened and the list of debits dwindled away.

To my thinking these articles are worth one-hundred fold more to the community than all the customary, courteous, perfunctory boosting generalities we have seen published in the past twenty years.

On this point of constructive suggestions, it hardly seems necessary, in the light of such statements, for THE SURVEY to call attention to Mr. Taylor's strong appeal for a city plan, Mr. Knowles's definitely expressed program for eliminating malaria and for other sanitary reforms, Mr. McGrath's "next steps" in conserving health in the city, Mr. McKelway's definite argument for better child labor legislation, compulsory education, and more children's institutions, Mr. Harrison's appeal for a remodeling of the whole system of handling criminals with a view to reforming law-breakers instead of exploiting them, etc.

The three Birmingham daily papers have put the matter fairly. An editorial in the *Ledger* may be quoted in part:

Excoriations of THE SURVEY's article on the Birmingham district are dangerous. They call for proof, and the proof is lacking. THE SURVEY is not a muckraker, stirring up sensations to make money. It is not a money-making paper. On the contrary, there is a yearly deficit that is made up by the big-brained publicists and philanthropists who support it. It is in the business of telling the American people what are the conditions where its toilers live and work. Men of high character, broad views, and special fitness make exhaustive personal investigations before they write. What they write about is based on knowledge.

THE SURVEY tells the truth about the Birmingham district. When conditions are good, it is so stated; when they are bad, it is so stated. Photographs of mill children, of mining camp homes, and of outhouses are given. They are bald facts, not muckraking.

The SURVEY article is one to profit by; not scold back at.

MASSACHUSETTS AND THE MINIMUM WAGE

After six months' work the minimum wage commission appointed by the Massachusetts Legislature to investigate wages and living conditions of women wage-earners has rendered its report. The commission comes out for legislation looking to the establishment of a minimum wage in the industries in which women are employed. While it did not cover the woolen mills in its major inquiries, its findings will be read with special interest in the light of the Lawrence strike. The recommendations are in part based on existing legislation in Great Britain, Australia, and New Zealand. They are embodied in a bill and are summarized in the report as follows:

The administration of the plan proposed by this commission is vested in a permanent commission of three members, to be known as the minimum wage commission, who are to be paid only for the time actually spent in the service of the commonwealth. Were there a general industrial commission established, the duties provided for this new commission might perhaps properly devolve upon the general board.

It is to be the duty of the commission to inquire into the wages paid to the female employes in any occupation in the commonwealth, if the commission has reason to believe that the wages paid to a substantial number of such employes are inadequate to supply the necessary cost of living and to maintain the worker in health. This investigation may, at the request of the commission,

be conducted by the bureau of statistics. The commission is also to have authority to subpoena witnesses, administer oaths and take testimony, and to examine such portions of the books and records of employers as relate to the wages paid to women and minors.

If after such investigation the commission is of the opinion that in any employment the wages paid to a substantial number of female employes are inadequate to supply the necessary cost of living and to maintain the worker in health, the commission shall establish a wage board and transmit to it the information it has acquired.

This wage board is essentially a board of inquiry and arbitration. It is to be composed of at least six representatives of employers and the same number of representatives of employes. It is also to include a number of disinterested members to represent the public, but the number of the representatives of the public shall not exceed one-half of the number of representatives of either of the other parties.

If two-thirds of the members of such a board agree upon a wage determination, and in such an agreement some of each party will necessarily be represented, the determination is reported to the commission. The wages may be differentiated for various branches of the occupation, and wages may also be recommended for learners and apprentices and for minors.

The commission may then review the recommendation, may approve or nullify any or all of the wages recommended, or may recommit the subject to the same wage board or to a new wage board; but in so far as it concurs in the wages recommended, after public notice of its intention and a public hearing thereon, it may issue an order declaring such wages to be the legal minimum wages for that occupation. After sixty days from the issuing of the order it shall be a misdemeanor for any employer in the occupation in question to employ a woman or a minor for less than the rate of wages specified in the order.

In case a wage board shall make a recommendation of a wage determination in which a majority but less than two-thirds of the members concur, the commission in its discretion may report such recommendation and the pertinent facts relating thereto to the General Court.

Legislation along these lines, the commission believes, would not, as its critics contend, injure industry. On the other hand, the commission holds that:

It would bring employers to a realization of their public responsibilities and would result in the best adjustment of the interests of the employment and of the women employes.

It would furnish to the women employes a means of obtaining the best minimum wages that are consistent with the ongoing

of the industry without recourse to strikes or industrial disturbances. It would be the best means of ensuring industrial peace so far as this class of employes is concerned.

It would tend to prevent exploitation of helpless women, and so far as they are concerned to do away with sweating in our industries.

It would diminish the parasitic character of some industries and lessen the burden now resting on other employments.

It would enable the employers in any occupation to prevent the undercutting of wages by less humane and considerate competitors.

It would stimulate employers to develop the capacity and efficiency of the less competent workers in order that the wages might not be incommensurate with the services rendered.

It would accordingly tend to induce employers to keep together their trained workers, and to avoid so far as possible seasonal fluctuations.

It would tend to heal the sense of grievance in employes, who would become in this manner better informed as to the exigencies of their trade, and it would enable them to interpret more intelligently the meaning of the payroll.

It would give the public assurance that these industrial abuses have an effective and available remedy.

FACTS GATHERED IN THE MASSACHUSETTS INQUIRY

The work of investigation on which the report is based was carried on principally by private funds, as the appropriation by the legislature was only \$2,000 and the expenditures double that amount. It was under the direction of Mary W. Dewson, superintendent of probation officers of the State Industrial School for Girls, who was given six months' leave of absence for this purpose. In these six months data concerning the wages of 6,900 persons engaged in the confectionery business, laundry work, and retail stores was obtained from wage scales. The commission specialized in these trade groups. These data were supplemented in 4,672 cases by information as to personal and domestic conditions. In the cotton industry, also, wages and some personal data in regard to 8,378 female operatives were secured. The full investigation covered 113 establishments in many different localities. Of the 15,278 female employes whose condition was investigated 13,845 were known to be over eighteen years of age.

The figures presented by the commission show that 41 per cent of the candy workers, 10.2 per cent of the saleswomen, 16.1 per cent of the laundry workers, and 23 per cent of the cotton workers earn less than \$5 a week and that respectively 65.2 per cent, 29.5 per cent, 40.7 per cent, and 37.6 per cent of them earn less than \$6 a week. In these four industries, therefore, the commission finds low wage rates for a very considerable body of persons.

In the candy industry, with its 41 per cent of adult women receiving less than \$5 a week, a comparison of wage rates in eleven establishments shows that the lowest wages are confined to four factories, in one of which, indeed, 53.3 per cent of the employes received less than \$5, while the other seven factories paid not one single employe of eighteen or over so low a wage. The difference between these factories in the kind and the grade of their product cannot account for the differences in the wage scale, as both the higher and the lower wage scale prevailed in the factories manufacturing the cheaper line of confectionery.

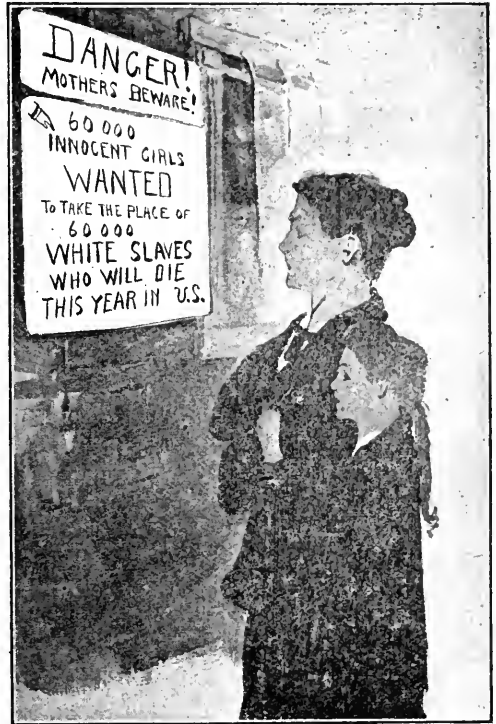
Similar differences between establishments were found in the other industries investigated, showing, in the view of the commission, that the business will bear a higher rate of compensation than that paid by some employers.

The members of the commission were Henry Lafavour, president of Simmons College, chairman; Mrs. Glendower Evans, appointed by the governor on the recommendation of the Women's Trade Union League; John Golden, president of the United Textile Workers of America; Richard Olney 2nd; and George W. Anderson, attorney for the commission, who wrote an opinion on the constitutionality of the proposed law which is incorporated in the report.

PAYING PRICE OF PUBLICITY

When it began to look as if the disclosures of a white slave trial in Hartford,¹ Conn., would not lead to constructive results, the Equal Franchise League called a big meeting and plastered the city with the poster here shown. The

¹See in Hartford As It Is in Heaven. P. 1673.



THIS STARTLED A TOWN.

league has been widely criticised for its action, but it has stood by its guns. Mrs. Thomas N. Hepburn, the president, declared from the platform that "women will no longer bear in silence the terrible sacrifice of the women in this white slave traffic." Mayor Smith presided. Dr. Robert N. Willson of Philadelphia gave an address illustrated by stereopticon pictures on the effects of venereal disease. Rheta Childe Dorr of New York, speaking from her own experience in department stores and other places where women work, showed the clear connection between tolerated prostitution and the daughters of the poor. She gave case after case of working girls on small wages, exposed to temptation, and falling. Dr. O. E. Janney of Baltimore, chairman of the National Vigilance Committee, made a statement of the case against the tolerated brothel—"just as much an institution as the post office or the custom house." "As long as it is there the boys will find it," he said. "If we hadn't tolerated houses where would white slavers find a market for girls?"

Asking why the laws against the social evil are not enforced he got right down to the nub of the matter: "On one side is a mere handful of reformers, and, on the other, business and indifference of the people, and politics. The officials won't enforce the law because there are not enough to ask for it."

The meeting ended with a series of resolutions proposed by Dr. Allen H. Williams. These recited the discovery of conditions in Hartford, the awakening of the people, the authorization of the mayor to appoint a vice commission for which the Board of Aldermen refused an appropriation, the opposition to discussion of the subject, and "attacks made upon our churches and organizations for social betterment and upon individuals active in reform," closing with the resolve

that we, here assembled in public meeting, do hereby make our protest against the cowardly action of certain of our public officers and, relying on the moral sense of the community, we ask Hartford, having set her hand to the plow, not to turn backward for fear or favor.

Mayor Smith declined to put the motion on the ground that it criticised public officials. Whereupon Mrs. Hepburn took the chair and the motion was carried with a vim. Fifteen hundred people were present at the meeting.

A CHICAGO CHURCH SCANS ITS SHADOW

The South Congregational Church of Chicago has recently made an interesting canvass of its neighborhood, a changing residential district on the South Side. A questionnaire used was only partially successful, most of the facts being gained from the evening visits of a student investigator. The names of the people visited were taken from the lists of registered voters, supplemented by those suggested by individuals.

The social isolation of these families was disclosed by the fact that many who had lived for years in the same apartments did not know those in the next house and had but a passing acquaintance with others in the same building. To the inquiry as to their social affiliations, 84 per cent replied that they had very few intimate social relationships and little or no "society." In the few instances

in which members of these families found such associations at church centers, the household group was divided by having formed affiliations with different people at different centers. So that these church associations divided the family and the neighborhood in their interests.

Little or no evidence was found of antipathy to the church. Only two persons in a group of 168 refused to see the investigator because he represented a church. With these exceptions the people seemed not only willing but anxious to discuss the condition of the church and many were even solicitous for its welfare and success. Of eighty-eight who admitted that they were non-attendants, ten expressed themselves as dissatisfied with their apathy. The weakness of denominational ties was shown by the fact that a large number not only did not come into contact with the church of the denomination with which they had been affiliated, but did not even know where any such church was located. And yet 70 per cent of them were once active in church work and had been reared in Christian homes, or by parents who took an active interest in the work of the church. That these people were not to any extent substituting "philanthropy" for religion was obvious, because 72 per cent of those who did not contribute to church support confessed that they had no altruistic interests to which they were contributing. Instead of any pronounced criticism of the churches for what they fail to do, a dense ignorance was found regarding what the churches are doing. Most of the critics complained of the lack of personal interest in individuals upon the part of church members. In suggesting what the churches should do, 62 per cent advised a change in teaching and preaching; 33 per cent more social and practical work. Among the reasons for non-attendance, sheer indifference and "business" were given in by far the most instances, the former largely predominating. And yet, when asked whether church services were attractive or repellent, 71 per cent admitted that they were attractive. Only one declared his dislike and the others were more or less

non-committal. The investigator's deepest impression was of the need and possibilities of personal work with individuals. His own conclusion is "that the church will succeed best which will come into the most personal relationship with the people of its neighborhood."

The church is not only encouraged by discovering the opportunity open to it, but has readjusted its services and plan of work so as to take advantage of this opening for the personal volunteer work of its aroused members.

SOME REFORMS URGED ON NEW YORK STATE

Some of the things needed now by New York state, if the commonwealth would make her care of defectives and delinquents more nearly what it ought to be, were embodied in resolutions adopted recently at a meeting of representatives from ten charitable and penal organizations.¹

The recommendations were regarded as so urgent that the body declared itself in favor of an issue of long term bonds for carrying them out if the necessary funds could not be provided from current revenue. A committee on legislation was appointed to present the resolutions to the governor and legislature and to further their consideration at Albany.

Here are the things which the state is thought to need immediately:

1. A state reformatory for male misdemeanants between the years of sixteen and twenty-one, where such males may be committed on indeterminate sentences and where they may be properly trained and educated.

2. State custodial institutions, one for males and one for females, for the treatment of feeble-minded persons convicted of crime, together with some form of preliminary institution to serve as a testing house, in order to determine if persons charged with crime are, or are not, mentally defective.

3. Institutions under the management and control of the state superseding the county penitentiaries, which now take persons from many counties, and thus are really doing state work.

¹Organizations represented were: State Board of Charities; State Conference of Charities and Correction; State Commission on Prisons; State Charities Aid Association; State Probation Commission; State Conference of Magistrates; State Fiscal Supervisor; Prison Association of New York; State Prison Department; National Committee on Prison Labor.

4. The necessary appropriations for the completion of the New York State Training School for Girls at Hudson, with a capacity for five hundred inmates, and for the erection of another girls' training school of similar capacity, to be located in the western section of the state.

5. A system providing for the coordinating of the work of parole officers and probation officers having the following particular objects in view:

- (1) The confinement, so far as practicable, of the work of individual parole officers connected with public penal and reformatory institutions to smaller areas.

- (2) The more frequent use of the same parole officers in supervising persons paroled from different institutions to the same localities.

- (3) The greater use of probation officers in supervising persons on parole.

- (4) The general oversight by the State Probation Commission of parole officers and others supervising paroled persons.

It was the sense of the meeting that the resolutions advocating the establishment of a reformatory for male misdemeanants between sixteen and twenty-one years of age and for the completion of the State Training School for Girls at Hudson should take preference over all other resolutions, in case it becomes necessary for a preference.

MAYOR GAYNOR ON POLICE PERSECUTION

For the second time in less than two years Mayor Gaynor has taken an aggressive stand against arrest without warrant. A case similar to that of the Duffy boy, the culmination in the series of events that led to Police Commissioner Bingham's resignation, called forth a letter of protest from the mayor to Commissioner Waldo. In this letter the mayor outlined what seemed to have been a clear case of police persecution of two young boys, William Eagan and Henry Grant. The former, a boy of eighteen with no previous criminal record, lived with his parents and acted as helper to his father, the janitor of seventeen buildings. Nevertheless he was arrested on August 24th without warrant, as a homeless vagrant, locked up over night, and discharged the next morning, as the officer could not prove the charge. He complained to the mayor and on August 28 the latter asked for a report

 EDITORIAL GRIST

 THE FLOOD PROBLEM

In Mr. Knowles's article upon floods, we present a resumé which brings out the national significance of the comprehensive investigations that have been carried on during the past four years by the Pittsburgh Flood Commission. The report, a volume of some 800 pages and 150 maps and diagrams, is now in press and has already been reviewed by the engineers of the War Department, for the use of the National Water Ways Commission and the Congressional Rivers and Harbors Committee.

The officers of the commission are: H. J. Heinz, president; Col. A. J. Logan, first vice-president; H. D. W. English, second vice-president; George H. Maxwell, executive director; W. M. Jacoby, executive secretary.

The Engineering Committee, under which the work has been carried on, is composed of the following men, who are members of the American Society of Civil Engineers: E. K. Morse, chairman; Emil Swensson; W. G. Wilkins; Geo. S. Davison; Julian Kennedy; Morris Knowles; George M. Lehman, engineer in charge and general secretary of the commission.

The nature of the investigations and results were communicated to President Taft by a Pittsburgh delegation November 28 last. Representative Burke of Pennsylvania shortly thereafter introduced a bill to restore a fund of \$2,700,000 to the Appalachian Forest Reserve Appropriation, which had lapsed because of inability to spend before the date required. The Pittsburgh Flood Commission now desires to secure an appropriation to build the necessary reservoirs in West Virginia and Maryland, where the state of Pennsylvania and interested counties therein would be unable to carry on such work. They see the solution of this vexatious problem in concerted action on the part of cities, counties, states and the federal government. The report is in another sense national in its bearings, for the rest of the country owes a debt of gratitude to the earnest citizenship of Pittsburgh which has given unstinted strength, means, and intelli-

from the police commissioner. The report alleged that the real reason for the boys' arrest was that a burglary had been committed in one of the houses of which his father was janitor, and in view of the fact that a bull dog in the plundered apartment did not give the alarm it was felt that the thief could not have been a stranger. It was further alleged that the boy had made a partial confession to the officer who arrested him, and had given further evidence of guilt in conversation with Henry Grant, another youth arrested on suspicion of complicity. Subsequent events proved that one Alexander Moore was guilty of the robbery and he was duly convicted and sent to Sing Sing. Neither of the boys was in any way implicated, and the confession alleged was, in the mayor's opinion, simply a fabrication of the detective to get out of the charge of false arrest. The arrest of the Eagan boy was obviously flagrant, as he had no previous criminal record. No less flagrant in the mayor's opinion, was that of the Grant boy, as he had served a term in a reformatory and was therefore peculiarly in a position to have his reputation blasted by the police. In these cases the mayor bided his time until all the facts were in his hands and his presentment of them is a remarkably keen and penetrating analysis of crooked police work and of that light attitude toward civil rights that goes with it. He says:

The police should be very careful about arresting boys who have served terms in a reformatory. To follow them up and arrest them on sight, on the slightest suspicion, or no suspicion, as is often the case, after they come out, and even follow them to the places where they are employed, and procure their discharge, is to leave no course open to them except to become habitual criminals. This boy Grant was employed as a chauffeur. I understand that he lost his place because of his arrest. I trust that this vindication of him will suffice to enable him to get other work to do.

The police must be made to understand that they cannot arrest and lock people up as they like, but that they must keep within the law. The only way to enforce the law is the way prescribed by law. That which cannot be done lawfully must not be done at all by the police or any other public official, from the president of the United States down. This is a government of laws and not of men.

gence (without recompense) to the study of a problem which besets hundreds of American river towns.

The author of the review, Mr. Knowles, was one of the original committee of seven and a member of the engineering committee which has had charge of the work. Mr. Knowles was for some time in charge of the design and construction of the new water supply system of Pittsburgh, is chairman of the committee of public health and hygiene of the Pittsburgh Civic Commission, a member of the municipal sanitation committee of the Chamber of Commerce, and is director of the department of sanitary engineering of the University of Pittsburgh. His interest in the flood problem has been of long standing, and he took an important part in the discussion before the Engineers' Society of Western Pennsylvania which led up to the comprehensive study which has now been made.

INSPECTORS TO SUPERVISE FACTORIES

PAUL KENNADAY

Secretary New York Association
for Labor Legislation

The Civil Service Commissioners of New York, after well nigh six months of deliberation during which an act "to take effect immediately" was languishing inoperative because of their inaction, have at last come to a novel conclusion. On the one side they were confronted by "some twenty organizations all more or less interested in factory conditions who urged the filling" of positions of supervising inspectors of factories only by persons selected by competitive examination—so runs the public explanation just made by the commissioners. As presented by these more or less interested persons, the arguments seem to have been weighty for appointment by means which might be expected to insure proved administrative ability, technical knowledge, practical experience, and most of all for selection by means which would leave no strings tied to the candidates. So much consideration was given to these arguments, indeed, that it now appears they nicely balanced and just offset the claims presented by twenty-two

different labor organizations that "in civil service tests, technical requirements would outweigh practical experience and prevent the appointment of any of these supervising inspectors from those most interested, the workers themselves."

And so the commissioners announce that half of these inspectors, to each of whom is to be given supervision over one of the eight industrial districts into which the state is to be divided, are now to go into the competitive class and one-half of them are to be exempt. Under this arrangement the state labor commissioner will be "accorded an opportunity to demonstrate by actual experience which method of appointment will best subserve the purpose of the act and best protect the interests of the great body of factory employes," and while this interesting demonstration is taking place these twenty-two representatives of different labor organizations and these twenty more or less interested organizations can stand by and see for themselves under which group the workers of the state have the more relief from conditions long crying to high heaven for relief. It will be a fascinating experiment for the watchers and perhaps for the commissioners who did not feel themselves competent to give examinations testing the practical experience as well as the broad knowledge called for in men upon whose knowledge and experience is dependent in a very real sense the welfare of the workers themselves.

Somewhere voiceless and out of sight, mere units to be found perhaps by the curious year after next in the statistical reports of the Department of Labor, will be those "workers themselves," who, while the commissioners have been deliberating and while their experiment is under way, have been pushed over the line to beggary by preventable industrial accidents and diseases unprevented. And the orphaned children and widowed mothers struggling on against harder odds than ever, left to the tender mercies of accident insurance companies and the long drawn out delays of the rich man's law, will furnish added material for other fascinating studies on how little it takes to support a family and how low must be her wage before the worker's daughter is driven to the streets.

THE FEDERAL WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION ACT

ERNST FREUND

Professor of Law, University of Chicago

When, in March of last year, the Court of Appeals of New York rendered its unfortunate decision declaring the workmen's compensation act of that state unconstitutional, similar legislation was pending or contemplated in a number of other states. The influence of the decision was such that, except in Washington, those in charge of the proposed measures did not dare to press the enactment of compulsory laws, but yielding to apprehension rather than to conviction substituted so-called elective or optional systems.

The election, however, was generally not made a free one, but, in order to induce employers and employes to come under the law its non-acceptance was visited with the penalty of an unfavorable position of the recalcitrant party with regard to the common law defenses in a suit for damages—a method of indirect coercion which has found many apologists, but which is objectionable in principle, even if courts may be found which will sustain it.

It is a matter of congratulation that the Federal Employers' Liability Commission, in the bill which after many months of careful consideration has just been put forward under its direction, has rejected this doubtful method of meeting the constitutional problem. The measure, which applies to employers of railroads in the District of Columbia, and of other railroads engaged in interstate commerce, is a compulsory one. If enacted into law it will afford an opportunity to the Supreme Court of the United States of passing upon the validity of accident liability under the federal constitution, and this decision, if favorable, will settle the problem for the country outside of the state of New York: if unfavorable, it is safe to say that it will *not* settle the problem, that the agitation for making the law conformable to the demand for better justice will not stop.

A federal law confronts in one sense a simpler problem than is presented in the states, for the one industry covered

by the act is an extra-hazardous one and at the same time conducted on so large a scale that the burden of compensation can be imposed without the danger of financial ruin even if, as the bill proposes, the obligation is to rest upon each employing carrier separately and not upon an insurance fund to be made up of contributions in the nature of taxes or assessments.

The power of Congress to deal in some form with the liability of carriers engaged in interstate and foreign commerce has been placed beyond doubt by a decision announced a few days ago.

A federal act must, however, face the complication which will arise from concurrent state legislation. Assuming that the federal liability can be made exclusive in cases where the accident arises clearly in the course of interstate transportation, what about the cases of injury occurring on trains carrying intra-state as well as interstate freight and passengers?

The federal commission seems to assume that the force of circumstances will ultimately make the federal remedy exclusive. Conceding this to be true, the duplicity of the system will in the absence of explicit provisions for a considerable time at least create confusion and give rise to much litigation.

The proposed bill leaves the question open whether certificated schemes equally favorable to the employe are not to be accepted as substitutes for its provisions. Could not a similar concession be made in favor of state laws with provisions as liberal as those of the federal bill? In its present form the bill contains a clause barring out any scheme which does not contain provisions enabling an employe to withdraw from it; probably the majority of the state compensation laws do not meet this condition; they could therefore not be substituted for the federal law even by way of contract. In view of the fact that the system of compensation is new and experimental, and at best will involve a heavy financial burden, every effort should be made to remove such complications as must result from a concurrence of remedies operative in the same jurisdiction and frequently upon the same injury or accident.

It must be recognized that the provisions of any law cannot for the present be otherwise than tentative. The practical operation of the systems will speedily show the need of amendments. Experience demonstrates that a scale of compensation once adopted is not likely to be reduced. On the other hand, there will be constant clamor and pressure for increase of rates. As a measure of protection it might be wise for the act itself to make provision for a full report on the workings of the law to be made after a sufficient interval, perhaps of five years, in the light of which rates might be revised. Such a provision might have the effect of diminishing the immediate pressure for new legislation and afford an opportunity of testing the operation of the present provisions.

LIVING COSTS: A WORLD PROBLEM

ROBERT COIT CHAPIN¹

That prices have been rising is a fact borne in upon the experience of men the world over. That wage-earners have lost more than they have gained from the changes is also a matter of experience. But what to do about it is not so easy to discover. Wide attention has been attracted to the proposal of Prof. Irving Fisher, of Yale University, that an international commission be appointed by the various governments for the purpose of studying the whole situation in order to ascertain the facts, clear up the causes, and propose remedies. The object of the commission, as stated by Professor Fisher at a round table gathering at the recent meeting of the American Economic Association in Washington, is to be:

1. To gather all available facts as to recent changes in wages, cost of living, and prices generally throughout the world, and to make international comparisons. A complete study of the facts would afford a general view of the differences between different countries and times so far as concerns:

- a. the purchasing power of the dollar or other monetary unit;
- b. the purchasing power of incomes, especially wages.

2. To secure evidence as to the main causes of these changes and of international differences.

3. To discuss possible remedies.

The need of some such thorough-going preparation to meet an international problem needs no arguing. The members of the American Economic Association gave hearty approval to the plan, and the New York Chamber of Commerce has added its endorsement. According to Professor Fisher prices have increased in general, in the last fifteen years, 50 per cent in the United States, 30 per cent in Germany, and 20 per cent in England. Nor is this all. The increase in prices has outrun the increase in wages and incomes, so that the purchasing power of incomes has shrunk more than the purchasing power of money. So competent an authority as Professor Kemmerer of Cornell believes that it is an open question whether, in spite of the seeming prosperity of most of the period since 1896, the laboring classes are not worse off than they were fifteen years ago. An Italian Minister of State, Signor Luzzatti, goes so far as to say, "The actual situation is intolerable."

Were this state of affairs confined to one country, there would be an urgent call on the government of that country for an investigation. As a matter of fact inquiries into the cost of living have been initiated by the Senate of the United States, by the state of Massachusetts, and by several of the state labor bureaus. In Germany, the *Verein fuer Socialpolitik*, composed of expert economists and practical social workers; has begun a careful inquiry under the direction of Professor Sering of Berlin and Professor Eulenberg of Leipsic. But something more than national action is necessary. "It is almost as absurd for any one particular locality or state," says Professor Fisher, "on the basis of its own experience to discuss the world-wide rise in the cost of living as it would be for a village on the Bay of Fundy to discuss the rise of the tides." The causes reach beyond any single country, and the mere facts can be adequately ascertained only by international co-operation.

We need an international commission to fix standards in order that accurate comparison of wages and prices may be

¹Author of *THE STANDARD OF LIVING IN NEW YORK CITY*. Russell Sage Foundation publication. New York. Charlies Publication Committee. 1910. Price \$2.00.

possible. As for prices, the tables of index numbers, on which we depend for price-movements, are based on a different list of articles in each country. The efforts of the English Board of Trade, in its reports on the cost of living in different countries, have shown how great are the difficulties in finding a basis for the international comparison of wages.¹ A similar difficulty exists in the lack of uniformity in the treatment of family budgets, and the definition of nutritive standards. If an international commission should do nothing more than to establish standards for the comparative study of the movement of wages, prices, and standards of living, it would be well worth its cost. But it would also gather a body of data regarding the facts in question more reliable than anything now available. Nor is it unreasonable to hope that such a commission would discover the causes underlying the present movement of incomes and prices, and state them authoritatively with such proof as to command general assent. In this case the way would be opened for the proposal of remedies. Great weight would be carried by the suggestions of such a body—weight sufficient, conceivably, to bring about an international agreement even in regard to monetary legislation.

The plan is approved by names of high authority. In this country it is endorsed by the Secretary of the Treasury and the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, by Commissioner Neill, of the Bureau of Labor, by the professors of economics in the leading universities, by railroad presidents like W. C. Brown, of the New York Central, and J. J. Hill, of the Great Northern. Among the English endorser readers of THE SURVEY will recognize the names of Prof. Alfred Marshall, foremost of English-speaking economists, Secretary C. S. Loch, of the London Charity Organization Society, Charles Booth, and B. Seebohm Rowntree. On the continent scores of distinguished men have signified their approval, including Professors Schmoller and Brentano in Germany, Paul Leroy-Beaulieu and Gide in France, Böhm-

Bawerk in Austria. These men are by no means agreed in their explanations of the present rise of prices, nor in what they expect from the work of the commission. But their letters, while expressing wide diversity of opinion on many points, agree with striking unanimity in favoring the idea of an international commission.

The importance of the plan to the social worker is seen in the following extract from a letter from Dr. E. Francke, of Berlin, of the *Bureau fuer Socialpolitik*:

From the standpoint of social politics no less than that of economics I believe that such an investigation is necessary. The almost uninterrupted rise of prices and the corresponding fall in the purchasing power of money brings to laborers in city and country, to those employed in trade and manufactures, to ordinary government employes, a severe pressure as regards wages and subsistence which continually incites the masses to raise their incomes by wage-disturbances, in order to maintain their standard of life. Hence comes of necessity an unceasing unrest among these classes, which has an unwholesome effect on the whole social development. Necessary as is the investigation into conditions in a single country, not less indispensable is it to discover also their international correlations.

The following letter from Secretary C. S. Loch, of the Charity Organisation Society of London, is no less interesting:

I think that the appointment of an international commission on the cost of living, and on the economic questions which those words imply, would be of great service. Of actual retail prices among the very poorest classes there is very little available information. How low these prices often are is seldom realized. Of the importance of an inquiry on the subject of a more stable monetary standard there can hardly be a question. Only on the presentation of a strong international report will its bearing on social and commercial matters be understood by the large circle of persons in the leading countries whose consideration of it is a necessary preliminary to any revision of our present position.

A large number of those who favor the plan express the belief that a fall in the value of gold is a main cause of the rising cost of living, and that the end of the present tendency is by no means in sight, especially in view of possible inventions in gold-production. These considerations give added timeliness to the proposal, and suggest the desirability of urging prompt action upon Congress.

¹See THE SURVEY, January 6, 1911.

IN HARTFORD AS IT IS IN HEAVEN

CAMPAIGNING WITH A MEN AND RELIGION TEAM

ARTHUR P. KELLOGG

"Thy kingdom come, Thy will be done in HARTFORD as it is in heaven."

That, in its own words, was the message last month of the Men and Religion Forward Movement to the old New England town named. That is its message with the change of a single word to all of the seventy-four American communities which will be reached in the course of the winter by this movement to vitalize the church, to put action into the second and great commandment. For the man who really loves his neighbor as himself will get out and hustle for that neighbor, see to it that he has fair wages and a decent home, pure food, and some leisure for the joy of life. The movement is, in form, a one-hundred-and-fifty-thousand-dollar revival, its field work done by trained teams—they're called "experts," not preachers—with a mission not of converting the heathen but of setting the righteous at work for their fellows.

To see them in action take one team, No. 3, in the capital city of Connecticut, midway in the six months' campaign in which four teams are at it, a team to a city a week until the seventy-four shall have been covered. Each of the five experts on each team has a specialty—evangelism, social service, boys' work, bible study, community extension.

Take John M. Dean, who has a wonder-

ful record of saving men since he started out at eighteen, the "boy evangelist." Or take David Russell, called from South Africa for this campaign. As a boy in Scotland he decided to preach from the Cape to the Zambesi, in Livingstone's footsteps—and he's done it, through all the groping black tribes. He sees things in a big way, as, for instance, when he compares the five-fold message of the Men and Religion campaign to the five great streams where the Zambesi goes over the Victoria Falls—in most seasons five broad, smooth streams. But at the flood tide of the rainy season they are rolled in one great torrent leaping over the petty islands that would divide it.

The spirit of social service runs through the work of the whole team in varying degrees. The practice of social service is the message of one man. In team No. 3 the social service man is Raymond Robins. See him "put it over," as he says, in spite of the trepidation of some of the churchly, who have thought

him a wild radical and fomenter of strikes, and in spite of the doubts of social workers, who have found too much of "church social service" bound up in a dole and a tract. In the words of a local minister. "he is essentially sane and constructive, not attacking any phase of the existing order without



suggesting an adequate and positive improvement."

To get Robins's message you must first have his story as the people of Hartford have had it.

First a barefoot boy, poor as only the poor of the South are poor.

Then a young man, working at hard labor for \$10 a month and his keep.

A coal miner, at a dollar a twelve-hour day, down in old mines without machinery or modern methods, often the whole day on his knees swinging a pick in a low shaft, at night too tired for more than a meal and a sleep—no fun, nothing but work and eat and sleep, with a growing taste for liquor "to forget it."

Something within drives him west to a silver mine. There as a union miner he works eight hours a day, for \$4—one-third less work, four times more pay. The sun shines on him every morning and every afternoon, instead of Sunday only. He has leisure and money. He learns to play ball, a man grown, for the first time. He reads hungrily everything he can lay his hands on. He is active in his union. But he does not join a church, for Herbert Spencer and other over-rich fare in his reading have given him a young thinker's scorn of this Christ he has never seen and the other fellows do not know or talk about.

At the first flash of the news from the North he, a skilled miner, is off for the Klondike, where he makes good. Storm-bound in a Roman Catholic mission on the Yukon, he spends two days with a priest, close-bound in a hut, before an open fire. There they talk, hour on hour. As they get down to the deeper things, Robins parading his unbelief, he sees as the fires flares up a something in the priest's face he has never seen before. This, he thinks, must be that peace of God which passeth all understanding, which he has read about, and it makes a fleeting impression on him.

A little later, alone and lost and drowsy from the cold that has almost overcome him, he looks ahead to see a white cross standing out against the sky. It is sure proof to him that he has lost his grip, is seeing things that do not exist, is ripe for freezing. Stumbling for-

ward on his snow-shoes, with eyes closed to shut out the imaginary sign of men in a pass where men have never been, he comes up hard against something. It is the cross. And it really is a cross, over a trapper's grave—two trees lashed together and all white with frost crystals. Men have been here before and have got out. It puts new courage into him, and he gets out.

A little later he reads the gospels, and confesses Christ. He is the hardest worker of all in organizing a mission and the miners elect him their minister. It is just a plain election in a pure democracy—a town meeting of religion.

This St. Bernard's Congregational church at Nome goes well, but Robins is stricken with typhoid fever and is sent out to the States to die. Months afterward, when his strength returns, he starts to work again in Graham Taylor's church and social settlement, the Chicago Commons. So for a time the miner-preacher becomes settlement worker. But he wants even more of the common life than this, and later, married, he sets up a home in an ordinary flat in an ordinary tenement of the district.

What he has accomplished there is another story to be told in another issue of THE SURVEY. He was for a period superintendent of the Municipal Lodging House, with the hang of all the seasonal trades of the Middle West hard-won by working at them himself, and a personal acquaintance with 45,000 homeless men and boys; he has been a member of the Board of Education; he helped clean the streets and inspect the milk and organize unions and break the gang—and for seven years the Seventeenth Ward of Chicago has sent clean men to the City Hall.

Robins's comment on it all to the ministers of Hartford was that he hasn't much faith in things that cannot be accomplished by common men—"plain, common or garden variety of men, like you and me." And this, in speaking of the fact that he lives now by dividends and not by labor—he came home from the Klondike with a small fortune, clean money, gold dug out of the earth with his own hands: "I believe—I know—that if I fail to do everything in my

power to bring pure milk and health and a fair chance to the littlest and poorest child of the tenements, right then and there, on the West Side of Chicago, I am crucifying Christ again."

Well, it's a breathless and soul-searching experience to hear him tell it. All of his meetings begin with prayer and close with silence followed by applause and sometimes cheers.

"The trouble with Robins," said the ministers of Chicago—those who heard of him—"is that he is preaching without a license."

"The trouble with Robins," said the labor leaders, "is that he's preaching all the time he's talking labor."

"The trouble with Robins," said the politicians, "is that he's preaching all the time he's talking politics."

The vote is unanimous. Again he is elected to the ministry.

So much for the man. There is space here for only a few bits of his message, which will be published later in his own words. Social service in the church, he says, has three watchwords. First, co-operation—not organic unity, but co-operation for service. Second, investigation—to find the facts, the work of the social surveyor. Third, publicity—daring to take the methods and to pay the price of community education so as to carry along with you not a few of the elect but the whole community.

But underneath this, which is a matter of method, is the real message in his rooted conviction that the most pressing problem of our times is the problem of democracy in industry, and this problem lies close to men and religion. "It is inconceivable that a feudal workshop shall continue to exist side by side with a free church and a free state." A great tide of democracy—in industry—is sweeping over the whole world. As it begins to find itself, here and there, it thrusts aside all feudal concessions—profit-sharing, welfare work, shorter hours, the very best of conditions—everything which has not come of its own effort. The conditions of employment in a trade agreement worked out democratically around a table by employer and men will stand. None other will. The sweep of the thing is irresistible, world-wide,

growing every day. The old vertical lines of social division—by income, profession, family—are gone. The new line is horizontal. Above it are all those who live by dividends, and below it are all those who live by labor. Already it is more than a line—it is a crack, a cleavage. "And I tell you," Robins told Hartford, "that unless that cleavage is bridged in the next ten years it never will be bridged in our time." And again: "You must have either trade agreements or socialism. If you dam up the democratic movement it will break out in strange ways and perhaps attack not only interest and rents and profits but some of the greatest things of our civilization."

Many employers, he tells them, who oppose trade agreements are moved by the strongest and most honest convictions. So with those who opposed political freedom. Employers believe that to let labor have a hand in directing industry—"What, let those men run my business?"—would be the end of all social order. So said the Tories when it was proposed to give the vote to common men. Religious and political freedom had to be fought for through long and bitter wars. The organizers of Protestantism were accused in their day of as high crimes as the organizers of labor—murder, arson, treason.

He sets forth the other factors in the industrial cleavage—our modern production for profit more than for use; the end of the western frontier which was a social safety-valve for the cities; absentee capitalism, the employer no longer knowing his men; women in industry, complicating every situation; immigration; casual labor with its hundreds of thousands of unemployed and half employed. But of all these forces the surge of democracy is chief.

Mutual understanding by capital and labor is the only way out—and it is a real way out, Robins holds. Both have much to learn and to give. Speaking at a business men's luncheon he said: "The business man who gives a bribe is the same enemy of us all as the working-man who thinks he can't do business without a bomb." They took it, these

Hartford men, not with the enthusiasm of Topeka and Kansas City, but with evident interest, salting it away to think about, after the manner of all good New Englanders. A month hence he will say it in Los Angeles.

And it is in promoting this common understanding that the church can serve men and work out her mission and her destiny. "Before the first century," says Robins, "the question was, Is there any God, is there any force, that can save *men* in the midst of a perishing civilization? Jesus Christ and his disciples answered that in a glorious affirmative. No man who knows anything about the history of Western civilization can doubt that Christ can save men. The question today is, Is there any power in your God, is there any power in our Christ, that can save *society*?" And Robins answers yes: "Jesus Christ, as I read his gospel, would never have been satisfied with individual salvation alone, for the man redeemed through Him is strong enough to redeem his environment—yes, to redeem the world."

In line with this gospel, what social service ought to mean in Hartford was brought out in concrete and familiar terms at a special meeting for social workers, women as well as men. Each told in two minutes the chief need of Hartford as disclosed by his work. There was substantial agreement on most points, but enough lively differences to show a wholesome open-mindedness. For instance, one speaker declared that there was no central registration bureau for charity cases. The secretary of the Charity Organization Society at once replied that he had such a bureau—has had for twenty-one years. The real need, he said, is for more co-operation by other agencies in using it.

Hartford (an old New England city of almost 100,000 population) has grown slowly and substantially, without great spurts of immigration, though the Irish came in their time, and the Jews and Italians and others of the new folk are coming now and crowding thick into old homes built for one family each. Politically the city stumbles along under an old two-chamber aldermanic gov-

ernment of sixty men. This has been modernized to a degree by unpaid commissions in charge of education, health, parks, police, charities, streets, and water supply. But commissions alone are not enough to safeguard a city, as the death rate shows. Hartford stands midway in a group of eight cities between 90,000 and 100,000 population, San Antonio, Lowell, and New Bedford having higher death rates (Hartford hasn't their Mexicans nor their big factory populations) and Camden, Springfield, Bridgeport, and Reading having lower.

"Why is your infant death rate so high?" asked Robins. No one seemed to know. They are sure their water is pure. They are beginning to be apprehensive of their tenements. They believe the milk supply is good. But right there the keen-eyed young woman who is investigating housing conditions for the women's Civic Club had evidence to show that retail milk dealers employ boys to wash their bottles before school begins in the morning, with all a schoolboy's usual thoroughness at such tasks. This investigator and the head of the Visiting Nurse Association offered testimony, too, as to garbage standing in the streets a week in some parts of town.

This question of health and death rates came up at several meetings and Robins took pains to leave it rankling in as many minds as possible. His purpose is to ask questions, not to answer them.

Hartford has good schools, with an unusual number of children going on up to high school and to college. It has a park system with playgrounds and other social features known all over the country. But it needs recreation centers, particularly in winter when the playgrounds close, and it needs trade training in its schools. It has two tuberculosis sanatoria and an open-air school. It has a charity organization society and a number of old, well-established relief societies (at least one of which makes its chief task the giving out of hand-sewing for the women of the poor to do at home) and it still gives public outdoor relief. It has hospitals, a tubercu-

losis committee, city and state consumers' leagues, a juvenile commission, a dispensary, a good substitute for a juvenile court (children's cases heard privately in the judge's chambers), a social workers' club, a municipal art society, a very active Federation of Churches—machinery all of it for effective social service.

Hartford has at least one problem peculiar to Hartford. It issues licenses to sell newspapers to children between the ages of ten and fourteen years, without regard to sex. It is a good bit of a shock to the stranger within her gates to see little girls of ten selling papers after dark, with legal sanction, and in a community with a New England conscience. There's no doubt the conscience is there, but the news-girls of Hartford are almost an institution. Girls have been on the streets for twenty years.

There is not an acute labor situation in Hartford. It is a city of diversified industries, comparatively small, without the pressure which comes in a cotton or a steel town. The open shop is general, with a core of well organized unions in the skilled trades numbering about 5,000 men. Some ill-feeling came from bringing in strike-breakers during a small garment strike, an echo from New York. And this was increased by a suit for damages brought by employers in such wise that for months it has tied up the individual savings-bank accounts of the members of the union. Workingmen chafe under the lop-sided administration of the old blue laws. They cite the case of a poor man caught mending his fence on a Sunday who was arrested and fined, while a factory in which forty-five men and women worked all that same Sunday was overlooked. The law works similarly in regard to amusements. Automobiles may run, but band concerts in the parks must not break the quiet of the Sabbath.

Workingmen feel that they have little voice in government under the Connecticut system of representation by boroughs without regard to population. Hartford has the same number of state representatives as any rural borough, and the votes of her 5,000 union men count for no more than, let us say,

those of the grocery clerks of Tubbses' Corners.

Robins's prescription for Hartford was in the form of a list of definite, practical steps—a program of social service:

SOCIAL SERVICE FOR HARTFORD
RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE MEN AND RELIGION TEAM.

COMBINED SOCIAL SURVEY AND CITY PLAN PROGRAM FOR GREATER HARTFORD.

A voluntary tenement house commission to co-operate with board of health and city administration in enforcement of existing laws and development of both legal power and administrative efficiency in protecting the homes of the people against unsanitary conditions.

Immediate co-operation of all public-spirited citizens to secure adequate financial provision in the next city budget for systematic annual inspection and report upon all tenements. Inspection only after complaint is practically no inspection.

Publication and distribution of report upon housing conditions recently made under direction of the Civic League.

Co-operation with the city administration in investigation of the social evil in Hartford and adequate provision for publicity of constructive proposals that may be determined upon knowledge of the facts.

Adequate provision under competent administration for homeless men and boys with free employment bureau, and co-operation with workhouse and state farm.

Social centers in public schools under competent direction. Public baths. Regulation of dance halls and public juvenile amusements.

More playgrounds under competent supervision.

Adequate provision for industrial or vocational training in the public school system. Study of the Munich system recommended.

Co-operation between school committee and visiting nurses' association to provide school nurses where needed in the public schools.

Legislation to provide adequate workmen's compensation for industrial injuries.

Development and enforcement of child labor legislation.

Legislation to provide bureau of immigration and protection for savings, employment of aliens, and for state farm for confirmed delinquents.

Co-operation with and development of the joint registration bureau as a clearing house for all social service agencies.

Require uniform accounting, semi-annual audit, and uniform case records of all social service agencies supported by public contributions.

A directory of all social service agencies. A central administration building for all social service and charitable agencies.

A social service publicity committee.

Special investigation of the cost of living in Hartford and determination of minimum wage standards.

Special investigation of street trades, and co-operation to prevent the necessity for girls engaging in this hazardous occupation.

Special investigation of the social cost of the saloon, and provision of public comfort stations, social centers, and other substitutes for the social functions misused by the liquor traffic interests.

Organization of visitation parties from the local churches to various municipal and private social service agencies, thus promoting an intelligent public interest and sense of public responsibility, and aiding in getting volunteer workers for social service.

In placing a social survey first he followed a deliberate plan which he has left in every city visited by his team. For he holds that until we know the near-to facts of our complex civilization we can do nothing but rush here and there at each new alarm from each new problem, half-entrenched and wholly threatening before we see it.

A good bit of social stock-taking is already under way in Hartford—the housing investigation, a vice commission, and a state industrial commission. The last named is making a thorough study of wages as well as conditions of employment and is expected to make a report that, in substance if not in form, will make toward determining a minimum wage.

The vice commission came in a curious way. A resident of Hartford brought charges of accepting a bribe against a federal detective. Testimony in the trial which followed suddenly showed that the Hartford man was not only the keeper of a disorderly house, but was known to the federal authorities as a white slaver. Hartford thus held one line in the net the government white slave prosecutions are weaving. That was bad enough, but when the man testified that while the government's activity made it impossible for him to get women from New York any longer he "could get all the girls he wanted from Connecticut" the whole city cried out. The mayor shut every brothel, with the formal approval of the Federation of Churches, the Central Labor Union, and the Equal Suffrage League. At their request he announced he would appoint a vice commission of fifteen members, and excitement died down somewhat. Then came proposals of a segregated district, and a statement against it signed by twenty-eight leading physicians which only the *Post* among Hartford

papers had the courage to print. That aroused the Equal Suffrage League to a new effort, and under its auspices a mass meeting was addressed by men who have led in New York and in Congress in the campaign against organized white slavery.

So much for Men and Religion week. Will it last?

Will there be permanent results?

That, says Robins, is up to Hartford. You can't do the world's work nor reform society from New York.

Hartford has the means for its own social salvation. It is said to have the greatest per capita wealth of any city in the country, barring only a few "millionaire suburbs" of New York. It has the will to bear its own load—witness how, through its great insurance companies, it stood up to a great body blow and paid its San Francisco losses into the millions.

Where it has fallen down has been because of lack of mutual understanding among men. Many a man in many a walk of life in Hartford believes today that a long stride towards that understanding of one another's needs was taken during Men and Religion week. Robins put it aptly for a fire insurance city. "The test of the greater Hartford that is to be is the care it has for the smallest, weakest child, from the poorest family in its worst tenement," he said. "The time is coming when any little child forced to live in a tenement, to drink bad milk, to go to work too early, to face an evil life before it is old enough to choose between good and evil—when such a thing will sound a call like a fire bell, and a united church and a united society—every one of us—will throw off his coat and run to the rescue of that child as we run now to a fire."

RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION

V

CHANGING CONDITIONS OF A WORKING FAITH

GRAHAM TAYLOR

It is well to pause and poise one's thought in turning from the experience of religion as a personal possession toward the necessity to apply it to the relationships and conditions of human life. For there is danger of parting asunder what God has put together, of making antagonistic to each other and mutually exclusive the elements which constitute the same life and which are inextricably identified in every human being.

If life and religion are alike in being made up of our relationships to God and fellow men; if the human factors involved in the problem of applying the divine ideals and forces of religion to every life must be reckoned with; if personality itself must be recognized as a social product, as well as a social force; then a religion of right-relationship to fellow men and Father God is the only religion we can live by or work with. In this very way God constituted both human life and religion itself, according to the Scriptures.

If this is true, then it follows that the emphasis upon the human elements inherent both in life and religion is no less religious, spiritual, and divine. For God himself has not only constituted human life in that way, but Christ himself declares "on these two commandments hang all the law and the prophets." The first of course is first—"Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart, and with all thy soul, and with all thy mind, and with all thy strength." But it implies a second, and "the second is, this, Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself." On these two together, not on either one of them apart, all religion hangs.

TRYING TO LIVE ON TWO LEVELS

And yet there are poor souls, perhaps the most of us, who are trying to be religious on one of these lines alone, trying to be religious individually while col-

lectively we are pagan; trying to live an individual Christian life, while our own and others' relationships in business and pleasure, in society and politics, ignore Christian exactions and ideals, wholly or in such large part that our collective life is essentially heathen. This awful dualism is the ethical tragedy of the age. In the vain attempt to live our life on two levels we lose it on both. Our relationships to God our Father are not "saved" if the relations in which we are living with his children, our fellowmen, are "lost." No more is our social life sound if it is lived only manward and not Godward. Each of us lives one life, not two. There are indeed two tendencies in each life, but one of them is the main stream and the other is only the eddy. In the seventh chapter of the Epistle to the Romans, that greatest and last analysis of an individual human life, St. Paul, indeed, shows us two laws struggling for the mastery of the one life, the "law of sin" and the "law of the spirit of life in Christ Jesus." But throughout the ebb and flow of the desperate struggle, above and beneath the soul's cry of despair and defeat, or of triumph and victory, he shows the "I myself" to be living one life after all, dominated by either one or the other of these two laws.

DR. JEKYLL-MR. HYDE IN A CONVICT'S LIFE

So Robert Louis Stevenson's weird tale of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde tells the story of only one man, not two. In effect it powerfully dramatized this seventh chapter of Paul's Epistle to the Romans. For however much there may seem to be two men in one, the man of the story is really only the one or the other of these two characters at one and the same time. When he is the better Dr. Jekyll, he is not the worse Mr. Hyde. When he is the worse Mr. Hyde, he is not the better Dr. Jekyll. One of

St. Paul's "two laws" dominates the other, as Stevenson's hero is dominated by the human spirit of a Jekyll or by the fiendish spirit of a Hyde.

When a discharged convict confided to the writer that he himself was these two characters, as he had seen them acted on the stage of a theater, he was asked whether he had ever been both of them at once. "No," he confessed, "I have been Mr. Hyde most of the time and Dr. Jekyll some of the time. But as I know that the bad man Hyde is holding down the good man Jekyll in me, I have come to you to help turn me over." And then he wistfully asked, as though trying to recover some lost charm from a dream, "Isn't there something in the Bible, promising rest to a fellow who is tired of himself?" Back to him came the promise, "Come unto me, all ye that labor and are heavy laden, and I will give you rest. For my yoke is easy and my burden is light." Then he murmured, as though talking to himself, as he had in the solitude of prison life, "That's it. I learned it when a little boy in Sunday-school and often tried to remember and repeat it in my cell, but I never knew it meant me until now."

To be "saved" this man had to learn to live one life, and no longer try to live two lives. And his outer life had to be made one with his inner life. In order not "to be conformed to this world" in which he had been living the evil life, his "world" had to be made conformable to his new life, or it would have perished at the birth. To be "transformed by the renewing of his mind" involved all the help he could get from Father God and brother men to conform the little world in which he had lived to the new life he was living. And at the transformation, as long as it went on in both its lines together, men wondered as they did at Pentecost.

RELIGION DE-HUMANIZED, THEN REJECTED

Somehow we must realize in ourselves and in all the world more of that unity of life this side of the judgment-bar, if our souls are to stand the single test of that last assize, or men are to continue to believe in religion as the power to

save them in that last great day and in every day through which they approach it. Many men, seemingly furthest away from religion, and consciously to themselves anti-religious, are found to relate religion little or not at all with their own human lives and relationships. Almost to the last man, a group of radical working men in Chicago insisted that religion was something superimposed by an arbitrary divine authority; or, if they did not recognize divine authority at all, that it is something superimposed by a small class of people upon the mass of people, who are held up to reprobation or ostracism if they do not conform to the creeds and church institutions of the other class. When told that every man of them had a religion of his own, if he did not accept that of Christianity or Judaism; that his religion consisted of his own ideals of his relationship to God and fellow men, if he did not accept Christ's ideal of these relationships, they cried out against any such reasonable definition of religion as unhistorical and never realized. "That has never been the religion which the Church has taught or practised in all the world," was their rejoinder.

"However that may be admitted or denied, nevertheless," it was claimed, "this is the ideal of religion taught by the Bible and practised by its truest believers. Creeds and churches, sermons and services, rituals of worship and rules of life impress and express religion more or less. But religion itself is relationship. The relationship which each one of us actually has to God as Father, and to fellow men as brothers, is all the religion that any one really has, although the more of it that he aspires to constitutes no small or unreal part of his religious faith and hope." This humanized definition of religion so overcame their objection that some of these very men offered to organize and join a church, "if it could be called by another name."

ONE LIFE-ONE RELIGION THE FINAL TEST

At Christ's judgment-bar, if not before, we will be confronted by the single supreme test of one life, one religion. There the only religion that stands the

final test is one that covers the whole life and all its relationships. There will be found such "unity of faith and knowledge of the Son of God" that there will be no distinction between the individual and the social, the secular and the religious, the physical and the spiritual, the human and the divine, in either life or religion. There it will be no excuse to say that you did not know it was religious to feed the hungry, give drink to the thirsty, take the stranger in, clothe the naked, visit the sick, and come unto the prisoner. Nevertheless the Savior-Judge will say, "Inasmuch as ye did it not unto one of these least, ye did it not unto me." For so identified is he with each one of us,

So near is glory to our dust, so close is God to man,

that the Son of Man from his judgment throne does not recognize anything to be divine that is not human, does not acknowledge anything as done to him which is denied to his brother men, does not welcome to his presence those claiming relationship to him who ignore or deny their relations with the least and the lowliest, with each and all of woman born. Indeed, "the righteous" seem to be the more welcome from the fact that when rewarded for doing unto their brethren what Christ would have had them do unto him, they answered him saying "Lord, when saw we thee hungry and fed thee, or athirst, and gave thee drink? And when saw we thee a stranger, and took thee in? or naked and clothed thee? And when saw we thee sick, or in prison, and came unto thee?" Just because they did it only for the sake of their brethren themselves, the Christ-Judge seems the better pleased to take it as done unto himself. God Almighty thus identifies himself with every human being, and if you and I do not, we are not God-like, we are not yet restored to the likeness of the image of our Father in heaven in which he made us to be manlike. We cannot be like him until "we see him as he is."

EMPHASIS SHIFTS BUT WEIGHS AS MUCH

This religion of relationship is surely if slowly being attained and never more genuinely and rapidly than now. There

is a shift of emphasis in the appeal of both evangelism and nurture which aligns religion far more closely with the social consciousness of the age. The "soul" that is saved is not now said to be any part of the person, not even the highest and best part of us, but it is nothing less than the whole self, all we are or may become, the man, the woman, the child. The emphasis which used to be so exclusively placed upon the future life has shifted a more proportionate part of its weight to the salvation of the present life. Passive submission to the "divine decrees," which used to paralyze effort and classify the very race into the "elect" and the "reprobate," has been happily supplemented, if not superseded, by practical endeavor to change those human conditions which are antecedent to and surround every human life and which make so mightily to shape its destiny. The whole life of the individual and the race, to be saved and built up in the fullness of Christ, is the Holy Grail for which modern Christianity is in quest. To what salvation saves has fairer emphasis, even if it be somewhat at the expense of the emphasis which should be laid upon what it delivers us from. Sin is less considered abstractly, apart from the person sinning, and is more closely brought to bear upon turning the self from sin. Righteousness is more than "imputed" and stops not short of righting the relations of each one of us to God and one's fellows. The humanity of Christ has come to be one of the most convincing proofs of his divinity. For as we see him to be so much more of a man than any of us ever have been, we are led to think him to be more than man. This shift in the weight of Christian emphasis is surely taking place. But the emphasis as surely weighs as much as ever, and perhaps even more to the modern mind.

BURDEN OF SOULS BORNE IN MORE WAYS

The old "burden of souls" is on the heart and conscience as much, if not more, than ever. But we have our own ways of bearing it in this day and generation. Our present recognition and assumption of this old burden are coming to be more diversified, spontaneous, scat-

tered, and perhaps more real for being less conventional and less exclusively ecclesiastical in their expression. It may seem, therefore, that breadth in evangelism makes it less intense, concentrated, impressive, and therefore yields fewer tangible results. Yet more people really care more for their fellow men than ever before, and show it in a greater variety of practical ways.

Of a distinguished public-spirited citizen of London, who is neither a minister nor an evangelist, one of England's greatest and most evangelistic prelates said, "He really cares more for his fellow men than any one I have ever known." In so saying Cardinal Manning not only gave noteworthy and deserved attestation to one of the foremost Protestant laymen of the world, but he emphasized the modern expression of the burden for souls. This increased care for one another is evidence of a growing religious consciousness. Being a Christian is to become more conscious of God and fellow man, and less self-conscious. That is Christ's way of begetting in each one of us the consciousness of our better, broader, higher, diviner selfhood. It is the way in which he hands back to the one who gives himself away in the service of God and his fellow men a self better worth the saving, because it is more to God and others, and does more for the world and the Kingdom. Religion manifests its hold and growth upon the present people by making us more fully conscious of each other's existence. We are more than "souls" to each other, we are selves. We care for each other, not as "a case," but as a man, a woman, a child; as families, partners, schoolmates and shopmates, neighbors and fellow citizens. The burden of the soul has become the burden for the whole self, in all its relationships. To be consistent in claiming to love souls and to try to save them, more and more of us profoundly feel it to be incumbent upon us to care for the life and limb, the livelihood and standard of living, the health, and well-being, the growth and the happiness of our fellows.

ADJUSTMENT TO CHANGE LAW OF ALL LIFE

This shift in emphasis is indicative both of a stern necessity and of the persistence of religious life in adjusting itself to changed conditions. To manifest and transmit the life of God through the lives of men is the problem of religion in this and every age. Time tests the faith by its capacity to adjust its vital spirit to the evolving form of life, its permanent principles to the changing modes of living, its eternal life to mortal lives. Adjustment to changing conditions is a necessity to which life must conform, or cease to exist. This is the inexorable law of all life, to which the spiritual life is no exception. No soul, no church is exempt from it. Physically, intellectually, socially, spiritually we must change or die. This stern necessity to readjust faith to the changing conditions of life is the tragedy of personal experience as it is the test of religions and churches. But it is also the attestation of the religious faith and life that they can stand the test. Trying as the transitions are and sympathetic as we should be with those who are suffering their way through them, there is really more in them to reassure than to disturb us. Would we not have valid ground for deep doubt as to whether our religious faith, life, and institutions were God-made if they only, of all things which God made, did not and could not change? Should not the shifting scenes and trying transactions through which not only we, but all others who have preceded us, have been obliged to pass be to us what those of our Master's days on earth were to him—only the unfolding of the Father's purpose, the signal to take the next step forward in the progress of his great plan for our life and work, the call to change our method of procedure in employing the differing means now necessary to achieve the same unchanging ends?

CRISIS OF CHANGING CONDITIONS

Through no greater test and transition has the life of God in the souls of men passed than in the adjustment it is now making to the human lives now living

and working under the most rapid and radical changes ever experienced in the history of the race. Who that is at work can fail to recognize these changes? They are altering the face of the very earth, are requiring us to use radically different methods of maintaining our own existence, are irresistibly relating us to each other so that we can less and less live apart, and are shifting our innermost points of view from which we look out upon the world and up to God.

Thus in the inner life of our thought and feeling the natural and supernatural are being brought nearer together than ever before, though rendered no less distinct, by the approach of modern science and the philosophy and experience of religion toward each other. The material and the spiritual, and our own body and soul, are more identified in the unity of our thought by the insight into our selves which modern psychology gives us. The individual and the race are coming to be more inseparable in our consciousness of both sin and salvation. God's world and the kingdom of the Father are beginning to intersphere in our thought and work, as they do in the Word itself; and the Church can less and less hold aloof from either. More and more the letter killeth, more and more it is only the spirit that maketh alive. In our interpretation of the Scriptures, by the light of our better knowledge of antiquity, the Bible is becoming more human, but all the more divine for that. Evidences of the divinity of Christ grow with increasing recognition of his humanity. The reality of the Christian experience promises to be more pronounced as we gain more accurate psychological knowledge of the ways of God's Spirit in a human soul. Child study and the psychology of the child-mind, by teaching us how "this little child receives," is enabling us to manifest the divine life at each period of the child's growth, so that the growing boy and girl can really see and handle the Word of life. Scientific insight into the choices of the human will emphasizes more strongly than ever the essential reasonableness and necessity of the legitimate evangelistic appeal, while at the

same time helping us to discriminate between what is sensuous and spiritual, temporary and permanent, superficial and real, meretricious and valuable in evangelistic method and result.

In the outer world the transition from an agricultural to a commercial age; from rural to urban conditions of life; from working for a living alone or with a few, to working together with large groups in complicated processes of production; from sharing a national life with people of our own language and race to living and working in great international and cosmopolitan populations—this transition is the greatest change through which the institutions of civilization and religion have ever passed.

MARCHING ORDERS IN CHANGES OF OUR TIMES

But here again in these mighty changes we should see only the Master's marching orders to his people, the mandate of the living Lord which his living Church need not fear to obey. They are his commands only to apply the Gospel's age-long, time-tested, saving truths so much further as to bring the whole of a human life under their sway and the whole world into the Kingdom. As truly as the individual "must be born again," so surely is it the function of the Church to give every human life a better chance to be born right the first time, by improving the hereditary and environing conditions of birth and life. Regeneration is as necessary for the community as for the soul, if either or both are to be fully saved. More and more men need to be convicted of and turned away from their social, industrial, and political sins, in order to be made conscious of and penitent for their personal sins. The "cross" loses most of its demand and meaning in modern life, unless, in addition to the individual self-sacrifice and vicarious suffering for others for which it now stands, it also comes to be a cross of industrial, political, social, civic, and economic self-denial. The intercession and mediation of Christ fail to be fully applied unless his followers intercede between brethren at strife and mediate peace in the fratricidal wars which shame the industrial and national life of Christendom.

SOCIAL EMPHASIS NOT NEW NOR SEPARATE

This social emphasis in religious feeling and work is not new. It is as old as the second table of the law from Sinai, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself." It is as Christian as the law of neighbor love and that rudiment of all Christian ethics, Christ's golden rule. It is not a substitute for, or anything that is preferred to, the emphasis upon the individual life. You are not shut up to choose whether to work for the individual or for the improvement of social conditions. "Work for the soul to make a man good?" Surely. "And that good man makes his surroundings better?" That is true, but it is only the half truth. For better surroundings help to make men good. That is the other half of the whole truth. You cannot work for one without working for the other. The surest way to accomplish either one is to work at the same time for the other. We have kept these essential parts of the same work too far and too long apart. Both ends of this same line should be worked together and at once. That is the only way to save the soul and to save the world too. For the world is only the relationship of all souls. But it takes more and more of a saved world to save a single soul.

The social emphasis, therefore, is personal. Individual emphasis, therefore, is social. Taken together their emphasis in religion is no less reformatory for being all the more formative. It is good to criticise, but better to construct; good to destroy things evil, but better to build and plant good things; good to know what not to do and be, but better to know what to be and do; good to be negative, but better to be positive; good to deny, but better to affirm; good to reform, but better to form. "One formatory is better than ten thousand reformatories," said Horace Mann, the greatest of our pioneer American educators.

LIFE AND WORK BEFORE THEORY

It is, moreover, an impressive fact, worthy of the most reverent consideration, that both Judaism and Christianity now, as in every other age, have put the social emphasis of the religion into life

and work, before and always more than, into literature and theory. Indeed, the social theory and literature of both Synagogue and Church have always come out of their life. No social institutions and life have survived which were the product of any mere theory. However unconsciously to herself, or however unrecognized by men, the Church has always builded better than they or she knew. Her family structure is the most indestructible and indispensable unit of society. Her Christian Associations for young men and young women are forming the conditions and relations which form their characters and shape their destiny. Her educational philanthropies are raising the abject and subject classes. Her local households of faith have been, and may be again, natural and necessary centers of the community, coordinating and bringing into harmony and co-operation all the forces of neighborhood and national life that make for righteousness and fraternity. Her missionary agencies, at home and abroad, are founding new civilizations. Slowly but surely, the social molds for a new manhood are being forged and fashioned, and the structure of a new heaven and a new earth is evolving. Its "Kingdom of the Father" is the only center and circumference of a unity that comprehends the material, social, and spiritual interests of mankind. The gospel of the Kingdom is sociology with God left in it, with the Messianic Spirit as the bond of unity, with the new birth of the individual for the regeneration of society, and the dynamic spirit of religion as the only power adequate to fulfill its social ideals. Sociology may yet be claimed as having derived its birthright from Judaism and Christianity and as the science of "the kingdom" which fulfills the covenants of promise in both Testaments.

[THIS IS THE FIFTH OF PROFESSOR TAYLOR'S SERIES ON RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION, WHICH ARE RUNNING SEMI-MONTHLY IN THE SURVEY THROUGHOUT THE MEN AND RELIGION CAMPAIGN. PREVIOUS ARTICLES WERE: I. LIFE AND RELIGION, DECEMBER 2; II. THE HUMAN POINT OF VIEW, DECEMBER 16; III. PERSONALITY A SOCIAL PRODUCT AND FORCE, JANUARY 6; IV. THE CALL AND EQUIPMENT FOR EFFECTIVE SERVICE, JANUARY 7. ON FEBRUARY 17 HIS SUBJECT WILL BE: THE RELIGION OF HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS.]

TWO STRIKES

A STRIKE BROUGHT ABOUT BY A BUNDLE OF DIRTY LINEN

MARY BROWN SUMNER

A strike is in progress in a group of New York laundries which has thrown into vivid relief the fact that, when all is said and done, the man with the bundle of dirty linen, impatient, unthinking, demanding it back the day after tomorrow, is exercising a heavy and irresponsible tyranny over several thousand wage-earners in this one city alone. Eighty per cent of these wage-earners are women, who in the "rough-dry" establishments put in a working day with no set limits, made up of hours of alternate sweating and "swinging," in an industry thoroughly disorganized by the mad competition for the bundle of the man or the household in a hurry. Alongside of the man with the bundle may be placed as responsible agents for these conditions those learned judges of the New York Court of Appeals who in 1907 declared that the clause in the state labor law which prohibited night work for women was unconstitutional. This decision practically invalidated the sixty-hour law through which the state legislature had sought to set a daily and weekly standard that would protect women from over-work. Since then laws prohibiting night labor have been sustained by the Supreme Court of Oregon, by the Supreme Court of Illinois—reversing its adverse decision of fifteen years ago—and by the Supreme Court of the United States in Justice Brewer's decision of 1908. In New York, the bundle and the bench, in unhappy alliance, have blocked any efforts toward standardization on the part of employers or the public. The strike which started with the New Year has been an effort on the part of the workers themselves to do what the law failed to do, as well as to standardize the trade in other respects. Choosing midwinter for its

strategic value as the middle of the busy season, Local 126 of the International Laundry Workers' Union, situated on the upper West Side of Manhattan, sent out on December 29 a schedule of demands to go into effect January 2 in about twenty-five wholesale or "rough-dry" steam laundries. The employers asked for time to consider, but the union members, knowing their weakness in numbers and fearing that the time asked for would be used to fill their places with non-union help, refused and sent pickets to "pull out" the other workers, men and women, organized and unorganized, in these establishments. The workers responded beyond the expectation of the union officers and the strike spread to other centers of the rough-dry business on the lower East Side, in Brooklyn, Hoboken, Weehawken, and Jersey City. In all, probably over three thousand workers have come out for shorter or longer periods. Many of the laundries were completely tied up the first week, about half a dozen settled with the union, and the strike has continued in the remainder, which have organized the Greater New York Wholesale Laundrymen's Association. The Bureau of Mediation and Arbitration of the State Department of Labor was appealed to by social workers and has exercised its power of compulsory investigation¹ and held a hearing on the causes of the strike.

The laundry business of New York may for the most part be divided into

¹Various partial investigations of the New York laundry trade have been made by the Consumers' League, the Bureau of Social Research (an intensive study of a group of West Side laundries), the State Factory Investigating Commission, and the Federal Bureau of Labor. The "inside" study of conditions was that made by Carola Woerlshofer who three summers before her death worked in one laundry after another. Some of her facts and impressions appear in MAKING BOTH ENDS MEET, by Sue Ainslie Clark and Edith Wyatt. (Reviewed in THE SURVEY for January 13, 1911.)

three classes: the 5,000 small so-called hand-laundries which are scattered in every neighborhood of the city; the wholesale rough-dry steam laundries which work in conjunction with them; and, third, the steam laundries which deliver bundles direct to the consumer. The Chinese laundries are a genus by themselves, and have nothing to do with the strike, save as the American women in the trade must compete with the prices which the coolies will work for. The steam "bundle" laundries are not seriously involved in the strike. Many of them possess large and well equipped plants, model from the sanitary point of view of both the consumer and the worker. These do some "flat work" for hotels and steamship lines as well as their "bundle work" for private families. By far the greater part of the bundle work is done by team work between the hand-laundries and the rough-dry plants. "Hand work only" in the window of a clean and modest little shop showing all the signs of that domestic system of industry which is now fast passing away proves to be a delusion and a snare. True, the shirt ironer stands at his board in the window busily at work, and a laundress takes down damp clothing hung realistically on a line to dry, and irons it before the customer's eyes. But the real work of cleansing is done elsewhere. Twice a day the rough-drier's cart draws up and collects soiled linen and returns it twenty-four hours later. Flat work, collars, and cuffs come back washed and ironed, the shirts are rough-dried and starched, and the family washings are returned damp and un-ironed. Out of this work a profit must be made for both wholesaler and retailer, rents must be paid for 5,000 small shops, and at the same time the finished product must be sold cheap enough to the consumer to undercut the steam bundle laundries with their modern machine equipment. This cheapness in large part comes out of the worker, and it is not without justice that the rough-dry establishments are called the sweaters of the trade.

Uncleanness in the product delivered to the consumer is a recognized concomitant of sweating and this uncleanness is found in this instance in the nets, which

are the bags of clothing, weighing anywhere from ten to forty pounds, sent in by the hand laundries. The wholesaler's profit comes out of the shirts and collars, which are charged by the piece; and to get this custom from the hand laundries he handles their nets at cost or below. The muslin bags are dumped unopened into the great washing wheels, and washed, whatever the weight or number of pieces they contain, generally at a flat rate of five cents. The ironed contents at so much an article is the hand-laundry's principal source of profit. The sanitary objections to the nets are obvious. If they contain white pieces only and are not too large and crowded, some safety is assured by the sterilizing process used before water is applied, the acids, and the ten changes of water, heated to 210 degrees, used in the two-and-a-half-hours' washing process. Where the nets contain colored goods, however—and it must be remembered that the nets contain clothes from different households packed together—sterilizing agents cannot be applied; warm water only is used, and the danger of contagion, or at least of the spread of uncleanness or vermin, is great. For three years the wholesalers and the hand laundry men have been fighting over the net system. The wholesalers have attempted to cut out colored nets and limit the size of white nets, but they have been checkmated by hand laundry men who have founded cooperative rough-dry plants to serve them on their own terms. One of the demands of the union has been that the weight of nets be limited to ten pounds in order to save the washmen the strain of lifting large masses of clothing, trebled in weight by water.

The nets are one grievance of one group of workers in the rough-dry establishments—the washers. A general grievance of all groups is unhealthful conditions of work. In striking contrast to the plants of the model steam bundle laundries, the rough-dry establishments usually are to be found in one or more floors of an old-fashioned factory building of the sort which New York is beginning to recognize as fire traps. A clear idea of the conditions of work as well as the processes can best be obtained from a description of one

laundry spoken of by the workers as average. On the first floor of this building were to be found men marking the soiled clothes in the receiving room, which opens into the wash room where the washers and their helpers slop about in soapy water and foam several inches deep. This water underfoot could easily be drawn off by the simple system of broad guttering used in the model plants. In this room are the washing wheels which churn in one direction and then reverse, and the rapidly whirling automatic extractors or wringers. This washing machinery was not hooded, and clouds of steam pervade this room and escape from it to other parts of the laundry.¹ The nets never go above this washing floor.

On the floor above are hot mangles at one end, and down the room are various starching processes and the hot drying closets through which collars and shirts travel very slowly on an endless chain. Flat work goes directly from the wringers to the mangle, where it is ironed, but shirts and collars have to go through many intermediate processes; hence the shapers, the dampners, and the starch containers which complete the furniture of the laundry. These steps in the work are done by women. At the other end of the room male sorters do up the bundles and roll them off on trucks to the elevator.

The whole laundering process from soiled bundle to clean takes only a few hours, but a multitude of hands, working at top speed. The processes, all depending upon heat, are carried on in the great barn-like floors of this typical building, with its wooden stairways and elevators furnishing an excellent flue for flames. Windows at each end give insufficient air and light and no fans or hoods for carrying off heat are supplied in winter. On a cold day the whole room is not overheated, yet in the vicinity of each machine are zones of intense heat. In summer the workers are sup-

plied with ice water and electric fans, but is easy to believe the workers' statements that heat prostration is common. In the course of her laundry experience, Carola Woerrishofer told of her sense of pleasure at the coolness outside, on leaving one laundry on a summer's day. Later she found that the thermometer outside stood 96 degrees in the shade! Of comforts and conveniences, this average laundry offers a partially screened off corner with a chair and a nail or so for the girls to change their clothes.

Some establishments have an insufficient number of toilets to provide separately for men and women. For the most part the retiring rooms for changing clothes on entering or leaving the laundry or for eating lunch are entirely inadequate. There are not chairs enough and in slack periods or lunch time it is customary for many of the workers to sit on boxes, clothes baskets, tables, or even nets of soiled clothes; one woman was found sitting on the floor eating her lunch, the benches supplied being already filled. The popular impression as to women laundry workers is that they are a rather low class of employes, and the working conditions offered by this type of laundry would seem to indicate that the managers have acted on this principle. The fact is, however, that the witnesses before the arbitrators and the rank and file of workers to be seen in the laundries or at strike headquarters belied this reputation. They were quite up to the standard of women workers in the other factory trades. All nationalities are represented, but the Irish-American is predominant. But what was noticeable was the number of emaciated and overtaxed men and women in the thirties and forties whose appearance at the hearings was itself graphic testimony as to these conditions of work. It has been those workers with experience running back five and ten years who have been the back-bone of the strike. One of the union leaders had all the ear-marks of advanced tuberculosis; a starcher who testified as to twelve year's experience was anaemic and faded.

Distance from the windows in the long rooms, heat-producing machinery, heat

¹In one wholesale laundry, otherwise up to the average, the stable opened into a basement washroom and the door between was kept constantly open, as this and the street door were the only means of ventilating the stable. An incidental commentary on the heat of this washroom is given by the fact that the horses have to be removed from the stable in the hottest months of the summer.

and carbon-dioxide from illuminating gas which must be used all day, steam and the smell of acids and starch—all these things, aggravated by a minimum provision of artificial ventilation, or none at all, serve to make the physical conditions in the general run of rough-dry laundries unhealthful. Standing for long hours is another unhealthful feature of this as of all laundry work. Dr. Rosa Liebig in her study of 539 women laundry workers shows¹ that all the common physical complaints, debility, nausea, pains in the legs, flat-foot, slight pelvic and abdominal weakness, are easily attributable to or aggravated by these causes.²

Though the workers made bitter complaints of these unhealthful working conditions, the circular letter sent out on December 29 made no sanitary demands. The demands made were: (a) recognition of the union (the stumbling-block which has retarded settlements so far); (b) the limitation of the weight of nets; (c) a fifty-four-hour week, to be worked out between seven-thirty in the morning and six-thirty in the evening, allowing an hour's interval for lunch; and (d) a minimum scale of pay to govern the different positions in all the laundries. While the union was started by a group of shirt ironers, its general scheme of organization calls for membership of all employes in the industry, male and female, working in all processes. The following table shows the minimum scale struck for and the range of weekly wages in the various processes brought out at the hearing before the state Bureau of Arbitration:

KIND OF WORK	WAGES	
	PRESENT RANGE	UNION MINIMUM
Washers	\$15-30	\$20
Helpers	9-16	15
Markers and Sorters	12-15	15
Drivers	8-25	14
Mangle girls	4-10	6
Starchers	9-21	12
Forewomen	8-17	

¹WOMEN IN THE LAUNDRIES. Report on Condition of Women and Child Wage-Earners in the United States, in 19 volumes. Prepared under the direction of Charels P. Neill. VOL. IV.

²It is in the more modern and completely equipped steam bundle laundries rather than these rough-dry establishments that there is danger from accidents from machinery, and it is in the steam bundle and hand laundries that the serious pelvic and abdominal disorders are to be found as a result of ironing processes.

The current range of pay at every occupation is so wide as to indicate an unstandardized industry. In the various operations around the mangle are to be found little girls of fourteen working for \$4, a mother of forty and her daughter of seventeen both earning \$5, a woman of over forty employed in the same place for eight years at \$5. Swift-ness has something to do with high pay on the mangle, but what seems to have more than that to do with it is the worker's need for the job and what she says she has been getting at her last place. One laundry man who claimed that his minimum was \$6 explained the presence of one worker who was known to be receiving \$5 by the fact that she had told him, on being questioned, that she got that amount at her last place and he could not be expected to pay more than she asked. The low wages, paid to some forewomen makes the title seem meaningless. It is due to the fact that in more than one case girls found to be competent were taken off the mangle and given the more responsible work at the same wages. Starching, which is the most skilled woman's work in the wholesale laundry, is paid for at a fairly high level. Piece starching at long hours pays highest of all women's occupations, but this method of work means high earnings at the price of exhaustion; and the effort of the union is to limit the hours. Some of the most determined strikers are piece workers earning at the old system as high as \$20 a week. Among the men, the drivers' range of pay is wide, the upper limit given being the amount paid two drivers who earned commissions for drumming up trade. The washers are the best paid, though the upper limit of \$30 is not common, the ordinary washer's pay ranging between \$20 and \$25. The helper, to whom the heavy work of lifting the wet nets falls, graduates frequently into the washer. \$16 is rare during the helper period. The aim of the union scale is to standardize wage working day, as many hours as it takes to get the work out. Each batch collected from the hand laundries must be returned within twenty-four hours. The New York law prescribes sixty hours a

week as the maximum for women's work, and ten hours in any one day; but it allows extra hours up to twelve for not to exceed three days in return for a Saturday holiday. Setting aside the striker's testimony entirely, the testimony before the arbitrators of non-union workers now in the laundries showed that the part of this law limiting the twelve-hour shifts to three days in any one week is persistently violated. So is the law forbidding night work and more than eight hours a day for children under sixteen. As for the sixty-hour limit, there seemed little doubt that this too is sometimes violated. The shifting demands made upon laundry work often give a free half or full Saturday, or a part of a Monday free, though by no means to all workers and by no means always or even regularly to any of the workers. Long hours after the late Monday work begins and long hours Tuesday and Friday, with a slight tendency to let up either Wednesday or Thursday in one department of the work or another, is what makes up the count of working hours in the laundry worker's life. From Monday noon up to Saturday, as one laundry worker expressed it, "I know when I am to get to work, but I never know when I am to quit." The extreme hours are shown by the statement of one piece starcher that her highest earnings (\$19.70) were made in five days during which she worked ninety hours. A male sorter, whose testimony was borne out by the private statement of another in the same line of work, stated before the board that on Friday he sometimes worked from seven o'clock in the morning till six the following morning, preparing Sunday's clean linen to be delivered on Saturday. rates in all processes and to set a minimum above the sweating limit—\$6 a week for women, \$12 for men.

In the rough-dry steam laundry the workers may be said to put in not so many hours a day or so many a week but simply, systematically, on every This was due, he said, to the fact that the mangle girls did not stop their work till midnight. A washer's hours on Monday are given by an employer as from half-past six in the morning to nine or ten in the evening. That drivers'

hours are long and viciously spread out between daily morning and night collections was acknowledged by more than one employer. Hours were given for individual men and women as follows: Seventy-five (a sorter); seventy-three (a washer); sixty-three (a mangle girl); sixty-five (worked by a starcher within four days). These statements count out three-quarters of an hour for lunch. Supper time, though required by law, is seldom given in the laundries, the workers "snatching a bite" at their work. In many of the schedules presented at the hearings women's hours kept well up to the men's. Different groups and different laundries have widely different schedules, if schedules they can be called, which vary with fluctuating business¹ from week to week. The following hours for different groups are by no means the most extreme statements of some of the striking workers:

WASHER.	
Mon. . . 8:00 a.m.—	9:30 p.m.
Tues. . . 7:00 "	—10:00 "
Wed. . . 7:00 "	— 8:30 "
Thu. . . 7:00 "	— 8:00 "
Fri. . . 7:00 "	—7 or 9 "
Sat. . . 8:00 "	—12 noon.
Total 68 hours.	
SORTER.	
Mon. . . 8:00 a.m.—	10:30 p.m.
Tues. . . 7:00 "	—10:30 "
Wed. . . 7:00 "	— 9:30 "
Thu. . . 7:00 "	— 8:00 "
Fri. . . 7:00 "	— 7:30 "
Saturday free.	
Total 70 hours.	
DRIVER.	
Mon. . . 7:30 a.m.—	11:00 p.m.
Tues. . . 8:00 "	— 9:00 "
Wed. . . 8:00 "	— 9:00 "
Thu. . . 8:00 "	— 8:00 "
Fri. . . 8:00 "	—12 m'night.
Sat. . . 8:30 "	— 4:00 "
Total 73 hours.	
MANGLE GIRL.	
Mon. . . 2:00 p.m.—	6:30 p.m.
Tues. . . 7:30 a.m.—	6:30 "
Wed. . . 7:30 "	— 6:30 "
Thu. . . 7:30 "	— 9:30 "
Fri. . . 7:30 "	— 9:30 "
Sat. an "hour or two" or sometimes free.	
Total 56½ hours.	
STARCHER.	
Mon. . . 11:00 a.m.—	1:00 a.m.
Tues. . . 7:00 "	—11:00 p.m.
Wed. . . 8:30 "	—10:30 "
Thu. . . 8:30 "	— 9:00 "
Fri. . . 8:30 "	— 8:00 "
Saturday free.	
Total 68 hours.	

¹Laundry work is, according to the federal report for some reason not easy to trace, characterized not by rush seasons but by rush weeks in individual laundries.

From all the totals a deduction for lunch hours has been made except on Saturdays and where Monday work begins late. One of these schedules violates the sixty-hour law for women and the twelve-hour limit for over-time. It is one of many women's schedules presented at the hearing on the strike that violates one or both of these laws. The excessive hours for starchers, not infrequently far into the morning, are spoken of again and again by the strikers. All the schedules illustrate the peculiarities of Monday and Saturday hours. The following approximation, made by one of the workers from memory, shows the hours at which those engaged in the different processes work on Monday in one laundry and illustrates further that the groups do not at all coincide:

Washer	5:30 a.m.— 8:00 p.m.
Markers and Sorters	6:00 a.m.— 8:00 p.m.
Drivers	8:00 a.m.—11:00 p.m.
Starchers	9:00 a.m.—10:30 p.m.
Mangle Girls	11:00 a.m.— 8:30 p.m.

Not only do groups of workers come to work at different times, but they are busy and idle at different times during the day—all groups waiting at intervals for new lots of work to be prepared for them. These swinging periods, during which the workers can seldom go home but simply stand around like idle machinery, to be turned on and off at need, range in different departments and in different weeks from three hours a week to three hours a day and are partly instrumental in accounting for the excessively long hours on some days. Starchers are especially subject to these de-

lays; the long swing between morning and night collections is a regular daily event for the driver, and the washer is also much affected by it.¹ It affects somewhat less the mangle girls and sorters, but no group—except in cases where those on one class of work are put during their idle time on another class, with no diminution of the total hours per day—is entirely unaffected by the swing.

Throughout the study of hours it must have been apparent that it is not the individual but the work on hand that is the determining factor. The workers' leisure is not their own to plan for, in the ten months' busy season at any rate; a larger collection one week may kill a plan for a night off, or delay in collection due to the weather or other accident may extend the day by an extra long swing—a form of idleness that can hardly be called leisure. Under these circumstances it would seem that by far the most important clause in the laundry worker's demands is the one providing for regularity and limitation of hours. Some laundries are said to be making an attempt independently to put these hours into practice; but whether, without a law forbidding night work or without complete organization of the trade to enforce standards of hours, and in the face of competition and the pressure of the man with the bundle of dirty linen, impatient, unthinking, demanding his linen back the day after to-morrow because he can get it one place if not in another, they will be able to keep to the new schedule remains to be seen.

A STRIKE FOR FOUR LOAVES OF BREAD

LEWIS E. PALMER

Ten thousand singing, cheering men and women, boys and girls, in ragged irregular lines, marching and counter-marching through snow and slush for two hours of a raw January afternoon—a procession of the nations of the world never equalled in the "greatest show on earth"—surged through the streets of Lawrence, Mass., on

the afternoon of Thursday, January 18. There you saw native-born Americans, Russians and Syrians, Germans and Armenians, English and Belgians, Irish and Poles, Portuguese and Austrians and Scotch. You listened to the quavering notes of the Marseillaise from

¹In one laundry the washer, by the employer's statement, swings regularly for over three hours on Monday morning.

a trudging group of French women and you heard the strain caught up by hundreds of other marchers and melt away into the whistled chorus of rag-time from a bunch of doffer boys. Strange songs and strange shouts from strange un-at-home-looking men and women, 10,000 of them; striking because their pay envelopes had been cut "four loaves of bread."

For a mile along the Merrimac river in the heart of Lawrence stretch the now emptied woolen and cotton mills which employed close to 25,000 men, women, and children. The four woolen mills, Wood, Ayer, Washington, and Lower Pacific, are owned by the American Woolen Company. The Arlington, Pemberton, Lawrence Duck, Everett, Prospect, Upper Pacific, and Atlantic mills manufacture cotton or cotton and worsteds.

It has been said that more languages are spoken within the mill district of Lawrence than in any other place of equal size in the world. True or not, within a mile radius of the district are spoken half a hundred different tongues.

The trouble came among the unskilled, non-English-speaking men and women "out of a clear sky," the manufacturers say, after a two-hour cut in time and wages accompanying the new "fifty-four-hour law." The reduction in time was foreseen; but only in the sense that it was foreseen by the mill owners and a small proportion of foreign working men and women to whom suggestions of the news might have sifted from the daily papers.

On January 1 the new law went into effect. Although framed in the interests of women and minors under eighteen, the mill owners, who had been opposed to the legislation from the beginning, make the fifty-four-hour ruling applicable to the men as well, for the larger per cent of the operatives are women and children. The strike leaders say that the operatives made an attempt, several days before the law went into operation, to learn if their wages were to be cut along with their hours; but the mill owners were not inclined, apparently, to divulge the secret to all their employes until Friday, January 12, when the

trouble started in the Wood and Washington mills with the opening of the docked pay envelopes. Before the afternoon was over Lawrence had a riot on its hands.

In the Wood and Washington plants, 500 Italians started by rushing through the mills, smashing windows, and inducing fellow workers to join in the rumpus. The disturbance quickly spread through the district until 4,000 striking men and women were marching through the streets of the mill district. Strikes were new to Lawrence, and the police were unable to cope with the difficulty. As a matter of fact the actual violence on the first day and throughout the following week could have been controlled by an efficient police force half the size of that in Lawrence. On Monday Mayor Scanlon issued a precept calling out the militia, after a crowd of strikers had attempted to force their way into City Hall for a meeting. Aside from this fracas, the soldier's job for the remainder of the week consisted principally in patrol duty throughout the mile-long mill district. The Boston reporters did their best to manufacture daily stories about outbreaks between soldiers and strikers and they usually managed to draw good boldface lines from the head writers. The newspaper photographers were everywhere and perhaps the best example of their art was a picture of one of their own number being "repelled at the point of the bayonet" by a citizen soldier who was trying hard to "see red." By January 22, Col. E. Leroy Sweetser had a complete regiment of militia at his command and some people wondered why.

The textile workers of Lawrence, aside from the comparatively few English-speaking operatives, are largely unorganized. Up to Saturday, January 20, the strikers were leaderless; but in the afternoon of that day, the second of the strike, Joseph B. Ettor of New York, a member of the Executive Council of the Industrial Workers of the World, took the leadership. Ettor is an Italian, twenty-six years of age, short and stocky, a fiery speaker and a Socialist. He found in Lawrence a group of about 1,200 mill workers, members of Local 20 of the Industrial Workers of the



JOSEPH ETTOR.

Member of the Executive Council of the Industrial Workers of the World.

World. The cosmopolitan character of the mill operatives is well shown in this organization, which has four halls where English-speaking, French, Belgian, Italian, and Polish members meet. The preamble to the constitution of the Industrial Workers of the World shows the Socialistic character of the organization and explains why the United Textile Workers, under John Golden's presidency—the old-line craft organization of the skilled textile workers, which pins its faith on collective bargaining—refused to take active part in the strike under Ettor's leadership:

The working class and the employing class have nothing in common. There can be no peace so long as hunger and want are found among millions of working people, and the few who make up the employers' class have all the good things of life.

Between the two classes a struggle must go on until the workers of the world organize as a class, take possession of the earth and the machinery of production, and abolish the wage system.

Instead of the conservative motto: "A Fair Day's Wages for a Fair Day's Work," we must inscribe on our banner the revolutionary watchword, "Abolition of the Wage System."

The primary cause of the strike, the

two hours' cut in the weekly pay envelope, was, shortly after Ettor assumed command, merged in a series of demands upon the mill owners. These demands included a 15 per cent increase in wages, the abolishment of the premium and bonus systems, and double pay for overtime work. It was around the question of wages that the trouble centered.

Under this new militant leadership, pay day brought hundreds of new discontents under the banner of the Industrial Workers of the World. Before the trouble was a week old, 10,000 men and women, boys and girls, had become actively identified with the strike, and as many more were affected, either through intimidation or the shutting down of the mills. On the afternoon of January 19 about a thousand more skilled operatives went out. Across every street leading to the mill district companies of militia, armed with clubs or guns, kept the way clear for a few hundred operatives who remained at work unmolested by the strikers.

Early in the week the police made arrests on the slightest provocation and the fine social sense of Judge Mahoney, who has dealt out the severest sentences possible, is shown in a statement which he made in disposing of the case of Salvatore Toresse. The judge said:

This is an epoch in our history. Never can any of us remember when such demonstrations of lawless presumption have taken place. These men, mostly foreigners, perhaps do not mean to be offenders. They do not realize the gravity of their offences and do not know the laws. *Therefore the only way we can teach them is to deal out the severest sentences.* I am convinced that this Toresse is a man of influence among his people and that he took a part only out of pure sympathy.

Toresse was fined \$100 for intimidation and \$10 for disturbance and given six months' imprisonment for rioting. If, as Judge Mahoney said, these foreigners "do not know the laws," who is responsible? What have the mill owners been doing to Americanize the 25,000 employes whom they have drawn from all quarters of Europe to run their plant? Figures collected in 1907 showed the total foreign-born population of Lawrence as 37,000. Since that date there has been a

great influx of operatives from southern Europe, following the opening of new mills built by the American Woolen Company. Just how this immigration was induced has not been explained, although an immigration inspector has been sent to Lawrence to determine whether the contract labor law has been violated by the mill corporations. The responsibility which the mill owners manifest for the welfare of these employes is summed up in clean, light, and airy rooms (some of the mills have escalators and elevators). It stops there, with one exception—a day nursery where the children of the women operatives are kept while their mothers work. But even this make-shift philanthropy does not serve all those who might use it, for hours of work have been so long that the mothers get their neighbors to tend their little ones.

What Lawrence itself has been doing through public or private organizations in behalf of its foreign dwellers I learned from one of the leading men of the city, to whom I had been referred because of his knowledge of social conditions. It was the opinion of this citizen that if it were true that the average wage of unskilled labor in the mills is only about \$6, the striking men and women would still be much better off than they were in their homes in the old country. I found that the alien operatives "banked a good deal of their wages" and, most important of all, that "the three savings banks never paid less than 4 per cent." I learned that social settlements were unknown in many-tongued Lawrence, and that the only experiment of the kind was made a year ago by a group of Andover school boys who opened a club room for a few of the foreign workers. My inform-



POURING WATER ON TROUBLED SPIRITS.

A rioter fired a shot at some mill watchmen and they retaliated by playing the fire hose on a group of strikers



PICKETING THE MILLS.

Idlers and strikers brave a snow storm. The men lined up by the fence are militiamen.

ant told me that the new Young Men's Christian Association was doing considerable educational work, "but only one mill had contributed to the fund for the new building." He was prompt in telling me, however, that all the mills were heavy supporters of the hospital which, I found, has received over \$53,000 in gifts and legacies from the textile industries of the city. Playgrounds I found there are a few, unequipped with apparatus, and for that matter there was little need for playgrounds, I was told, owing to the open country which could be reached by anyone after a few minutes' walk. In fact, so many of the foreigners invade the country roads on quiet summer Sundays that "the pleasure of walking is quite marred by the hordes of aliens."

There is a law in Massachusetts by which the state pays half of the cost of establishing industrial schools in any community which will shoulder the other half of the burden. Under this law the Lawrence Industrial School was established five years ago. In training boys for the textile industries and in teaching girls the household duties, this school has demonstrated its usefulness. The night work which includes special courses in mechanics for men has been particularly valuable.

The Lawrence City Mission, which serves as the charity organization society of the city and whose cases are largely

among the families of the operatives, is handsomely supported by the mills.

If the statements made by the strikers regarding wages is true, it would seem that the Lawrence City Mission would have its hands full. In a dingy back room of an Italian house I saw over fifty empty pay envelopes which had been returned to the bank as representing average wages of men employes. The amounts written on those envelopes together with the character of the work performed are classified below:

1 week winding room.....	\$6.34
1 week winding room.....	5.50
1 week winding room.....	6.10
1 week winding room.....	4.55
1 week winding room.....	4.18
1 week winding room.....	6.20
1 week winding room.....	5.53
1 week winding room.....	5.99
1 week winding room.....	5.50
1 week and 1 hour winding room...	5.60
1 week and 1 hour winding room...	6.40
1 week and 1 hour winding room...	5.29
1 week spinning room.....	5.71
1 week spinning room.....	4.92
1 week spinning room.....	5.83
1 week spinning room.....	6.55
1 week spinning room.....	4.92
1 week spinning room.....	4.51
1 week spinning room.....	6.37
1 week spinning room.....	5.90
1 week spooling room.....	6.05
1 week drawing room.....	6.74
1 week drawing room.....	5.57
1 week drawing room.....	5.50
1 week and 6 hours drawing room..	5.27
1 week drawing and doffing.....	7.05
1 week bobbin setter.....	4.18
1 week bobbin setter.....	5.10
1 week bobbin setter.....	4.92
1 week bobbin setter.....	4.18
1 week carding room.....	3.06
1 week and 5 hours carding room...	7.01
1 week beaming room.....	5.83
1 week dryer house.....	6.83
1 week combing room.....	6.90
1 week combing room.....	6.39
1 week 3 hours combing room.....	6.40
1 week 3 hours combing room.....	6.16
4 days winding room.....	3.50
4 1/2 days spinning room.....	3.33
5 1/2 days winding room.....	4.59
3 days combing room.....	3.06
4 days combing room.....	4.40
3 1/2 days combing room.....	3.51
5 days winding room.....	4.79
5 days combing room.....	6.79
4 1/2 days combing room.....	5.19
4 1/2 days beaming room.....	4.95
5 days drawing room.....	6.03
3 days beaming room.....	3.00
4 1/2 days winding room.....	4.99
5 days winding room.....	4.40
4 days winding room.....	3.70
5 days winding room.....	4.91

Ettor declares that the average pay of mill employes as shown by the pay rolls of 15,000 to 25,000 operatives is about \$6 a week in the busy season.

A committee of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers recently prepared a table of statistics from figures

furnished by the manufacturers, for the familiar purpose of comparing high wages in this country with low wages paid in England and on the continent. In the worsted spinning mills the greatest percentage of the employes are spinners, doffers, sweepers, and twisters. The average weekly pay of doffers and sweepers, places filled by boys and girls, is respectively \$4.50 and \$4. Spinners, men and women, receive from \$6 to \$7 a week, and twisters \$7.50.

A statement made by Winthrop L. Marvin, secretary and treasurer of the national association, credits the mills of Lawrence with paying as good wages as any mills in Massachusetts. In an interview he is quoted as saying:

The Lawrence mills are modern, with the best equipment, and being highly efficient the operatives are well paid—that is, for textile workers. It must be understood that textile workers rank among the lowest paid of all our industrial wage-earners. Compared with other industries the scale in textile factories seems low; but when we make a comparison of the wages in the textile industry those in Massachusetts are high. For instance, Massachusetts textile workers receive an average of twice as much as the operatives of the same classes in England, and more than twice as much as those employed in the mills on the continent.

Conditions in the textile industry do not attract English-speaking people. This accounts for the presence of so many Italians, Poles, Lithuanians, and Russians among the Lawrence strikers.

President William M. Wood of the American Woolen Company said in a statement issued on the first day of the strike:

There has been no reduction in the rate of wages, but it cannot be expected that people who work fifty-four hours should be paid the wages equivalent to fifty-six hours' work. To pay for fifty-four hours of work the wages of fifty-six hours would be equivalent to an increase in wages. While manufacturers under normal conditions would be glad to see their employes earn more money, the Massachusetts mills are paying all that they can afford to pay in the present situation. The mills are still suffering from a long period of extreme depression due to the tariff agitation at Washington.

I believe that as soon as our employes understand the real issue and where the responsibility actually rests they will see that their action at Lawrence was hasty and ill-advised. There is no cause for striking, and when the employes find that justice is not on

their side the strike cannot possibly be long-lived. I look for an early resumption of work.

As against these statements, it is generally understood that the new Wood mill, one of the largest in the country, has paid for itself, equipment and all, in the two years since it was completed.

The mill owners have said that the pay envelopes produced by the strikers were selected "for the good of the cause" and that the average wage of the operatives is over \$9. A statement issuing from the Pacific Mills is to the effect that the average pay during a full-time month for all operatives, excluding overseers, is \$9.36. Out of 6,000 hands only eighteen received less than \$6, and six of the eighteen were children.

Charles Wolcott, treasurer of the Atlantic Cotton Mills, told me that wages in the cotton industry are higher in Lawrence than in any other city in Massachusetts. Said Mr. Wolcott:

We are losing money now, and if this strike goes against us the industry will be crippled, and some of the mills will have to close down indefinitely. Without saying that the scale of wages in Lawrence is as high as it should be—and I think that all of the mill owners would like to raise wages if the business allowed it—bear in mind the fact that the Lawrence cotton mills are paying higher wages than the mills of New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, or the South. Then consider that these mills outside the state are working some fifty-six, some fifty-eight, and some sixty hours a week, and judge for yourself how enviable is the position of a Massachusetts cotton manufacturer today. We're stuck whether we win or lose this strike.

President Wood of the American Woolen Company said of the wage scale:

Personally, I believe and have said that the wages in the textile industry are too low and that with returning prosperity such increase as the company can afford should be granted. Nevertheless, the reports circulated as to wages actually paid in our mills are entirely untrue.

Doffing and bobbin setting—the work of boys and inexperienced hands—is paid at a low rate, just as cash girls and errand boys in a department store are paid small wages. But you know that these wages are exceptional and that the great mass of our employes receive considerably over \$9 per week. Do you think it would be fair to judge the wages of a department store by

the wages of cash girls and errand boys?

The government reports show that the wages paid at Lawrence are actually higher than in any other textile district in the country. Moreover, the fact that deposits in the savings banks of Lawrence amount to over \$20,000,000, made largely by mill employes, and the further fact that since 1906 over \$800,000 has been sent out of Lawrence to foreign countries through the post office alone (not to speak of the large amounts sent through bankers and other channels), are significant on the question whether the rate of wages now paid is unfair.

The Tariff Board report on Schedule K included a study of labor and machine efficiency in forty-four woolen and worsted mills in fourteen states. In the following table the board gives the weekly earnings of Lawrence employes compared with those of the Philadelphia district:

KIND OF WORK	WEEKLY EARNINGS			
	Philadelphia District.		Lawrence District.	
Wool sorter	\$6.50	\$17.00	\$10.00	\$16.50
Scouring machine tender	7.00	12.00	7.00	11.00
Card feeder	5.50	9.00	6.00	8.00
Card stripper	7.00	11.00	7.50	9.00
Card tender	5.00	10.00	6.00	8.00
Comb tender	5.00	9.50	7.50	10.00
Gill box tender	4.50	9.00	6.00	9.00
Back-wash tender	5.00	9.00	6.50	8.00
Drawing frame tender	4.00	8.00	6.00	9.50
Frame spinner	5.00	7.00	6.50	8.50
Doffer	4.00	5.00	5.00	7.50
Mule spinner (woolen)	10.00	16.00	11.00	17.00
Mule spinner (worsted)	10.00	15.00	13.00	21.00
Twisting frame tender	5.00	8.50	6.00	8.00
Reeler (time work)	5.00	7.50	6.50	7.50
Warp dresser	11.00	16.50	13.00	17.50
Spooler	4.50	6.00	5.00	9.00
Drawer-in	10.00	13.00	6.00	12.00
Header-in	3.50	5.00	4.00	5.00
Weaver	6.00	18.00	9.00	18.00
Burler	4.50	10.00	6.00	9.00
Washer tender	7.00	10.00	7.50	11.00
Fulling machine tender	7.50	10.00	8.50	11.00
Steamer tender	8.00	9.00	7.50	11.00
Dyer tender	4.50	11.00	7.00	9.50
Shearer	6.50	11.00	7.00	15.50
Pressing machine tender	6.00	18.00	7.50	10.00
Examlnr	8.00	19.00	11.00	16.00

(Doffers, spoolers, etc., are usually youths or girls.)

Read this table¹ and then read what Professor Chapin, perhaps our most serious and practical student of costs of living, says of a wage belt appreciably above the \$9-\$10 weekly earnings which the Lawrence mill operators claim is the true average of their wages. The study of housing conditions which is being carried out under the White Trust Fund may

throw further light on the situation. Professor Chapin says:

The medium wage for the employes of all the factory industries of the country is stated by the Census Bureau to have been, in 1905, between \$10 and \$12. If the budgets that we have been considering are in any way representative, it is difficult to believe that in cities like New York, Pittsburgh, and Chicago this is a living wage, save for a single man. We need the light of further investigation of the question, by industries and localities; but where we find such tokens of a low standard of living as the crowding of homes with lodgers, dependence upon the earnings of mother and children, recurring debt and destitution, the presumption raised by our study of the budgets is strengthened. Where congested housing is all that can be had for one-fourth of the family income, where dependence on charity is the only refuge in case of illness and accident, we have further corroboration of our tentative conclusions.

That new-comers from Europe can be had with fresh strength for sale at low prices does not prevent the deterioration of their children. . . . It is important for us to find out whether we are heedlessly exhausting the working power of our people at the same time that we are wantonly wasting our natural resources; and if it be true that we are thus allowing our industries to eat into our human capital, it behooves us to apply corrective measures before it is too late.

Stories of settlement and arbitration have been circulated freely during the week. At first the mill owners refused to cooperate with any committee of strikers. Then the employers agreed to meet committees in each mill, but the manufacturers refused to go into a joint conference on the ground that Ettor and Wm. D. Haywood, of the Industrial Workers of The World, who came to Lawrence on January 24, appeared among the representatives of the strikers.

Upon the failure of the peace negotiations, Governor Foss on January 25 sent a special message to the Legislature calling for an immediate investigation of the strike. He said among other things:

I call your attention to the serious condition existing in the city of Lawrence, where an extensive strike of factory operatives has occurred. Disturbances of the peace have arisen. I have been compelled to order twelve companies of militia to that city to safeguard public and private property and the public, including the unemployed operatives themselves, from outbreaks of disorder and lawlessness.

Not the slightest approach to anarchy can be tolerated in this commonwealth and I shall

¹PROCEEDINGS NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, St. Louis, 1910.

not hesitate to employ every means at my command to maintain law and order; but the duty of the state does not end here, and I should perform but the smaller part of my duty if I failed at this juncture to recommend a searching investigation of all the facts relating to the strike, including the condition of the striking operatives.

The immediate cause of the strike is reported to be reduction of wages consequent upon the operation of a law enacted last year by which the hours of labor of certain classes of factory employes were reduced from fifty-six to fifty-four hours a week. Investigation may show that some reduction of wages was necessary; when the law in question was under consideration it was fully understood that such a reduction might occur, at least temporarily.

In the interval since the first outbreak on January 12, public opinion has taken a sympathetic turn towards the strikers. One factor was the big stories with scare-heads, which appeared in the Sunday papers of January 21, about quantities of dynamite discovered in Lawrence. That the whole affair was a

"plant" seems to have become the opinion of even the most conservative Boston newspapers. Meanwhile Ettor won the sympathy of many of his critics through the effective way in which he handled the situation.

Whatever the immediate result, the strike may well usher in a new era in the mills of Lawrence. Heretofore the owners have never been obliged to deal with any committee that represented more than one mill or a department of one mill. The unskilled operators were practically unorganized. Now they claim a membership of 10,000 in the Industrial Workers of the World, which is organized not along craft lines, but as a mass union, running from top to bottom of the industry. As this is written the men have already received some recognition from the manufacturers. To quote Ettor, "they are beginning to see that we are something more than mere textile workers, but are human beings."



KEEPING THE BRIDGE.

A crowd of strikers at a mill bridge. A cordon of police guards the entrance.

AN ALLEGORY OF METROPOLITAN PLANNING

J. RANDOLPH COOLIDGE, Jr.¹

Once upon a time thirty-eight families agreed to build a house.

They had enough land, considerable borrowing capacity, and unlimited self-confidence. Each family wanted to build its own part of the house exactly as it pleased. The cellar and the roof were admitted to be common to all, and after some discussion they decided to go shares on these parts of the building and have a builder and a building committee to look after them.

Then they started to draw their plans.

And the Brooklines planned an elegant suite with tiled baths, French windows, open fire-places, and white marble exterior. The Miltons schemed a cosy flat with English half-timbered work outside and leaded windows; the Bostons laid out three stories of rooms, twenty-six in all, the lower story fire-proof, the upper two warranted to burn in any weather. The Nahants wanted sleeping porches and white stucco, the Somervilles chose concrete blocks, the Wakefields stained shingles, and the Winchesters a Colonial effect in white clapboards.

The differences did not stop with the outside, for the Quincys stood for seven-foot studding, while the Reveres on the same floor wanted twelve. The Lynns were content with a narrow entry, while the Swampscotts beyond them wanted a wide one, and everybody quarreled over the placing of the stairs. The families on the ground floor didn't need stairs and didn't want to pay for any. The top-story families didn't care to deaden their floors, and most of the plumbing pipes had to run through a neighbor's best rooms and could be heard if not seen.

When the plans were completed, the heads of the families held an interesting meeting at which each proclaimed his own needs and intentions to be carried out regardless, or else he and his would go on living in a back street in an inconvenient ugly house all by themselves. At last some one said:

"Let us call in an architect and show him our plans. I don't suppose he can give every one of us exactly what we are asking for. Maybe some of our climbers will have to comfort themselves with cut-glass door knobs and silk rugs just for their own use, but if he knows his business he will give us the right kind of entries and halls and stairs and lifts, and will make the house look better, sell better, and cost less than our brilliant but inharmonious efforts. If we don't like his plans we can make him show others till we get what we want—within reason. Shall we do it?"

And the thirty-eight families saw the light and employed the expert and he builded better than they knew.

¹Mr. Coolidge is a member of the temporary Metropolitan Plan Commission, Boston, which has recently reported on the necessity of the thirty-eight towns in Boston's Metropolitan District planning for their future development in a comprehensive manner.

THE FLOOD

PITTSBURGH'S PROBLEM AND ITS NATIONAL SIGNIFICANCE

MORRIS KNOWLES, C. E.

Pittsburgh suffered a direct loss of \$6,500,000 by three floods that occurred in the twelve months from March 15, 1907, to March 20, 1908. The report of the National Waterways Commission states that the flood losses in the Ohio valley for 1907 was over \$100,000,000.

Encroachments made by man upon the natural channels of rivers have contributed to the extent of damage from floods. The width of the channel has been decreased by filling along the banks, to provide additional room for manufacturing plants and railroad tracks; the depth of the stream has been decreased by the silting up of the bed by debris, owing to the quickened erosion from cultivated areas; the construction of bridge piers, many of them not in line and often surrounded by excessive rip-rapping, together with the building of dams and other works for the control of stream flow, has materially restricted the free discharge of flood waters. Of even greater importance are the intensity and distribution of precipitation, the topography of the watershed, and conditions of forest and ground cover. Most of these fundamental causes cannot be influenced to any degree by man, yet by building works to regulate the flow at the headwaters, where such regulation is most effective, he can practically secure control of the stream flows throughout their entire courses.

Because of acute home conditions, and believing that the valuation of property in the flood district is \$50,000,000 less than it would be if the annual flood damage did not occur, the people of Pittsburgh have been studying this problem for the last four years. What has been accomplished is not only of great benefit to the Allegheny and Monongahela valleys uniting at this city, and to the Ohio valley as far as Cairo, but the principles evolved are of broad application and should engage nation-wide attention.

The earliest known report in the

United States upon the control of river floods was that of Charles Ellet, Jr., in 1849. It related to the improvement of the Mississippi and Ohio rivers and advised the building of reservoirs upon the Allegheny and Monongahela basins so as to supplement the Mississippi levee system and to prevent floods at the source, as well as to give more water for navigation at times of low flow. In 1857 W. Milner Roberts, C. E., stated that such a project was impractical, both because of physical conditions and of the impossibility of financing any such reservoir scheme. This apparently has been the accepted view and little attention was given this subject for fifty years, except for an adverse pronouncement in 1873 by Major Wm. E. Merrill, and the report relating to the irrigation movement in 1897 by Col. H. M. Chittenden.

In 1907, following the great flood, T. P. Roberts, C. E., son of the former author, presented a paper upon this subject before the Engineers' Society of Western Pennsylvania. The entire discussion was thus re-opened and many other civic bodies, principally the Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce, took up the subject anew. The author confined his attention largely to walls and local means of prevention. There were several discussions which pleaded for a broader view of the problem and expressed the desire, now so nearly fulfilled, that a comprehensive study should be made with accurate surveys, data, and estimates. About this time many discussions were presented, in various professional periodicals, centering about proposed schemes of reservoirs, and the consideration of the Appalachian Forest Bill by the national Congress.

In view of the desultory interest taken in this matter and the long postponement of any detailed study, it is interesting to glance for a moment to similar work in foreign countries. The older nations of Europe have long been ahead of us in painstaking study and building of public

works. They have the patience and foresight to provide not alone for the present and for local surroundings but for future generations also and for the country as a whole.

The greatest system of artificial reservoirs is located at the head waters of the Volga and Msta rivers in Russia. These reservoirs, with a combined capacity of 35,000,000,000 cubic feet, have been notably successful in preventing floods and improving navigation upon both rivers for a length of 450 miles. In Germany the construction of such works has been more extensively carried on than anywhere else. Many are built solely for the purpose of flood control, while some are for other public water uses. The cost has frequently been met by state appropriations, district assessments, and in some instances by associations of manufacturers or interested persons. The reservoirs number in the scores and the total cost reaches many millions of dollars. The same is true of the Bohemian district of Austria, where the Oder and Elbe have been thus thoroughly protected. On our own continent the largest system of artificial reservoirs in the world is now being constructed upon

the Ottawa river basin in Canada. This river has a length of 700 miles and a drainage area of 56,000 square miles. While these reservoirs will play an important part in the proposed Georgian Bay canal project, they are being constructed principally because of the great benefit in preventing flood damage.

In 1898 the representatives of the Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce caused to be introduced at a meeting of the National Board of Trade a resolution stimulating interest in the National Irrigation movement; this resolution, it has been said, resulted in the passage of the Reclamation Act and the carrying on of this great work in the arid west. The discussion at that time shows great interest in reservoirs as a regulating agency for streams like the Ohio river and its tributaries.

In January 1908 the Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce appointed a committee to appear before the Agricultural Committee of the national House of Representatives in favor of the so-called Lever Bill for the acquisition of national forests in the Southern Appalachian and White Mountains. Shortly thereafter, in



FLOOD OF MARCH 15, 1907.

North side of Federal street, looking south toward Allegheny river, from Laycock street.

connection with the report of this committee, the chamber passed a resolution referring to the frequent flood stages, to the great property damage, sickness, and suffering, and to the urgent need of preventing this annual loss, and calling for the appointment of a Committee of Seven to suggest plans by which the city might be protected from floods. This committee had the power to add to its membership and was given an initial fund of \$3,000 to carry on investigations. From time to time, men representing various professional and business interests of Pittsburgh have been added, until there are thirty-four members, and over \$100,000 has been expended upon the work.

The studies undertaken at the outset were entirely local in character. In fact, it was commonly believed, not only by the people in general, but by many of the members, that the most probable work would be in the nature of raising streets and buildings, erecting walls, and increasing river channel sections. It was suggested that little money need be spent for making surveys or investigations outside of the local limits, as it might be taken for granted that such methods of relief would be impracticable. An adequate appropriation for reservoir and watershed surveys was only secured by the argument that in such public investigation it is often quite as necessary to show what cannot be done as to show what can be done. Thus, down to a very recent date, the people of Pittsburgh, including those most intimately interested, did not realize the far-reaching effect and fundamental importance of the problem they had undertaken to solve. Now that the problem is seen in its interstate and national bearings, the whole water-way question is being considered *de novo*, and it is likely that the national government will determine upon a new policy in regard to inland waters.

It was early realized that accurate data with regard to rainfall and stream flow would be necessary. From the records of eighty-four stations upon the Allegheny and Monongahela drainage areas, the seasonal and monthly distribution of rainfall were studied. Many gauging stations were established upon the main riv-

ers and tributaries, in order to furnish the data for calculating the stream flows coming into the Pittsburgh district.

In addition to accurate surveys of the local territory affected, the field work of the Engineering Committee of the commission included careful surveys and thorough investigations of most of the tributaries where it is possible to construct dams and reservoirs. This work comprised contour maps of possible reservoirs, profiles of sites of dams, study of geological indications, valuation of land and improvements. Upon these data calculations and designs of dams and works of control and estimates of cost were based. The methods of carrying on these investigations and surveys are recorded, together with cost of each class of work, in appendices to the report. These contain valuable material and statements of expense for others wishing to engage in similar work.

By co-operation with the United States Forestry Service, with the Department of Agriculture and the Department of Forestry of the state of Pennsylvania, a comprehensive forest study was made of the entire drainage area of the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers. The results are recorded upon a map which shows the relative portions of cleared and wooded areas and the character of the timber remaining. This part of the report furnishes valuable information with regard to these basins, totaling 19,000 square miles; and this is the first time, in the United States, that such a detailed and thorough study of forest conditions has been made over so large an area. This appendix is concluded with a discussion of the effect of forests upon stream flow and is a valuable contribution to the meagre literature on the subject.

The report proper is divided into twelve chapters, the first of which gives the results of the investigations in a summarized form and is condensed at the end of this article. Chapter II gives a description of the Allegheny and Monongahela basins which is necessary to a proper understanding of the conditions. Chapter III gives the history of the floods upon the two basins and shows that they have been increasing in frequency and

intensity in recent years, as is indicated in the following table:

FIVE YEAR PERIODS	NUMBER OF FLOODS ABOVE 22 FEET—DANGER
1871-1875	2
1876-1880	3
1881-1885	6
1886-1890	8
1891-1895	7
1896-1900	5
1901-1905	11
1906-1910	11

It is evident, from a careful study, that with the right combination of flood-producing conditions upon the different watersheds a flood of forty feet is possible at Pittsburgh.

Chapter IV gives a statement of the flood damages which have been summarized in the opening remarks, and Chapter V presents a review of the methods of flood relief that are possible. Chapter VI discusses the storage possibilities, with a description of each project and with estimates. Chapter VII relates in detail, and by the use of tables and diagrams, how flood prevention can be accomplished by means of storage reservoirs. A careful analysis is made of the crest of the flood from each of the important tributaries, both in time element and in volume, as it reaches Pittsburgh. The subtraction of the height of each separate stream flood peak from the Pittsburgh total height for each flood indicates the reduction that could be secured at Pittsburgh, in case each tributary flood could be retained by proper means in its own basin.

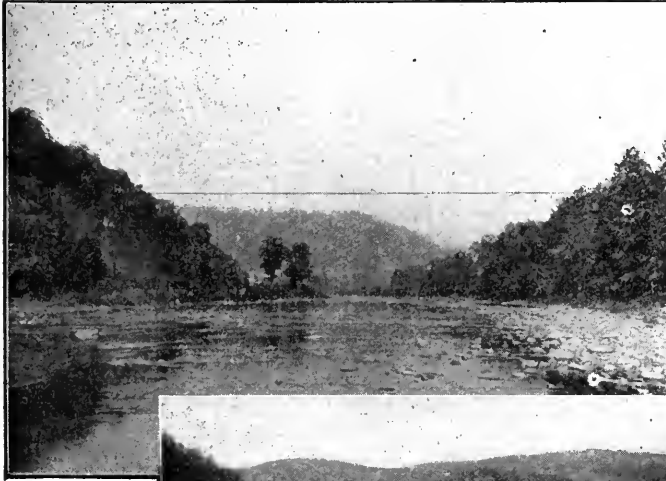
Forty-three reservoir sites were surveyed and estimates of cost were made for building necessary dams, securing land for relocation of railroads and highways, and the building of the other necessary works. Upon further analysis of the relative effect of holding back the flood flows of each of the tributaries, it was determined, by studying the relative costs, that seventeen of the projects could be practically as effective as all. With seventeen of these built, all of the floods, except that of 1907, could have been reduced below twenty-two feet, and that one would have been only five feet above. The average reduction of all floods would be from ten to twelve feet and a probable forty-foot flood could be reduced eight feet. This argues well for the advocacy

of the expenditure of about \$20,000,000, much less than the decreased value of the real estate in Pittsburgh and only one-half of the probable damage in the next twenty years, and which will bring such great collateral benefits to large business interests and affect the living conditions over such a wide territory not limited to the Pittsburgh district.

The building of such works will increase the low water flow of the Monongahela, Allegheny, and Ohio rivers to a marked degree, and because of the effect upon them, as well as upon the Mississippi, it is important that this problem should receive national consideration. Such increase of the low water flow, to two or three times the present amount, even upon the upper Ohio river, will be of inestimable value for navigation, for the sanitary disposal of sewage by dilution, and for securing a copious and good water supply for many purposes. A system of locks and dams may be useless during some dry seasons without sufficient water; this condition has already occurred upon the Monongahela river, where upper pools are frequently drawn down to furnish water enough for leakage and lockage in the lower pools. This is a strong reason why the aid of the national government is warranted. All of these matters are touched upon in Chapters IX to XII, inclusive.

Chapter VIII treats of local flood protection, by straightening and increasing the channel way, by building walls, filling of low grounds, and other measures of local relief. While it was early found that such means were inadequate to solve the great problem, it was determined that, because of the collateral benefits, a low wall along certain low stretches of the rivers would be of advantage and this is recommended and included in the estimates. Such walls, with provision for closing gates and providing for pumping sewage and exhaustion of seepage water at times of floods, with quay walls and dock handling facilities to assist in the much needed terminal arrangements at Pittsburgh, are all of importance in this connection.

The general approach of the commission to the problem in hand and to the program it proposes is thus set forth in



the danger mark, or twenty-two foot stage, with the exception of the great flood of March 15, 1907, which would have been reduced from a stage of 35.5 feet to one of 27.6 feet; supplementing the seventeen selected projects by a wall along the low-lying portions of the river bank would confine all floods, including a possible "forty-foot flood," within the river channels; flood prevention by storage reservoirs is possible and practi-

the report. Its findings may be summarized briefly: floods are increasing in frequency and height; there is every probability that Pittsburgh, western



Pennsylvania, and the Ohio river valley will some day experience a "forty-foot flood"; the damage resulting from a flood of a given height is steadily increasing; the flood water that would otherwise cause damage can be impounded in storage reservoirs, and by this means floods can be prevented; if the seventeen selected reservoir projects had been in operation, without any wall, the storage of flood water in these reservoirs would have reduced all past Pittsburgh floods to below



PROPOSED SITES OF DAMS.

[HORIZONTAL LINES SHOW CRESTS OF PROJECTED DAMS.]

- I. Mahoning creek, looking down-stream.
- II. Shavers Fork river, West Virginia, looking up-stream.
- III. Little Sandy creek, Pennsylvania, looking up-stream.



VERY LITTLE OF THIS LEFT.

Virgin spruce forest with a few other woods at the head waters of the Cheat river in West Virginia.

cable, and is recommended because:

- (a) The flood relief would be extended over hundreds of miles of tributaries and of the main rivers, including the Ohio below Pittsburgh.
- (b) The impounded flood water, with proper manipulation of the reservoir system, would considerably increase the low water flow of the tributaries and of the main rivers.
- (c) This increased low water flow would greatly aid navigation and interstate commerce.
- (d) This increased low water flow would notably improve the quality of the water for domestic and industrial purposes.
- (e) The sewerage problem of Pittsburgh and many other communities along the rivers would be simplified.
- (f) The public health would be protected against the dangers arising from the unsanitary conditions caused by overflow and by extreme low water.

The solution of the flood problem therefore becomes of great importance to other communities along the river, and to the counties and the state, and also, because of the benefits to navigation, to the national government. The commission urges the carrying out of the proposed works for flood relief at the earliest possible date. The expenditure of the estimated cost of \$20,000,000 is warranted for the following reasons:

Had this expenditure been made so that the benefits therefrom would have been realized

through the past ten years, more than half the amount would have been saved by prevention of the flood damage at Pittsburgh alone.

The expenditure of the sum necessary upon the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers would be the important beginning of the construction of a comprehensive reservoir system upon all tributaries of the Ohio river. Such an extension of the system would prevent floods throughout the entire Ohio valley.

The reduction of the maximum and the increase of the minimum flow of those streams that are now navigable for any portion of the year would greatly increase the traffic opportunities upon them. At the maximum height, the current would be greatly reduced, the clearance under the bridges increased, and access to landings easily obtained. During the lowest stages there would be sufficient depth of water for vessels of ordinary draft.

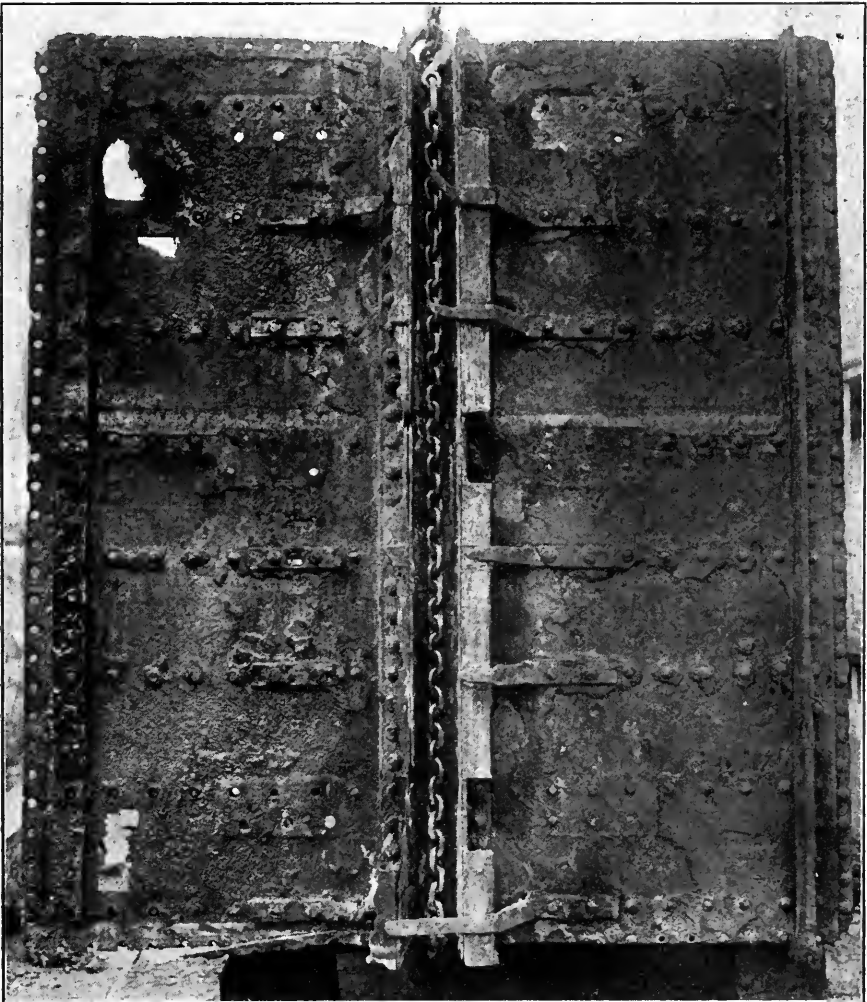
The annual saving due to the improved quality of the water for domestic and industrial uses, and the prevention of damage resulting from chemical impurities in the water, at low stages of the streams, would, in itself, warrant an expenditure of a considerable portion of the cost of the proposed flood prevention.

What has been done in this study by the Pittsburgh Flood Commission, during four years, is an exhibit of the enterprise and capacity which the business and professional men of Pittsburgh have applied in notable instances in the past, can and will apply increasingly in the future, to fundamental elements in the city's problems. This work has been sustained by

private contributions from industrial and mercantile interests, except for some appropriation by the city and county. It is a product of Pittsburgh brains alone, members of the commission, professional and otherwise, serving without pay. It surely has set an example in thorough-going study of such problems.

This work can but stimulate the state and national governments to a realization of their responsibilities in these matters. While the statements of flood damage indicate excessive losses at Pittsburgh and great benefit to be obtained by the methods of relief, it is not for this city

alone to bear the expense, for the good results will be far-reaching. The state and national governments, by their methods and policies, have done much to bring about present conditions in the country of which those at Pittsburgh are simply one notable example. Several of the proposed reservoirs must be built outside of the borders of Pennsylvania, and for interstate reasons the national government must become interested. The raising of funds for construction of these projects is not for one municipality alone, because the benefits will be national in extent.



WHAT WATER WILL DO.

Effect of acid condition of Monongahela river upon 7 x 8 foot steel gate at Lock No. 2. Plate originally $\frac{3}{4}$ of inch thick; in use three and one-half years. Reservoirs to reduce flood condition and increase low water flow will eliminate or largely diminish such action due to dilution.

THE HUMAN SIDE OF LARGE OUTPUTS

STEEL AND STEEL WORKERS IN SIX AMERICAN STATES

V

THE STEEL INDUSTRY AND THE PEOPLE IN COLORADO

JOHN A. FITCH

MEMBER STAFF (1907-1908) PITTSBURGH SURVEY

It comes with a shock of surprise to the western traveler to find a modern steel plant out in the desert a thousand miles beyond the last important rolling mill of the United States Steel Corporation. Thirty-six hundred men were there last spring on the payroll of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, and in boom times as many as 5,000 are sometimes employed.

The immense coal fields in the southern part of the state bring the industry to Colorado, and the Arkansas river and excellent railroad facilities place the mills at Pueblo. The city is less happily situated with respect to iron ore; the mines now being worked are in Wyoming and New Mexico, both of them a long railroad haul from the blast furnaces. There are iron ore beds in Utah and in Colorado itself, but they have not as yet been found profitable to work.

It is hard for an outsider to grasp the status or the real history of the labor movement in Colorado. Almost everyone is strongly partisan. You may learn, if you inquire, that labor organizers are anarchists and desperadoes or that capitalists are slave-drivers and murderers, according to the affiliations of your informant. There has been violence in Colorado in recent years; but I went there to study not unionism nor capitalism, but present industrial conditions in Pueblo, in the works of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company. And since there never has been any unionism of importance in the Pueblo steel mill, it is fortunately unnecessary for me to re-try the Moyer-Haywood case.

There is undoubtedly a tendency in any given industry to uniformity of labor conditions throughout the country.

So labor conditions in the Pueblo steel mill are in many ways similar to those in other steel mills in the United States. But there are differences too.

Common labor, which constitutes 60 to 65 per cent of the payroll in the Pueblo mills and furnaces, gets 17 cents an hour. That is half a cent less than the United States Steel Corporation pays in Pittsburgh, and 2 cents more than it pays in Birmingham. It is questionable whether the general cost of living is less in Pueblo than in the eastern mill towns. Household fuel probably costs less in a year in Pueblo than in Chicago or Pittsburgh on account of the warmer climate, but other expenses are high.¹

Hours of labor are the same in Pueblo as in other steel centers. The customary work-day is twelve hours in length for all manufacturing processes. Machinists, molders, and other shopmen, however, together with certain classes of common laborers, have a regular ten-hour day.

There is plenty of Sunday work at Pueblo. The six blast furnaces and the twelve open-hearths all call for

¹Until recently there has been a company store system that was allied in a way with the system of wage payment. Stores are maintained at the mining camps and in Pueblo near the steel mill. Wages are paid in cash or negotiable paper every two weeks, and, between pays, store orders were issued to those who wanted money in advance of pay day. These could be traded with at their face value at the company store, at a discount at other stores, or could be sold to brokers at a higher discount. So much business was done in this line that two brokers had offices near the store with the sole business of buying and selling scrip. In June, 1911, the system was changed so as to make the orders non-transferable. This is an excellent change in that it protects a weak and thriftless man against his own thriftlessness and does away with the brokerage graft. While the company store system nearly always is undesirable, the present Colorado practice is a long advance over the conditions in the Birmingham district, where scrip is discounted sometimes as much as 25 per cent for cash and in many cases by the very company issuing it.

seven-day labor, with the long shift coming at regular intervals to one crew or the other. On the basis of Pittsburgh practice these two departments would require 900 to 1,000 men on a Sunday. There are furnace tenders and guards scattered through the plant on Sunday. There are repair men and machinists who do Sunday work. I can only estimate their numbers, but from information that I have for other steel mills I feel safe in estimating the total number of seven-day workers at 1,200 at the time of my visit last April, and that was one-third of the pay roll. Yet everyone said that Sunday work had fallen off greatly in the three months previous.

For the great majority, then, hours are long and wages are low in Pueblo, just as they are in Buffalo and Birmingham. I was prepared for that, and was not surprised. But there was another thing for which I was unprepared. I found at Pueblo a steel plant to all appearances more dangerous than any other large steel plant that I have ever seen. And I have seen a considerable number of big ones. The United States Steel Corporation is spending thousands of dollars for safety and setting an ex-

ample to the country. The Lackawanna Steel Company has done less, but it has achieved commendable results. Jones and Laughlin in Pittsburgh are waking up to their responsibility. At Pueblo I walked through the rail mill and found it in such a state of confusion that I thought some work of reconstruction must be in progress. The mill floor alongside the roll tables was rough and uneven. Mill paraphernalia were scattered here and there. I asked a workman if changes were in progress.

"No," he replied, "this is the way she always is."

Nor was this disorder confined to the rail mill. There was a great deal of clutter and confusion in all parts of the plant, in striking contrast to the modern mills at South Chicago, Gary, or Pittsburgh.

The dangers to one merely walking about the plant were obvious. There was lack of bridges over roll tables. Walks were made of plank where steel should have been used, and at many points the planks were dangerously weak. Worst of all was the exposure of gearings and belts. There were long lines of uncovered gearings at the rail mill. The spike and bolt department



Courtesy Colorado Fuel and Iron Company.

MINNEQUA HOSPITAL AT PUEBLO.
Steel works in background.



Courtesy Colorado Fuel and Iron Company.

STEEL WORKERS IN ROD MILL, PUEBLO.

was practically without protection as to belts, pulleys, shafts, and gearings, and the same condition prevailed at the boiler shop, machine shop, and roll turning shop. There were very few belt shifters; two or three in the machine shop were the only ones I noticed.¹

In the six years from 1905 to 1910, inclusive, according to the coroner's records, sixty-six men lost their lives while working in this steel plant of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company. In 1910, the Pueblo record as to number killed just equaled that of South Chicago, although two and one-half to three times as many men were employed at South Chicago.

¹Compare these facts with the law passed in Colorado and approved April 5, 1909, of which the following sections are a part:

"Section 2: That any person, firm, corporation, or association operating a factory, mill, workshop, bakery, laundry, store, hotel, or any kind of an establishment wherein laborers are employed, or machinery used, shall provide and maintain in use belt shifters or other mechanical contrivances for the purpose of throwing on or off belts or pulleys while running, where the same are practicable with due regard to the nature and purpose of said belts and the dangers to employees therefrom; also reasonable safeguards for all vats, pans, trimmers, cut-offs, gang edger and other saws, planers, cogs, gearings, belting, shafting, coupling, set-screw, line rollers, conveyors, manglers in laundries, and machinery of other or similar description, which it is practicable to guard, and which can be effectively guarded with due regard to the ordinary use of such machinery and appliances, and the danger to employees therefrom, and with which the employees of any such factory, mill, or workshop are liable to come in contact while in performance of their duties; and if any machinery, or any part thereof, is in a defective condition, and its operation would be extra-hazardous because of such defect, or if any machinery is not safe-

Of the sixty-six fatal accidents in this period, the railroads in the yards were responsible for thirteen, and thirteen were caused by explosions. Six men at least were killed by being caught in gearings, belts, or other machinery. Three such cases occurred in one year, 1907. June 18, 1910, a man was killed by being caught in a belt. In spite of this record, in 1911, four years after the killing of the first man in 1907, I found the belts and gearings still generally unprotected.

Colorado mines, too, have had a bad record.¹ In 1909, according to the report of the state mining inspector,

guarded as provided in this act, the use thereof is prohibited, and a notice to that effect shall be attached thereto by the employer immediately upon receiving notice of such defect or lack of safeguard, and such notice shall not be removed until said defect has been remedied or the machine safeguarded as herein provided.

"Section 14: In the opinion of the General Assembly, an emergency exists; therefore this act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage."—COLORADO LAWS OF 1909, Chapter 106.

¹This law had been in force nearly two years at the time that I saw the Pueblo plant described above.

²In a list of twenty-two coal mining districts in North America, arranged by the Federal Bureau of Labor according to the fatal accident rate in coal mines for the period 1889 to 1908, Colorado stood eighteenth—fifth from the foot—with a rate of 5.51 per thousand. Western Kentucky occupied the position of honor on the list with a rate of 1.60. Pennsylvania's rate in the bituminous fields was 2.71 and in the anthracite field 3.30. Only four districts had a rate higher than that of Colorado: Washington 6.76; British Columbia 7.23; New Mexico 7.23; and Utah 11.67. [BULLETIN No. 90. U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR, p. 452.]

eighty-nine men were killed and 116 injured in the coal mines of the state. This was a death rate of 6.76 per thousand employed. In 1910 there were three great mine disasters in which 210 men were killed. The total number killed in coal mines in 1910 was 319, making a death rate of 21.6. The injured numbered 146.

Two of the three¹ great Colorado mining disasters which occurred in 1910 were in mines owned by the company that operates the Pueblo mill. January 31, 1910, seventy-five men were killed in a dust explosion in the Primero mine, owned by the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company. October 8, 1910, fifty-six men were killed in a dust explosion in the Starkville mine of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company.

The mining inspector's official report states that these explosions were caused by insufficient sprinkling of the mines.²

¹The third took place November 8, 1910, when seventy-nine men were killed in a gas explosion resulting from a fire in the Delagua mine of the Victor-American Fuel Company.

²It is apparent from the facts which I have already pointed out that the mine had been per-

Although charges are thus not lacking that very dangerous conditions have been allowed to prevail,³ it is in the coal fields that the greatest efforts have been made by the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company in the direction of safety.

In 1908 lectures were first delivered in the camps on first-aid work. Since then 199 men have been trained in first-aid work and 127 men are now in training. Oxygen helmets were secured in mitted to become dry and dusty, and the explosion resulted from a lack of sufficient sprinkling to wet the dust."—Report of State Mining Inspector John D. Jones on Primero mine explosion, in the 14TH BIENNIAL REPORT OF STATE COAL MINE INSPECTOR, 1909-1910, page 145.

"This disaster probably could have been avoided if the timber and sides of the haulage roads had been kept free from dust accumulations, and it is an absolute proof that the mere sprinkling of the road beds will not suffice."—Report of Deputy State Mining Inspector Frank N. Oberding on Starkville Mine explosion, in 14TH BIENNIAL REPORT OF STATE COAL MINE INSPECTOR, 1909-1910, page 153.

³"On the 20th day of January, 1907, there was working in the Primero Mine an Irish-American miner. After going into the mine, and finding it was full of gas, he reported to the fire boss that it was dangerous, and he did not propose to work under that condition. He was immediately told to go into the mine and keep his mouth shut and not let the foreigners know of the conditions, for it would cause a stampede, and they would all leave the mine. This man refused to return to work, stating that the property was in a dangerous condition, and was told to go into the mine and get his tools and leave the camp. Upon re-



Courtesy Colorado Fuel and Iron Company.

LARRY CARS LOADED FOR COKE OVENS.



Courtesy Colorado Fuel and Iron Company.

RESCUE CAR.
Colorado Fuel and Iron Company.

1910 and the company has trained 152 men in the use of these helmets and has now 174 men in training. In 1910 the company built a rescue car, the first one to be used in Colorado. This car carries eight Draeger oxygen helmets, a pulmotor, stretcher, several thousand feet of hose, safety lamps, and portable telephone instruments. Since the completion of this car, a man has been kept on it continuously and it has been moved about from place to place and utilized in the training of men at the different camps. In the exhibition of mine rescue work held at Trinidad, Colo., in September, 1911, in which eighteen teams contested, seven belonged to the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company. Colorado Fuel and Iron teams carried off the honors.

Prizes are now offered to mine officials in order to stimulate efforts in the

direction of safety. Between 1909 and 1912 \$48,000 was expended in the installation and operation of sprinkling systems. These devices having failed fully to justify themselves, radiators to raise the temperature of the in-take air to a point above that of the mine temperature, and humidifiers which introduce sufficient moisture to raise the humidity of the air to the dew point, have recently been installed at the coking coal mines. Large sums of money have also been spent recently in the cleaning out and widening of air courses and at one mine a manway has been constructed at a cost of \$20,000.

These improvements have undoubtedly placed the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company in the lead, as regards safety, among the coal operators of southern Colorado. Since leaving Pueblo word has come to me of the inauguration of new plans for the steel plant, also, looking to greater safety. It is to be hoped that these plans will lead to an entire plant reorganization along safety lines.

There are few if any hospitals better managed or equipped than that of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company at Pueblo. For over twenty-five years Dr. R. W. Corwin has been head surgeon of the company, and he has built up in that time a hospital of unusual efficiency.

After experimenting with the first hospital building, which was adequate for the work in the earlier years, Dr. Corwin was prepared to plan the building of a second hospital with an eye to the elimination of the features that he knew to be bad and the introduction of new features that he knew to be desirable. The result is a hospital building that is, so far as I know, unique. Two things, after he has remarked the beauty and

turning to the mine to get his tools, a local gas explosion occurred, and the man was very severely injured. This explosion took place three days before the explosion occurred that cost the lives of twenty-four employes, thereby showing that the officials in charge of the Primero mine knew of the dangerous condition at that time, and did nothing whatever to protect the men."—REPORT COLORADO BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, 1909-1910, p. 21.

"I interviewed a number of miners, who told me they had quit the mine as they were constantly in fear of a dust explosion; others quit because they were unable to get the proper timbers, and in many cases men were instructed by the superintendent to go into old workings and remove the timbers and use them in the new workings. In one case a miner requested the superintendent to furnish props and was in-

formed that there were none to be had at that time. This miner laid off four or five days until his credit was exhausted at the company's store, when it became necessary for him to return to work, which he did, and he was told that they didn't have props, that he could go into the old workings and remove the props and use them. This he attempted to do, with the result that there was a cave-in and he lost his life. Similar instances were related by many other miners. I also learned that inexperienced men were permitted to enter the mine for the purpose of mining who knew nothing whatever about mining, and particularly the danger of carrying matches and smoking in the mine. I was told by an old miner that they feared every day just such a catastrophe would be the result of allowing these men to work."—REPORT COLORADO BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, 1909-1910, page 29. Report on Primero disaster by Deputy Inspector Coray.

attractiveness of the grounds, impress the visitor who is accustomed to the usual type of hospital. First, there are no stairs in the building. It is two stories in height, and inclines make an easy access from one floor to another. Dr. Corwin doesn't believe in having cripples and children climb stairs suitable only for strong, healthy adults.

The other striking feature is absence of large wards. The largest wards have four beds. This enables the management to put congenial patients together. Men of the same nationality are put in the same room.

But these two striking features are less important than the more detailed matters of arrangement, equipment, and cleanliness. The floors are protected with noiseless coverings. Doors swing both ways and never slam. There are no bells; signals are flashed by means of electric lights. The quiet of the building is marked. Every room is an outside room, and as many as possible

have the sun. Everything is scrupulously clean.

The hospital service extends to the mining camps of the company also. In every camp there is a local doctor and dispensary, where free treatment is given not only to the miners but to their families as well. Bad cases are brought to Pueblo. In Pueblo the steel workers who have received injuries are treated, but their families are not. The discrimination is due to the absence in the camps of medical service other than that furnished by the company.¹

¹The expense of this excellent service is guaranteed by the company. In practice, however, it is usually borne by the men. From every man's pay one dollar a month is kept back for hospital service. If the man works less than a month, the dollar is kept back just the same unless he works less than three days. In the company's mines and steel mills from 9,000 to 12,000 men are regularly employed. This would provide a fund of from \$108,000 to \$144,000 a year if the same men remained constantly in the employ of the company. But with the shifting that is constantly taking place, new men coming, old men leaving, there are each month many more men on the pay roll than would be necessary if all remained at their positions through the month. Each man forfeits a dollar, nevertheless. It can readily be seen, therefore, that a very large fund is provided for hos-



Courtesy Colorado Fuel and Iron Company.

INTERIOR OF RESCUE CAR.
Colorado Fuel and Iron Company.



Courtesy Colorado Fuel and Iron Company.
INCLINE INSTEAD OF STAIRS IN MINNEQUA
HOSPITAL.

Closely connected with the hospital service is another important field of endeavor. The Sociological Department of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company is well known. Years ago the wife of the president of the company established kindergartens in two of the mining camps. They were successful and the work was so approved by the officials of the company that it was made a company project. In 1901 the sociological department was formed, with Dr. R. W. Corwin, head surgeon, in charge. Since the first year Walter Morrith has been superintendent of the sociological department under Dr. Corwin.

The kindergarten work, which has been extended to all of the camps, has been taken over by the public schools. The sociological department, however, still furnishes the necessary materials, and Dr. Morrith is consulting head of all of the school boards in the mining camps.

The organization of boys' and girls' clubs has been encouraged and good work has been done in a number of the camps. The work for adults has been designed to promote the educational and social welfare and to contribute to the general comfort of the camps. Bath houses, where the miners may change their clothes and take a bath before leaving the mine, have been built in two camps. In other camps boarding houses for single men have been constructed

with shower-bath facilities. In thirteen or fourteen of the camps, club houses have been built for the men. These contain lounging and smoking rooms, game rooms and barber shop, and, in some cases, a bar. The club is rented to the barber, and he makes what he can out of the patronage of the club. Women's clubs have been organized which are both social and educational. Sewing and cooking classes have been conducted under the auspices of the department. A prominent feature of social life among the younger people is the annual picnic in which a number of the camps join. Some place among the mountains is selected and as many as care to go are taken free in a special train on the Colorado and Wyoming Railroad, a corporation road. About one thousand persons attended in 1910.

Lectures are frequently held in the camps. Dr. Morrith delivers illustrated addresses whenever called upon, and a good deal of his time is occupied in that way. A ten-cent admission fee is charged and the proceeds are used for local purposes. During each winter, also, well known platform lecturers are secured at reduced rates, owing to the large number of engagements that are made for each lecturer. For these lectures 25 cents is charged and the money used to pay the lecturer. Free health lectures are also given in each camp from time to time by the resident physician. These are practical, and have a direct bearing on camp problems.

Night schools are maintained in some of the camps, although they are not very well patronized. Libraries and art collections are important features also of the educational work.

One very excellent form of educational work carried on is the publication by the medical and sociological departments of monthly *Bulletins, Sanitary and Sociological*. These contain health and sanitary suggestions, in simple words, so as to be readily understood. They are used to call the attention of the workmen to opportunities open to them, such as night schools, entertainments, and other lines of work of the sociological department. The bulletins are freely circulated in the camps and anyone may have them on application.

pital service. The company has sometimes been criticised because no accounting is ever made of the money taken in this manner from the men's pay. On the other hand, it should be noted that the company stands back of the fund in case of a deficit. In 1904 there was a strike and the company made up a deficit of \$20,000.



Courtesy Colorado Fuel and Iron Company.

MINNEQUA HOSPITAL AND GROUNDS.

Occasionally, too, the bulletin appeals to another audience. The bulletin for September, 1909, was devoted to Industrial Accidents, and was an appeal for preventive efforts in mines and mills. After citing the work done along safety lines by other corporations the bulletin goes on record thus:

We should be as thorough and up-to-date in our efforts to prevent accidents as we are at present in our equipment for caring for the sick and injured. The aim of every superintendent, foreman, and pit-boss should be to see to it, by precept and example, that every precaution is taken to reduce to a minimum the percentage of accidents to the number of men employed.

The department published for a time a paper called *Camp and Plant*, which circulated among the employes. This has since been abandoned.

The sociological department has always been interested in the religious activities of the camps. The superintendent is an ordained Methodist minister. The company has built churches at two of the camps. At present the sociological department has a minister on its staff in the southern Colorado coal fields, to organize Sunday schools and to look after religious work generally.

Most of the work is done in the camps. Little is done in Pueblo beyond lectures that are held at "Casa Vivienda," the

unique and very attractive home of the hospital staff, and religious exercises that are held each Sunday in the hospitals. The Pueblo work formerly included a boys' club, mothers' meetings, reading rooms, and industrial work in various phases. These have been abandoned, partly on account of the growth of independent social work in Pueblo.

We have seen how through the development of mines and plants in southern Colorado a great force of mixed peoples, many of them illiterate and unskilled, speaking many tongues, has come into the desert; and how through company action libraries, schools, clubs, hospitals, some of the institutions of the normal American community have been set up. This has been on a scale which has attracted national attention. The fundamental conditions of life and labor lie deeper, however, and it is important from the standpoint of social advance that we learn the attitude toward those conditions of the three parties concerned: the workmen, the public, and the company.

I did not find among the employes in Pueblo that bitterness which I found in Pittsburgh. Even the men who claimed to have been blacklisted did not seem to harbor the resentment that I found in

Homestead and Braddock. All with whom I talked expressed much dissatisfaction with the hours of labor, and many spoke of the unwillingness of the company to pay adequate compensation for industrial accidents. All preferred a union to a non-union shop. The long depression that has made work irregular for nearly two years in steel mills all over the country may have had its effect in making men eager for work even under unfavorable conditions. On the other hand, the miners have evidently been much dissatisfied. Both Labor Commissioner Brake and State Mining Inspector Dalrymple speak in their reports of the unwillingness of miners to go into the southern district after the mine disasters of 1910. Deputy Inspector E. M. Gross, in his report to Commissioner Brake, speaks of dissatisfaction among the miners.

The men seem to have little hope of doing anything directly to better their conditions. Colorado is like Pennsylvania so far as human reactions go. An overworked man is a cipher in either place. A Pueblo minister told me that there was not a church in the city that did not feel the blighting effect of the long work-day. And a workman said to me: "We twelve-hour men don't think any more. All we know is the mill." Efforts are quietly being made by the Western Federation of Miners to gain a foothold in the southern Colorado mines, but I saw no evidence of a similar move in Pueblo.

The attitude of the public in southern Colorado is not entirely logical. Never before in any industrial community have I heard so much denunciation of a local company as I heard of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company in Pueblo and Trinidad. There is friendly feeling toward certain individuals, such as the doctors and the men in the sociological department, but against the company itself there is considerable hostility. Yet the local public has not come out into the open to oppose the practices of the company which they privately denounce. Neither has the public been actively concerned for the interests of labor.

Years ago an eight-hour law for

mines and smelters was passed by the Colorado legislature. It was at once carried before the Supreme Court of the state and was declared unconstitutional, although a similar law in Utah had just been declared valid by the Supreme Court of the United States. Those favoring an eight-hour law then started out to amend the state constitution. This was done, the amendment declaring that a day's work in mines and smelters should not exceed eight hours, and directing the legislature to enact a law making the amendment effective. In spite of this direct command of the people, nothing was done for some years. In 1905, however, an eight-hour law was passed and became a law. But this law was so badly drawn as to make enforcement impossible. In the session of 1911 the labor representatives succeeded in passing a new law, worded differently; but it is apparently as ineffectual as the old one.

The same point is even more forcibly illustrated in the coroner's office. In an industrial community human lives are constantly risked and deaths from industrial accidents often occur. It is the duty of the coroner to investigate all cases of sudden death, in order that disregard for human life may be prevented or punished. The coroner's duty is that of defender of human life. But in Pueblo and Las Animas counties the people have not been aroused over the fact that their coroners have for years played cheap politics, in utter disregard of the solemn responsibilities of their office.¹

The disaster that killed seventy-five men in the Primero mine in Las Animas county occurred on January 31, 1910. On February 4, five days later, the coroner brought in the following verdict:

The jury find that Ciskra, Emery, Anderson, and others came to their death by an explosion in the Primero mine, January 31, 1910, and the cause of the said explosion is to this jury unknown.

During those five days it had not yet been possible to explore the mine. State Mining Inspector Jones reported that on

¹But do not think that Colorado coroners are the worst in the country. They are not. The coroner's office is a neglected one all over the United States.



Courtesy Colorado Fuel and Iron Company.

MONTHLY LECTURE BY CAMP DOCTOR, PICTOU, COLORADO.

February 26 not all of the bodies had yet been recovered. Still, the coroner was ready to pass on the case five days after the explosion and then abandon it. After the Starkville disaster on October 8, 1910, the same coroner presided over a jury which rendered a verdict criticising the company. The coroner was at the end of his term and was not seeking re-election. In the 1910 election the former coroner's deputy, a Trinidad undertaker, was elected to the office. This man had been deputy coroner for many years during the incumbency of the two men who had last preceded him, one of whom was his father.

In Pueblo it was explained to me that candidates for the office of coroner are backed by different undertakers, as a business proposition.¹ It appeared also that, in Pueblo county at least, coroner's records are not public. The present coroner, who has been in office since January 10, 1911, refused to let me handle or examine his records for myself. He had them written, apparently

¹One undertaker displays on his windows the sign "North Side Coroner's Office," although I could not learn that it ever had been the office of the coroner. I was even directed there by an employe in the county building, and when I entered a man eagerly inquired "Have you got a body?" before he would answer my inquiry for the coroner. I finally found the latter, a physician, in an altogether different office on another street.

in pencil, in a little memorandum book which he kept in his desk. He read to me, however, at my request, the names of the victims of industrial accidents since he had taken office. When I asked for the prior records he said that his predecessor had refused to turn them over.

By that time I had become quite interested in coroner's records, and I went to find the previous incumbent, who had held office for the six years just past. I found him perfectly willing not only to show me the big ledger in which he had kept the records but to lend me the book. I was picking it up when he stopped me. "Hold on," he said, "You've got to guarantee two things before I let you have that book. One is that you aren't going to use it for local purposes, and the other is that you aren't going to turn it over to my successor. I regard those records as my personal property." I promised and he let me go.

A few days later the Trades and Labor Assembly appointed a committee to meet the coroner and ascertain why no inquests were being held. The previous week three men had been killed and nine injured in the blowing up of an engine at the steel works; yet the coroner had held no inquest, nor had he held one in



Courtesy Colorado Fuel and Iron Company.

KINDERGARTEN AT PRIMERO, COLORADO.

the three months that he had been in office. He explained to me how he looked at the situation. "I couldn't see any reason for an inquest in that steel works accident," he said. "Property of tremendous value was destroyed. It will cost the company thousands and thousands of dollars to repair the damage done. It stands to reason that they would not want that accident to happen, so there is no question of blame involved. It was just an accident. Don't you see?" I saw.

But when I came to examine the former coroner's record I saw that the present incumbent was merely following his example. Of the sixty-six men killed in the steel mills during 1905 to 1910 inclusive, only twenty-four were made subjects of formal inquiry by the coroner. Altogether 125 deaths from industrial accidents were reported, and eighty-four of them were dismissed without inquest. Nothing will show so well how the coroner's office protects human life in Pueblo as some direct quotations from the records:

October 16, 1905, James F. Doyle, Irish. Arm caught in gearing and torn from socket. No inquest.

December 23, 1905, Mave Dikilich, Greek. Killed in C. F. & I. plant by ore crusher. No inquest.

October 8, 1906, Mane Paoilca, Italian. Crushed through chest at C. F. & I. Co. No inquest.

June 7, 1907, Mark Sullovich. Caught in

some machinery at C. F. & I. plant. No inquest.

July 25, 1907, Willie Gray, colored. Asphyxiated at C. F. & I. plant. No inquest.

September 7, 1907, Tony Casto. Killed at C. F. & I. plant. Accidental. No inquest.

November 13, 1908, Ivan Guskievic, Russian. Crushed by ore car at Minnequa plant. No inquest.

Nov. 13, 1908, Zuini Greskovich, Greek. Asphyxiated at blast furnace of C. F. & I. Co. No inquest.

July 7, 1909, Niegero Minomioca, Japanese. Laborer at Minnequa plant, fracture of skull. No inquest.

Dec. 5, 1909, Anton Nemavich, Austrian. Crushed by hot saw C. F. & I. plant. No inquest.

March 26, 1910, Charles R. Winters. Crushed skull and pelvis by slag train at C. F. & I. Co. plant. No inquest.

July 11, 1910, Benco Fernandez. Was crushed by crane at Minnequa plant. No inquest.

August 5, 1910, Monan Viban, Austrian. Laborer at Minnequa plant, and in some manner fell into ore crushers and was killed. No inquest.

In these brief sentences are included the entire official account of the deaths of the men named.

The failure of the public to meet its responsibilities so clearly indicated by these coroners' records is equalled by the deputy sheriff system. The mining camps are patrolled by deputy sheriffs who are present ostensibly to serve the people by enforcing the law. Labor organizers are met by these deputies and either warned away from the camp or put out. I was informed by the gen-



Courtesy Colorado Fuel and Iron Company.

KINDERGARTEN CLASS, STARKVILLE, COLORADO.

eral manager of the coal mines of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company that these are their orders.

The deputies are not squeamish about their methods. An organizer told me that a union man was standing on the platform of the station one day in a mining camp, waiting for a train. He was on the property of the railroad company, but, the organizer said, he was set upon by a deputy sheriff in the employ of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company and compelled to walk down the railroad track to the next town, seven miles away. The man had a railroad ticket in his pocket at the time. I asked an official of the company whether the story could be true. He merely laughed as if it were a huge joke and expressed no opinion. Within the last two or three years union men have been assaulted and beaten in the city of Trinidad almost under the eyes of policemen, the assault in one case taking place in a restaurant.

A deputy inspector of the State Bureau of Labor, who investigated conditions in the camps after the Primero explosion, reported to his chief that he had found it

almost impossible to carry on a conversation with the men without the presence of one or more deputies and that on one occasion he was in a small house talking with widows of men killed in the mine when two deputy sheriffs entered the house unannounced and re-

mained until he had finished talking, taking the position that as the property belonged to the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company they had a perfect right there, and that he was the trespasser.¹

An official of the company told me that when the labor inspectors came into the camp on their tour of inspection they tried to pick a quarrel with the deputies so as to get thrown out and thus stir up feeling against the company. This statement should be considered in judging their report—as well as the overzealousness that is apparent in many of its pages. Yet there is corroborative evidence of intimidation by the deputies, such as has already been cited, of organizers interfered with, and their sympathizers persecuted even when off the company's property. And these deputies, it must be remembered, are deputized by the state and are thus accountable to the people for their acts.

So much for the workmen and the public. What of the steel company? No unions are recognized in the Pueblo plant, although some of the men have cards in local unions. Only one union has even the semblance of a foothold. Last year the Conference Board of the Molders' Union met with General Manager McKennon to discuss wages, and as a result wages were advanced from \$3.60 for ten hours to \$4. The molders claim to have in their membership two-thirds

¹REPORT COLORADO BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, 1909-1910, pp. 29-30.

of the men in the steel works foundry, but so far as I could learn this is the only union recognized in any way. Two years ago the switchmen in the steel company yard at Pueblo decided to ask for an advance in wages. At just about the same time the company decided to grant an advance, so that after a certain Saturday pay-day the men began to earn the increased rate. But they didn't know it, because nobody told them. If they had waited two weeks, until the next pay-day, they would have found out through their pay envelopes. But, since they did not know, they did not wait two weeks, but sent a committee early in the week to the management to ask in the name of all the switchmen for more pay. From two independent sources of information word came to me that for this action not only the committee but all of the switchmen were discharged and new men secured to take their places.

Never, at any time in its history has the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company been anything but hostile to organized labor. The Amalgamated Association once had a lodge in Pueblo, but the company never recognized it. Other unions have tried in vain to get established there. It is freely alleged by the men now employed at its plant that men have often been discharged and blacklisted on account of union activity. I talked with one man who claimed to have been blacklisted for sixteen years for attending a convention of the Amalgamated Association.

Another man, whom I'll call Smith, told of a strike a few years back. Fifty men went out and a long and bitter strike ensued. Finally some of the demands were granted and all but six of the men went back to work. These six, of whom Smith was one, and who were leaders of the strike, were refused re-employment, and never since have been able to work for the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company. Last summer the foreman of the department in question in the steel mill sent for Smith to come to work, thinking, he said, that the blacklist had been removed. So Smith went to work and worked one day. The general manager of the plant had been out

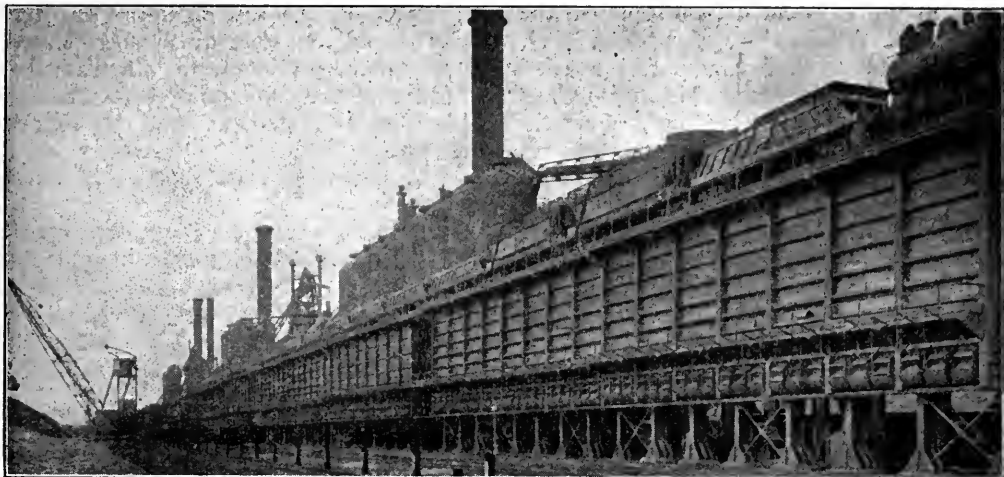
of town, but returned late that afternoon. The next day Smith went to the plant again to begin his day's work and was stopped by the gate-keeper, who told him that there was no job for him in the mill.

I sat one day in the office of a Pueblo business man who spoke with indignation of conditions in the coal camps of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company. He corroborated the statement, reported above, that deputies are in the habit of driving out of the camps men suspected of being labor organizers, and he enlivened his account by references to specific cases, of which he claimed he had personal knowledge, where the men were not only driven from the camp but beaten up into the bargain. He charged that the miners are obliged to trade at the company stores, that the eight-hour law is not observed in the mines, and, finally, that the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company has for years controlled the county officials in Las Animas and Huerfano counties, and that it has been actively in politics for that purpose.

A ranchman from Huerfano county, a friend of the speaker, was present during the interview. Repeatedly, as he made the charges, the business man turned to the ranchman, saying, "And B.— here knows that every word of this is true, but he doesn't dare tell you. He lives down there among those fellows and his mouth is sealed." Again and again this statement was repeated, sometimes almost tauntingly, as if daring the other to speak. But the ranchman only smiled and said not a word.

These things indicate the attitude of the company toward labor. What is its attitude toward the public?

The steel works at Pueblo were originally built in what was then the country. The company bought up the lands, built its plant and some houses for its employes. Other contiguous property was built upon by persons who rented their houses to steel works employes. Then the whole community was incorporated as the village of Bessemer and later as the city of Bessemer. Meanwhile, Pueblo, which was a consolida-



Courtesy Colorado Fuel and Iron Company.

ORE BINS AND BLAST FURNACES.
Colorado Fuel and Iron Company.

tion of several separate villages, grew out toward Bessemer and wanted to annex it. The people were willing, but the steel company didn't relish the prospect. There was a law permitting the withdrawal from a city of any continuous unplatted territory lying next to the boundary line, if it contained twenty acres or more. So the company applied to the county court and a decree of "disconnection and disincorporation" was granted in June, 1893, for a territory including the steel plant and most of the houses of the company. This shrewd action relieves the steel company from paying the twenty-mill city tax that its employes living in the city have to pay.

Having thus escaped the city tax, it is interesting to note how the company fares as to county and state taxes. Real estate in Pueblo county, I learned at the assessor's office, is taxed on a valuation of 50 to 60 per cent of its market value. A few years ago it was publicly announced by a representative of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company that its Pueblo plant was worth over \$25,000,000.¹

Since that time there has been

¹In the issue of the *World's Work* for March, 1905, Lawrence Lewis, then editor of *Camp and Plant*, an employe of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, had this to say on page 5940: "The Minnequa works . . . is one of the largest consolidated iron and steel works in the world, worth, even at cost price, more than twenty mil-

lion more money invested. But in 1910 the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company paid taxes in Pueblo county on an assessed valuation of \$2,669,112, and this included the plant, the machinery in the plant, and the adjacent real estate. Sixty per cent of the value of the plant alone, according to the figures given above, would be over \$15,000,000.

Writing in *McClure's* magazine of May, 1904, of the strike against the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company in the southern coal fields in 1904, Ray Stannard Baker said on pages 53 and 54:

Out of the five principal demands of the union on their employers, two of them are to enforce laws already on the statute books of Colorado, and the third, the eight-hour demand, was already a constitutional law and would have been on the statute books had the legislature of last winter carried out the will of the people. I asked several officials of the coal mining corporations why these laws were not obeyed—why the unions must strike to enforce state laws—and the answer was to this effect: "Nobody observes those laws; they are unconstitutional, anyway."

The 1905 legislature put the eight-hour law referred to above onto the statute books, but it is no more observed in the coal fields to-day than it

is." And in the *Scientific American* of September 22, 1906, on page 214, we find this by the same writer: "The Minnequa works of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company is one of the largest iron and steel plants in America, representing the investment of over twenty-five million dollars."

was in 1904. The constitution of the state still requires an eight-hour day. The law of 1905, unfortunately worded so as to be unenforceable, was clear in its intent that men should work in mines not more than eight hours. Yet the employes of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company in the mines of southern Colorado work on an average ten hours a day. And the general manager of the coal mines said to me, when I asked him about the eight-hour law, "We understand that to be the miner's own affair. It may be binding on him, but it is not on us." Yet the eight-hour law of 1905 in Colorado has not yet been declared void, or as not binding upon any employer, by any court of law.

The report for 1909-1910 of the Colorado Bureau of Labor Statistics declares on page 24 that the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company has sought to "nullify and violate" laws "calculated to protect the interest of the miner," and has used its "powerful influence to defeat the enactment of any law that had for its purpose the safeguarding of the lives and health of its employes."

I should think that a company accused of such flagrant law-breaking as

is charged in this report would ask the governor of the state or the legislature for an official investigation. Instead, the manager of the coal mines was satisfied with a mere statement that the report was untrue, although he admitted that he had not read the report or even seen it.

Is not this attitude of utmost importance when we consider labor conditions in Colorado? There has recently been bloodshed and anarchy in Colorado as a result of labor disputes. Labor has been rightly condemned for every lawless act committed by its members. No good citizen can look with anything but horror upon some of the deeds of which workingmen have been confessedly guilty in Colorado and surrounding states. But before we can ask the poor and the uneducated man to have respect for the law, we must ask the rich and the powerful to respect it. For the worst sort of anarchy is the anarchy of the strong.

There is a simple remedy for the state of affairs that exists today in southern Colorado. We call it government by the people. The people of Colorado are beginning to bestir themselves. Some day they will fully awake.



Courtesy Colorado Fuel and Iron Company.
STEEL WORKERS, OPEN-HEARTH DEPARTMENT, PUEBLO.

SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

THE TERMS OF INDUSTRY

President Taft, acting on the suggestion of the social workers and economists who addressed him on the subject in December, has recommended to Congress that a federal commission be appointed to inquire into the relations between labor and industry as now organized.

Profound changes have taken place, as we all know, in the last twenty years. As bearing on overcapitalization, inter-locking directorates, and other business questions, we are beginning to understand what those changes are and to know how to act in reference to them. But corporate forms of industry affect also the relations between employer and wage earner. Those relations in turn affect the living and working conditions of some millions of our citizens—wage earners and their families directly and almost every one else indirectly. We can no longer optimistically assume that the wage contract is of interest only to the two parties who in a given case enter into it.

Even when its terms appear to be satisfactory to both sides and industry is carried on efficiently as measured by output, the question remains whether its terms are really satisfactory in the wider forum of public opinion. If they are such as do not permit a reasonable standard of living to the wage earner on the basis of normal family life, then the public will not be satisfied even if the individual wage earner is. Conditions of under-pay, of over-work, of nervous exhaustion, of actual physical exploitation, are not tolerable even though the children, women, or men who are thus under-paid and over-worked may not be in position to protest or to protect themselves.

When, on the other hand, industry is violently interrupted, when strikes or lockouts put out the furnaces, paralyze traffic, or cut off our supply of fuel, it becomes apparent to the most individualistic of us all that there is a public interest involved.

No one questions the right of an employer to stop work or the right of laborers, singly or collectively, to do likewise. A few generations ago the latter was not only questioned; it was explicitly denied and severely punished. Even now in some sections vagrancy laws are enforced not primarily to prevent people from being vagrants, but rather as a desperate means of meeting an insistent demand for labor, and meeting it on easier terms than by open competition with the employers of other sections. Speaking generally, however, the right to work or to stop working is recognized as belonging equally to the buyer and seller of labor. No one who appreciates what an enormous gain this implies will lightly propose to interfere with the free exercise of the hard won right. The public also has its rights, however; and what is more important, the public has its natural obligations.

Now one of the most elementary and indisputable of these public obligations is to prevent interruptions to industry which cause suffering, hardship, incon-

venience, always loss of property and sometimes loss of life, if it can be done without injustice and without greater hardship.

Another indisputable and elementary obligation resting primarily upon employers and wage earners, but eventually upon the public, is to discover and correct the conditions which lead to these disasters.

This, then, is the twofold object of the proposed federal commission, as we understand it: to prevent strikes and lockouts and other even more extreme forms of industrial warfare by sifting out and securing the general adoption of such methods of mediation, conciliation, and arbitration as are practicable and as are or should be acceptable to both sides; and to inquire into the conditions of labor, listening not only to labor leaders and organizers but also to plain workmen and working women, so that at first hand their testimony can be heard and interpreted and considered. Public spirited and socially minded employers will have their evidence to give and that also will naturally be taken into account. Such a great national inquest—to use a good word in its legitimate earlier sense—will certainly contribute to a better public understanding of the issues involved in the acute industrial disputes to which we have become accustomed, but which fill the minds of thoughtful persons with the graver concern the more familiar they become.

A “durable” question, is the expressive phrase in which, as the *American* magazine’s Interpreter reminds us, Lincoln summed up the issue of slavery. This being interpreted means that it was a “struggle which was not to be settled in a day but must be stayed by and followed from phase to phase.” The industrial warfare similarly presents to us a “durable” question. That is not by any means the same thing as an endless or insoluble problem. The physical conquest of the American continent was a “durable” struggle, but its geographical phase is ended in our own generation. The abolition of poverty requires a “durable” struggle, but it is within sight of sober and responsible statesmanship. The “durable struggle” as to whether this nation was “to ultimately become all slave or all free” reached its “final and rightful result” within less than ten years after Lincoln’s defeat by Douglas which called forth the defeated candidate’s clear formulation of the issue.

We are now called upon to say whether violence on the one hand and unjust conditions on the other cannot be eliminated from industrial relations. There is no compromise of dignity and social order in considering these questions together. It is true, as Professor Seager said in our symposium some weeks ago, that there is no place in the *mores* of the American people for dynamiting. It is very desirable that it should be true, if it is not so already, that there should be as little place for wages which do not permit a decent standard of living, or excessive hours of labor, and other conditions which can be shown to be directly destructive of health and character, and for a denial of the elementary right to organize trade unions, to discuss openly and without fear the terms of the wage contract, to strive by all lawful and orderly means for an advance of wages and an improvement in working conditions.

Publicity is the cure for what is wrong, and the sure way to secure recognition and public sanction for what is right. We believe that American industry can stand publicity—and that it needs it.

THE COMMON WELFARE

SENATE PASSES CHILDREN'S BUREAU BILL 54 TO 20

On Wednesday, January 31, the Children's Bureau Bill introduced by Senator William E. Borah of Idaho at the request of the National Child Labor Committee and other child-saving organizations passed the United States Senate by a vote of fifty-four to twenty. This victory came at the end of three days devoted almost exclusively to its discussion, in which every possible objection was advanced. The bill provides for the establishment in the Department of Commerce and Labor of a bureau to investigate and report upon all questions pertaining to the welfare of children and child life and directs that especial attention be given to such problems as infant mortality, juvenile delinquency, occupations of children and accidents incident thereto.

Those who have been advocating this bill for five years had no idea that it would meet with such a storm of opposition at the eleventh hour. It was contended that the measure was in violation of the constitution, and Senator Bailey of Texas repeatedly called upon the advocates of the bill to put their finger on one line in the constitution which authorized the establishment of such a bureau. Answering the objections of unconstitutionality, Senator Root, Senator Owen of Oklahoma, and Senator Reed of Missouri contended that if the establishment of the Children's Bureau is unconstitutional then the Bureaus of Animal and Plant Industry, the Bureau of Entomology, the Bureau of Labor, the Bureau of Education, and the Bureau of Mines are also established in violation of the constitution. When Senator Bailey argued that although these bureaus were established in violation of the constitution it was an old sin and could not now be remedied, Senator Borah made the rejoinder that, if these bureaus were established in violation of the constitution, then every added appropriation is voted in violation of the constitution and a

perpetuation of this senatorial treason cannot justify it. Senator Gallinger fought the bill on the ground that all its advocates ask is being done already, and to prove this point he consumed an hour of the Senate's time reading and discussing the complete curriculum of studies in the public schools of Washington.

Senator Borah's tactful direction and freedom from party bias won support from all sections of the country. Southern democratic members were largely won to support of the measure by Senators Hoke Smith of Georgia and Owen of Oklahoma.

The bill was amended by motion of Senator Culberson of Texas, providing that no agent employed by this bureau should be authorized to enter any house used exclusively as a residence over the objection of the head of the family. It was pointed out that this amendment neither adds to nor detracts from the authority conferred in the bill. Even were this bill specifically to authorize such invasion of a private home, it was argued, it could not confer this power. On the other hand, it was shown that whatever information is necessary can be gathered in co-operation with the proper authorities in the various states.

Although opposition developed from the New York Society for Preventing Cruelty to Children and the American Humane Association, every other national organization interested in the welfare of children and many state and local organizations of large influence and experience have strongly advocated the measure throughout the five years during which it has been before the country.

The same bill was introduced in the House of Representatives by Andrew J. Peters of Massachusetts and has been favorably reported by unanimous vote of the Committee on Labor. It will probably be called up for final action about February 14, and friends of the measure have been asked to communicate with their Congressmen urging them to vote in favor of the bill.

BEVERIDGE ARGUES FOR FEDERAL BILL

In a recent address under the auspices of the Civic Forum and the Child Welfare League of New York, in Carnegie Hall, ex-Senator Albert J. Beveridge, of Indiana, took up anew his proposal of a federal child labor bill such as he himself introduced in the Senate five years ago. This bill is one to end child labor by keeping child-made articles out of interstate commerce. To Mr. Beveridge's mind, the arguments against a federal measure and in favor of separate state laws dealing with child labor are the same which were formerly employed against a national handling of the questions of Negro slavery, lotteries, obscene literature, diseased meat, poisoned food, gypsy moth, and yellow fever germs. Pointing out that the efforts of states to handle this range of matters have failed, and that in such case the national welfare has compelled the federal government to step in, Mr. Beveridge asked:

Why cannot states properly handle the evils of child labor? First because the crazy-quilt legislation of separate states does not end the evil itself. Suppose two neighboring states permit child labor; and suppose one of them passes a good child labor law and executes it, and the other state does not. Children are shipped from the former to the latter state and the ruin of the innocents goes forward; for the demand for these child slaves is always greater than the supply.

Consider next the business aspect of leaving this problem to the states. When one state passes a good law against child labor the manufacturers located in that state are at a business disadvantage with the manufacturers located in a state where child labor laws are poor or not enforced. The market for the product of factories of both states is a common and nation-wide market. Child labor is cheap; that is why children are employed. And the product of this cheap child labor competes with the product of higher-paid man labor; thus the business man of a state where good laws exist and are well executed must carry an unjust business burden.

Even if some states do rightly prevent the ruin of their children and other states do not, still the nation at large is injured vitally; for, if they live, the children become citizens not only of the states where they reside, but also citizens of the republic as a whole. Their votes directly help to elect congressmen, senators, and presidents, and thus indirectly affect the appointment of the nation's judicial officers. And no state has the right to make

the nation's voters incapable of casting intelligent and unpoisoned ballots.

More than this, the haphazard efforts of separate states to end child labor are an economic wrong to manhood labor throughout the whole land; for childhood wages anywhere lower manhood wages everywhere. If a business man in one state can make goods by cheap child labor and sell those cheap child-made goods in a common market with the business man who must employ manhood labor to make the same goods, the latter business man must reduce the wages he pays to manhood labor if he competes on equal terms with the employer of child labor.

WHAT PROGRESS HAVE WE MADE?

What does this so-called progress in state child labor legislation really amount to? Not six states have thoroughly good child labor laws, and in few of these states are those laws thoroughly executed. In most states the laws are not admirable; and in some states child labor legislation is a mockery. Perhaps a hundred years might bring uniform and improved laws in all our far-flung sisterhood of states. But during this brief and comfortable wait, what of the children?

So long as those states that employ child labor can deal with the people's conscience separated into forty-seven divisions, they can neutralize and defeat it: for they bring their combined forces to bear on each division. That is why every national evil in our history has defended its wrongdoing behind the ramparts of a misinterpretation of the doctrine of state's rights—a sound principle of government when rightly applied, but too often used and misused for the express purpose of shielding sin. It was so of Negro slaves, of lotteries and obscene literature, diseased meat and poisoned food, and railroad rebates and other unjust practices of the nation's common carriers.

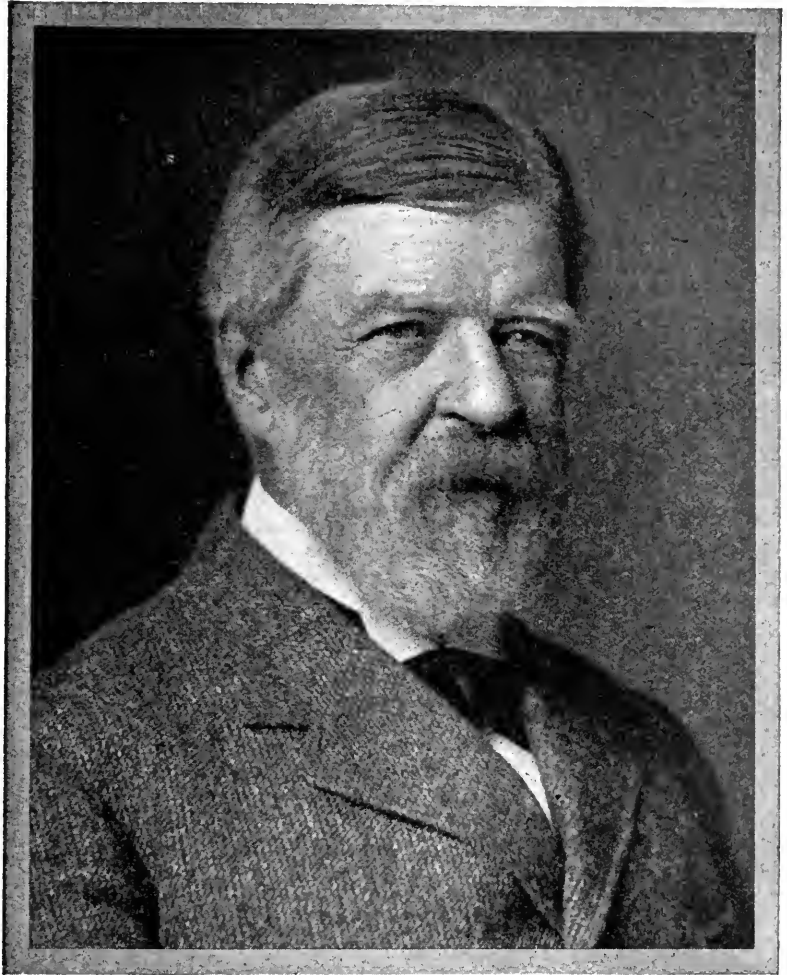
There are almost a score of laws on the nation's statute books prohibiting various articles from interstate commerce. Insects and diseased cattle are prohibited, and loose hay is prohibited from interstate commerce by steamboat. Even gold and silverware is prohibited if it bears the inscription, "U. S. A. Assay." This latter law, passed for the benefit of cheap jewelry manufacturers in New Jersey and New York, never has been questioned. Only a few such laws ever have been attacked; and not once has the supreme court overthrown any law to keep out of the national commerce any article that congress thought should be kept out.

A. J. McKelway, secretary for the southern states of the National Child Labor Committee, whom Mr. Beveridge quoted to the effect that Tennessee's enforcement of her child labor law caused car-loads of little children to be shipped,

under overseers, to the cotton mills of South Carolina, has just issued a pamphlet, entitled *Child Labor in Virginia*, in which it is pointed out that Virginia, Georgia, and Arkansas are now the only states which permit children as young as twelve years to work in manufacturing plants. A year or two ago Virginia adopted a law making the age limit fourteen, but established an exemption permitting children of dependent parents to go to work as early as twelve years. Parents frame all kinds of excuses, pretending a decrepitude or invalidism that has no actual existence, and it is stated that officials whose duty it is to issue the necessary permits do not take the trouble to examine into the facts closely.

DEVELOPMENTS AT LAWRENCE

At the close of the third week of the strike of Lawrence textile workers, a settlement seemed farther off than ever. Governor Foss offered to make a personal effort to settle the strike on Tuesday, January 30, when he sent the fol-



1838—FREDERICK HOWARD WINES—1912.

Few sons have had it in their power so to advance the causes which their fathers pioneered as Dr. Wines.

Son of the founder of the International Prison Congress, Dr. Wines has done a work in prison reform, in the administration of public charities, and in other fields of sociological and literary interests which has been national in scope and versatile in character. Of the many public positions he has held, perhaps the most prominent was that of assistant director of the United States Census Bureau from 1899-1902; his last work has been as statistician of the Illinois State Board of Administration of Charitable Institutions and it was at Springfield that he died last week.

Of the delegates at the Washington Prison Congress in 1910, two had been present at the Cincinnati meeting in 1870 out of which grew in turn the American Prison Association and the International Prison Congress. These were Z. R. Brockway and Dr. Wines. In the section on criminal law, Dr. Wines represented the American position in the debates which finally resulted in the commitment of this international body to the principle of the indeterminate sentence. In the nineties he was editor of the *Charities Review*, one of the earlier journals out of which *THE SURVEY* has grown.

lowing open letter to mill operatives and mill owners:

The situation at Lawrence has become so serious that every possible effort should be made by all parties concerned to adjust matters; and I therefore request all workers to go back and resume their places in the mills

for a period of thirty days, pending the efforts which I shall make to get all the differences adjusted; and, in view of the fact that no notice was given to the mill operatives of a proposed reduction in wages when the change in hours went into effect on January 1, I request all mill operators to give fifty-six hours' pay for fifty-four hours' work during that period without discrimination.

I believe the differences are such as to be easily adjusted if carefully discussed during the next thirty days, and I promise you my best efforts to bring all questions in dispute to a settlement satisfactory to all parties.

The reply of Joseph B. Ettor, for the strike committee, was as follows:

We will only consider such offers as are made by the corporations affected. The offers will have to be *bona fide* and full assurance given.

Neither myself nor the committee can make any promise of acceptance of any proposition whatsoever. The strikers have repeatedly and unanimously voted for the original demands. The strike committee will only change its attitude at the suggestion and order of the strikers. The strike committee will not consider nor put to a vote any offer that does not carry full assurance from the corporations affected officially and directly to the strike committee.

After weeks of accusations and denials concerning the wages of the mill operatives, the Massachusetts House of Representatives voted on January 31 to appoint a special committee of five, to be named by the speaker, to make an immediate investigation of

wages and salaries paid in the various departments of the industries, the cost of living and the living conditions of the operatives, the dividends, stock issues, and earnings of said industries, the effect of the fifty-four hour law on such industries and on the health of the operatives, the necessity for or desirability of establishing a minimum wage law, and any other subject relative to such industry as the committee may deem necessary.

The rioting in the early morning of January 29, when a number of street cars containing men and women on their way to work were held up and partially destroyed, was followed by the importation of additional militiamen who were stationed throughout the business district of the city as well as in the mill section. By the night of January 23 twenty-two companies of state troops, with two

troops of cavalry from Boston, had made Lawrence an armed camp.

ETTOR IN JAIL: STRIKE GOES ON

The Monday riot, which each side claims was incited by the other, resulted in the death of Anna Lopizzo from a stray bullet. On Wednesday Ettor and Arturo M. Giovannitti, his assistant, were arraigned in the Lawrence police court, charged with being accessories to murder. Both pleaded not guilty and were held without bail. The men were remanded to February 9.

On Tuesday, January 30, John Ramie, a Syrian boy of eighteen years, was stabbed in the back while the militiamen were dispersing a crowd of strikers near the Arlington mills. Ramie was not apparently taking an active part in the demonstration and his assailant has not been discovered. The boy died the next day.

One of the most surprising developments of the week was the arrest of John C. Breen on two charges of planting dynamite, the discovery of which gave the newspapers of Sunday morning, January 21, a particularly good opportunity to accuse the strikers of intended violence. Mr. Breen is a school committee-man of Lawrence.

The murdered bodies of two men and women were found in the French-Canadian colony at 9 o'clock on the evening of February 2. The connection of this crime with the strike was not clear in the early dispatches.

Ettor's arrest did not materially weaken the strike. While several of the mills were opened during the week, and under the protection of the soldiers numerous operatives had returned to work, the strike committee claimed that more than 10,000 men and as many women and children were still idle. Ettor issued the following statement from the Lawrence jail:

In accord with the desire on the part of the mill owners to break your strike, and that they may continue to spin and weave your lives into cloth, they arrested what they choose to call "the backbone of the strike." Let this serve you as a spur and determination to carry on the strike to a successful conclusion.

Fellow workers, Yates of New Bedford, na-

tional secretary of the Textile Workers' branch of the Industrial Workers of the World, has been advised what to do and in a day or two Bill Haywood and William E. Trautmann will be with you to give you what aid they can to win your struggle.

On the night of February 2 Haywood attended a debate at Carnegie Hall, New York, between Emma Goldman, anarchist, and Sol. Fieldman, Socialist, and made a speech on the Lawrence strike after which hundreds of dollars were collected to aid the strikers.

CONSUMERS' LEAGUE IN NEW HAVEN, CONN.

Ten states and the District of Columbia were represented by delegates at the thirteenth annual meeting of the National Consumers' League, in New Haven, Conn., January 19 and 20. These states were Connecticut, Delaware, Massachusetts, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island.

The freshest interest revealed itself in the comparison of methods used in the shop early campaign, and in getting legislation in 1911, when forty legislatures sat.

A strange development in the Christmas campaign was the report made that in Cleveland, O., and in Portland, Ore., Red Cross seals had become an obstacle to early closing, the local committees for the sale of Red Cross seals having acquiesced in the argument of merchants that the longer the stores were open the more seals could be sold. The incongruity of promoting night work of women and young people for the sake of gaining additional funds wherewith to combat tuberculosis is not yet recognized by the shopping public in those two cities. Their shop early campaigns were, therefore, a failure. Elsewhere the reports were uniformly favorable and the publicity campaign started by THE SURVEY was recognized as valuable co-operation.

Arthur N. Holcombe, of the Department of Government at Harvard University, who is chairman of the league's Committee on Minimum Wage Boards, was the principal speaker, and dealt with the Commission on Minimum Wage

Boards in Massachusetts, whose report has lately been presented to the Legislature. This is the first substantial contribution of newly ascertained facts gathered in preparation for a bill to establish minimum wage boards.

The opening public session was welcomed by President Hadley and Prof. H. W. Farnam of Yale, and addresses were made by Mrs. William W. Farnam, Alice Lakey, and the Rev. James Goodwin, president of the Consumers' League of Connecticut.¹

OHIO 54-HOUR LAW SUSTAINED IN COURT

In view of the Cleveland experience with the shop early campaign it is the more to be regretted that stores are omitted from the new fifty-four-hour law of Ohio, the constitutionality of which has just been sustained by the Supreme Court of that state. The range of industries embraced in the law is wide, however, including factories, workshops, telephone and telegraph offices, millinery and dressmaking establishments, restaurants, and the distribution and transmitting of messages.

Louis D. Brandeis was invited by the attorney general of Ohio to co-operate in this case in defense of the law, and filed a brief prepared under his direction by Josephine Goldmark. This is the third case favorably decided in which Mr. Brandeis and Miss Goldmark have co-operated in support of laws shortening the working day of adult women, the other two having been in Oregon and Illinois. Cases involving eight-hour laws are now pending in California and Washington. In Maryland, New Jersey, Kentucky, New York, and Rhode Island bills to limit the working hours of women will be promoted in 1912 by the Consumers' Leagues in those states; and work is under way in other states in behalf of bills which will be introduced in 1913. This gives especial significance to the early publication by the Russell Sage Foundation of the great mass of material on the results to women of long hours of labor which formed the basis

¹The former officers were re-elected, with the addition as vice-presidents of Mrs. Isham Henderson of Connecticut and Jane Addams.

of the briefs used by Mr. Brandeis in the cases mentioned. Miss Goldmark, the author, has added about 250 pages of new matter. The volume will be published under the title *Fatigue and Efficiency*.

"HUNKIES" AND LIABILITY LAWS

If an immigrant is killed in industry in this country shall his dependent wife and children in their foreign home receive the benefits of our liability laws? A plea for an affirmative answer to this question was made recently by Marcel A. Viti, of Philadelphia, before the Civic Federation of New York. Under the present state laws, Mr. Viti pointed out, claims for damages are often thrown out on the ground that those dependent on the deceased are "non-resident aliens." This means of course that one more reason has been found for paying slight attention to the life of the "hunky," and also that to the "hunky's" many burdens is added the consciousness that his accidental death will not issue in payments to those looking to him for support. An adverse feature of the situation is that the "model" law drawn up by the Conference of Compensation Commissioners¹ for guiding states to the passage of uniform laws on the subject expressly excludes "non-resident alien dependents."

Mr. Viti's paper cited, however, decisions of federal courts and of the appellate courts of five states, all favorable to the same treatment under the law for non-resident as for resident aliens. Says the decision of the federal court in the Massachusetts case of *Velatore vs. Perkins*:

To exclude non-resident aliens from the right to maintain an action is to incorporate into the act a restriction which it does not contain. It is to refuse compensation to a certain class of persons for a real injury recognized by statute law. It is to relieve employers with respect to some employes from the exercise of due care in the employment of safe and suitable tools and machinery and competent superintendents. It is to offer an inducement to employers to give a preference to aliens and to discriminate against citizens. It is to hold that the legislature of Massa-

chusetts intended by this act to declare that employers should not be liable for the grossest negligence which results in the instant death of an alien employe in cases where his widow or next of kin happen to reside in a foreign country.

The four other decisions are of the same drift, dwelling on the importance of sustaining the principle underlying compensation laws, namely, prevention of accidents, and the danger and injustice of excluding one class of laborers from the protection of these laws. The further injustice that arises from such exclusion in the unjust discrimination in some cases against the employment of American labor on this ground was discussed at the recent congress of governors. Mr. Viti urged the full application of the law to all dependents and deplored any compromise arrangement for non-residents on the basis of lower cost of living abroad; since the presumption is that the deceased was contributing in proportion to the wages earned in this country. It is interesting to note that the bill about to be presented to Congress by the federal liability commission provides a much lower rate of compensation for death to non-resident alien dependents.

MILLIONAIRE LOAN SHARK BEHIND BARS

Consternation has seized the minds of Milwaukee, Wis., usurers, for one of their number has been sentenced to ninety days in the House of Correction. This is the first time that a loan shark has actually been imprisoned in this country, the invariable punishment of those convicted heretofore having been fines which simply amounted to high licenses on their business. The Milwaukee offender is Lawrence Murphy, a millionaire, and it was Judge Backus who withstood all the pressure brought to bear to induce him to let the prisoner off with a fine. It is said that Judge Backus has received hundreds of letters and telephone calls congratulating him on his act.

That usury is not an uncommon evil in Milwaukee and that patience with it has ceased to be a virtue may be inferred from an editorial in one of the city's papers, which closes:

¹THE SURVEY, December 10, 1910.

A good, stiff dose of prison bars, such as meted out by Judge Backus, not only vindicates the state but will put a quietus on the loan shark gentry such as it has not experienced before.

A few more of such sentences and the day will pass when fine residences can be built in the exclusive sections of our city with money tortured out of harassed and unfortunate humanity, when the cut-throat usurer can parade himself as a successful business man and a pillar of society.

Methods sometimes employed by loan sharks are illustrated by the story of Mrs. John H. Murphy, of Chicago, which begins with the purchase on credit, in 1896, of a twenty-five-dollar suit of clothes for her twenty-one-year-old son. The husband, an office building engineer, earning \$60 a month, had warned all the members of his family not to buy anything on credit. It was fear of his anger, should he learn what had been done, that carried mother and son to a chattel mortgage office with a request for twenty-five dollars. The loan shark took her household furniture as security, declaring that his interest would be 10 per cent a month. He saw that the woman was illiterate and learned that she did not want her husband to know of the loan. For fifteen years, until he died, the money-lender nursed that dread of her husband's ill-will, and added layer on layer to the usury exacted. Once when the debt was within five dollars of being squared the lender called—he always called when both husband and son were out—and demanded that it be paid in full. He took two dollars—all the woman had—and made her renew the note. Whenever she seemed within reach of payment there was another renewal for her to sign.

Last November the loan shark died and next day the son called at Mrs. Murphy's home. Not so wise as his father, he did not keep his mission secret. Another son overheard him bullying his mother and kicked the bullier from the door.

On the following day the Chicago Legal Aid Society was called in and the lending office cancelled the notes rather than suffer prosecution. In all, five hundred dollars had been collected on the original loan of twenty-five.

COURTS COMING TO SEE REAL GUILT

Other courts have lately shown intentions similar to that of Milwaukee's judge to look behind the form of the money lender's transaction and to discover the real guilt of those who violate usury laws. A city magistrate of Baltimore was recently tried on the charge of conspiracy to defraud. It was found that he had been acting in collusion with a loan shark company, and a six months' jail sentence was imposed. In Philadelphia, Judge Holland a few weeks ago sentenced to two years in the federal prison and fined one thousand dollars a man who had been conducting a usurious money-lending business and who pleaded guilty to a charge of using the mails to defraud.

In Chicago two bank clerks were recently before Judge Kenesaw M. Landis on charges of embezzlement. The evidence showed that they had fallen victims to a loan shark who admitted that he had charged them 100 per cent interest. This man was also an attorney and operates two loan offices in New York. Calling the money lender before him, Judge Landis said:

These men are guilty of embezzlement, but you are the real offender. One of them I shall fine a penny and costs, on the other I shall suspend a ninety days' sentence. Probably all I can do to you is to disbar you, and I shall try to do that.

The United States Supreme Court recently upheld the constitutionality of the Massachusetts law regulating assignment of wages. This law provides that no assignment of wages shall be valid unless consented to in writing by the borrower's wife and his employer. Many attorneys have contended that any law which placed burdensome restrictions upon a man in the matter of an assignment of wages would be a violation of his constitutional rights. But this decision recognizes the right of legislatures to safeguard an employe's wages against assignment except by cognizance of employer and consent of wife, and is regarded as far-reaching.

In contrast to the action of these courts is that recently of the Court of Special Sessions in New York. A money-

lender charged with attempting to extort money by sending a threatening letter found the evidence so strong against him that he pleaded guilty. The court suspended sentence.

WORKERS' SCHOOL OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Working people to the number of one hundred have joined a "Workers' School of Municipal Government" which has recently been started as an extension course in the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy. The object of the school is not to train experts for technical positions in the municipal government, for it has neither the facilities nor the staff of instructors to prepare students to become municipal engineers, accountants, or other specialists in public service. The purpose is to train working people for intelligent citizenship. The course, to be sure, would be just as valuable for a municipal engineer as for a machinist; but it is not designed to make municipal engineers out of machinists.

In view of the increasing participation of the working class in political affairs throughout the country, as evidenced by recent elections, this school and the idea for which it stands are seen to be of the highest significance. It is pointed out that the establishment of such schools wherever possible would be of great value for the welfare not only of working people but of the whole community. Working men elected to office are anxious as a rule to have information which will help them perform their duties both honestly and efficiently. Education of working people in municipal affairs will tend, however, whether or not successful candidates come from their own ranks, to raise standards of efficiency in municipal administration.

While the school is composed of working people, and conducted by them, the credit for its inception and success thus far is largely due its leader, John C. Kennedy. Mr. Kennedy is a graduate of Cornell University and has been an instructor of political economy at the University of Chicago, where he has been pursuing graduate studies. He is a resident of the University of Chicago

Settlement and has recently become secretary of the Association of Commerce Committee on Housing.

The school meets Monday and Wednesday evenings from eight to ten o'clock in the rooms of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, the facilities of which are freely at its disposal. A short lecture occupies thirty minutes of each evening, and the rest of the time is devoted to study and discussion by the various committees into which the students—both men and women—are divided as follows:

Housing, building regulation, and fire protection.

Municipal revenues and expenditures.

Transportation and traffic.

Gas, electric light and power, and telephones.

Water, drainage, and sewerage.

Streets, alleys, and garbage.

General municipal enterprise.

Health, smoke, smells, and noises.

Education and vocational adjustment.

Parks, playgrounds, and beaches.

Police, justice, penal institutions, reformatories, and charities.

City charter and city planning.

Efficiency and organization—civil service.

Labor conditions.

Each of these committees will spend the next few months making a special study of the problems coming within its field of municipal government. The committees will be called upon at the conclusion of their studies to submit a report to the class as a whole, which, generally speaking, will cover the following points:

First, the actual conditions now prevailing in Chicago; second, what is being done along similar lines in other cities of Europe and America; and, third, what could be done to improve conditions in Chicago.

In all cases the problems most vitally concerning the working people will receive special attention.

As yet, no single text-book has been found which is satisfactory for the use of such a class. At the present time the students are reading in connection with their other work such general treat-

ises on municipal government as Wilcox's *Great Cities in America, Their Problems and Their Government*; Deming's *Government of American Cities*; Howe's *The City the Hope of Democracy*; Munroe's *Government of European Cities*, and Woodruff's *City Government by Commission*.

Each committee, of course, will make a special study of the literature dealing with its own problems. In connection with the work of the various committees it is hoped that the school will be able to build up gradually a first-class reference library on all phases of municipal government which will be of especial value to the working class.

A main object of this school, according to one connected with it,

is to work out satisfactory methods of teaching municipal government to the rank and file of our citizens in the evening schools. It is a striking fact that our public school system, which is established on the principle that education is necessary for intelligent citizenship in our republic, has thus far made practically no provision for the education of our citizens in regard to the most pressing problems with which they are confronted. It is scarcely to be wondered that so many of our citizens vote unintelligently in regard to the questions which are of most vital importance to the welfare of the whole community.

IMMIGRANTS TAUGHT ART OF CITIZENSHIP

Education of immigrants specifically for citizenship is just now being started by the Chicago Board of Education. This follows experiments by the University of Chicago Settlement and Chicago Commons, where for several years classes of immigrants who have already taken out their first papers have been instructed in civics preparatory to their receiving the final papers which make them full-fledged citizens.

Approximately 5,000 immigrants become citizens in Chicago each year. Until now no effort has been made by the public schools to give them much needed special training for the duties and privileges of citizenship about to be assumed. At the suggestion of J. D. Hunter of Chicago Commons, and through the efforts of the superintendent of schools, Ella Flagg Young, and the chief examiner in Chicago for the Department

of Commerce and Labor, M. O. Sturges, co-operation has been established between the department and the Board of Education. When the applicant for naturalization appears before the chief examiner, ninety days before the final court examination, he will be given a card directing him to go to one of the citizenship classes in the evening schools. These began January 8 at the Jones and Washington schools and are being held four evenings a week. Fifteen men on an average are examined by Mr. Sturges each day. If a large proportion of them report for instruction it will mean a large increase in the evening school attendance. Nearly all of the 12,000 immigrants now in attendance in the English classes of the night schools are those who have not been here long enough to file their petitions for final papers. Thus the advanced step which has been taken may mean several thousand new pupils a year in the public schools. It is expected that rooms for this instruction will have to be opened in more schools.

GRAND RAPIDS PLAN OF CITY GOVERNMENT

Plain traces of the influence of the commission government idea for cities show themselves in the "Grand Rapids Plan of City Government," as embodied in the revised charter submitted to the electors by the Charter Commission of the Michigan metropolis. Contrary to the trend in many municipalities since 1905, however, a council of twelve aldermen, one for each ward, is provided for in the proposed revised charter. Short ballot advocates, too, cannot point to the Grand Rapids plan as conforming to their ideas, since there are seventeen different elective positions, although they are not all to be voted for each year.

The council's importance is increased and it will become, if the electors approve the charter on February 20, the policy-determining body of the city. It will adopt all budgets, fix the amount of taxes, grant licenses, act upon all franchises, supervise public utilities, and order all special and public improvements.

The general business affairs of the city, as in the commission-governed cities,

will be conducted through four general managers of public works, health and safety, parks and public property, and finance and revenue. These managers together with the mayor who appoints and removes them constitute the administrative board. The board will hold public meetings daily at which it will transact the general business of the city by *yea* and *nay* vote, to be publicly recorded.

The revised charter provides for the initiative and referendum upon all ordinances and the right of the recall upon any elective officer, except the judiciary. The charter attempts rigidly to guard the interests of the people in all franchise grants and to insure reasonable rates of charge, good service, and necessary extensions.

Interesting sections of the charter are those in which it recognizes the benefits of social welfare work by the creation of a new Municipal Social Center Commission and the necessity for the scientific treatment of the problem of poverty by establishing a Commission of General Welfare.

The framers of the charter state that they have tried by drawing upon the best thought the country over to draft a progressive, up-to-date charter which will insure the people's rule and make for the progress of Grand Rapids.

EDITORIAL GRIST

FIFTY YEARS AGO

ABRAHAM LINCOLN¹

The war continues. In considering the policy to be adopted for suppressing the insurrection, I have been anxious and careful that the inevitable conflict for this purpose shall not degenerate into a violent and remorseless revolutionary struggle. I have therefore in every case thought it proper to keep the integrity of the Union prominent as the primary object of the contest on our part, leaving all questions which are not of vital military importance to the more deliberate action of the Legislature.

¹Being excerpts from President Lincoln's first annual message to Congress, December 3, 1861.

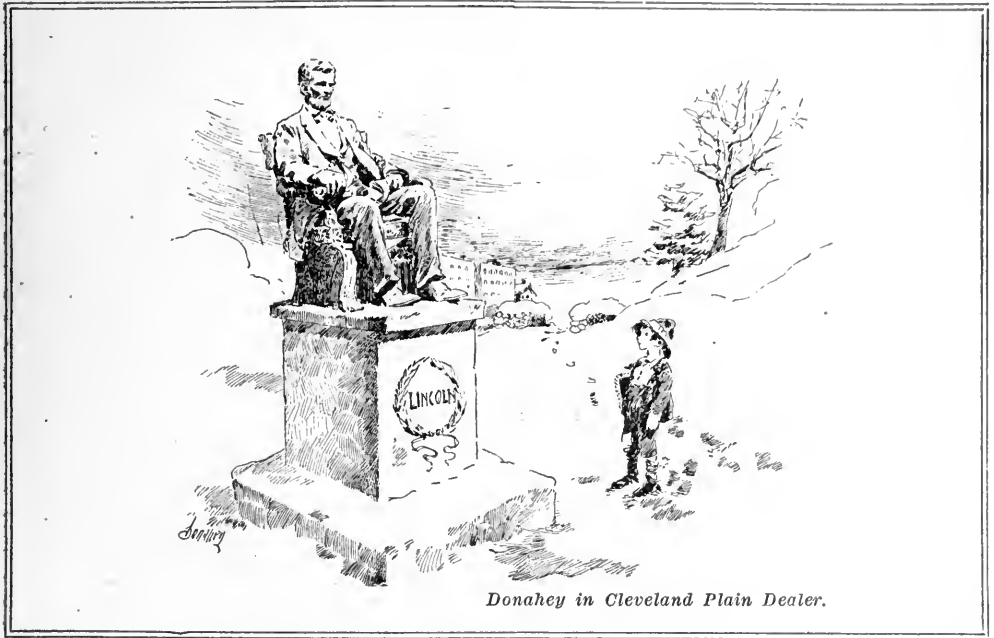
It continues to develop that the insurrection is largely, if not exclusively, a war upon the first principle of popular government—the rights of the people. Conclusive evidence of this is found in the most grave and maturely considered public documents, as well as in the general tone of the insurgents. In those documents we find the abridgment of the existing right of suffrage and the denial to the people of all right to participate in the selection of public officers except the legislative boldly advocated, with labored arguments to prove that large control of the people in government is the source of all political evil. Monarchy itself is sometimes hinted at as a possible refuge from the power of the people.

In my present position I could scarcely be justified were I to omit raising a warning voice against this approach of returning despotism.

It is not needed nor fitting here that a general argument should be made in favor of popular institutions; but there is one point, with its connections, not so hackneyed as most others, to which I ask a brief attention. It is the effort to place capital on an equal footing with, if not above, labor in the structure of government. It is assumed that labor is available only in connection with capital; that nobody labors unless somebody else, owning capital, somehow by the use of it induces him to labor. This assumed, it is next considered whether it is best that capital shall hire laborers, and thus induce them to work by their own consent, or buy them and drive them to it without their consent. Having proceeded so far, it is naturally concluded that all laborers are either hired laborers or what we call slaves. And further, it is assumed that whoever is once a hired laborer is fixed in that condition for life.

Now there is no such relation between capital and labor as assumed, nor is there any such thing as a free man being fixed for life in the condition of a hired laborer. Both these assumptions are false, and all inferences from them are groundless.

Labor is prior to and independent of capital. Capital is only the fruit of la-



Donahy in Cleveland Plain Dealer.

bor, and could never have existed if labor had not first existed. Labor is the superior of capital, and deserves much the higher consideration. Capital has its rights, which are as worthy of protection as any other rights. Nor is it denied that there is, and probably always will be, a relation between labor and capital producing mutual benefits. The error is in assuming that the whole labor of community exists within that relation. A few men own capital, and that few avoid labor themselves, and with their capital hire or buy another few to labor for them. A large majority belong to neither class—neither work for others nor have others working for them. In most of the southern states a majority of the whole people of all colors are neither slaves nor masters, while in the northern a large majority are neither hirers nor hired. Men, with their families—wives, sons, and daughters—work for themselves on their farms, in their houses, and in their shops, taking the whole product to themselves, and asking no favors of capital on the one hand nor of hired laborers or slaves on the other. It is not forgotten that a considerable number of persons mingle their own labor with capital; that is, they labor with their own hands and also buy or hire others

to labor for them; but this is only a mixed and not a distinct class. No principle stated is disturbed by the existence of this mixed class.

Again, as has already been said, there is not of necessity any such thing as the free hired laborer being fixed to that condition for life. Many independent men everywhere in these states a few years back in their lives were hired laborers. The prudent, penniless beginner in the world labors for wages awhile, saves a surplus with which to buy tools or land for himself, then labors on his own account another while, and at length hires another new beginner to help him. This is the just and generous and prosperous system which opens the way to all, gives hope to all, and consequent energy and progress and improvement of condition to all. No men living are more worthy to be trusted than those who toil up from poverty, none less inclined to take or touch aught which they have not honestly earned. Let them beware of surrendering a political power which they already possess, and which if surrendered will surely be used to close the door of advancement against such as they and to fix new disabilities and burdens upon them till all of liberty shall be lost.

With a reliance on Providence all the more firm and earnest, let us proceed in the great task which events have devolved upon us.

THE CRIME OF MURDER

ISABEL C. BARROWS

Many of us can recall the days when the mention of Greece suggested a land where brigandage and murder were so common as to be a national disgrace. It was an unsafe country for travelers and protection from bandits and highwaymen was constantly demanded. Then the strong arm of government interfered, and when the present writer went through that country women were met traveling by twos, and even alone, with perfect safety, from one end of Greece to the other. It is a burning shame that what until then had been true of that little country should be almost true today of this great land. It is a fact that we have no criminal statistics worthy the name—more shame to us as intelligent people!—to prove this statement, but one has only to read the daily papers to be dismayed and disheartened at the number of murders and homicides committed all over the land. And what is the outcome? *Collier's* weekly, in an article on this subject, says that roughly speaking not one murderer in four in the United States is ever brought to trial, and not one in twenty-five of those brought to trial receives a death sentence. Indeed, "not one murderer in ten in the United States ever sees the inside of a penitentiary." In one year, according to the United States census, there were 2,444 persons committed for trial for murders, but there were only 106 capital sentences that year. Yet according to the best estimates there were 9,000 murders!

One of the clipping bureaus was asked to report the murders noted in one day throughout the United States, and the list is appalling. The writer of this article in *Collier's*, Carl Snyder, estimates, from such figures as he has collected, that there are three victims every day throughout the country. These murders are not committed chiefly by foreigners, as in our self-complacency

we are apt to suppose, but by American-born men and women, boys and girls. Only sixteen per cent of the known murderers are foreign-born.

It is the plain duty of every state to have official records concerning crime. Till that is done the best remedies and prevention cannot be devised. Who is there to stir the people up to official action? It is useless to harrow the readers of newspapers by details of horrid murders and to appal them by their frequency, unless at the same time there can be concerted efforts at prevention.

THE QUALITY OF SERVICE¹

FRANK L. McVEY

The milestones in the consideration of this topic may be put down as those of the point of view, the concept of service, and the quality of service. The first of these is essential and necessary to the discussion, because already there is a point of view in the field, one which has come to us as a sort of tradition from the history of the past. Further than that, in the opinion of most people any one who needs a job can fill a position in a "charitable society"; in fact, there is a wide lack of training in the line of social service among otherwise skilled people.

In the Bible are many references to the poor. One in the book of Deuteronomy says: "For the poor will never cease out of the land; therefore, I command thee, saying, thou shalt surely open thy hand unto thy brother, to thy needy and to the poor in the land." From this and other statements of similar character people as a whole have come to the conclusion that poverty is inevitable, that the work which is to be done is individual rather than social. This is unquestionably a wrong view as we now regard it, but it has continued because of the belief that Providence had ordered it, and that, so far as the poor were concerned, they were out of adjustment and needed direction. Poverty, in consequence, was due to carelessness, neglect, or crime, and was its own punishment.

¹Based on an address at the twentieth meeting of the Minnesota Conference of Charities and Correction, Duluth, Minn., November 9, 1911.

This being in a measure a punishment inflicted for past deeds, it must be borne, and hence contentment under the conditions was desirable. Out of this concept grew various statements to the effect that character was made by adversity, while the religious states of men's minds were advanced by hardship. Under the necessity of doing the best they could, worry was inaugurated for the purpose of frightening men into thrift.

There is, however, a basis for this view. In the time of the Hebrews, and even within the ken of our own history, there was a constant struggle to get a living. Nations fought for the great fertile areas; wealth increased but slowly, while food supplies were limited; so there was created the philosophy and the policy of a "deficit economy." The story of the early trading in ancient times, and in Holland and New England in more modern days, brings out again and again the essential truth of this statement. In America, however, the economy is really a surplus one rather than one of deficit. Wealth is produced in large quantities, lands have been opened to the acquirement of men, and, while the old view was for a long time accepted and poverty was regarded as inevitable, yet there has crept in gradually a new conception which asks why, in view of all the bounty of nature, there is not an adjustment of men to their burdens. The old view developed a psychology of acceptance, while the second has created an economic ideal of society without poverty. If we believe in the first, we are constantly emphasizing relief and bemoaning the break-down in the self-reliance of individuals; while, if we accept the second, we come to the recognition of what it means to be poor, that it is the result of ignorance, of vice, and of environment, and that so far as the nation is concerned it in no respect pays to have a large number below the normal of living conditions among its people.

If this, then, be an acceptable view, furnishing the necessary background, the concept of social service may be discussed more intelligently. It is a much used phrase, called forth at all times

and for many purposes to define the charitable acts of men. But it means more than that. It is, in short, the rendering of intelligent aid, and it involves an ethical principle of high importance, the presence of a trusted servant in the democracy who renders aid that is guided by wisdom and discretion.

There are many views of service. The business man is apt to lay the emphasis upon economy; and there are the police concept of fraud and imposition, the welfare concept of food and clothing, the religious view with its emphasis upon personal salvation, the medical way of looking at things as bound up in sanitation, and the emphasis placed upon education found in instruction and knowledge. The acceptance of any one of these as against all of them results in great variance in methods of work and the bringing into existence of numerous societies which place emphasis upon some narrower concept of what they are expected to do.

Without question there is a marked need of a social program. Since it has been the tendency to over-emphasize and to place too much focus on the outcast and the delinquent, we need a program democratic in character which shall involve a unifying ethical principle as well as economic well-being. Anna Garlin Spencer has suggested recently that such a program would be found in "socializing the water, the air, the earth."¹

Whatever may be our concept, it is certain that the limitation of it to any of the views expressed above hardly means what most of us have in mind when we speak of social service. The recent recognition of the social center has in a measure widened our horizon, but there is still great necessity for conservation of energy and of effort, and of organization through the development of a real social program. Our failure to secure a greater concentration of effort and of thought upon a social program has been due to the lack of clear ideas of the social foundations of society. We have not yet got away from the old view, and consequently fail to recognize the social expert and the necessity of doing expert

work in the rejuvenation of the community. An illustration pointing to the conclusion just expressed appears again and again in the appointment of heads of municipal departments of health, undoubtedly well qualified medically, but absolutely lacking in any concept of social service.

The quality of social service depends first upon personal qualities, and second upon the social opinions of the community. Until we have men and women of splendid personality, who are able to win men, we can hardly expect to develop that quality of social service which will bind a community in cooperative effort. In addition, they must possess ability, real brain-power, sympathy, and patience, and a training that gives them a clear conception of the social foundations, together with a knowledge of what has been done in the past and what can be done in the present. Beside these personal elements, the quality of service in a community is constantly affected by the social opinions existing in it—the ideas that are current about government, the sense of individual responsibility, and the effectiveness of the processes of education in imprinting upon the mind of the community the purpose of a democracy.

The quality of service, therefore, depends upon the special and general knowledge of the individual, and the point of view, public opinion, and social responsibility of the community. One has only to look about him to see how true this statement is. The teacher who is in advance of the thought of his own town finds himself hampered by the action of boards of education and the readiness of patrons to believe anything that is circulated outside the school-room. An example of a point of view will bring more clearly to mind just what is meant by quality of service. It is the application of intelligence through the medium of careful scientific analysis of the problem involved to what may be brought to the attention of the trained social servant. The teacher who knows physical and sanitary conditions, and who attempts to study carefully the causes of retardation, is engaged in a social service of high quality. The

county commissioner who has some object in view other than the saving of money by its proper expenditure may, if he bases his action upon a careful study of the problems of the community, actually render a social service of great value. The application of intelligence and training to the problems of sanitation, better street cleaning, and a hundred other questions that arise in every community is after all the rendering of a real service of a social character that may be classified as one of quality.

The keynote of modern social service is effectiveness, clean and artistic results in whatever direction the action may be carried out. An analysis of the times clearly points to an unrest and dissatisfaction in the political field as almost wholly due to a questioning of the quality of the service that has been rendered in the past by public servants. This reasonable view has come through the recognition of the opportunities and needs, justifying the demand for full value in return for the payments made from the pockets of tax-payers. It is, in fact, the placing of a new emphasis upon quality in the work of the social and public servant.

The old-time simple society of the pioneer day has passed away, leaving in its place an intricate, complicated organization. The conditions of living are no longer those of the self-sufficing community which produced all it used; everywhere men are compelled to work together and live together, whether they want to or not. Mass problems result, requiring the expert to solve them, and well it is if he be filled with a high ethical purpose. Leadership is needed as never before; the requirements for effective leadership are severer than in the earlier day of a simple society; and the quality of service is measured by the effectiveness of the results—not merely in the saving of an individual from a life of shame or removing the pressure of want, but in the creation of satisfactory conditions for larger opportunity in better living conditions. The social service that looks forward to such results, though they may be far in the future, can be unqualifiedly referred to as one of quality.

THE TREND OF THINGS

Public Opinion (London) gives the following program of the recently founded National Land and Home League.

"Our objects," says the official statement, "are as follows:

- (a) The provision of small holdings and allotments for those who need them.
- (b) Better housing in country districts.
- (c) The encouragement of co-operation, co-partnership housing, and credit banks (in connection with the Agricultural Organisation Society).
- (d) An improved system of rural and general education.
- (e) The provision of public village halls and other means of reviving social life.
- (f) The improvement of the conditions of rural labor.

"Although there are undoubtedly a considerable number of capable men in the towns anxious to secure land in the country, nevertheless we do not imagine that townsmen will be brought 'back to the land' in great numbers. Nor do we expect that the whole face of rural England will be covered with small holdings. We understand, and make every allowance for, the fears of large farmers who anticipate the loss of some of their land. We know that transactions connected with land invariably move slowly. We appreciate the difficulties of local councillors.

"Experience has proved, over and over again, that it is not enough to have permissive laws, such as the Small Holdings Act, on the statute book, however good. A voluntary society is needed to see that they are carried out. Without such a society, the hopes and aspirations of isolated men in far-off villages, without help, advice, or sympathy, would too often be nipped in the bud."

* * *

These jokes are old, and their points not without question, but as they are going the rounds of the newspapers they apparently are ripe for a new reading:

"A twelve-year-old girl from the slums of New York was invited to a garden party given by an aristocratic lady to a group of poor girls.

The little girl, as she drank her tea and ate her cake on a velvet lawn under a white-blooming cherry tree, said to her hostess:

"Does your husband drink?"

"Why—er—no," was the astonished reply.

"How much does he make?"

"He doesn't work," said the lady. "He is a capitalist."

"You keep out of debt, I hope?"

"Of course, child. What on earth—"

"Your color looks natural—I trust you don't paint."

"Why, child," exclaimed the amazed hostess, "what do you mean by such questions? Don't you know they are impudent?"

"Impudent?" said the little girl. "Why,

ma'am, Mother told me to be sure and behave like a lady, and when ladies call at our rooms they always ask Mother those questions!"

I believe I'll give that poor cat a piece of meat."

"What! and pauperize the cat? Always help a mendicant to help himself. Scatter some crumbs on the sidewalk. Maybe they will attract a bird for the cat to catch."

* * *

"The public schools," says William Allen White, in a recent article in the *Craftsman*, on Democracy in Education, "as they stand, do not produce the citizenship needed for the work ahead of the country. The spirit of sham in them that mocks justice is the theory that everyone is educated to be a prince or a princess."

But he believes that a change is taking place in educational theories: "Democracy is saying with all the emphasis possible in all the college catalogues that education is for use, not for adornment; and as a corollary we may infer that man is made for use and not for show. Education seems to be in a state of confusion, possibly preceding some period of coherent organization; but while it is reasonably true that there is no such thing as an education definitely and certainly prescribed today, yet we may be well assured that when it is declared and set education will be more of a hand-saw than a plume. It will be cultural only as it is vocational."

* * *

H. J. Bhaba, inspector general of Education in Mysore, India, recommends the adoption in India of the educational methods of Hampton and Tuskegee.

"The establishment of normal and agricultural institutes like those at Hampton and Tuskegee," says Mr. Bhaba, "at first one for each province or group of provinces, and later one for each district, would be the salvation of India. In productive efficiency, in wealth, in self-respect and character, in the hatred of shallow politics, such as the idle, ignorant, and thoughtless indulge in, the people would make rapid advance and thereby increase their own happiness. A contented and useful middle class would then be created such as now hardly exists in India."

* * *

In his inaugural address Mayor Lunn of Schenectady outlines the duties of the first Socialist administration in a New York municipality. His program would apply equally well to any sincere reform administration in any New York municipality.

"We must," says Mayor Lunn, "guard and promote the health of the community. We must enlarge the scope of education until it includes men and women in a continued process of increasing enlightenment. We must do what we can to establish economic security. We must have efficiency clearly distinguished from red-tape. We must have



WILLIE CLEGG.

Courtesy *The Craftsman*.

true economy—a thing which is not the equivalent of mere expense-cutting.”

The address proceeds to outline the first steps that the administration proposes to take to accomplish these objects in Schenectady.

* * *

In the *Modern Tendency of Mural Decorations* the January *Craftsman* describes the method and meaning of Everett Shinn's decorations in the new city hall at Trenton, N. J., which represent steel and pottery work in local factories.

“What he has shown of these factories,” says the *Craftsman*, “is what any truthful man would have shown us. He went to them to know them. He put his hand on the levers to feel the pull of them and their give. He listened to the roar of furnaces, braved their white heat wafted like revenge through their open doors, felt the force and delicacy of steel monsters, felt the exhilaration of victory over stubborn steel and malleable clay, felt the glorious pride and force of

the skilled artisan.” Willie Clegg, a steel worker, six feet of brawn and skilled workmanship, was Mr. Shinn's mentor throughout the work.

* * *

That manufacturers are beginning to see the money-value to themselves of sanitary factory conditions is the opinion of P. W. Blair. Writing in *Domestic Engineering*, Mr. Blair says: “The manufacturer is realizing the benefits he can derive from his employes by a larger production of goods through the installation of a complete sanitary equipment placed in his plant in such a manner that it saves time and keeps his employes in the best of health.”

* * *

The *Christian Life*, London, reports the arrest of a laborer for sending his child to school in too dirty a condition to be admitted. The defendant's wife offered in excuse the fact that she had ten other children, and that her husband's weekly income was thirteen shillings. In view of the poverty the court let the husband off with a fine of 1s. and 4s. costs, making the income that week eight shillings. In comment on the episode *Unity* (Chicago) wonders if that cleaned up the family.

* * *

A printed Esperanto for the blind is one of the objects of the National Library for the Blind. Another and more immediate object is a nation-wide circulating library for the 80,000 blind readers in this country. With five distinct alphabets now conducing to a Babel-like confusion among our sightless citizens, the National Library has set out to secure the adoption of one of these systems as the national system for the United States and ultimately as a uniform system for the whole world. In the opinion of the leaders of the movement a reversion to the original “Braille system” (inaugurated in 1829) is the surest road to the projected standardization of all systems in one.

London at the present time has a National Lending Library for the Blind. At Paris is the Braille Library of the Valentin Haüy Association and at the Hague, Hamburg, and Vienna are similar lending libraries. All of these famous collections of books for the blind, it is the hope of the American workers, will become accessible to the blind readers of America. Thomas Nelson Page is president and Etta Joselyn Griffin vice-president of the organization.

* * *

CAUSE AND EFFECT.
Arthur Gulterman, in *Life*.

The powder lay in heaps—a threat
Of death—where powder should not lie;
Some fool threw down a cigarette—
And flaming ruin rent the sky.

Whereat, a solemn jury met
And laid the blame in wisdom rare,
On him that threw the cigarette,
Not them that left the powder there.

Upon the heaps of Want and Shame,
Whereon men build, one evil day
Some fool will fling a word of flame—
And what will follow, who shall say?

But should all earth be overset,
We'll lay the blame, in dull despair,
On him that threw the cigarette,
Not them that put the powder there.

* * *

A recent issue of the *International Socialist Review* contained an anniversary appreciation by Charles Edward Russell of Wendell Phillips's services for the common good.

Phillips's career as an abolitionist is in all the history books, but Mr. Russell sets forth that he attacked slavery simply as one phase of human exploitation; that in November, 1865, he "practically severed his relations with organized society" by his Eight-Hour Movement declaration, and undertook to champion the white "slaves who toil for others' profits." A few years later he affirmed as a fundamental principle of the Labor Reform platform that "labor, the creator of wealth, is entitled to all it creates," and that the wages system must be abolished since it "demoralizes alike the hirer and the hired, cheats both, and enslaves the working-man." For this cause, writes Mr. Russell, "he sacrificed the good opinion of his time and accepted in its stead universal hatred and incessant attack, . . . the ostracism of every relative, including his mother, . . . such an isolation that he seems now one of the loneliest figures in history."

* * *

The supplementary list of publications of the Library of Congress for 1911—part of the annual report for that year—includes bibliographies on the subject of Boycotts (10 cts.), the Open Shop (25 cents), the Income Tax (20 cents), the Short Ballot (10 cents), State Charities (25 cents), the Restriction of Cigarette Smoking (25 cents), and the Public Drinking Cup (25 cents). In press are bibliographies on Employers' Liability, the

Initiative, and Parcels Post, and, in preparation, Postal Savings and Primary Elections.

* * *

Detailed outlines of a normal course for rural school teachers in nature study, elementary agriculture, sanitary science, and applied chemistry are contained in a monograph entitled *A Course of Study for the Preparation of Rural School Teachers*, which the United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., has just published for free distribution. The authors are Fred Mutchler and W. J. Craig, of the Western Kentucky State Normal School.

"The rural school has not the influence that it should have," says the book. "One of the chief reasons lies in the fact that the course of study is ill-adapted to rural life in all its relations. We are united in believing that a school should train its pupils for life and its work while these pupils are living and working. The course of study in the rural school today is entirely too much like the course in the city school. The country school will not reach the position of efficiency that belongs to it until a distinctive training is required of its teachers.

"A state normal school should prepare a large number of teachers to go out into the rural communities, there to be potent factors in bringing about the best rural life."

* * *

The following verses are from Volume 1, No. 1, (December, 1911) of the *Open Door*, a neighborhood journal issued occasionally by the Irene Kaufman Settlement in Pittsburgh:

My house is built by the roadside,
Where curled smokes dim the sky,
And all day long a busy throng
From the ends of the earth toils by:
And I cry, "Ho, welcome Brothers!"
For a lover of men am I.

Who comes as a friend and fellow
Shall never be denied
His share in the food of brotherhood
And a measure of cheer beside:
So I cry, "Ho, welcome Brothers!"
My doors are opened wide."

I judge no guest by his garments,
The rich and the poor I call,
For each can learn of the other
And none are too great or small:
So I cry "Ho, welcome Brothers!"
My house is builded for all."

My house is built by the roadside
Where curled smokes dim the sky
And all day long a busy throng
From the ends of the earth toils by:
And I cry, "Ho, welcome Brothers!"
For a lover of men am I.

* * *

Two instances of wrong conviction of accused persons having come to public notice within a year—those of Andrew Toth, who served twenty years in Pennsylvania for a murder that he did not commit, and of George Ury, who served ten years in the Ohio state prison for a murder of which he was innocent—make it reasonably sure that these are not the only instances of such terrible in-

justice. The Rochester *Times* calls attention to this great cruelty and demands reform. It says:

"No financial remuneration can recompense an innocent man for years spent in prison. Whatever the state may do, it will still be his debtor. But for the sake of common decency and humanity the state ought to do what it can to repay the innocent victim of its mistake. He should be paid regular wages for the time which he has spent in prison. In addition, if prison life has so broken him down that he is unable to work and support himself and his family, the state should allow him a pension. He committed no fault. The state alone has been at fault. And the state should do what is in its power to atone for that fault. The present way is cruel and a blot on the good name of every state which permits it."

* * *

A new magazine devoted to civic affairs, the *National Municipal Review*, made its appearance last month. It is published by the National Municipal League and aims to present a well balanced, comprehensive survey of municipal progress and endeavor. The editors are anxious to provide students of public affairs and those who are working for better conditions with the facts as they are, with intelligent reports of experiments in different communities, and with the theories advanced for further progress by the leaders in public thought. It is not designed to be the organ of any particular propaganda or organization, including even the league itself, but a medium of discussion from every point of view. Clinton Rogers Woodruff, secretary of the National Municipal League, is the editor. His associates are Charles A. Beard, Columbia University, John A. Fairlie, University of Illinois, and Arthur C. Ludington, New York city.

To the first issue Mr. Woodruff contributes an article on American Municipal Tendencies, which was his annual review as secretary of the National Municipal League at its last meeting. The author says that the trend is toward expansion of the municipal functions and simplification of municipal machinery. In the growing popularity of government by commission the writer sees a tendency toward municipal home rule and a strengthening of the self-governing instinct. An instructive article is that by William Dudley Foulke, president of the National Municipal League, on Effective Municipal Government. It is an analytical study of Frankfort-on-the-Maine and was delivered by Mr. Foulke as his address at the Richmond meeting of the National Municipal League. It has already been published in full in at least two magazines, so that the *Review* is beaten on its publication, although it might have been expected to be the first to give it completely. The other articles include Anti-Toxin for Municipal Waste and Corruption,

by Richard Henry Dana; City Government by Commission: a report, being the comprehensive report of the special committee of the National Municipal League which investigated the results of this new form of administration; Economy and Efficiency in Health Administrative Work, by Selskar M. Gunn, assistant professor of sanitary biology and public health, Massachusetts Institute of Technology; Private Houses and Public Health, by John Ihlder, field secretary of the National Housing Commission; and the Tammany-Gaynor Charter, by Laurence Arnold Tanger.

There are five additional articles on a wide range of topics, and three departments, edited by Prof. John A. Fairlie, Arthur Crosby Ludington, and Prof. Charles A. Beard, on Reports and Documents, Current Municipal Literature, and Events and Personalalia, respectively.

* * *

THE CORONER'S JURY

S. E. Kiser

Somebody saved a few dollars unfairly in building a wall;
Somebody skimped a foundation, but no one was guilty at all;
People were crushed in the ruins; 'twas a pity,
a crime, and a shame,
But, of course, the coroner's jury was unable to fix the blame.

Somebody saved a few dollars by nailing up windows and doors.
Somebody made a nice profit by laying inflammable floors;
People were caught in the death-trap and instantly wrapped in the flame,
But, of course, the coroner's jury was unable to fix the blame.

Somebody's swelling his profits by daily imperiling lives;
He is breaking the law and he knows it, but gladness is his, for he thrives;
Some day there will be a disaster, and people will call it a shame,
But, of course, the coroner's jury will not know who is to blame.

COMMUNICATIONS

A FRAUD TOLERATED

TO THE EDITOR:

I approve every word of Mr. Ham's editorial¹ on the recent "loan shark" decision by the Appellate Division in Brooklyn. The court made the mistake of treating this as a mere statute of limitation or rule of procedure, effective in New York, but which could not stand against the constitutional right of any citizen to go to Maine and make a contract lawful there, and which would therefore be binding here. But this is not a mere rule of limitation. It is, as Mr. Ham points out, a broad remedial law, resting upon far-reaching considerations of social necessity and public welfare. It is such a law as has re-

¹See THE SURVEY, January 13, 1912, page 1572.

cently been upheld on grounds of public policy by the Supreme Court of the United States.

The pretence of going to Maine to execute an assignment of this borrower's wages was a palpable fraud, which the court should not have tolerated. It was a mere scheme to evade the provisions of our beneficent and wholesome law, and to take advantage of the ignorance of the borrower. A power of attorney to execute an assignment of wages, exacted by the lender from the borrower who applies for a loan in New York, and which in form authorizes the lender himself or one of his employes or confederates to do this act, ought to be held invalid *ab initio* as against public policy, because the pretended attorney cannot be the faithful servant of the borrower, to do the best that he can for him, as the law requires, but is manifestly going to betray his principal. But when this false attorney, in league with the other party and without proper notice to his principal, goes to another state for the sole purpose of making an oppressive deal, against the interest of his principal, and to play into the hands of his oppressor, it seems too plain for argument that this is nothing but a fraudulent scheme and incapable of enforcement. Even if the attorney lives in the other state this would be merely another evidence of the fraud, and should not change the result.

It is really an insult to our courts to ask them to enforce such a piece of trickery, such a plain evasion of and juggling with our laws. If the courts understood it, as the courts in Brooklyn apparently did not, they would refuse to be made the tools of such base wrong-doers and would immediately avail themselves of the criminal branch of the law to apprehend and punish them.

ANSLEY WILCOX.

Buffalo, N. Y.

A HYPOTHETICAL QUESTION

TO THE EDITOR:

When a man—an intelligent man—on a social service committee of the Men and Religion Forward Movement says that his church has no social problems because it is in a "well-to-do-residential district, and, anyway, the men's club has regular pumpkin-pie suppers, and all the boys and girls in the Sunday School are good boys and girls," when he up and says that bad boys that break windows ought to be looked after by a special policeman and made to suffer for their criminal instincts; when another man stands out for the construction of three-deckers and a third asks if there will be any social legislation in this year's Great and General Court—when all these things and lots more of the same brand happen in the course of one hour in "cultured Boston"—in the name of heaven what's to be done but pray for Graham Taylor and Charles Stelzle who are to accompany the teams of experts which will visit Boston during its Eight-Day Campaign?

"R. C. P."

Boston.

"POSITIVE EUGENICS"

TO THE EDITOR:

Most people believe in the theory of eugenics, few see any sensible application of it. Is the following idea practical?

For several years we have had Rhodes scholarships given to the pick of our land—the most perfect in physical, mental, social, and ethical standards. They have been sent to England and encouraged to continue their studies, postpone marriage, and deprive society of large families, both because of the delayed marriage and because of custom among the super-educated. Yet Francis Galton has shown that genius is more precious than diamonds for the human race.

Why should not a Mrs. Sage, a Carnegie, Rockefeller, or, better still, the trustees of the Cold Spring Harbor Eugenics Society establish an endowment for settling a stipend of \$800 a year for eight years upon each of these students who marries before leaving for England, and increasing the amount \$200 per year for each child born within the eight-year period? Most young men would like to marry at twenty-two if financial resources were at hand, and at the end of eight years they would have finished their studies and passed through the first starting years, so that they would not need to fear to undertake this responsibility. This relationship would inhibit the sowing of many wild oats, would probably bring steady progress to society through several generations, and establish favorable conditions for the possible birth of genius.

This is of course only a limited start for positive eugenics, but it has the advantage of being practical, which is what the science needs today.

JOHN H. CHASE.

Cambridge, Mass.

JUDGE POLLARD ON THE PLEDGE

TO THE EDITOR:

I have read the statement of the probation officer in *THE SURVEY* in which he says a judge accepted from one offender a bureau drawer full of pledges to abstain from intoxicating liquor and no reformation followed—*this was not a sane and practical test of the efficacy of the pledge.*

The probation officer's story is an assault on and a severe indictment of the judge and not the "pledge plan." It proves the judge possessed no ability to discriminate between the unfortunate, helpless sot—habitual drunkard—who needs a physician and not a police judge, and whom you cannot prosecute and punish into sobriety any more than a lunatic can be prosecuted and punished into sanity and self-control, and the class of men far more numerous than the confirmed drunkard, men who are not yet poisoned by the virus of drink and in whom "the germ of good is not yet dead," honest, unfortunate victims of their lack of opportunity, associations, environment, and social conditions in gen-

eral—who might be redeemed to the state and to their families by a double restraint—one an appeal to their manhood, the other the threat of the consequences of the violation of the pledge given the state.

The failure of the judge to understand these offenders is worse than pitiful. Abstinence honor pledges, when accepted in court in lieu of fine or imprisonment, must carry with them the penalty of the infliction of the judgment if the pledge is violated. For a judge to pursue any other course will make him, and not the "pledge plan," ridiculous.

If a judge accepts pledges from habitual drunkards (whom you might as well ask to sign a pledge not to have a cold as to ask them to sign a pledge not to drink, and expect them to keep it) he will, by so doing, make his acts absurd. Such offenders should be placed, if possible, in care of a physician or on a farm, where they can provide for themselves and improve their condition.

We must have officials who have faith in humanity and a realization of the worth of a human soul, the value of a sober citizen to the state, and the needs of the victims' families. Officials who are moved not only by a sense of duty, but a love of humanity also, and who believe it is as much their duty to help reform those who can be reformed by proper and rational treatment by the courts—who are arraigned for drunkenness or drink-caused offences, as it is to help reform those convicted of thievery and ruffianism, and other criminals who are placed on probation—*for out of drunkenness most criminals of high or low degree are created and developed.* It is accepted as a fact that probation has benefited and uplifted men who have been convicted of vile and serious crimes—for "the gospel of reformation is applicable to every individual life that has gone astray."

Is it not preposterous to say that an honest bread-winner, losing his self-control and becoming intoxicated, and while in that condition becomes vicious and assaults his parents, or wife or child or any other citizen, and being convicted, cannot be helped and benefited if given a pledge for a stated period—in an honest effort to win him from drink (that was the moving cause of his violating the law)—and then paroled and placed on probation?

Police courts have, as a rule, jurisdiction over cases of drunkenness and petty offences. Therefore we should begin at the beginning. The effort to reform the offender should commence before he becomes an habitual drunkard or hardened criminal. We are now doing much good work for the criminal. Let us do what we can for the victim of drink and his innocent and unoffending family. Men and women are but grown up children and when they make mistakes and offend against the law and an effort is made to reform them they need careful and watchful attention and sympathy just as the little folks do.

What is true of the effort to reform the juvenile offender is measurably true of the effort to reform the adult—much depends upon the individuality of the judge. A good method in the hands of a weak or prejudiced man will make manifest the impotency of the demonstrator, and may result in much injury to the unfortunate, but the principle involved will remain intact though the method has been perverted.

WILLIAM JEFFERSON POLLARD.

Delegate representing the United States Government at the International Anti-Alcoholic Congress, London, England, July, 1909, and at the Hague, Holland, September, 1911.

Ex-Judge of the Second District Police Court, St. Louis.

REFORM BY SUBSTITUTION

TO THE EDITOR:

Social disorders are the incidental results of combinations of social needs which are powerful enough to operate against the greatest resistance. In logical analysis of the conditions, we should differentiate in the combination of factors which is present those which are primary and those which are secondary. Thus, everywhere the casual observer can compute the evils which spring from the saloon which is a universal institution in many states. So great are the evident evils, that some states have prohibited the saloon. This is reform by prohibition. Immense pressure must be brought to bear to produce the necessary legislation.

Much more rapid progress may be made by a campaign of substitution.

But first, let us analyze the saloon as a universal institution. Liquor drinking is not a primary custom. Women in contrast to men do not drink liquor. The practical reason is that women generally live at home, where two needs are supplied conveniently; namely, the need for pure drinking water and for water-closets. Men on the other hand are away from the homes during the day: The primary needs for pure drinking water and water-closets are everywhere present. The saloon furnishes a substitute for water and a convenient water-closet, generally in a sanitary condition.

To meet liquor drinking as a custom, the societies which continually carry on an agitation for prohibition should make their campaign positive by a sane substitution. Let free drinking fountains with the sanitary bubble be supplied by cities, by large buildings—universally, in an attractive and in a sanitary way—and the primary need on which the saloon and soda-fountain rest, namely *thirst*, would find therein a very rapidly growing competitor. The personal motive to save money is all on the side of the free drinking water.

But, free drinking fountains require for a small-sized city something more than a town pump, or one fountain up near the "Zoo." Wherever there is a saloon or a soda-fountain, there should be in close proximity a free drinking fountain with the sanitary bubble. A small

fraction of the money gained by cities from the licenses issued to saloons would maintain drinking fountains as above suggested. Suppose all of the license receipts were expended by cities in maintaining and extending free drinking fountains and sanitary closets. In a remarkably short time the business of the saloons should diminish. Liquor drinking is less primary than thirst for water and the need for closets.

Against the social side of the saloon is the personal advantage to save money offered in the substitute. The confirmed drinker is not a profitable customer for the saloon. He has little money to spend.

If the reader thinks that the analysis above is not practical, let him propose it in any city. Let him introduce a resolution for the use of a part of the license money in maintaining free drinking fountains and more sanitary public closets for both sexes. If he does not have the united opposition of the saloons, he will know that the saloon representatives believe that the motion proposed is not injurious to the saloon. But he will have no such experience. His motion will meet with a determined opposition.

Reform by prohibition requires an avalanche of public opinion. Reform by substitution grows rapidly, supplanting silently the ancient institution by supplying the primary needs in a better way.

New Haven, Conn.

J. PEASE NORTON.

THE WORKINGMANS' HOME

TO THE EDITOR:

In almost every issue of THE SURVEY there has appeared an article treating of the Tenement Problem or the Homestead Commission or the Co-operative Housing Plan, or some article that attempts to show how conditions have been bettered for some people by some "charitable" trust leasing plots of land to home-seekers, with plenty of restriction and strings attached.

Now I do not believe that any normal man or woman is looking for or desires any of this paternalistic assistance. All any family wants or needs is a "square deal," and, if it gets that, many families will be made happy. By a "square deal" I mean the right to acquire a home by the same right that a railroad or the state has to take it away from them.

If capitalists wish to build a railroad, and on the line of this railroad is a workingman's home, on the value of which the railroad and the workingman can not agree, the railroad can go into court, have the home appraised, condemned, and appropriate it for its right-of-way, put Mr. Workingman out in the street, and tell him to "go and hunt another home."

Mr. Workingman "hunts" and he finds a vacant lot, the tax value of which is \$500, and which is owned by men interested in the railroad. Mr. Workingman says:

"I will give \$1000 for that vacant lot."

"No," says the owner, "I want \$5000 for that lot."

"But the lot is not worth it," says Mr. Workingman, "and, besides, you took away my home for your railroad."

The railroads, the national, state, and local governments can "appropriate" the home of the workingman or the widow, but the workingman or the widow has to pay the "other fellow" his price or go to jail.

Yes, go to jail! For if he stays on the street he will be arrested for vagrancy, and if he goes on the property of any one else he will be arrested for trespassing. He has not the right to purchase a home at its "real value" unless the "other fellow" is willing.

But the railroads and the governments have the right to take it at its "real value," whether the workingman consents to it or not. They say the "home" is the foundation of the government. If that is the case, why not give it the same consideration that is given the government? When this unjust condition is rectified, most of the "tenement," "slum," and "bill-board" problems will be of the past. If you make possible the abolishing of the tenement, the slum is gone. If you make possible the abolishing of the stubborn, greedy land-speculator, the bill-board and other nuisances will, in most cases, be removed.

EDWARD O'NEILL.

Cleveland.

LABOR AND PRICES

TO THE EDITOR:

If the wealth of this world is the sum of the energy working upon the land and its products, multiplied by the hours of such labor, is there any need to question further the cause of the high cost of living?

If the trades union standard were value and perfection of product, as it was once in the original guilds and societies, instead of being, as now, the amount of wages paid for the least hours of services, would not the working class be better off?

If only one-third of our population is engaged in agriculture, which means hard work and long hours, in place of *two-thirds*, as was the case forty years ago, is there any need to seek the cause of rising food prices?

The building trades oppose the use of concrete. The mechanical trades oppose efforts to display efficiency, or to increase output. But trades unions will not consent to restriction of immigration, nor will they allow native boys to take apprenticeships, or go to trade schools, except in limited numbers in a few occupations.

Perhaps the above suggestions may contain reasons for some of the hardships which are moving the sympathies of the sociologist. It is getting harder, day by day, for the unspecialized laboring man to house or feed his family properly. His clothing only is better in quality and lower in price than ten, twenty, or thirty years ago.

JOSEPH D. HOLMES.

Orange, N. J.

JOTTINGS

LINCOLN'S BIRTHDAY CONFERENCE

On February 12 a Lincoln's Birthday Conference will be held by social workers at Union Theological Seminary, 120th street and Broadway, New York. The purpose of the conference, called under the name of a Quiet Day for Social Workers, will be to "bring together those who are interested to discuss the relation of religion to the social question." In the morning informal discussions of the topic, How can the Spirit of Religion Promote Democracy in Every Day Life? will be taken up from the angles of family relations, neighborly intercourse, industrial and trade relations, church relations, and political relations. Mrs. Vladimir G. Simkhovitch will give an address in the afternoon on Training for Democracy, following a discussion of which the Rev. Charles P. Fagnani will give an address on the Democracy of Jesus.

PACIFIC IMMIGRATION CONFERENCE

The State and Provincial Young Men's Christian Association of the Pacific Coast will hold an immigration conference in the Y. M. C. A. Building, Tacoma, February 21-22, with the cooperation of the Chamber of Commerce and other bodies. Among those who will speak are Dana W. Bartlett of Los Angeles, on the Importance to the Pacific Coast of the Approaching Immigration Problem, and J. E. Sprunger of California, on the Son of the Immigrant: a Greater Problem than the Immigrant Himself. Governor Hay of Washington will attend and Governor West of Oregon, Governor Johnson of California, and Premier McBride of British Columbia will probably be present. Announcements and programs may be obtained of C. W. Bainpied, secretary of the Y. M. C. A., Tacoma, Wash. Three major themes will be considered: the Immigrant in the Cities; the Immigrant and the Agricultural Resources of the Pacific Northwest; What Legislation is Necessary and Desirable.

KENTUCKY CHILDREN'S CONFERENCE

A Kentucky Child Welfare Conference and Exhibition was organized last month at a meeting attended by representatives from sixty municipal and charitable institutions and 100 other citizens. The Child Helping Department of the Russell Sage Foundation helped in launching the movement and the conference will be held in Louisville in May, 1912. Mrs. Morris Belknap, president of the preliminary organization which has been at work several months, explained that one purpose of the conference will be to find where the numerous institutions dealing with the child overlap and where they fail to cooperate.

PREVENTIVE EDUCATION

What are we teaching? Why are we teaching it? Why are we teaching it that way? are some of the questions that are going to be asked and answered when the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction comes together in March to discuss broadly the Relation of our Schools to Pauperism, Delinquency, and Crime. Sessions will be held on the 24th at the Woman's Club, Orange, N. J. Dr. Herman C. Schneider, Dean of the College of Engineering, Cincinnati, and Virginia C. Gildersleeve, Dean of Barnard College, Columbia University, will deliver addresses on Education for Efficiency. Medical men and educators will discuss Preventive vs. Curative Education, among the announced speakers being Meyer Bloomfield, of the Vocational Bureau, Boston, Dr. Max G. Schlapp, Director of Clinics, New York, and E. R. Johnstone, superintendent of the New Jersey State Training School for Feeble-minded at Vineland. New Jersey's new commissioner of education, Calvin N. Kendall, formerly superintendent of schools at Indianapolis, Ind., will discuss Educational Values. The Schools as Social and Recreational Centers will be the topic of a talk by Clarence A. Perry, Department of Child Hygiene, Russell Sage Foundation.

CHILD CARE IN CANADA

The Third Annual Report of the Provincial Superintendent of Neglected Children, F. J. Billiardé of Winnipeg, contains two interesting items. This report is the first made since the enactment of the Children's Protection Act and Juvenile Bill, which places the control of child workers, traders, and merchants in the hands of the superintendent of neglected children. It requires children of school age to wear a badge if they must sell articles during school hours; no child is allowed to sell after nine o'clock at night. In order to secure the badge a boy must show that he can read and write fairly well, that he is physically strong enough to do the work, and that it is necessary for him to contribute to the family income. Children under twelve years of age are not allowed to do street trading or distributing at all. The act provides for the control of street trading, and gives any officer a right to search the clothing of a child for tobacco, picture-books, etc. It also provides fine for management contributory to delinquency. Mr. Billiardé is well satisfied with the results of the new provisions.

The statistical portion of the report not only gives all the data necessary but furnishes brief, complete records of each case by number, stating the offense, age, sex, character of parents and home, nationality, religion, physical and mental condition, time of probation, conduct record, and final disposition, all in the briefest space. For study and comparison the data is made available to all workers, a feature lacking in most reports.

February 10, 1912.

BOOKS

LILIAN BRANDT, Contributing Editor

MOVING THE MOUNTAIN

By CHARLOTTE PERKINS GILMAN. The Charlton Company. 290 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.

It is not our intention to comment on a book by Mrs. Gilman every month even if we receive one every month as interesting as these last two have been. This one is a Utopia—a Utopia in which we should really like to live, and that alone would make it unique. She thinks we could have it in thirty years if we put our minds to it. There is one ugly spot in it: as one step in reaching it they "killed many hopeless degenerates, insane, idiots, and real perverts," after trying their "best powers of cure." But it is hard to see why they did; it certainly was not necessary in their scheme; permanent segregation would have been far more consistent and equally effective. Mrs. Gilman has visualized a world in which the goal of social work has been reached, so that there is "no longer the fear of death—much less of damnation, and no such thing as 'sin'; that the only kind of prison left is called a quarantine . . . —that there is no such thing in the civilized world as poverty—no labor problem—no color problem—no sex problem—almost no disease—very little accident—practically no fires—that the world is rapidly being reforested—the soil improved; the output growing in quantity and quality; that no one needs to work over two hours a day and most people work four—that we have no graft—no adulteration of goods—no malpractice—no crime." (Pardon the punctuation; it is so in the book. In a world like that, to be sure, punctuation would not matter.) We may not agree as to the feasibility of the means she advocates for changing conditions, and the inconspicuous position of men in her scheme may seem to some of us neither quite fair nor altogether pleasing; but there is no one who would not do much to realize such a New York city and such a United States of America as she pictures.

CITY GOVERNMENT BY COMMISSION

By CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF. D. Appleton and Company. 381 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.65.

Mr. Woodruff makes use of material which has been presented at the annual meetings of the National Municipal League. He also, however, makes additions to bring the volume up to date and to make it a more complete and more nearly comprehensive discussion. The author is himself a cautious advocate of commission government in so far as it provides for a concentration of authority in the hands of responsible officials, but he aims to set forth the strongest arguments and facts for and against this widely discussed plan for the improvement of municipal administration.

The volume is the first of a series to be published for the National Municipal League. It contains papers by William Bennett Monroe, Oswald Ryan, Ernest S. Bradford, Ansley Wilcox, Horace E. Seming, Knowlton Mixer, Rear-Admiral F. E. Chadwick, and Albert Bushnell Hart. There is consequently some repetition. By introductory notes to each chapter Mr. Woodruff has tried to weave the different papers into a niche prepared for them in the plan of his book.

COMMISSION GOVERNMENT IN AMERICAN CITIES

By ERNEST S. BRADFORD. The Macmillan Company. 359 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

Mr. Bradford's volume is on a different plan and there is less overlapping between it and the preceding book than might be expected from their titles. This book furnishes a more intensive study of commission government and reflects less the varying opinions about it of students of political affairs. It presents a rather full history of the spread and accomplishments of commission government and then gives a careful comparison of its various forms. Numerous tables itemize the many variations in the size of boards, methods of election, terms of office, powers, and the duties assigned to the different commissioners. Under the head of checks the author describes charter provisions in regard to publicity, the referendum, the initiative, the recall, and civil service regulations. He believes that commission government has had a trial sufficiently long and in enough places throughout the country to warrant the faith of its advocates. He recognizes, however, that under any form of municipal government the citizens must do their part to ensure efficient administration.

GOVERNMENT BY COMMISSION

By JOHN J. HAMILTON. Funk and Wagnalls Company. 285 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 54 cents.

A third book on the same subject, but different from the other two, is Mr. Hamilton's revision of his *Dethronement of a City Boss* (reviewed in THE SURVEY of September 3, 1910) which appears now under this new title. In the opinion of Mr. Hamilton the Des Moines plan of government by commission represents at once a combination of the approved features of all the best American city charters of recent origin and the concrete result of one typical American city's earnest efforts, covering more than half a century, to work out the problems of its own administration. The author looks upon the commission system of city government in general, and the Des Moines plan in particular, as a new anchorage for democracy which has substituted optimism for skepticism as to the capacity of Americans for honest and efficient

municipal administration. He says with enthusiasm that the new plan abolishes the ward system, eliminates partisanship, fixes responsibility, safeguards franchises, guarantees publicity, and removes the causes of corruption. As answer to the objection urged that the government of a city by a single body few in numbers, unchecked by other independently chosen officials or branches, is inherently unrepresentative, Mr. Hamilton claims that cities are essentially business corporations of an executive nature for the conduct of a multitude of local affairs. He has full faith in the efficacy of the commission plan for our largest cities.

BETTER BINGHAMTON

By CHARLES McLEOD ROBINSON. The Mercantile Press Club, 105 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.38.

A community five miles long and three wide which has not a single direct thoroughfare across its width and only one highway that goes from end to end of its longer diameter presents to a city planner a tangle of unusual interest and intricacy. In this book Mr. Robinson explains how the plan of this prosperous New York city is made up, to an unusual extent, of short ends of street. Streets of much promise terminate abruptly with no direct outlet. How to weld the collection of small independent units into a strong framework knitting all the parts of the city together was only one, however, of the problems which faced Mr. Robinson in drafting recommendations for a better, bigger, and busier Binghamton. Not only has Binghamton grown, ever since the last general survey was made in 1835, utterly without regard to any comprehensive plan, but it lacks many of what Mr. Robinson calls the elementary needs. Its rivers spanned by ugly bridges are open sewers. Its streets are narrow, overhung by wires, and disfigured by projecting signs. Many of the thoroughfares are unpaved. The recreational opportunities offered by this industrial city to its wage-earners are meagre, the per capita expenditure for such purposes being only four cents. In spite of these shortcomings, some of which are already being overcome, Mr. Robinson presents in his study of Binghamton a picture of an attractive town beautifully located in a pocket among the hills. He makes the reader see and almost know the town and feel that it has been touched by a new spirit which will make it in a few years all or more than could be expected.

THE LAW OF THE EMPLOYMENT OF LABOR

By LINDLEY D. CLARK, LL.M. The Macmillan Company, 373 pp. \$1.60; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.70.

A guide book to direct the general student as to labor laws and the interpretations of them has been needed for a long time. To a considerable extent this need is met by Mr. Clark's book. It covers the labor field very fully and contains sufficient citations to the law and to judicial opinions to enable a student to carry his inquiry as far as he may wish.

At the same time its plain, succinct statements of the facts of the law in each case will be agreeable to one who wishes to know the provisions of the law in general without engaging in further research.

THE STORY OF COAL AND IRON IN ALABAMA

By ETHEL ARMES. Published under the auspices of the Birmingham Chamber of Commerce. The Bienville Publishing Company, 581 pp. \$5.00 postpaid.

Miss Armes has not attempted a historical novel, but has written a novel history of the dominant motives in the new industrial South. Into a chronicle of hard-won facts is woven enough of incident and romance to reveal the spirit of iron and coal pioneers, and, by character flashes, to picture the human side of these hardy economic adventurers. It is an important contribution to the industrial history of the country.

THE CALL OF THE CARPENTER

By BOUCK WHITE. Doubleday, Page, and Company, 353 pp. \$1.20 postpaid.

This is an attempt, by a sincere Christian, to free Christ's teachings from the wrong which he feels has been done them by an institutional Christianity from the beginning in close alliance with an empire founded on slavery and exploitation of the many. Christianity, the "religion of slaves," a religion of quietism whose value as a hypnotic for this uneasy class was recognized by the Emperor Constantine, Mr. White traces back to Paul. Quite a different Christianity, a religion of revolutionary democracy, he believes was taught by Christ, the legitimate descendant of the prophets who represented that democratic spirit of the Hebrews which no foreign or domestic tyranny could stifle. Taught by Mary, whom Mr. White regards, chiefly from the evidence of the Magnificat, as a strong and uncompromising champion of the masses against their exploiters, Jesus and his brothers and his cousin John the Baptist dedicated themselves to the earliest world-wide revolutionary movement of the masses, aimed like all movements of this kind to overthrow an unjust economic system. Christ's method of rousing the slaves and the populations ground to apathy by taxation was by teaching them self-respect. "The kingdom of heaven is within," he says, and urges them to a new recognition of the strength of their common manhood, by which they can throw off the domination of oppressors and found, not Paul's kingdom of dreams in the sky, but a kingdom of justice on earth. His death when he became a menace to the empire, followed by the Pauline adaptation of his teachings, has robbed Christianity of its meaning. The rise of a working-class movement founded on the same idea as that of Christ, but antagonistic to institutional Christianity, makes it an act of tardy justice to take stock of the real teachings of Christ, who in Mr. White's opinion takes his place today in the heart of the revolutionary labor movement. Of specific defects Mr. White's

book has many. It would gain in emphasis by being cut one-half and limited strictly to the Christ's life and the work of Paul. The style is chaotic and full of mannerisms which tend to divert the reader from the subject to the author's personality. But in spite of these defects it is a singularly suggestive book.

A HANDBOOK OF HEALTH

By WOODS HUTCHINSON, A.M., M.D. Houghton Mifflin Company. 348 pp. 65 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 77 cents.

A manual of practical instruction for running the human body. Dr. Hutchinson has put into characteristically attractive form suggestions and advice which amount to a positive program for health, and which, if followed, he believes will preclude the necessity of a negative "must not" program. The book ought to be of value in the public schools as an auxiliary to teaching physiology. It is noticeable that the subject of sex hygiene is avoided.

THE WAY WITH THE NERVES

By JOSEPH COLLINS, M.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 313 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.58.

"I have attempted in these letters," says Dr. Collins, who is physician in the Neurological Institute of New York, "to set forth in simple language an account of the commoner nervous and mental diseases, and to discuss briefly some of the questions which the neurologist is often asked to answer." There are eighteen chapters, on such topics as Sick Headache, Hysteria, the Moderate Drinker, Ennui, the Repressed Emotional Woman, the Idle Well-to-do Young Man, "Youthful Errors" and Nervousness, Jealousy, Dipsomania. In each chapter there is a brief introduction; then a letter from a patient, or some friend of a patient, describing symptoms fully; and finally a reply by the physician, commenting on the symptoms and giving advice. Correspondents and physician have a remarkably uniform literary style. Whether the book will be directly useful to persons suffering from the mental disorders it discusses may be doubted, but it may perhaps carry help to them by adding to the intelligence of their relatives, neighbors, employers, and teachers.

SCIENTIFIC MENTAL HEALING

By H. ADDINGTON BRUCE. Little, Brown and Company. 258 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

A description in non-technical terms, together with illustrative cases, of the principles underlying scientific mental healing, and the methods of application—with emphasis upon the basic differences between scientific psychotherapy and "faith healing." The author argues the present importance of mental healing along scientific lines because of the increase in nervous diseases and the insanities in civilized countries, especially those of highest economic development.

THE NINE-TENTHS

By JAMES OPPENHEIM. Harper and Brothers. 320 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.37.

In this book James Oppenheim has given us another intimate picture of the lives of the

workers—the nine-tenths—their beauty and pathos, above all their reality. It is clouded a little by his overclose transcript of the incidents of last winter's strike of the shirt-waist makers and the factory fire in Washington Place. Still it is a strong story. The owner of the loft in which the fire starts, brought face to face with the cleavage of interest between employer and employe, in a moment of deep feeling dedicates his life to "those dead girls." Filled with a belief in the workers, he feels that in their education lies the hope of solving industrial problems: "What the people needed was education so that they could get justice—all else would follow." He therefore starts a magazine which shall be a mouthpiece and means of education for the workers, and through it he is drawn into the shirt-waist-makers' strike. Here his theories have their test. "Why," he laughed, "I expected to do great things. Whereas, look, I have done *nothing*. This strike ends in a little bettering, and a few people read my paper. It's just a little stir, hardly a dent—a few atoms set into motion. How slow! how slow! *Patience!* That's the word I've learned! It will take worlds of time; it will take a multitude striving; it will take unnumbered forces—education, health-work, eugencies, town-planning, the rise of women, philanthropy, law—a thousand thousand dawning powers. Oh, we are only at the faint beginnings of things!"

THE GIRL THAT GOES WRONG

By REGINALD WRIGHT KAUFFMAN. Moffat, Yard and Company. 226 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

Mr. Kauffman's stories differ from other fiction on the same subject which has come to our notice in that they have not the faintest tinge of a morbid interest and a secret satisfaction on the part of the author at being in touch with such things. It is not possible to question his sincerity and his purpose. Some of his statements, however, are of doubtful accuracy. He refers to "the last authentic figures" of the number of prostitutes in New York city, but as a matter of fact "authentic figures" on this point do not exist. He accepts the tradition which is now being disproved as more facts are being collected, that the life of a prostitute averages five years. This calculation is not by any means "as certain as those of the insurance companies." These inaccuracies, however, probably do not seriously vitiate his message, which is that social conditions for which we are responsible, not individual depravity, are the cause of nearly all the "vice" which we have. One of these stories, to be sure, is about "the girl that was bad," but that is the first story, and that cause of prostitution does not appear again. The others are about "the girl that wanted ermine," "the girl that wasn't told," "the girl that was weak," "the girl that studied art," "the woman that is Bohemian," "the girl that was hungry," and other girls "that" were subjected to other adverse conditions. This method of treatment has an

advantage over that adopted by Mr. Kauffman in the House of Bondage, because it does not crowd into one girl's life experience with all the influences and all the parts of the informal "system" which contribute towards the creation of prostitutes. The House of Bondage is in its fourteenth edition; this book already in its second. Does this bear witness that they are stirring the social conscience as their author hoped? Or does it mean something less creditable to the reading public? These are questions which cannot be answered unless it were possible to find out who have read all these copies, and why, and what influence the stories have had on them.

THE CHANGING CHINESE

By EDWARD ALSWORTH ROSS. The Century Company. 356 pp. \$2.40; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.59.

The publishers' announcements of this book have contained so many interesting quotations that one could not but suspect that they left nothing in the book itself worth reading. The truth is, however, that these quotations are only fair samples. Sincerity, fairness, simplicity, insight, sympathy, humor, and above all the trained investigator's power of noticing things, are the qualities which this sociologist has brought to his observation of an alien people and his account of what he has observed. At the same time he expresses his own conclusions trenchantly, positively, almost intolerantly—as, for example, on the menace of the competition of coolie labor. If this is the fruit of six months' travel in China we cannot but wish that Professor Ross would arrange for the next decade or so to spend only half of each year in his university chair, and would use the other half to observe the economic and social conditions and tendencies of some community and tell us about them. We should like to have him begin with New York city. However much we might challenge some of his conclusions and recommendations, it could not but be helpful to see how things look to him.

BOOKS RECEIVED IN JANUARY

THE AMERICAN YEAR BOOK, 1911. Edited by FRANCIS G. WICKWARE under direction of a supervisory board representing learned societies. D. Appleton and Company. 863 pp. \$3.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.70.

NEW YORK CHARITIES DIRECTORY: twenty-first edition. The Charity Organization Society of the City of New York. 836 pp. \$1.00.

THE RUSSIAN PEOPLE. By MAURICE BARING. George H. Doran Company. 366 pp. \$3.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.63.

EARLY STORIES AND SONGS FOR NEW STUDENTS OF ENGLISH. By MARY CLARK BARNES. Fleming H. Revell Company. 145 pp. 60 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 66 cents.

THE RELIGION WORTH HAVING. By THOMAS NIXON CARVER. Houghton Mifflin Company. 140 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.

HEREDITY IN RELATION TO EUGENICS. By CHARLES BENEDICT DAVENPORT. Henry Holt and Company. 298 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.15.

THE FACTORY. By JONATHAN THAYER LINCOLN. Houghton Mifflin Company. 109 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.31.

THE MASTER OF EVOLUTION. By GEORGE H. MACNISH. Sherman, French and Company. 135 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.06.

THE STATUS OF THE TEACHER. By ARTHUR C. PERRY, JR. Houghton Mifflin Company. 78 pp. 35 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 41 cents.

CHRISTOPHER. By RICHARD PRYCE. Houghton Mifflin Company. 364 pp. \$1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.46.

MOVING THE MOUNTAIN. By CHARLOTTE PERKINS GILMAN. The Charlton Company. 290 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.

ORGAN AND FUNCTION: A STUDY OF EVOLUTION. By B. D. HAHN. Sherman, French and Company. 198 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

WHAT TOLSTOY TAUGHT. By BOLTON HALL. B. W. Huebsch. 275 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

BACKWARD AND FEEBLE-MINDED CHILDREN. By EDMUND BURKE HUEY, A.M., PH.D. Warwick and York, Inc. 221 pp. \$1.40; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.48.

THE IMMIGRATION PROBLEM. By JEREMIAH W. JENKS and JETT LAUCK. Funk and Wagnalls Company. 496 pp. \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.89.

LOVE AND ETHICS. By ELLEN KEY. B. W. HUEBSCH. 73 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 55 cents.

THE HISTORY OF THE GOVERNMENT OF DENVER. By CLAUDE LYNDON KING, A. M. The Fisher Book Company. 322 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

UNEMPLOYMENT: A SOCIAL STUDY. By B. S. ROWNTREE and BRUNO LASKER. The Macmillan Company. 317 pp. \$1.60; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.74.

THE MODERN WOMAN'S RIGHTS MOVEMENT: A HISTORICAL SURVEY. By DR. KAETHE SCHIRMACHER. Translated from the second German edition by CARL CONRAD ECKHARDT. The Macmillan Company. 280 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

THE REDEMPTION OF THE CITY. By CHARLES HATCH SEARS. M. A. Griffith and Rowland Press. 248 pp. 50 cents in cloth, 35 cents in paper; by mail of THE SURVEY 57 cents, 42 cents.

AUNT HOPE'S KITCHEN STOVE. By LILLIAN CLARKSON WEST. Stewart and Kidd Company. 324 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

THE HUMAN FANTASY. By JOHN HALL WHELOCK. Sherman, French and Company. 141 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.06.

EDUCATION IN SEXUAL PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE: A PHYSICIAN'S MESSAGE. By PHILIP ZENNER. Fourth edition. Stewart and Kidd Company. 126 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.06.

THE COMMON WELFARE

NORTHAMPTON HAS UNIQUE CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT

The first half week in February Northampton, Mass., carried through a Child Welfare Exhibit which not only embodied some distinctive features but was notable as the first attempt to show in this way the problems of childhood in rural districts. While showing on a smaller scale than large city exhibits the needs, conditions, and opportunities of child life in general, the Northampton experiment was successful in enlisting the co-operation of students of Smith College who, as a body, were reached by this as never before by a similar presentation. Volunteer service in which over thirty institutions, various city organizations, and hundreds of individuals united accomplished what is usually the work of a paid staff. In this and in the money and material contributed by citizens the exhibit was an object lesson to small communities which have regarded such undertakings as impossible for them. Hastings H. Hart, of the Child Helping Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, C. C. Carstens of the Massachusetts Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children—under whose Hampshire Branch the exhibit was given—Dr. Fletcher B. Dressler of the United States Bureau of Education, and Charles F. Powlison, general secretary of the General Committee for the New York Child Welfare Exhibit, were among the specialists in child sociology who addressed conferences and studied the exhibit.

Situated in the western end of the state, Northampton is in the great placings-out territory for children's societies of Boston and the more congested eastern end. Local interest surprised many visitors by centering on the less spectacular and more serious sections, and on the Neglected Child Department, which contained among other things a Eugenics Screen plainly setting forth what the people should comprehend of this subject if the state's work of prevention is to succeed. The Neglected Child was

one of four main heads under which the exhibit was grouped, the others dealing with Health, Recreation, and Education. In addition to other contributions the health section showed a valuable milk exhibit under direction of Professor Hurd, of the Massachusetts Agricultural College at Amherst. The recreation section provided popular attractions such as drills, folk-dances, Boy Scout displays, and music. The educational section summarized the opportunities of this widely known center of colleges and special schools. Besides public schools, whose showing was one of the strong features, Hampshire county has an enrollment of 1912 in private schools; 2744 in three colleges of liberal arts—Smith, Mt. Holyoke, and Amherst; 653 in agricultural schools; and 1348 in special schools—a total of 6657, not including the 900 registrations in classes in cultural and educational subjects at the Peoples' Institute, which is George W. Cable's institution for cross-sectioning society as locally typified by Smith students and boys and girls of the laboring classes. Vocational opportunities were shown in the exhibit from Hopkins Academy, Hadley, where agricultural and other classes have been added to literary classes, and in that from Smith's Agricultural School, whose class-room work in cooking and manual training was illustrated daily throughout the exhibit.

Prof. Elizabeth K. Adams, of Smith College faculty, had charge of a "survey" which compared German and American educational requirements, showed the rapid increase of foreign population throughout Hampshire county, and further indicated the amount of work done since early November by Dr. F. W. Roman and his economic classes at Smith in visiting country schools, interviewing town authorities, and otherwise gathering statistical material, and making charts for the exhibit.

The Forbes library contribution was a happy illustration of the privileges of children of the Northampton public



schools, where the large purchasing fund of the library enables it to lead in such extension as introducing hundreds of copies of the worlds' best pictures into the grades to supplement the study of geography and history, and to beautify the walls according to a complete decorative scheme designed by careful students of art.

NEGLECTED CHILDHOOD REVEALED BY EXHIBIT

Almost dramatic contrast was furnished by turning from the education exhibit to that of the neglected child—startling in what it told and poignantly illustrating the local need of the society under whose auspices the exhibit was given. Here were indicated a few of the conditions revealed by the work of Alice B. Montgomery, state agent in charge of the Northampton and Hampshire branch of the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. Hill towns were told of where immigrant elements are settling among remnants of old New England families which have degenerated into shiftlessness and decay, and menace not only their own offspring but those of the thrifty and normal. And town condi-

tions were described where crowded tenements rival those of large cities, and where society's great problem is that of the large number of unmarried mothers among young girls. Some of the disclosures, in a center usually ranked as educational and aristocratic to a degree attained by but few of the oldest and most conservative New England towns, have been almost unbelievable.

In its two years of existence the society has dealt with 646 cases. Of these 476 were of moral neglect, in a region that has been described as "the paradise of America." Photographs and models showed wrecks of farmhouses and hillside huts in which children were found cut off from moral and educational influences; where Negroes and whites were living in illegal union; and where transmission of the defects traceable to feeble-minded mothers causes a large proportion of the cases of neglected children that fall upon state care. Charts gave family histories showing the number of criminals, drunkards, idiots, and insane descendants of unions where one or both parents were feeble-minded. The whole forcibly supplemented the conferences in which discussion of subjects relative to state wards usually pointed to the paramount importance of segregation of the feeble-minded girl during the child-bearing period.

It was declared to be the agent's experience that no class is more cruel to its offspring than the feeble-minded. This exhibit contained three heavy Russian knouts whose bound leather thongs were worn out upon children before the society reached them. One had been used upon a two-year-old baby. Fear of another had driven a little girl to run away from home and to hide overnight in a school-house cellar.

The Smith College Consumers' League furnished a "bad" kitchen whose disarray typified conditions when the mother is employed away from home during the day; models dressed in samples of price-marked suitable and unsuitable clothing for working girls; and a chart compiled from actual expenses of Northampton working girls showing a total of \$294 a

year, with the statement that \$4 a week means \$218 a year, and \$5 a week means \$260. The impression made by this has reached deeper than that of a mere popular spectacle of temporary attraction. In contrast to the dreary squalor of the "bad" kitchen was a model room attractively furnished by the Womans' Civic League with Crex rugs, desk, rocking-chairs, couch, and a crib for tired babies. The league is attempting to secure permanently for the city such a place, with sanitary conveniences, which hitherto neither the city nor the trolley companies have provided. With a log fire burning in an old-time Franklin stove, and with a maid in attendance, the room proved so comfortable for those who wished to rest, telephone, or write that 700 persons signed a petition for a permanent central room.

Officials of the state society and its sympathizers on the one side, and country school superintendents on the other, engaged in vigorous debates on the present reformatory method of placing state children in private families in the rural districts. Dr. Hart and others dwelt upon the desirability of this upbuilding influence. The superintendents told of increased expense, lowered school standards, more difficult discipline, and bad moral influences due to the introduction of children of undesirable heritage among school children of rural communities, whose protests through instructors and parents are unheeded by the state. In rebuttal it was emphasized that the burden is that of the whole commonwealth and must be shared by all its members.

CIVIL SERVICE FOR PROBATION OFFICERS

Over forty probation officers in New York city have within the past few days been chosen from a civil service eligible list. The Court of Appeals so decreed in a decision which was the outcome of a controversy started in the summer of 1910, and which is regarded as a signal victory by the friends of efficient probation. The opinion handed down recently in the *Matter of Simons vs. McGuire*, besides rescuing the probation system in New York city from becoming

the prey of political spoilsmen, will have the effect of keeping the position of probation officer in the competitive class throughout the state, and of encouraging the selection of probation officers through competitive examinations in other states.

The litigation thus brought to an end arose through an attempt by one Simons, squeezed into the probation service on a temporary appointment, to have the office of probation officer judicially declared "confidential" and competitive examination for the position impracticable.¹ It will be recalled that the New York City Inferior Courts Act of 1910 removed policemen from the probation service, and provided for the appointment of twenty-seven civilian successors in the Children's Courts, the adult parts of the Court of Special Sessions, and the Boards of City Magistrates. During the last days of the session of the legislature which passed this act, it had been amended in an executive committee meeting so as to declare probation officers the "confidential" officers of the justices and magistrates. Although Governor Hughes in signing the act severely criticised this characterization of the position, efforts were at once begun to compel the Municipal Civil Service Commission to place the position in the exempt class. Public hearings were held in which the social workers of New York urged that the position be retained in the competitive class and that examinations of a practical sort, conducted in part orally and with the assistance of persons familiar with probation work, be given as they had been given in many other places in the state. Mayor Gaynor decided that it was entirely practicable to devise an examination to test the vocational fitness of candidates. The written portion of the examination which had been announced in July was started in December, and the oral tests and the rating of the candidates on experience were concluded in March, 1911. The eligible list finally promulgated on March 21 was thought to be extremely satisfactory.

Two days later, the friends of the

¹The circumstances preceding the litigation were described in THE SURVEY of September 3 and October 29, 1910.

probation and civil service systems learned that Supreme Court Justice Crane had granted the application made by Simons and had declared the position of probation officer to be confidential and in the exempt class. Pending the completion of the examination, the justices and magistrates had made temporary appointments, and Simons had been given a position. Those so appointed were required subsequently to pass a qualifying test before their payrolls were certified, and Simons failed to qualify. He therefore petitioned for a writ of mandamus to compel the Civil Service Commission to approve his payroll on the ground that the position was confidential and exempt. Chief Justice Russell and Justice Olmsted of the Court of Special Sessions came to the aid of Simons with affidavits. It was said of Justice Olmsted that he took the "radical ground that the probation officer is more or less the keeper of the judge's conscience."

The Civil Service Commission and Mayor Gaynor appealed from the action of Justice Crane in granting the writ. The Appellate Division of the Second Department, in which the appeal was taken, unanimously sustained the contention of Simons. This pronouncement apparently threw a patronage of some eighty positions in the children's and other courts into the hands of politicians. The justices and magistrates prepared to declare the temporary appointments, previously made, to be permanent; and had this been done while the opinion of the Appellate Division was in full effect the appointments would have been valid. But President James Creelman and his colleagues on the Municipal Civil Service Commission forced an appeal by the Corporation Counsel to the Court of Appeals about three hours before some of the appointments were thus to be made permanent. This acted as a stay and prevented any change in the status of the temporary appointees.

POSITION KEPT IN COMPETITIVE CLASS

When the case reached the Court of Appeals, briefs in behalf of competition were submitted not only by the Corporation Counsel of New York and the at-

torney general of the state, but also by the Civil Service Reform Association and the State Probation Commission, who had contended from the first that the duties of the position are not confidential and that examinations of the proper sort are entirely practicable. It was shown that twenty civil service examinations for probation officer had been held in New York state and that similar examinations had been held in Illinois and New Jersey. In its opinion, written by Judge Werner, the Court of Appeals held that the municipal commission was competent to classify the position and that the decision to retain the positions in the competitive class should stand.

The New York examination allowed 30 per cent for experience; 30 per cent for personal qualifications to be tested through oral interviews; and 40 per cent for the written portion, which consisted entirely of questions concerning the treatment of hypothetical cases.¹

The successful outcome of the examination as regards the personnel of those at the head of the eligible list is shown by the following table of the occupations of the first fifty persons on the list:

Probation and parole officers.....	4
Employes of charitable relief-giving societies	5
Employes of Department of Charities.....	3
School attendance officers	3
Women living at home	3
Employes of Catholic Home Bureau for Dependent Children	2
Teachers	2
Lawyers	2
Reporters	2
Agent Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.....	1
Playground worker	1
Employe of Bureau of Child Hygiene in Department of Health	1
Y. M. C. A. worker.....	1
Keeper in reformatory	1
Graduate student in sociology	1
Police sergeant Caiskill Aqueduct Force	1
Miscellaneous (most of whom were doing or have done volunteer charitable or social work)	17
Total.....	50

¹In conducting the examinations the municipal commission had the assistance of the president of the State Probation Commission, the secretary of the Prison Association, the former superintendent of the Jewish Educational Alliance, the secretary of the Catholic Home Bureau, a former probation officer employed at the time as investigator under the Russell Sage Foundation, and three instructors in the New York School of Philanthropy who had had practical experience in social work.

The justices and magistrates were given until February 15 to select probation officers from the eligible list. Eighteen of the positions are new ones established a few months ago in the Children's Courts. The effects of the Court of Appeals decision reach much farther, however, than appears from the appointments to be made at this time. Its larger significance is in the fact that the probation system throughout New York state is to be protected from partisan influences and kept on a merit basis.

In making its twelve temporary appointments pending final adjudication of this case, the First Division Board of Magistrates, which had previously voted in favor of a competitive examination, failed to take a single person from the eligible list. The Second Division Board of Magistrates, which had been divided on the question of the method of making appointments, chose only one of its ten temporary appointees from the eligible list. The Court of Special Sessions selected none from the list.

The justices of the special sessions permitted eighteen positions of probation officer in the Children's Courts to go unfilled during a period of seven months. The two Boards of Magistrates, appreciating the importance of the Children's Court work, have consented to permit the justices of the Court of Special Sessions to have first choice from the eligible list in filling these eighteen positions.

PROBLEMS OF GIRL MORALS

At its first annual meeting in June, 1911, the National Federation of Settlements voted to make the problem of the adolescent girl between the ages of fourteen and eighteen a subject of special study by the settlements of the country for the ensuing year. It was pointed out that the weakening of home and neighborhood life, combined with the entrance of young girls into industries, has resulted in conditions of unrest and confusion which cross all class lines and reach to every part of the country.

The executive committee of the federation is now distributing a schedule of



—McCutcheon in *Chicago Tribune*.

questions designed to draw out the experiences of workers among girls in settlements and elsewhere. The scope of the inquiry at present, as indicated by the schedule, includes the course and extent of the general shifting of standards of every sort among girls: their relations to parents, other members of the family, and the home; their preparation for industry, the risks of working life, and its effect on character, family, and neighborhood relationship; recreation in its various aspects; and standards and problems of girl morals. Of special interest to settlements is a set of questions on the elements of good club work, especially the problem of the mixed club of boys and girls, and on various forms of class work. A final group of questions deals with constructive preparations for the next age period (eighteen to twenty-four years), and asks for hints for a program.

The details of the schedule¹ are based upon actual problems constantly arising in practical settlement work. Material gathered in the course of the Russell Sage Foundation study of the settlement movement in the United States has been drawn upon, and conferences have been held in several large cities with settlement workers and other persons experienced in dealing with adolescent girls.

¹Copies of the schedule can be obtained from Robert A. Woods, 20 Union Park, Boston, Mass.

MEDIATION BUREAU ON LAUNDRY STRIKE

The New York State Bureau of Mediation and Arbitration has issued a short public statement in regard to the hearings on the laundry workers' strike. The statement recognizes the long and irregular hours, low wages, and the refusal of recognition of the union as the immediate causes of the strike. It recognizes, as the underlying cause of these conditions, the "unreasonable competition" among the rough-dry steam laundries "to obtain the business of washing and ironing clothes from the so-called "hand laundries"; and the competition of this group, in turn, with the steam bundle laundries who engage in the direct family trade. The facts stated in the report are in accord with those brought out in *THE SURVEY* for February 2. To quote from the board's recommendations:

Both steam laundry employers and striking laundry workers agree that all laundries and laundry agencies should be prohibited from sending out or receiving colored nets, and that nets be restricted to white goods exclusively and weigh not more than ten pounds. The colored nets are unsanitary, heavy, incapable of being thoroughly washed, and are a direct financial loss to the steam laundry workers and employers, as well as a serious menace to health.

The board recommends that all employes on strike be returned to their old positions; that the employers declare their willingness to deal with the union where it has been organized, and that the union and the association of employers agree to settle questions of present and future disputes by mutual recognition and final arbitration; that the scale of wages be adjusted to correspond generally with that paid in the shops where the highest rate now prevails; that working hours be arranged between 7.30 a. m. and 6.30 p. m. daily, with four hours Saturday morning, and over-time pay for work later than 6.30 p. m., or 12 noon Saturday, at the rate of time and one-half.

Neither employers nor workers have been disposed to act on these suggestions. Meanwhile many of the workers have drifted back to the laundries still on strike. On the other hand, six laundries employing several hundred workers have arranged, on the basis of union recognition, a scale of pay not less than \$6 for women and \$12 for men, and a fifty-four hour week for women. These establishments together with the workers

in about two hundred hand laundries fed by them provide work for a union membership of over two thousand. Organizers of the laundry workers and of the Women's Trade Union League are attempting an educational campaign in union principles and technique among the membership which will afford a more solid basis of organization than that usually following a spontaneous strike. They are, with the very effective help of the Church Association for the Advancement of Labor, conducting also a vigorous campaign of publicity through the circulation of lists of "fair" and "unfair" laundries, and the 200 union hand laundries make the claim that as a result of this move they now have more custom than they can handle. The union claims on the other hand that the non-union rough-dry establishments and the hand laundries dependent on them are losing custom.

The New York Consumer's League is compiling a white list of those laundries which assure standard working conditions. The standard that the league hopes in time to establish for eligibility to its list covers:

Working week of not more than fifty-four hours and no day over twelve hours and normal day not more than ten hours.

All over-time over ten hours paid for.

All machinery guarded.

Floors drained and guttered so that none shall work on wet floors.

Seats adjusted to machine.

SEATTLE MAY AMEND CHARTER IN MARCH

An amendment to their city charter, creating a department of public welfare, will be submitted to the citizens of Seattle, Wash., early in March. This new branch of municipal government, which is approved by the city council and many social workers, will be a department of charities and correction rather than a board of public welfare similar to the one in Kansas City, Mo., recently described in *THE SURVEY*.¹ The new name was selected in the expectation that it would give a little broader scope to the work of the proposed department. The latter is to be

¹See *THE SURVEY* for December 16, 1911, page 1363.

administered either by a commissioner or through a board, whose powers and duties are to be prescribed by ordinances. The department is to supervise and control exclusively the city asylums, work-houses, reformatories, and other places of detention (unless temporary) for defectives and delinquents, whether juvenile or otherwise, and other corrective institutions and agencies. It will have control also of municipal lodging houses, public baths, public farm lands and other public lands, and also of any work or employment to afford temporary relief.

The intent of the charter amendment is to bring together the different public agencies which have hitherto been under the control of various departments and to create one department of such responsibility that it will attract strong executive leadership.

Seattle is experiencing, also, a movement for a better co-ordination of private social agencies which gives promise of a constantly improving public opinion toward social development.

A CANNY COUNCIL ON CHILD WELFARE

Scotland's bairns are to be looked after by a new and significant agency, operating on a national scale. Checked for a time by the death of the late Lord Mansfield, chairman of the children's section of the Home Relief Congress, which met in Edinburgh in 1904, a Council on Child Welfare has now been formed and is prepared to conserve childhood up to the age of twenty-one years. The council is

a federation of public, religious, and philanthropic agencies, and of individuals concerned with, or interested in, the promotion of the welfare of children.

Two recent acts of Parliament—the Probation of Offenders' Act and the Children's Act—embody advanced provisions for child welfare. The council will regard it as one of its functions to watch over the administration of these acts. As outlined in its constitution, the work of the federation is entrusted to a central council, operating through local councils and executive committees (for cities and large burghs) and through lo-

cal committees (for small burghs and country districts), which in their turn may deal with various groups of subjects by means of committees. The federation is to appoint the council each year:

The council shall receive reports from local councils and committees, and shall refer to those councils and committees such matters as may be thought desirable.

With this working organization the council is going about some large objects. One of its committees is to arrange for child welfare exhibits such as several cities in America have had. The Lord Provost of Edinburgh in a recent speech thus interpreted the aims and opportunities of the body:

To consider the life of a child as a whole, and in all its aspects from birth to maturity—in sickness and in health, whether normal or defective, neglected, or delinquent; before, during, and after school age; its life at home as well as in institutions, so that there may be no gaps;

To achieve this through the medium of existing agencies, which only require linking on in order to bring to a common center their varied knowledge and experience of child life;

To gather information from all sources as to what is being done to solve the problems that affect child life in other places and other societies; not to allow the provisions of the Children's Act to become dead letters;

To gather information concerning the workings of other acts and the press for any desirable amendments of the law relating to children.

Some of the methods being adopted by committees already at work are the preparing and circulating of literature which deals with the welfare of children, initiating and arranging conferences, enlisting the co-operation of the press, aiding co-operation between existing child-caring societies, inquiring into the home circumstances of children brought before the courts, considering cases of parents unable to obtain employment, investigating the causes of child destitution, neglect, and delinquency, initiating action that will check these causes, promoting the establishment of children's bureaus for the registration of all children who are receiving or who, when old enough, may receive free education, pressing for a pure milk supply, etc.

 EDITORIAL GRIST

 THE HOLIDAY CALENDAR:
 CAN WE IMPROVE IT?

R. H. WEVILL

Twice in the course of the year the holidays all but tread on each other's heels—at Christmas-tide and again in February. Other seasons, months go by without a break in the steady round of six days on and one day off. Not only do the holidays fall thus irregularly, but with two exceptions they pay no heed at all to the scheme of the week to which most work-day affairs are adjusted in the same way that the month rules in money matters. With these things in mind, let us look more closely at the calendarization of the holidays. For after all, as a scheme of observance, it is for the most part a chance affair, each day having its separate history and origin.

As Americans we commemorate the public service of two great citizens, George Washington and Abraham Lincoln, on their recurring birthdays, February 22 and 12, respectively. In addition the legal holiday calendar includes Memorial Day, May 30, Independence Day, July 4, Labor Day, the first Monday in September, Columbus Day, October 12, Thanksgiving Day in November. These days are fittingly observed in every part of the country and serve well the patriotic purposes for which they are set apart.

Modern industrial conditions are, however, in some respects at variance with the greatest possible benefit which legal holidays might confer, and in some instances financial hardships are involved for both employer and employe. For instance, where a holiday falls on Tuesday or Friday, many business concerns seize the opportunity in dull time to cut their pay-roll by closing down on the Monday preceeding or Saturday following, thus enforcing a two-day holiday with corresponding loss to the employe; then again, when such holidays fall in mid-week, the holiday spirit on the day

preceeding and following seriously interferes with the efficiency of the worker and thus involves a hardship on the employer. It is generally conceded that the afternoon preceeding a holiday and the morning after are not to be counted upon for normal product.

Another difficulty with our present holiday calendar is the fact that two holidays fall in the month of February, when outdoor demonstrations and military and other pageants are impossible, and therefore the day is of little other benefit than that of a harvest for the theaters, showmen, and other expensive indoor amusements; while no holiday falls during that long period between July 4 and September 5, when the need of relaxation and recreation presses heavily on many thousands to whom summer vacations are impossible.

A possible remedy for the improvement of the use of legal holidays is to re-arrange the calendar of dates, having all holidays (except Christmas and New Year, for obvious reasons) observed on Mondays following the given date; *viz*, Washington Day on the Monday following the 22d of February; Lincoln Day transferred to the first Monday in April; Memorial day the last Monday in May; Independence Day the first Monday in July; and here introduce a new holiday known as Recreation Day on the first Monday in August (this only needs suggesting to open up a vision of its possibilities). Labor Day follows on the first Monday in September, Columbus Day on the second Monday in October, Thanksgiving Day on the last Monday in November. This order would secure for our industrial army a two and one-half days' respite from toil, with loss of only one day's pay, and would insure for the employer a better week's product from five consecutive days' labor after a two and one-half days' rest.

The last and by no means the least important feature of this program is the coupling of each holiday with a Sunday, thus opening up a wide opportunity for the church to introduce special observances, with appropriate sermons and patriotic addresses, Sunday school fêtes, public meetings, and orations of bound-

¹See COMMUNICATIONS, page 1786.

less variety. This I believe would prove a strong card in fanning the flames of patriotism in young and old alike, and in attracting the masses to the church; for it would help to link church and nation in one common sympathy and purpose.

EFFICIENCY IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Efficiency in school administration, secured through the study of actual conditions, will be the keynote of the program of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association at its annual meeting in St. Louis, Mo., February 27-29. The value and methods of investigations—educational surveys—of city school system, similar to that at present being conducted in New York under the direction of Prof. Paul H. Hanus of Harvard University, will receive special consideration.

On page 1777 of this issue of *THE SURVEY* the permanent registration of children as the basis of efficient enforcement of compulsory education and child labor laws is treated. This problem, which will also be discussed at the meetings in St. Louis, is of national importance, since no such law can be adequately enforced unless the children to whom it applies can be readily located at all times. The description of this experiment in New York, therefore, should be suggestive to those cities which are prepared to take this next important step.

THE DILLINGHAM IMMIGRATION BILL

KATE HOLLADAY CLAGHORN

The main purpose of the immigration bill introduced by Senator W. P. Dillingham of Vermont, and now before the Senate, is to revise and codify the existing immigration laws so as to secure greater efficiency in administration, and a more logical arrangement of the law itself.

With this end in view, the one drastic provision embodied in the bill as first introduced, that of an illiteracy test for male adult aliens, has been dropped by

the committee, so that the badly needed administrative reforms provided for in the bill might not be imperilled by their connection with such controversial matter as any radical changes from our present established policy.

The changes actually provided for in the present bill are of considerable interest and importance. Practical difficulties in administration found in the experience of the immigration bureau to arise from imperfect definition of terms are met by appropriate changes in wording, and implicit meanings are made explicit.

A valuable addition to the means of enforcement of the law is made by providing for criminal proceedings against violators of the law as an alternative measure to civil proceedings. This will secure compliance in the many cases where a defendant cannot be held to financial responsibility. Penalties and fines have been increased in certain instances. For example, the present fine of \$100 for bringing to this country immigrants suffering from the various classes of mental defects and contagious diseases is doubled. This is intended to ensure greater care in examination on the other side, and prevent the hardship to the immigrant involved in allowing him to take the long journey in vain.

Another excellent addition to the present means of enforcement is making the penalty for failure to prevent unlawful landing of immigrants a lien on the vessel, in cases where it is impracticable or inconvenient to prosecute the owner or other person in charge.

Two new provisions, based on the recommendation of the immigration commission, are incorporated in the bill. One relates to deserting seamen and stowaways. Through imperfect control of these under the present law many criminals and other unfit aliens have found it possible to enter the country, a practice which the proposed regulations would materially check.

The other new provision authorizes the Secretary of Commerce and Labor to detail matrons and inspectors to travel in the steerage of ships bringing immigrants into this country, in order to report upon the conditions and accom-

modations given to immigrants on the various transportation lines. This is a provision calculated to meet a need shown to be very grave by the investigation of the immigration commission into steerage conditions.

To the excluded classes "vagrants" are added, and persons afflicted with tuberculosis "in any form." Contract laborers are to be rejected irrespective of whether the offers or promises inducing them to come are "true or false," so as to reach a large class of induced immigration not covered with sufficient clearness by the present law. Furthermore, "contract labor" is explicitly defined as "manual" labor, to bring the law into textual agreement with its construction by the attorney general.

A noteworthy change proposed in the bill is the elimination of the mass of statutes relating especially to Chinese immigration by the simple device of adding to the excluded classes, in the general act, "persons who are not eligible to become citizens of the United States by naturalization," those provisions of the Chinese exclusion statutes which relate to naturalization being retained. This change will preserve in practice the exclusions of the present law, but it will at least do away with a cumbersome mass of special statutes, and will make less conspicuous a discrimination against immigrants from one especial nation.

Various minor changes further provide for more effective administration. Provision is made for fuller information in manifests of both incoming and outgoing passengers, and more stringent penalties provided for failure to deliver these manifests.

An important addition to the law is a provision for giving to all immigrants certificates of admission and identification, duplicate copies being kept on file in the Bureau of Immigration. The utility of such a system of certification is obvious, both for the immediate practical purpose of keeping track of immigrants during what might be called their probationary period, and as a record on which to base any broader inquiry which might throw light on the immigration problem in general.

On the whole, the framers of this bill are to be congratulated on providing for so many practical improvements on which there is general agreement. It was a happy thought to leave matters of radical change of policy for separate consideration, and, relieved of these, the bill deserves and should have speedy passage.

HOME MANUFACTURING AND POVERTY

GEORGE A. HALL

Secretary New York Child Labor Committee

"What would become of the poor family now helped by the earnings from home work if that source of income were cut off?" This question has arisen in slightly different phraseology with every new restrictive labor enactment. The answer, true for all times, is that the resulting hardship must be met by private or public aid. In many cases, however, this aid will be necessary only during the temporary period of readjustment to new conditions brought about by new restrictions.

Experience has shown that the actual need for the income earned through home work is not always so urgent as is frequently asserted. The federal government's investigation of the men's ready-made clothing trade has shed interesting light upon the situation. It says:

Undoubtedly poverty in varying degrees is a strong reason for home work. This work is taken up by the foreign-born women upon coming to America, and usually immediately. But the men of these families, according to the testimony of many employers and the statements made by some of the male members of home finishers' families to the bureau's agents, are not as industrious as the women. There were some instances where able-bodied men in home finishers' families, apparently in the greatest poverty, were not working and were content in their idleness, and frankly stated that they did not want work, and that their wives, mothers, sisters, or children did home work. In both Chicago and New York some of these men said they were "particular" and "choicy"—their own words—about the work they did. Some refused to shovel snow; others said they did not like to do any work in winter, that they might "catch cold"; still others said they worked in summer and their wives could work in winter.

Cutting off home work will not reduce manufacture. The work will then have to be done in workshops and factories. The improvement for the workers will be incalculable, as these places are under the law and subject to its requirements as to ventilation, light, hours of work, and other humane provisions. Instead of working excessive hours in crowded and unsanitary tenements and in the most congested parts of the city, workers will find employment during reasonable hours in modern factories. Furthermore, the use of little children sometimes as young as five years of age—a phase of child labor not yet reached by law—will largely cease. These benefits will accrue to all former home workers of legal working age who will go to work in the factories. They will receive higher wages for shop work. One manufacturer, speaking to the agent of the federal investigation referred to above, testified in these words:

I wish that there was a law to prevent home finishing. While it is cheaper to have garments finished at home, I would rather have it done in my own shop, and if there were laws which all had to obey prohibiting this the price of a garment would rise to cover this increase and the contractor would not suffer. It costs 5 cents more per garment to finish it in the shop than to give the work out to home finishers.

Speaking of the pitifully inadequate earnings of home finishers, this same report says:

Of married shop finishers [investigated] none earned less than \$2 in a full week, while practically 15 per cent of the married home finishers earned less than that amount; that 55 per cent of the married shop finishers earned \$5 or more and only 7 per cent of the married home finishers earned that much; that little more than 50 per cent of the married home finishers earned less than \$3 a week.

It is evident that increased earnings through the transfer of work to factories will thus benefit many workers rather than handicap them.

There is no doubt, however, that the prohibition of home work will cause real hardship to a certain number of families. This will have to be met by relief societies, school scholarships, and other forms of assistance. But it should be remembered that even under present

conditions, with home work permitted in the tenements, there are many instances of distressing poverty and neglect among these home workers. Quoting again the government report:

The compensation which the home workers receive for their labor is, as a rule, such that they do not earn enough to provide even the shelter, food, and raiment essential to maintain a moderate standard of physical efficiency.

No figures are available to show exactly how many families doing home work are now dependent upon relief from societies or other outside agencies. But there is abundant evidence to show that large numbers of home workers are unable to support themselves and must depend upon charity for part of the year.

Home work furthermore fosters seasonal work. Since the manufacturer has no plant standing idle he has no incentive to make his work continuous and to equalize the seasons. For a few months at a time—eight to sixteen weeks for the feather season—tenements are flooded with many forms of manufacture. The sweating system turns the home into a factory annex; this means neglect of meals, improper care of the children, and neglect of other household duties, resulting in a general lowering of the standard of living. Children in the family are often deprived of schooling. The government investigators found in the men's ready-made clothing trade that, of the 308 children of school age in families doing home work investigated, 47, or 15 per cent, were unlawfully out of school.

The paramount question after all is not, Does home work relieve poverty? but, Does home work endanger the public health? There is already available evidence pointing to an affirmative answer.

It is interesting to learn that many of the witnesses who recently testified before the Wagner Factory Investigating Commission, appointed by the New York legislature, emphasized the seriousness of the tenement manufacturing evil. If this investigation can be continued for another year some really valuable contribution to the subject through a comprehensive investigation of many home industries may be expected.

CIVICS

LETTING IN THE LIGHT IN BROOKLYN

JAMES JENKINS, Jr.

DIRECTOR DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL BETTERMENT,
BROOKLYN BUREAU OF CHARITIES

More than a year ago, when citizens had their attention drawn to the housing problem that confronted them, Brooklyn awoke to the fact that conditions there were as they had been in Manhattan twenty years before. It was evident that many an owner and builder of tenements which sheltered a million of the wage-earning class had felt no need of supplying sunlight and air to the poor in their homes. Greed, thoughtlessness, and ignorance were exacting a toll of 3,000 unnecessary deaths a year; were accounting, directly or indirectly, for 6,000 registered cases of tuberculosis—enough patients, it has been said, to stretch, if standing side by side, from Borough Hall to Coney Island, ten miles away. For nine years the Tenement House Laws had been on the statute books, yet within that period, largely because of the insufficient inspection of the early years and of the fact that many houses originally designed for two families were rearranged to accommodate more, the recorded number of insufficiently lighted, and therefore illegal, rooms in Brooklyn had grown from 140,000 in 1903 to 192,000 in 1910. When it is considered that 58,000 of these were totally dark rooms—into which no sunlight and very little fresh air have ever penetrated—it will be acknowledged that from its tenements Brooklyn would have but small chance of turning out healthy, self-respecting, law-abiding citizens. Extraordinary action was demanded by the situation.

With the realization that Brooklyn had no reason to be proud of itself until this menace to its health and morals had been fought, a committee was organized, through the Bureau of Charities, to study the situation and, if possible, remedy it. This committee, acting as a free-lance, may serve to justify the formation of a similar one in any city where a tenement problem is presented; for it feels that it has accomplished something.

It began by announcing and proving its willingness to cooperate in every way possible with the city Tenement House Department. With pamphlets, free lectures, and a bureau of information and advice, it sought to assist in the education of the people by making them know the facts and to arouse public sentiment to the necessity of immediate action. Realizing the importance if not even the sacredness of its mission, the group of workers took as their slogan the words of the Master Builder, "Let there be light." After nearly two years' work, this partial report is submitted. The answer to the oft-repeated exhortation was not immediate—it could not be—but there has been some advance.

For several months the committee worked quietly and carefully studied the situation. Then February 13, 1911, was selected for enthusiastically inaugurating a campaign for the elimination of the dark rooms in Brooklyn. On that day, Colonel Roosevelt and a party visited some of the bad and some of the model tenements. What was seen of bad tenements on that trip made the distinguished visitor raise his voice in condemnation of existing conditions and in sympathy for those who had endured them. That evening a well attended mass meeting started the public campaign on its way. Headed by Jacob Riis, several speakers, who knew well of what they spoke, aroused Brooklyn to a keen sense of its duty.

The next step was to divide the borough into districts and to assign each, with a statement of its dark-room conditions, to a religious, civic, or social organization as its special charge. Each volunteer society tried by every means at hand to rid its section of disease-breeding spots. The plan commonly followed was to visit the owner of each tenement which violated the law and try, by enlightenment and persuasion, to secure from

him a promise to cut a window into each dark room, or to uncover or to enlarge shafts and so increase the light. Reports show that much was accomplished by these volunteer organizations.

The Tenement House Department, realizing that public opinion was aroused to support it in every legitimate attempt to enforce the law, redoubled its efforts, and, at all times, received the suggestions of the committee in the kindest spirit. Its cooperation has been whole-hearted and complete, and for the results accomplished it is to be congratulated.

The following figures surely show that more is actually done when public sentiment is aroused, when officials know that the best element in the community is ready to support them in any laudable effort. In 1909, the department succeeded in having 3,101 totally dark rooms made lighter; in 1910, 8,563; in 1911, approximately 15,000. In the third quarter alone of the last year 4,500 windowless rooms were made light. The changes made in rooms not totally dark but inadequately lighted increased the number so that 1910 saw 20,000, while 1911 saw 42,000 or more, altered to let in light. When one considers that Brooklyn stretches over 39,000 acres, has about 40,000 old-law tenements, with only fifty inspectors available for work among these, it will be seen that the work done was such as to make those who have worked to secure it reasonably well satisfied.

The Brooklyn committee has still a big problem on its hands. An easy computation will show that the work of the past two years has more than offset the illegal increase of the 1903-1910 period. About 130,000 rooms subject to change because of insufficient light still remain. Another year's work will show social workers the value or failure of continued enthusiastic, concerted effort, of insistence upon the enforcement of the housing laws, and of active co-operation with the officials whose duty it is to enforce it.

It is not too much to insist that the record of the third quarter of 1911 shall prevail or even be bettered throughout the next year. This will eliminate the totally dark rooms in less than three years. Not until then will the committee feel that it has the right to say that the slogan has been answered. Then there will be light, and with it the opportunity for Brooklyn to contribute to the nation a more healthy and normal citizen.

February 17, 1912.

A BUREAU OF CHILD WELFARE¹

ALFRED E. SHIPLEY M.D.

More efficient co-operation is the greatest need amongst agencies interested in the well-being of the child. The logical outcome, therefore, of the present-day activities having for their aim the physical, mental, and moral improvement of children would seem to be the establishment in our large municipalities of bureaus of child welfare.

The scope of work among children is broadening rapidly; organizations of long standing are extending their fields, and new movements are constantly developing to take up some particular phase of the work. The agencies interested in one branch or another of this work are therefore very numerous. While each may have a specific field which is of interest to it alone, there are, however, phases of its work radiating from that field which affect the other agencies. Due to lack of effective co-operation, work is now duplicated over and over. This means a great loss of time, energy, and money. It would seem advisable, therefore, to establish a bureau which shall itself do active child welfare work along certain lines, and also act as a clearing-house for the collection and distribution of information, statistics, etc.

The phases of child welfare work to be directly controlled by such a bureau would, of course, be determined by the conditions prevailing in the particular municipality establishing it.

Theoretically, it should include all children's agencies of an educational, industrial, health-protective, philanthropic, social, judicial, and religious character. It would, then, embrace the child hygiene work of health departments, playgrounds, educational systems, children's hospitals and institutions, child labor bureaus, public charities departments in so far as they relate to the needs of children, juvenile courts, and many of the philanthropic and social organizations. As allies to these should be classed all the civic and voluntary organizations which are in any way interested in the welfare of children.

Practically, this is not feasible. Our school systems would remain as separate bodies, children's diseases of an infectious nature need to be controlled by health departments, and the juvenile courts must be directly re-

¹This plan for more effective work in the field of child welfare has been presented to various officials throughout the country, and is now presented in the hope of provoking discussion.

sponsible to the judiciary. But at least the systematic co-operation of these departments with such a bureau could be obtained, and thus greatly enhance the efficiency of child welfare work.

The material to be used would include all facts, information, statistics, data, etc., concerning children's affairs gathered from educational, health, industrial, philanthropic, social, judicial, and religious organizations of a public, semi-public, or private character.

The bureau should be controlled by a general director, and should have three divisions, each in charge of a director. These should be (a) educational (b) health, and (c) social. Those phases of work which are closely related should be put in the appropriate divisions, but the inter-dependence of the three branches would require them to be in constant communication with one another.

The work done by the bureau would be evidenced in three ways:

1. By the activities of the physicians, nurses, and social workers under the direct control of the bureau. The amount of work directly controlled at first would be small; but as the wisdom of such a plan of concentrated child welfare effort became apparent, this undoubtedly would be extended. As an initial step, it might well include child labor bureaus, playgrounds, vocational bureaus, supervision of foundlings, milk stations, diet kitchens, sick babies (diarrheal diseases), physical examination of school children—with the necessary home visits—dental clinics, municipal children's clinics, health talks, lectures (moving pictures), and exhibitions on child welfare topics.

2. By organizing for a systematic campaign for child welfare, the many private and semi-public organizations whose efforts at present lack the cohesiveness essential for the most effective and economical results. Many of these would be willing to be guided to some degree by the bureau.

3. By giving to those agencies which could not be controlled by the bureau collaborated information, statistics, etc.

The outline below of the three divisions of the bureau is only tentative, and shows what phases of the work might be classed together.

MUNICIPAL NEEDS COMMITTEE

JAMES P. HEATON

To draft and carry through in co-operation with other agencies a carefully co-ordinated social program for New York is the aim of a propaganda which looks toward the establishment of a Municipal Needs Committee. The idea back of this project, which represents a new conception in reform work, is that a community should continually analyze its activities to see whether each citizen enjoys the elementary necessities of life and that minimum of opportunity for achieving well-being which true charity demands for all. That important beginnings have been made in the formulation of a program for realizing such an ideal of community and individual life is recognized in the prospectus advocating the creation of this new agency.

THREE DIVISIONS OF THE BUREAU OF CHILD WELFARE

EDUCATIONAL DIVISION

HEALTH DIVISION.

SOCIAL DIVISION.

ACTIVE WORK TO BE DONE BY THE BUREAU ITSELF.

Vocational Bureau
Child Labor Bureau
Playgrounds
Lectures to Parents
Little Mothers' Leagues
Lectures on Child Welfare
Moving-Pictures on Child Welfare
Exhibitions on Child Welfare

Foundlings—Private Homes
Foundlings—Institutions
Day Nurseries
Milk Stations
Sick Babies
Diet Kitchens
Physical Examination for Employment
Home Visits to School Children

Social Worker's Home Visits
Nurses' Home Visits
Playgrounds

WORK IN WHICH THE BUREAU MIGHT TAKE AN ACTIVE PART.

Public Schools
Parochial Schools
Schools for Defectives
Open-Air Schools

Sick Babies
Physical Examination of School Children
Health Departments
Industrial Schools
Dental Clinics
Institutions for Defectives

Charity and Relief Agencies
Juvenile Court Work
Fresh Air Societies
Other Volunteer Agencies

ORGANIZATIONS WITH WHICH THE BUREAU MIGHT CO-OPERATE.

Museums
Libraries
Vacation Schools
Recreation Piers

Children's Hospitals
Medical Societies
Private Physicians
Private Agencies of Various Kinds

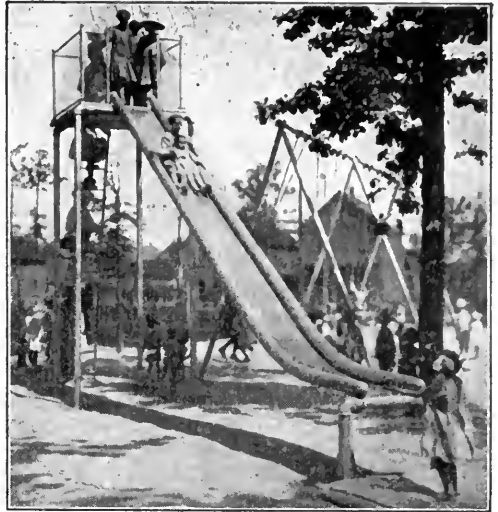
Settlement Work
Summer Homes for Children
Homes for Convalescent Children
Recreation Piers

"We have a child labor committee, a women's trade union league, a federated union of labor, an association for labor legislation, a committee on safety, and temporary legislative commissions investigating the conditions of labor of children, women, and men, and promoting the adoption of needed corrective measures in this field; we have tenement house committees and a committee on congestion of population studying and working to improve poor housing conditions; various organizations promoting greater prevention of disease; a public education association and a committee of the Board of Estimate studying public education in order to make recommendations looking toward its better adaptation to educational needs and to greater economy in the expenditure of funds devoted to it; agencies for the suppression of crime and vice and the reduction of the liquor traffic, and so on."

It has been felt, however, that though these agencies as well as others are doing much in the field of social service, a Municipal Needs Committee will find its need and opportunity in the lack of a conscious and comprehensive goal toward which the social movements of the city may work. The new organization does not base itself upon criticism of existing agencies but expects to aid in bringing about better team work among them and to focus attention upon important phases of our economic and social life which are almost entirely neglected.

Among the practically unfaced problems instanced as giving occasion for this new committee are those of low wages, unemployment that might be eliminated, the relation of health and efficiency to standard of living and to physical heredity, high rents, the employment of leisure, and a city plan which will include a constructive franchise policy, provision for the regulation of the location, design, and construction of buildings of the various classes, and plans for the reconstruction of those parts of the city which are uneconomical in layout.

The function of this committee, stated in general terms, would be to investigate, or cause to be investigated, those phases of city life about which we have not at present sufficient data upon which to base proposals for needed corrective measures and to further the adoption of measures found to be needed. As machinery for the prosecution of this work a publicity service and organized co-operation with city and state legislative bodies are expected to be established. The committee expects to make a continuous general study of social conditions and reform work in New York in order to formulate the correlated social program needed. The detailed investigations to be followed by the required legislative work will be taken up one by one as opportunities for so doing present themselves.



"I'LL CATCH YOU."

That is, the committee intends to have a comprehensive viewpoint, but to be opportunist and practical in program.

A plan of permanent organization that has been suggested to the provisional committee is, first, a small executive committee to plan and direct work; a general committee consisting of practical social reformers, economists, and others; special committees on research, legislation, publicity, finance, etc; and a group of co-operating agencies, comprising all the reform organizations in the field.

The first meeting of the provisional committee was held Thursday, February 8, to devise methods for raising funds for preliminary research and for investigations that the city and state could not undertake, and for administrative expenses. At this meeting also the first steps were taken for carrying out the plan of permanent organization that has just been outlined.

Seba Eldridge, a resident of Union Settlement, who has done investigational work and drafted a program for the Municipal Needs Committee, has stated that the work can proceed along three lines:

"First, the committee may co-operate with publishers in engaging experts to write books. New York city is large and important enough to support an economic, social, and political literature distinctively its own. Next, the legislature may be petitioned to appoint commissions to investigate subjects within the scope of legislative inquiry, such as labor conditions, incomes, and cost of living, housing, and rents, and reformation and correction. Third, co-operation may be established with the city's law-making bodies in formulating those parts of the social program within the scope of municipal action. These relate principally to health, education, recreation, dependent care, and city planning."

CIVIC IMPROVEMENT

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON, Contributing Editor

KNOXVILLE'S MOUNTAIN OF CANS

The results from an appropriate prize of a goat, plus harness and wagon, offered by the *Sentinel* to the boy who collected the greatest number of tin cans, surprised Knoxville. The winner, a six-year-old lad, gathered in yards, alleys, and streets almost a thousand cans for every year of his age. Other competitors had scores only a little less amazing, so that the total effect upon the aspect of Knoxville must have been great. The president of the City Beautiful League supplemented the offer of the *Sentinel* with consolation prizes for the boys who brought in the second, third, and fourth largest number. Although Knoxville has reasonable access to fresh goods from farms and market gardens, a miniature mountain of cans rose beside the *Sentinel* building.

RULES FOR STREET TREES

The Park Board of Dubuque, under the ordinance creating it, is required to formulate rules and regulations governing the care, growth, and trimming of all trees on the streets and drives of the city. In accordance with this duty, it has issued some literature that is of interest and value, not in Dubuque alone, but to any community which desires to deal with the street tree problem in a comprehensive and scientific way. This material consists of a pamphlet, entitled Statement by the Park Board, in which are put forth the arguments for municipal control and the general rules which should be observed in the planting and maintenance of shade trees on the streets; a leaflet, telling What, When, and How to Plant Trees, and a dodger containing the rules especially formulated for the planting on Grand View avenue, the city's widest residence street. It should be easy, with these instructions as a basis, to prepare similar data for any community; and as most persons, even where there is not municipal control, would much prefer, when setting out a tree, to set out the right kind in the right way, it might do an immense amount of good.

A STRIKING DEFINITION

A significant statement is that of the membership committee of the Rochester Chamber of Commerce. "The Chamber of Commerce is an organized effort to improve living conditions. Its purpose is so elastic as to include in its scope the cleaning of rubbish from back streets and the sanitary disposal of sewage. The work of a Chamber of Commerce doesn't consist in going out and cleaning up any one back street or the financing of a sewage system. Through initiative, publicity, and desire, it creates conditions of

mind that make these things come to pass." The importance of the statement lies (1), in the fact that it is true; (2), in the belief, born of experience, that the publication of this truth to business men who have not been in close touch with the work of the chamber will induce them to become members.

SOCIAL SERVICE OF PARKS

The Rochester Park Commission has included in its current annual report a notable chapter on the Social Service of the Parks. Though such a chapter would seem to be entirely natural and logical, considering the increased appreciation of the social value of parks and their enlarging community usefulness, the Rochester commission is said to be the first to devote special attention to this subject in its report. One reason is that the Rochester parks have been particularly noticeable for the degree of their service, and they have done this without any sacrifice of their beauty. In fact, it is significant in reading the chapter to observe how large a part in such active service is borne by the passive beauty of the parks—in special floral displays, etc. The volume is full of suggestions which should be helpful to other communities.

A BETTER JERSEY CITY

On the cover of some pamphlets issued by the City Plan Commission of Jersey City appear these words which are in a measure a confession of faith, explaining the issue of the series:

"The systematic, practical development of a city can best be accomplished with the cooperation of its people. . . . A good example profits much."

"Keeping everlastingly at it will eventually bring success."

"Distributed through the courtesy of those interested."

One pamphlet reprints a series of city planning articles published in the local papers between May 8 and September 18, 1911. A new set began September 25, to appear in the Monday issues of the papers. They are short and to the point, and give evidence of a remarkable educational campaign. Another pamphlet, more directly representing the commission itself, opens with a series of maxims. Following these are a few paragraphs describing the scope and purpose of the commission. The latter is described, in part, as "systematically to promote and plan practical improvements in civic and industrial conditions which affect the health, convenience, education, and general welfare of the citizens of Jersey City . . . to secure an adequate, comprehensive, and practical plan for future

public improvements, so that they shall be made with a knowledge of the needs of the whole city and districts for the present and future, instead of in a haphazard, piecemeal fashion . . . to create public opinion in favor of accomplishing such improvements."

A copy of the state law which authorizes the commission is given. It provides for nine members and directs that they be given \$10,000 a year to spend. The commissioners serve without pay. The rules which the commission has adopted for the transaction of its business are printed, and finally a number of recommendations and suggestions. The motto is, "A Better Jersey City."

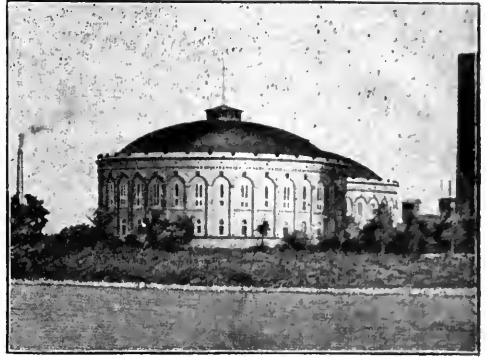
MAKING GAS TANKS ATTRACTIVE

Mayor Speer of Denver recently sent a letter to the general manager of the local gas and electric company. After observing that gas tanks are necessary, but usually so unsightly that they tend to depreciate real estate values in their neighborhood, he says: "Your company is progressive, and interested in the development and beauty of Denver. I want to suggest and ask that you build a wall around your gas tank at Thirteenth avenue and Harrison street, resembling a castle from the outside. With vines properly planted, it could be made one of the attractive points of our city. The cost would more than be paid back as an advertisement for your company. When abroad I found a number of gas tanks made very attractive by walls surrounding them." City planners have suggested a similar expedient in other American cities, such as Rochester, Los Angeles, etc.; but this is perhaps the first time that such a plan has been initiated by a mayor. In a number of instances, stand-pipes for water have been made thus picturesque in America.



WATER TOWER AT FORT WAYNE, IND.

February 17, 1912.



GAS TANKS AT DRESDEN.

PHILADELPHIA'S BEST YEAR

The City Parks Association of Philadelphia in its twenty-third annual report says: "There has been no year in the history of this association which has been so full of notable events, forecasting the improvement of Philadelphia, as the past year. More promise of far-sighted action in providing for future growth in undeveloped areas, and future rehabilitation in built-up sections, greater advances in developments already under way, and a deeper knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of city planning in its broadest and highest sense differentiate the past year from all its predecessors." The "notable events" of the past year include the following: The publication in February of the comprehensive plans prepared by the advisory committees appointed by the mayor; the vote in May approving loans amounting to \$5,250,000 for carrying out some of these designs; the creation in July of an Official Committee of Comprehensive Plans, to insure their execution; the meeting in Philadelphia in May of the Third Annual Conference on City Planning; the International City Planning Exhibition, held in the City Hall from the middle of May until the middle of June; the passage of ordinances furthering the extension of the park system, together with gifts and expropriations of park land; the legislative creation of a Department of Recreation; the creation of a Street Shade Tree Commission. Although credit for these accomplishments is not claimed by the association, no one can read the report without realizing how great a factor the association must have been in securing them. From the first pages, which name the many allied organizations, to those at the back, with their long list of individual members, and through all the well illustrated text—restrained, concise, but enthusiastic and confident—there runs such love for Philadelphia and faith in it as could not fail to impress the community and, in time, bring to pass just such results as those chronicled. Much of the spirit of the association and of the credit for its accomplishments must be attributed to its secretary, Andrew Wright Crawford, assistant city solicitor.

HEALTH

ADVANTAGES TO A CHARITABLE HOSPITAL OF AFFILIATION WITH A UNIVERSITY MEDICAL SCHOOL¹

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The Presbyterian Hospital of New York city is fortunate, and Columbia University is fortunate, in the alliance that has recently been effected between the work of medical instruction as conducted by the College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, and the clinical work of the Presbyterian Hospital. The affiliation is significant from several standpoints. One of its most important features is the complete realization on the part of the hospital managers and trustees as to the broadened functions which a general hospital can serve by affiliation of this kind, and their expression as to what should constitute an ideal hospital—that it shall serve not only in a restricted sense the philanthropic and humanitarian purposes for which all hospitals are created, but also in a more extended sense the educational and scientific needs of medicine. Medical men have held views regarding the part played by managers and trustees of hospitals, in so far as the duties and responsibilities of these positions are concerned, to the effect that trustees sometimes fail to realize fully the great measure of service which a hospital can fulfill not only to the sick within its walls, but also to the community as a whole; but, as expressed in the terms of agreement between the two institutions, the managers of the Presbyterian Hospital have arrived at a full recognition of a wider responsibility:

The parties to this agreement are united in the belief that a permanent alliance between the hospital and the university will render the hospital more useful, will enable it to serve the needs of both patients and the community more efficiently, will secure the best professional service for the hospital, and will make the hospital the center of larger ideals by promoting education, by advancing knowledge, and by exemplifying the best in practice. And also that such an alliance will benefit the university, by enabling it to give the best clinical instruction to its students,

and afford improved opportunities for advanced study.

Again, the affiliation is significant because it means that a long step forward has been taken toward the solution of the most urgent problem of medical education in this country to-day—the establishment of such relations between hospitals and medical schools as shall make hospitals more freely available for teaching and training physicians and medical students. That need has been long recognized and the hospitals have not been altogether indifferent to it. Nevertheless it has not been clear how cooperation between medical schools and hospitals could be effected.

Owing to the fact that our hospitals and medical schools have drifted apart, it is difficult at the present time to arrange affiliations between them. This separation of functions did not exist at the beginning. Indeed it is curious to observe how correct were the ideals of the medical schools in this country in the eighteenth century. Both at King's College in New York, and at what is now the University of Pennsylvania, the essential need of combining clinical instruction with the teaching of the medical school proper was recognized. Later the institutions furnishing these opportunities drifted apart. For this reason, I feel that in solving its own problems the Presbyterian Hospital has done a great service to medical education in America, because it has indicated how the problem can be solved elsewhere, not necessarily on precisely the same terms, but along the same general lines.

The arrangement that has been made is of significance not alone to the community in general but to New York city in particular. It has been a matter of wonder generally that New York city has not fully realized and utilized her great possibilities for medical education. In New York city hospitals the largest amount of clinical material in America is collected; and how little use has been made

¹Address delivered at the forty-third anniversary of the Presbyterian Hospital in New York city, December 2, 1911.

of it! In consequence, the metropolis does not occupy, or it has ceased to occupy, the leadership in medicine which its location and opportunities justify it to claim. But this alliance means that the first adequate measures have been taken to secure for New York city the pre-eminence in medicine which belongs to it by virtue of its position.

The type of hospital contemplated by the alliance is in no sense an experiment. Throughout the world, the hospitals of the largest usefulness to the community are institutions which have combined the humanitarian with the educational and scientific interests of medicine. They are the hospitals that have made the most important contributions to medical science and that have won the greatest reputation. Such are the hospitals of France, of Vienna, Berlin, and London. Guy's Hospital in London, which is of this type, to some extent, initiated these conceptions in Great Britain. It was there that men like Richard Bright, Addison, and Hodgkin made their clinical studies and their contributions to the advancement of medicine. In this country Johns Hopkins Hospital of Baltimore has pursued similar ideals, so far as its resources permitted. Each and every hospital of this category has rendered eminent service not alone in the care of the indigent sick, but in the training of medical men and in the promotion of medical knowledge. The affiliation does not, therefore, mean that the hospital is entering upon a field of work wholly unexplored, nor does it mean the undertaking of tasks that have not already been demonstrated to be entirely practicable.

Let us consider in detail the three principal functions of the ideal hospital—the care of the sick, the adequate training of the medical men of the future, and the advancement of medical knowledge.

The care of the sick stands first and is never to be forgotten, for the welfare of the patient is the primary purpose of the hospital. If it could be demonstrated that the addition of the educational and scientific functions in any way impaired the service of the hospital in its care of patients, thus lessening the humanitarian to the advantage of educational aims, then it would be clear that the introduction of the new functions would not be justified. There is practically no division of opinion among medical men as to the influence upon hospital service of these additions; but laymen are apt to conjure up in their minds

conditions under which the inroads of medical students into a hospital would be disturbing to the order and quiet of the wards, and where the examination of patients for purposes of teaching might be harmful to the sick. For these alleged reasons the public may be induced to pause, at least, before accepting the idea that the use of a hospital for teaching increases its value in the treatment of patients. But those who have had experience know that nothing is further from the truth than such a conception of reduced service, for it has been demonstrated that, instead of weakening the humanitarian efficiency, the educational and research functions increase the value of the service which a hospital fulfills in the care of its patients. As has already been stated, one of the reasons why ward patients are better served by the new arrangement is that the hospital is in a position to secure for its wards the very best professional service available; and by a permanent agreement of this kind the best professional service is secured not only for the immediate present but for the future. A hospital of this type will not only have the most talented men on its staff, but the men will also be of a distinctive type—not necessarily better practitioners, but men singularly devoted, who realize that their first duty is to the allied interests of the hospital and the school, and that their life work and main enjoyment are to lie in the practice of medicine in the wards and private rooms of the hospital, in teaching medical students, in the advancement of knowledge, and in the development of their departments of medicine. They are men who will not become absorbed in a large outside practice, be it even a consulting practice, which would interfere with this work. If, then, the hospital secures men of this type, who are to give their lives to the service of the patients, will not the hospital be better served, will not the ward patients be better cared for? The presence of the students in the wards will also tend to the better care and treatment of the sick and injured. From the method which is essential for the adequate training of medical students to-day great advantage is derived by the patients, because the latter are studied more carefully and thoroughly. The more thoroughly they are studied, the more will be known about the diseases that afflict them, and the better will be the chances of successful treatment. It is, therefore, beyond dis-

pute that a teaching hospital connected with a university medical school makes better provision for the care of its ward patients than a charitable hospital with no other aim beyond the care of the indigent sick, important as that is.

Second, as to the education of medical men: Hospital educational work is not altogether new; it has been carried on in many hospitals, but in the past there has been very inadequate recognition of this inexpressibly urgent need of the present time. The urgency is due partly to the demands made by improved methods of teaching which have been introduced everywhere, and which are not alone applicable to medicine, but are recognized as sound pedagogy in all branches of knowledge. They involve in the main the principle that vital knowledge—which enters into the fiber of being and gives power and wisdom—can come only from intimate contact with the objects of study; that being told or reading about things does not supply that knowledge, nor does demonstration alone meet the need. The student must touch; he must see for himself; in a word, he must come into close and intimate personal relationship with the object of study in order to acquire the saving knowledge which, in this instance, is for “the healing of the nations.” The clinical teaching in the hospital will consist not merely of amphitheatre clinics and “ward classes”—groups of students accompanied by their instructors taken for an hour or so through the wards. These procedures, while useful, bear about the same relation to the teaching I have in mind as in science demonstrations bear to practical laboratory work. Students are not enabled to make suitable examinations and interpretations of what they see by that kind of instruction, any more than a student of bacteriology would be made efficient by merely being told how to make his cultures or how to inoculate media. He must do the work with his own hands. In order to have in the clinical work the same kind of practical teaching which has been so useful in the laboratory, it is necessary that students be introduced into the hospital wards and have patients assigned to them for study. At the period when students are thus admitted into the wards they are not materially less fitted to work there than is the ordinary interne when he begins his work. This practical teaching begins usually in the fourth year of the medical school, when the students

have already been taught the methods of physical diagnosis; they have already had opportunities of study in the out-patient department of the hospital. They come, therefore, not ignorant; and they work always under the close supervision and control of heads of departments and their associates. In the wards, students take clinical histories, make examinations of patients, and analyses of blood and other body fluids—taking charge, in fact, of a part of the routine necessary for the orderly working of the hospital. This is work which must be done, and if it were not done by students others would have to be engaged to do it. This organization of students' work in the hospital is the system of clinical clerks adopted in this country from the British hospitals. Notwithstanding the defects of medical education in Great Britain and the inadequacy in many respects of its medical schools, the British hospitals have the one great glory of having contributed the method of clinical clerkship in the wards of the hospital; and for that reason good doctors are trained in Great Britain. This method, which was introduced into America at Johns Hopkins University Hospital by Dr. Osler, is the most important contribution the latter institution has been able to make to the advancement of medical education in America.

Another reason why the need for practical medical education is more urgent than ever before lies in the progress that the science of medicine has made. New methods of diagnosis and treatment have been discovered or invented which require the use of technical and precise instruments; and these methods can be acquired only by practice.

I should be inclined, also, to enter among the educational functions of the hospital the training of younger physicians and surgeons for higher clinical positions. There is nothing in clinical work which quite corresponds to the opportunity for the training of men and women as anatomists, physiologists, or pathologists. A young man who contemplates following the career of a pathologist must serve as assistant in a laboratory for a number of years. One of the great needs in the development of clinical medicine is the affording of opportunities to those with proper aptitudes and possibilities who desire to follow such careers—not necessarily academic—in the higher walks of clinical medicine and research. Johns Hopkins Hospital has endeavored to supply that need by creating a resident staff

consisting of a resident physician, surgeon, gynecologist, with two or, it may be, three assistants. These physicians, who are above the rank of the ordinary internes, are appointed for indefinite periods and their positions are more or less permanent. They study for years and when they leave they have often established their reputations by published contributions.

Doubtless those who are engaged in teaching clinical medicine in this country feel that we make as good doctors in America as anywhere else in the world. I am not prepared to gainsay that statement; but I do not believe that we have developed clinical medicine as a science and an art as is done elsewhere. I do not think it can be shown that this country has made such important contributions in the improvement of methods of diagnosis and treatment as have been made elsewhere.

The advancement of knowledge is the third important function of the ideal hospital. On account of discoveries which have been made and the possibilities they have created for increased knowledge as to the cause, nature, and treatment of disease, medical science to-day makes the strongest possible appeal to philanthropy—a social appeal which it could not have made thirty years ago. The new knowledge that has come as to the cause and spread of one particular class of affections, infectious disease, is of vast social import, because it affects a large majority of the population, and especially the young and those who are in the most active working period of life. This knowledge has become a benefit to mankind, for it has prolonged life and increased human happiness. Since the first actual records were taken in New York city in the middle sixties, the rate of mortality has been reduced from thirty-five deaths per thousand inhabitants to about fifteen. What does that signify? It means that some twelve years have been added to the average period of human existence. This reduction in mortality is the sequence wholly of our control of infectious diseases. The saving thus made relates only to the period of life under fifty years. We have no such saving knowledge regarding the organic diseases of advancing years which afflict especially those who have been most active in affairs and who have large responsibilities. The ideal hospital can be a workshop for new knowledge in that direction.

In response to this almost irresistible appeal to philanthropists to furnish resources for investigation in medicine, so as to increase our knowledge of human pathology, independent institutes of research have been established; and they have justified their existence by the results that have been achieved. But in these independent institutes there is danger of losing sight of the intimate and close connection that must exist between education and the advancement of knowledge: it is not possible to further the advancement of knowledge effectively and do nothing for the advancement of education. The roots of fruitful research must lie deep down in the educational conditions of our institutions. We may well ask whether in the past our hospitals and medical schools have furnished the most suitable environment for research. Is it not to some extent the inadequacy of conditions existing in our universities, hospitals, and medical schools which has led to the establishment of these independent institutes? In my judgment, the most suitable as well as the historic place for investigation is the university; its ideals and environment should furnish the best atmosphere for careful work of this kind. I am in sympathy with those who believe that the medical school and hospital should be in close proximity. That is not saying that existing arrangements will not do much good, but it would be far more useful if the hospital and the medical school were close together. It is not merely a matter of convenience but a matter of the whole atmosphere and spirit of the institutions. The stimulus given to those engaged in the work of the hospital wards will be far greater if they are in close touch with the laboratories of the medical school. I should like to see the College of Physicians and Surgeons and the Presbyterian Hospital situated side by side, and the destiny of the two institutions brought closer together.

These new resources and opportunities—important as they are—are only the beginning of things which one can picture; they represent nothing that is final. As the result of this alliance an appeal for support three-fold stronger than ever before should be made. Those whose interests are along philanthropic lines should be even more interested than they have been in the past, because, as has been stated, the humanitarian service of the hospital will be greater than ever before. Those who realize the great service which the alliance

means to medical education and hence to the community should feel that here is a most rewarding opportunity to aid by adding to the resources of the hospital and medical school. Those whose interests lie in the advancement of knowledge, and who realize what the possibilities are for the advancement of the welfare of mankind in adding to our knowledge of the intimate nature and causes of disease, with a prospect of better methods of prevention and treatment, should feel that here is an unsurpassed opportunity to contribute in that direction.

From the three points of view—the philanthropic, the educational, and the scientific—the work contemplated is full of the highest promise. Undoubtedly many new problems will be created which, if it is realized that the interests of the hospital and the university are fundamentally common interests, will be solved by a just spirit of co-operation between the two institutions, each preserving its independent corporate existence. I feel that I am expressing the thought of all those interested in philanthropy and in education when I voice the hope, a hope which is almost an assurance, that under the new conditions of affiliation the ideal hospital may be evolved.

THE DISPENSARY PROBLEM IN NEW YORK CITY

E. H. LEWINSKI-CORWIN, Ph. D.

Since 1899 a law of the state of New York has made false representation by applicants for dispensary treatment a misdemeanor punishable by fine. We seldom hear of cases of misrepresentation brought to court, and hence we might hastily jump to the conclusion that the provisions of the law are being scrupulously complied with. If this be so, *i. e.*, if only the indigent apply for charitable medical relief, then the number of applicants would serve as one of the best indexes we possess of the local prevalence of poverty. To secure this index we should need only to write to the State Board of Charities inquiring the number of persons treated in dispensaries. The state board would report that during 1911 the number treated in the dispensaries of New York city alone was 1,150,728. Unbelievable! Is one-fourth of New York city's population poverty-stricken? But happily the letter of the State Board of Charities goes on to say: "Your attention, however, is invited to the fact that, while the number of patients treated in dispensaries as given is the number of reported to this board, the records in many of the dispensaries contain much duplication by reason of the fact that records in many of the dispensaries are kept separately for the different clinics, and

a patient may thus be counted several times as a 'new case'; and to the further fact that applicants frequently have been known to visit two or more different dispensaries." You breathe easier. The number of applicants is evidently not so large, poverty less rampant.

Although we do not know how many persons are treated in dispensaries, whether it is 300,000 or 400,000 or half a million or more, the matter is serious enough to deserve careful consideration. Under the present law the applicant to a dispensary is required to sign a "representation card," if there is any doubt as to his or her inability to pay. Turning to the report of the State Board of Charities to see to what extent this requirement is carried out by the dispensaries, it is found that the last published report is for 1910,¹ and that out of 130 dispensaries in the state covered in the report twenty-eight never refused admission to any applicant; in ninety-eight dispensaries persons with representation cards used for doubtful cases were admitted; and only sixty-five dispensaries made any subsequent investigation. Of these sixty-five only forty-seven filed the results of investigation. This makes for an unlimited supply of patients from all over the city, creating unbearable overcrowding, and making social investigation and thorough medical treatment an impossibility. Moreover, the report states that, of the 117 dispensaries where applicants were examined, in thirty-five it was done thoroughly, in fifty-seven fairly well, and in twenty-five superficially.

The extent to which provisions of the law are enforced is limited, and the machinery for enforcing them is very imperfect; hence misrepresentations, and hence an inflated number of seekers of medical charitable relief. Although these two conditions are the chief, they are not the only reasons for the present overcrowding in dispensaries. Many persons are ignorant of the existence of the law, although 124 dispensaries report that published notices containing its provisions were posted in the dispensary.

Furthermore, the majority of dispensaries charge from 10 cents to 25 cents for treatment. This tends to create an impression among patients that the service is not gratuitous, that it is merely cheap, on account of the wholesale treatment and superficial examination they receive. Here we come to the crux of the whole problem. Do we have dispensaries for the real care of the sick, or do we want, as Dr. Cabot says, "to be content with going through the form of doing it"? Do we aim at effective treatment or statistics of large numbers? Are the dispensaries anything more than wholesale druggists?

These few facts are ample to show, as we have already stated, that the root of the evil, the reason for the existing unsatisfactory con-

¹Since this was written the report for 1911 has appeared. Although the number of dispensaries in the state has increased to 138 and in New York city alone to 100, conditions described in the 1910 report have not changed materially.

ditions of overcrowding, is a lack of efficient machinery for the detection of misrepresentations and lack of a system of district dispensary relief.

The principle of a limited area for each relief station would reduce congestion, and make investigations more feasible, because it would be less expensive than the present plan, whereby half of the time of the investigators is spent in travelling from one applicant living perhaps in the Bronx to another in Queens. Reducing the dispensation of medical relief to the sick poor only, and distributing the applicants uniformly among the dispensaries according to their facilities, we will not only make better and more thorough treatment possible, but we will be able to reach out to those patients who must be followed up in their homes in order to effect a cure. We have already made a fairly good beginning in this direction.

Last year the number of visits by dispensary physicians to the homes of patients reached 51,319 in Manhattan alone. The number of visits of dispensary nurses was 70,797. The other boroughs have thus far done very little or nothing along this line.

All these problems have been thoroughly discussed in New York, as well as in Boston, Philadelphia, Chicago, and other cities. We need now to get together and effect some form of organization to bring about a more efficient administration and cooperation. We have a splendid example of what can be done in this field in the Association of Tuberculosis Clinics of the City of New York.

Therefore, looking toward a more efficient plan of work, the New York Academy of Medicine Committee on Public Health, Hospitals, and the Budget has issued a call for a conference on the subject, to be held at the Academy, 17 West 43 street, on February 29. It is expected that a large number of dispensary presidents, directors, and managers will attend, and that the nucleus of a great and efficient organization will be formed.

JOTTINGS

ARMY CANTEENS

In early December a petition asking for the passage of House Bill Number 30 for the re-establishment of the canteen in the army of the United States was presented to Congress. It was signed exclusively by medical men, many of them prominent in the profession. The petitioners state their belief that their movement "will greatly promote temperance and efficiency in the army, reduce greatly the prevalence of venereal diseases, and protect the health and lives of the soldiers and their present or future wives and children." The petitioners seek to correct the conception of the "canteen" as a hotel "bar" where "all sorts of liquors could be had at all times, no matter whether the soldier was drunk or sober," and argue a "connection between the contraction of venereal diseases"

and the use of strong alcoholic stimulants such as may be had in the resorts usually near the army posts.

HEALTH OF BOSTON'S SCHOOL CHILDREN

Dr. William J. Gallivan, chief of the Division of Child Hygiene of the Boston Board of Health, recently completed an examination of the physical condition of Boston school children. He found 65 per cent below the normal standard of health. The examination included 42,750 children: of that number 223 had some mental deficiency; 3,562 some nasal and breathing deficiency; 9,738 hypertrophied tonsils; 19,518 defective teeth; 85 defective palates; 4,425 cervical glands; 456 pulmonary diseases; 1,129 cardiac diseases; 213 nervous diseases; 521 orthopedic defects; 3,509 skin troubles; 575 rickets; and 1,611 were affected by malnutrition—a number of the children having more than one defect.

Mayor Fitzgerald immediately announced his hope of securing an appropriation of \$50,000 for a hospital for children who have tuberculosis, and that he would ask Edward F. McSweeney, chairman of the Consumptives' Hospital trustees, to make suggestions for dealing with the large number of school children suffering from disease of one kind or another.

The conclusions are the result of a three months' investigation; and three months more will be taken in finishing the report. The Boston *Transcript* thinks that Mayor Fitzgerald's action in endeavoring to secure a children's ward to be run in connection with the Children's Hospital Board is somewhat untimely, as, aside from the children who have pulmonary complaints and those who are mentally deficient, "it does not seem to us that the number is so disproportionate as to warrant a lavish outpouring of public funds. Let us at any rate await the conclusions of the present inquiry; then we shall know exactly where we stand, and any action we may take will not be taken on the basis of semi-information and half-digested facts."

FOR WORK-A-DAY HEALTH

Industrial Hygiene, by C.-E. A. Winslow, which is Booklet No. 24 of the Health Education League, has recently appeared. In thirty-six pages it covers the general facts in regard to industrial poisons, tuberculosis in dusty trades, and some of the simple methods of prevention, as well as the elementary facts in regard to heating, ventilation, eye strain, and speeding. This excellent booklet can be obtained of the league, 8 Beacon street, Boston, at \$4.50 per hundred.

CORRECTION

By a typographical error in THE SURVEY's issue of December 16, the name of the president of the American Association for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality for the current year was given as Dr. Avery L. Wilbur. It should be Dr. Cressy L. Wilbur.

INDUSTRY

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE SITUATION AT LAWRENCE THE CONDITION OF THE NEW ENGLAND WOOLEN MILL OPERATIVE

W. J. LAUCK

FORMERLY IN CHARGE OF THE INDUSTRIAL INVESTIGATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES
IMMIGRATION COMMISSION

The labor dispute at Lawrence, Mass., affords an instructive insight into existing industrial conditions. Probably the most significant feature of the situation has been the attitude displayed by the southern and eastern European wage-earners. Strange to say, the disturbance at Lawrence has been mainly due to their protest against a curtailment by legal enactment of the weekly hours of labor, under the impression that it would lead to a decline in their weekly earnings. In other words, they have resisted an improvement in conditions of employment because of their lack of permanent interest in the industry in which they are engaged.

The Lawrence labor troubles have also been of unusual interest for the reason that the industry around which they have centered is one of the chief beneficiaries of our protective system. The argument has long been made that the woolen and worsted goods manufacturing industry needed a high tariff in order to protect its wage-earners from the products of the pauper labor of Europe. The recent development at Lawrence, however, has disclosed the fact that the so-called American wage-earner, whose standard of living, it is claimed, must be upheld by the tariff, is largely a myth, and that in reality the American woolen mill operatives are made up of "pauper workmen" of almost half-a-hundred of the immigrant races from the south and east of Europe and from Asia.

As a matter of fact, the term American wage-earner is a misnomer, and in no industrial locality is this better illustrated than in Lawrence, the principal center of our worsted goods mills. According to the last census this important textile manufacturing city had a population of 85,000, made up of the various races as follows:

The numerical importance of the Polish, Portuguese, Italian, Syrian, Armenian, and Lithuanian races, all of recent arrival in the United States, is in strong contrast to racial conditions of a generation back.

Sixty years ago Lawrence had a population of 5,249 persons. of whom about two-thirds were native Americans and one-third were Irish. The steady development of the textile industry within its borders and the constantly growing demand for labor led to its present proportions and to the medley of races represented among its inhabitants.

About 1865 there occurred a heavy immigration to Lawrence of skilled textile workers from the counties of Yorkshire and Lancashire in England. A large number of English had entered the community previous to 1865, and in the decades which have followed additional emigration from the worsted districts of England has occurred as the Lawrence worsted industry has developed. During the past few years a number of English from the counties of Yorkshire and Lancashire have immigrated to the city as in the earlier days, but the numbers reached have not been very large. French-Canadian immigration appears to have progressed more slowly than that to the more distinctively cotton towns of New England. It was in 1871 that the subject of organizing a church among them in Lawrence was first agitated. At the present time the French-Canadian population numbers about 12,000. During the industrial depression of 1907 possibly 2,000 returned to Canada or left the community for other places in the United States. Most of the people who went to Canada waited for better industrial conditions before returning to the United States, and in the meantime worked on farms. In times of indus-

ENGLISH	9,000	IRISH	21,000
FRENCH-CANADIAN	12,000	SCOTCH	2,300
POLISH	2,100	GERMAN	6,500
HEBREW	2,500	PORTUGUESE	700
SYRIAN	2,700	ITALIAN	8,000
LITHUANIAN	3,000	ARMENIAN	600
AMERICAN	12,000	FRANCO-BELGIAN	1,200
		OTHER RACES	1,400
COMPLETE TOTAL		85,000	

trial activity the seasonal immigration to Canada is not very large. The German immigration, like the English, Scotch, and French-Canadian, principally occurred during the period 1870-1895. The German-speaking population now includes certain Jews, Poles, and Russians. Next to Boston, Lawrence is probably the largest German center in New England. The Germans of the community are principally from the textile districts of Saxony, Bavaria, and Silesia. A large number of the weavers in the worsted mills are of the German race.

Polish immigrants have been numbered among the population of the city only during the past fifteen or twenty years. Of these about two-thirds are from Galicia in Austro-Hungary, nearly one-third from Russia, and about two per cent are from Posen, Germany. A small number of Portuguese were found among the population of the city soon after the close of the civil war, but it is only within the past ten years that their numbers have increased to any considerable extent. Hebrew immigration to Lawrence has also taken place mainly within the last twenty years. Many Hebrews enter the mills but sooner or later pass out into some business venture of their own. Rather more of their race than usual are found employed as mill operatives, due perhaps to the fact that a part of the Hebrew population came from cities in Russia, such as Warsaw, which are seats of the textile industry.

The Italian population of Lawrence was very small previous to 1895. Since that time the increase has been rapid, due in part to artificial stimulation by the management of one or two of the larger worsted mills. The Syrian, Armenian, Lithuanian, and French immigration to Lawrence dates from fifteen years ago. The largest numbers of these races have come during the past ten years. They are principally employed in the mills. A considerable number of stores have been established by Syrians. These are usually small grocery, fruit, or general stores. There are four Syrian farmers within the vicinity, one Syrian physician, and one dentist practicing in the city. There is a tendency on the part of the Syrians to remain permanently in this country; but, if conditions change decisively for the better in Turkey, it is probable that the current will flow in the other direction, for the soil there is more fertile, while living is cheaper. The majority of the

Syrians in Lawrence are from the Mount Lebanon district. About 60 per cent are able to speak English, some of them having received training in American schools in their own land.

The racial composition of Lawrence and the racial displacements which have occurred in the worsted and woolen mills there are typical of other woolen goods manufacturing centers in New England. This has recently been disclosed by the United States Immigration Commission and the Tariff Board.

Only about one-eighth of the woolen and worsted mill operatives at the present time are native Americans. Slightly more than three-fifths are foreign-born, chiefly recent immigrants from southern and eastern Europe. The remainder are the native-born children of parents who were born abroad. During the past twenty years the American and the British and northern European immigrants have been rapidly leaving the mills, owing to the pressure of the competition of the recent immigrant. The south Italian, Polish, and north Italian are the three principal races of southern and eastern Europe engaged in the industry, while the English, Irish, and German of the races of past immigration are represented in the largest numbers.

Of the foreign-born employes, about one-fifth of the males and two-fifths of the females have had experience in the same kind of work before coming to this country, while two-fifths of the male employes and one-third of the female have been farmers or farm laborers in their native countries. The average weekly wage of the male operatives eighteen years of age or over is only \$10.49, and of the female employes \$8.18. The average annual earnings of male heads of families employed in the industry are only \$400, and of all males eighteen years of age or over \$346. The average annual income of families is \$661. Slightly less than one-fourth of the families of the operatives derive their entire income from the earnings of husbands, while about one-sixth are supported by the earnings of husbands and the payments of boarders or lodgers, and one-eighth by the earnings of husbands and the contributions of children.

The effect of these low earnings is shown in the bad living conditions and the high degree of congestion which prevails in the households of the operatives. The immigrant house-

holds supplement the wages of the husband by taking boarders or lodgers, more than one-third having one or more boarders or lodgers. Among the households whose heads are native Americans, the average number of persons per room is 0.71 and per sleeping room 1.61, as contrasted with 1.19 per room and 3.03 per sleeping room in the households whose heads are of foreign birth. Some of the foreign-born households use all their rooms for sleeping purposes. In the latter class of households the average monthly rent payments per capita are \$1.97, as against \$3.34 in households whose heads are native Americans. The prevailing system of living among the southern and eastern Europeans is a boarding group system, and an independent form of family life is unusual. Standards are low, and from choice as well as necessity the cost of living is reduced to a basis of minimum cheapness. With such standards the native American finds it impossible to compete.

Very little political or civic interest is manifested by the southern and eastern Europeans. Only three out of every ten males eligible to citizenship have taken out naturalization papers. Sixteen out of every one hundred immigrant operatives can not read nor write in any language. Less than one-half of the wage-earners of non-English speaking races in the mills have acquired the ability to speak English. Only 4 per cent of the foreign-born employes of the mills, as contrasted with 21 per cent of the native Americans, are members of labor organizations.

Such are the conditions out of which have grown the recent disturbances in Lawrence. They are distinctly at variance with the claim that unrestricted immigration is an advantage and a protective tariff a necessity to the American wage-earner.

CHILDREN AND STREET TRADING

The new by-laws of the London County Council adopted with a view to protect the child from the danger of street-trading are digested in the *Child*, (London).

"Employment of children: No boy or girl under the age of fourteen years and liable to attend full time shall be employed (a) on days when the school is open; (1) for more than three and a half hours in any one day; (2) between eight in the morning and five in the evening; (3) before half-past six

in the morning; (4) after half-past eight in the evening. (b) On days when the school is not open: (1) for more than eight hours in any one day; (2) before half-past six in the morning; (3) after nine in the evening. No boy or girl under the age of fourteen years shall be employed to lather customers or in similar work in any barber's or hair-dresser's shop. Street trading under the age of sixteen: No girl under the age of sixteen years shall be employed in or carry on street trading. No boy under the age of sixteen years shall be employed in or carry on street trading. No boy under the age of sixteen years shall be employed in or carry on street trading before six in the morning or after nine in the evening. No boy under the age of sixteen years shall at any time be employed in or carry on street trading unless (1) he is exempt from school attendance; and (2) he first procures a badge from the L.C.C., which he shall wear, whilst engaged in street trading, on the upper part of the right arm in such a manner as to be conspicuous. The badge shall be deemed to be a license to trade, and may be withheld or withdrawn for such period as the L.C.C. think fit in any of the following cases: (a) if the boy has, after the issue of the badge to him, been convicted of any offence; (b) if it is proved to the satisfaction of the L.C.C. that the boy has used his badge for the purpose of begging or receiving alms, or for any immoral purpose, or for the purpose of imposition, or for any other improper purpose; (c) if the boy fails to notify the L.C.C. within one week of any change in his place of residence; (d) if the boy commits a breach of any of the conditions under which such badge is issued; such conditions to be stated on such badge or delivered to the boy in writing. A boy to whom a badge has been issued by the L.C.C. shall in no way alter, lend, sell, pawn, transfer, or otherwise dispose of, or wilfully deface or injure such badge, which shall remain the property of the L.C.C., and he shall, on receiving notice in writing from the L.C.C. (which may be served by post) that the badge has been withdrawn deliver up the same forthwith to the L.C.C. A boy under the age of sixteen years, whilst engaged in street trading, shall not enter any premises used for public entertainment, or licensed for the sale of intoxicating liquor for consumption on the premises, for the purpose of trading. A boy under the age of sixteen years, while engaged in street trading, shall not annoy any person by importuning. Nothing in these by-laws contained shall restrict the employment of children in the occupations specified in Section 3 (a) of the Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act, 1904, further than such employment is already restricted by statute."

THE NEED FOR A FEDERAL COMMISSION ON INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

EXTRACT FROM THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE, FEBRUARY 2, 1912

"The extraordinary growth of industry in the past two decades and its revolutionary changes have raised new and vital questions as to the relations between employers and wage earners, which have become matters of pressing public concern. These questions have been somewhat obscured by the profound changes in the relations between competing producers and producers as a class and consumers—in other words, by the changes which, among other results, have given rise to what is commonly called the trust problem. The large-scale producing characteristic of modern industry, however, involves the one set of relations no less than the other. Any interruption to the normal and peaceful relations between employer and wage earner involves public discomfort and in many cases public disaster. Such interruptions become, therefore, quite as much a matter of public concern as restraint of trade or monopoly.

"Industrial relations concern the public for a double reason. We are directly interested in the maintenance of peaceful and stable industrial conditions for the sake of our own comfort and well-being; but society is equally interested, in its sovereign civic capacity, in seeing that our institutions are effectively maintaining justice and fair dealing between any classes of citizens whose economic interests may seem to clash.

"Railway strikes on such a scale as has recently been witnessed in France and in England, a strike of coal mine workers such as we have more than once witnessed in this country, and such a wholesale relinquishing of a public service as that of the street cleaners recently in New York, illustrate the serious danger to public well-being and the inadequacy of the existing social machinery either to prevent such occurrences or to adjust them on any equitable and permanent basis after they have arisen.

"In spite of the frequency with which we are exposed to these dangers and in spite of the absence of provision for dealing with them, we continue to assume with easy-going confidence that in each new case, somehow or other, the parties to the dispute will find some solution which will be agreeable to themselves and consistent with the public interest. We all see the grave objections to strikes and lockouts, however necessary they may be in extreme cases; and we are ready to criticize the more extreme phases of the industrial conflict, such as boycotts and blacklists; but we leave the situation such that industrial disputes lead inevitably to a state of industrial war in which these are the only weapons left to the two combatants. No more clumsy or expensive method of determining the rate of wages and the hours and condi-

tions of labor could well be devised. The successful operation of the Erdman act as between interstate railroads and their employes shows how much good can be done by proper legislation.

"At the moment when the discomforts and dangers incident to industrial strife are actually felt by the public there is usually an outcry for the establishment of some tribunal for the immediate settlement of the particular dispute. But what is needed is some system, devised by patient and deliberate study in advance, that will meet these constantly occurring and clearly foreseeable emergencies—not a make-shift to tide over an existing crisis. Not during the rainstorm but in fair weather should the leaking roof be examined and repaired.

"The magnitude and complexity of modern industrial disputes have put upon some of our statutes and our present mechanism for adjusting such differences—where we can be said to have any mechanism at all—a strain they were never intended to bear and for which they are unsuited. What is urgently needed today is a re-examination of our laws bearing upon the relations of employer and employes and a careful and discriminating scrutiny of the various plans which are being tried in several of our own states and in other countries. This would seem to be the first natural step in bringing about an adjustment of these relations better suited to the newer conditions of industry.

"Numerous special investigations, official and unofficial, have revealed conditions in more than one industry which have immediately been recognized on all sides as entirely out of harmony with accepted American standards. It is probable that to a great extent the remedies for these conditions, so far as the remedies involve legislation, lie in the field of state action; but such a comprehensive inquiry as is necessary to furnish a basis for intelligent action must be undertaken on national initiative and must be nation-wide in its scope.

"In view of the results that have followed the activities of the federal government in education, in agriculture, and in other fields which do not lie primarily within the field of federal legislation, there can be no serious argument against the propriety or the wisdom of an inquiry by the federal government into the general conditions of labor in the United States, notwithstanding the fact that some of the remedies will lie with the separate states, or even entirely outside the sphere of governmental activity, in the hands of private individuals and of voluntary agencies. One legitimate object of such an official investigation and report is

to enlighten and inform public opinion, which of itself will often induce or compel the reform of unjust conditions or the abatement of unreasonable demands.

"The special investigations that have been made of recent industrial conditions, whether private or official, have been fragmentary, incomplete, and at best only partially representative or typical. Their lessons, nevertheless, are important, and until something comprehensive and adequate is available they serve a useful purpose, and they will necessarily continue to be made. But unquestionably the time is now ripe for a searching inquiry into the subject of industrial relations which shall be official, authoritative, balanced, and well rounded, such as only the federal government can successfully undertake. The present widespread interest in the subject makes this an opportune time for an investigation, which in any event can not long be postponed. It should be non-partisan, comprehensive, thorough, patient, and courageous.

"There is already available much information on certain aspects of the subject in the reports of the federal and state bureaus of labor and in other official and unofficial publications. One essential part of the proposed inquiry would naturally be to assemble, digest, and interpret this information so far as it bears upon our present industrial conditions. In addition to this the commission should inquire into the general condition of labor in our principal industries, into the existing relations between employers and employes in those industries, into the various methods which have been tried for maintaining mutually satisfactory relations between employes and employers and for avoiding or adjusting trade disputes, and into the scope, methods, and resources of federal and state bureaus of labor and the methods by which they might more adequately meet the responsibilities which, through the work of the commission above recommended, would be more clearly brought to light and defined."

WOOD-WORKING SAFEGUARDS.

Two books have now appeared in the series that the Aetna Life Insurance Company is publishing on accident prevention. The first was entitled Safeguards for the Prevention of Industrial Accidents, and was a general discussion of machinery guards. The second takes up in detail a special field, wood-working, and its descriptions and illustrations of apparatus will be of direct practical value to the managers of establishments using wood in any form. The first chapter in the book, however, goes into essentials that deserve a reading generally.

In this chapter the author says: "It is impossible to prevent all accidents, or even the greater number, by merely installing safety guards. Carefulness alone can avoid the great majority, and this can be secured only by proper organization and discipline, together

with cordial co-operation on the part of both foremen and workmen." The importance of the foreman as an essential factor in the prevention of accidents is brought out, and the writer urges that great care be exercised in the selection of foremen on this account. Under the caption, Co-operation of Workmen, the author says: "Each workman should be made to feel that he is a safety inspector, charged with the duty of seeing that everything is as safe as possible, and that suggestions coming from him on anything of a dangerous nature will be welcomed." Having the workmen serve on safety inspection committees, whose personnel is changed from time to time, is a good plan.

There is reinforcement of the child labor campaign in the stand taken by this insurance expert that, as an essential to safety in a plant, no person too young to operate machinery be employed. It is suggested that "where there are no legal restrictions regarding the employment of minors, care should certainly be taken not to employ any one under fourteen years of age, and no person under sixteen years of age should be allowed to operate any power machinery." The writer also urges ample space, good light, good ventilation, and cleanliness in the plant. All of these things, he says, contribute very directly to safety, and where they are neglected they constitute a factor which adds very materially to the danger of the plant.

This book, as well as its predecessor, is written by David Van Schaack, director of the Bureau of Inspection and Accident Prevention of the Aetna Life Insurance Company. The third book in the series will deal with safety in the manufacture of engines, machinery, machine tools, boilers, and metal goods of all descriptions.

THE HATTER'S CASE DECISION

The reversal last spring by the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, 2d District, of the decision of the District Court for Connecticut, imposing a fine of \$232,240 on the United Hatters of America for the boycott established by their officials against Loewe and Company of Danbury, has been followed by a new trial before the federal Supreme Court. The ground for the reversal last spring was that the rank and file of the union membership could not be held financially responsible for the acts of their officials. Loewe and Company brought application to the Supreme Court for a writ of certiorari to determine who were the responsible parties. On January 15, the Supreme Court denied the application for this writ, thus in effect reaffirming the decision of the lower court and setting a precedent for the determination of liability in boycott cases. If the principle established in this case is to hold good in others, it will be ineffectual to impose large fines on union officials for declaring boycotts, in so far as power to collect the fines from union treasuries goes.

SOCIAL AGENCIES

HOW NEW YORK CITY REGISTERS ITS CHILDREN

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New York, like any great city with a shifting population, is confronted with a problem of Herculean proportions in the enforcement of its compulsory education and child labor laws. These laws affect 1,200,000 children. The schools alone have reported in one year over 580,000 changes in the school population due to new admissions, transfers, and discharges.

The first requisite in the enforcement of these laws is an accurate record of children that can be used at all times for purposes of identification. In small cities and towns and in rural communities, where the population is comparatively static, an annual or biennial school census may suffice, but in the larger cities information so gathered soon loses its value unless constantly amended and brought up to date. The problem of locating children consequently becomes more difficult as the population increases in size, complexity, and mobility.

During the last two years, the state of New York has made an effort to solve this problem by establishing in each city of the first class—New York, Buffalo, and Rochester—a permanent census board, authorized to maintain by frequent enumerations a continuous registration of children between four and eighteen years of age. The school census law of 1908 provided for an initial census in all cities of the first class, to be made in October, 1909, and amended from day to day thereafter. Each permanent census board thus established consists of the mayor, the city superintendent of schools, and the city police commissioner. They are independent of the public school system and school funds and are supported by municipal appropriations. The initial house to house canvass was made by the police.

The permanent census board of New York city began work on January 1, 1910, under the direction of its present secretary, George H. Chatfield. In the two years of its existence, during which the entire city has been covered for the first time, the board has reported to

the compulsory education department the following children as illegally absent from school for the reasons specified:

Illegally detained by parents or others	6315
Truants against parents' wishes.....	1087
Boys (14-16 years old) employed without employment certificates....	3941
Girls (14-16 years old) employed without employment certificates....	2903
Graduated and left school without employment certificates	1384
Working boys not in evening school	4515
Lack of evidence of age.....	289
Immigrant, not enrolled	1973
Poverty	102
Total.....	22509

The following cases were referred for verification to the compulsory education department:

Physically ill	3724
Instructed at home.....	603
Total.....	4327

In addition, children were found to be suffering from mental and physical disorders as specified below, and were reported to the proper educational and health authorities:

Mentally ill	1117
Deaf	314
Blind	228
Crippled	969
Tubercular	810
Having contagious diseases	61
Having infantile paralysis	192
Total.....	3691

Further cases were brought to the attention of charitable societies as follows:

Families where children were apparently neglected or lacked proper guardianship	302
Families of deserted children.....	280
Total.....	582

Careful record of these 30,000 odd cases is kept, both as to the departments to which they are referred and the disposition by those departments, but the permanent census board assumes no responsibility further than reporting the facts to the proper authorities.

Nevertheless, Elizabeth Farrell, inspector of ungraded classes in the New York public schools, to whom the cases of feeble-minded and backward children have been reported, states that practically none of the 1200 cases brought to her attention would have been reached in any other way. At least 85 per cent of these children are now placed under proper care in public and private institutions. These results are especially gratifying because under the law parents can not be compelled to send such children to school and in most of these cases parents have failed to provide for their children through lack of knowledge of the means at hand for dealing with them.

Through its block summaries of child population, the board can assist greatly in solving such problems as locating school buildings, playgrounds, recreation centers, school farm gardens, libraries, etc., where the prime consideration is the number of children to be affected and the proper location of new facilities. It will continuously be able to show changes in population and forecast prospective as well as immediate needs.

A practical illustration of the value of registration for such purposes was given in June, 1911, when the permanent census board reported to the Board of Estimate on the need of twenty-five school buildings and twelve sites requested by the Board of Education, to cost \$9,067,910. Maps were prepared, showing the child population of each city block and the location of all the schools in the areas affected. By comparing the population of these areas with the existing school accommodations, the actual needs were determined with a reasonable degree of accuracy. In Brooklyn, for example, where it was proposed to replace Public School 95 by a new building to hold 1300 children, the census showed only 365 children living in the neighborhood, and little likelihood of immediate growth in population. It was therefore considered inadvisable to make an investment that would not be utilized for a long time, while other crowded sections were without necessary accommodations. In the Bronx, on the other hand, a section was found containing 5200 children without school accommodations. Although two schools of normal size were necessary for this district, the Board of Education had asked for only one, and had not located it at the center of population. The census board recommended an additional

school building and suggested more central locations for each.

In other cases too, it was found that sites for new schools were not well chosen. There was danger that some might fail to become neighborhood centers and that others might destroy the neighborhood characteristics of the schools from which they would be partly recruited. By placing these schools as nearly as possible in the centers of the population they were intended to serve most of these difficulties were eliminated.

After all the necessary factors were taken into consideration, including \$400,000 for the additional building in the Bronx, \$6,844,620, or \$2,123,290, less than the amount requested by the Board of Education, was found to be sufficient. This result was reached not by refusing funds for actual needs, but by locating the necessary buildings in such a way that they would meet community needs much better than on the sites first proposed.

The cost of conducting the permanent school census for two years, including the salaries of police enumerators, which have actually been paid through the police department, has been about \$217,000.

Despite these achievements, however, the permanent census board is not rendering as efficient service as it should. For example, it has consumed two years in taking the initial census. This is due partly to difficulties naturally involved in developing a new organization, partly to a lack of well-directed cooperation between the board and other agencies connected with or contributing information to it, and partly to defects in the law itself.

As a permanent school census is a new thing in this country, and as there were practically no precedents to follow, it was necessary to formulate a tentative plan and to modify it from time to time as certain methods were found to be unsatisfactory. Consequently, while many defects in the details of administration have been eliminated, there is room for improvement in the records, especially in the accuracy of the data obtained. The difficulty of devising a satisfactory system of records that will allow for continual changes in registration is obvious. They can only be perfected by being tried out in practice.

There is also need for adopting a uniform system of reports by the board and other

agencies contributing information to it. An improvement would be made, for example, in the present method of reporting the issuance of employment certificates, if the Department of Health would issue an employment certificate of such size that a duplicate carbon copy, made at the time of the original copy, could be sent to the permanent census board for filing, without transcribing, along with the individual census cards.

If this policy were pursued by all other agencies dealing with children, such as the department of compulsory education, medical inspection of schools, the juvenile courts, the child welfare agencies, etc., the permanent census board would, without great additional labor, become a clearing house for much important information concerning children. There is no good reason, for example, why the Department of Health should not be required to assist in amending the census by reporting births and deaths recorded in its vital statistics. This need for greater co-operation is illustrated by the fact that many of the cases of non-attendance were not investigated by the compulsory education department until nearly a year after they had been reported by the permanent census board.

One of the defects in the present law is the method prescribed for amending the census, which has been borrowed from Europe and is based on foreign customs. It requires parents and guardians to report certain information from time to time to the police station house in the precinct in which they reside. The uselessness of such a regulation in this country is shown by the fact that up to date less than 300 parents have reported the facts required by law, while the schools alone have reported in one year over 580,000 changes. Nor can the law be made to work satisfactorily by placing the responsibility for reporting changes in residence upon the owners or janitors of buildings. The only practical method is the one at present used by the board, namely, a periodical house to house canvass by the census enumerators. In sections of the city where the population is continually shifting the enumeration is to be taken perhaps once a month, while in sections where the population is more static it is to be taken only once or twice a year. The necessary extension of the present plan means an increase in cost for more enumerators. But it is the only way in which accuracy can be

secured and the whole expenditure for the work made an asset rather than a waste.

Another desirable change is to organize the permanent census board independently of the police department. While the policemen have, on the whole, proved satisfactory enumerators, there are a number of reasons why it will be better to employ men especially for this work. A serious objection to the use of the police is that they feel a divided loyalty in their responsibility to the police commissioner and the director of the census. For efficiency, the enumerators should be absolutely responsible and subordinate to the director of the census. The feeling that they are primarily policemen and secondarily enumerators tends to prevent the close attention to duty likely to characterize a body of men especially employed and specially fitted for the task. Moreover, the police commissioners have not hesitated in the past to withdraw policemen from the census work when a new policy of the police department required additional patrol men. In July, 1911, for example, when the three-platoon system was inaugurated, the force of enumerators was cut down from fifty-six to ten. Such uncertainty, both in the period of service and the number of enumerators assigned, makes it extremely difficult for the board to plan for the future. The efficiency of the work is therefore diminished, especially in amending the census, since a permanent force alone can become familiar with the local districts and thus through experience specially fitted to meet the difficulties that arise.

If the board had its own enumerators, there would be no reason why the police commissioner should continue to be a member. His appointment was intended to facilitate the introduction of the European system of police registration. But as this plan has proved unsatisfactory for the reasons above stated, it would be preferable to have the commissioner of health act in his place, or some other public or private official whose work is more intimately connected with that of the permanent census board. It might even be advisable to enlarge the board, and to appoint one or two additional members, whose influence would bring about harmony and co-operation with social and educational agencies required to contribute information for the registration of children.

Looking far into the future, however, the

greatest improvements will be brought about only as changes are made in the compulsory education, child labor, and school census laws, which will centralize in one agency the duties of taking the school census, enforcing school attendance, and issuing employment certificates, since these three functions are all steps in the process of locating children who ought to be in school and keeping them there until they are legally discharged.

To conclude, the permanent school registration in New York city has demonstrated

its usefulness, both from the economic and social point of view. The real problem is how to increase its usefulness. Since it maintains a reasonably accurate record of all the children in the city, it should, through its alphabetical, age, and geographical files, and its summary of child population by city blocks according to age, sex, school-grade or occupation, and nationality, eventually become a veritable directory and clearing house for information concerning children and a potent agency for the enforcement of the compulsory education and child labor laws.

CHILD LABOR AND EDUCATION

OWEN R. LOVEJOY

SECRETARY NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

In harmony with the policy of the National Child Labor Committee to give special emphasis to some one phase of the subject each year, the eighth annual conference just held at Louisville, Ky., was given over to Child Labor and Education. A number of prominent educators were invited from various parts of the country.¹

It was the idea of the committee to refrain from any general criticism on the educational methods now in vogue in America, permitting such criticism to come from educators. At the same time it was deemed important that it should be called to the attention of educators throughout the country that a solution of the child labor problem is impossible without substantial reformation and improvement of school methods and curricula. The frankness and optimism with which educators treated the subject was stimulating. No attempt was made to disguise the fact that educational methods appropriate 100 years ago are no longer fitted to the needs of our civilization. At the same time, the quiet revolution with which public and private schools throughout the country are lopping off obsolete customs and incorporating new branches of work give evidence that the schools are not behind in the new view of social responsibility.

At the first meeting Superintendent Holland of the Louisville schools stated:

¹These included the United States commissioner of education, P. P. Claxton; Superintendent Pearse of Milwaukee, who is also president of the National Education Association; William H. Elson, formerly superintendent of the Cleveland, O., schools; Prof. John A. Ryan of St. Paul, Minn.; Joseph D. Eggleston, state superintendent of education, Virginia; Prof. W. H. Hand, state high school inspector of South Carolina; Dr. Helen T. Woolley of Cincinnati; and Prof. John M. Gillette of the North Dakota State University.

American educators are awakening to the needs of factory boys and girls; such continuation schools for working children between fourteen and sixteen years should be established in every city, and the children should be required to attend from four to eight hours a week. To strengthen the foundations of our democracy, the working class must be reinforced by workers better trained than their fathers, intelligent, possessed of industrial skill, and not lacking in steadiness or sobriety. The old American school system is inadequate for present needs and must give way to a more modern one. We permit the exploitation of children even before adolescence in Southern mills, although we would deal summarily with anyone caught beating a child in the street; yet the results of the former treatment are worse. We must arrange a campaign of education in behalf of Southern working children, so that they may have an industrial opportunity such as is granted to the children of Germany.

Dr. Adler declared that while the needs of Southern children are great, nevertheless the problem of child labor is national in its scope, for it is an evil that pervades all parts of our country.

The importance of finding profitable occupations for children, of making it possible for them to "work instead of being worked," was almost unanimously urged. Superintendent Pearse said:

Children need training in hand work so as to develop resourcefulness. Girls should acquire the varied elementary household arts. When parents realize that the school meets the real needs of their children, then we shall keep in the schools all that class of children now anxious to get away as soon as the law allows. Children who complete the elementary schools must be given the opportunity for vocational education. Proper child labor under the guidance of wise parents is good for children, but this is so rarely found that we

have been obliged to pass laws for the protection of children from exploitation by both parents and employers. Therefore the school must teach children how to work under proper conditions, as a part of a sound and rounded education.

The fact that our schools do not at present afford such opportunity as children need to introduce them intelligently into industry was emphasized by Edith Campbell, director of the Schmidlapp Bureau for Working Women and Girls in Cincinnati, who said after study of many cases that our high schools and even our eight-grade schools, have little or no economic value today. She complained that our educational system is wrong from its foundation, that college women in industry receive smaller wages than many buyers in department stores who never graduated from a high school. She did concede that the schools offer some material advantage as a result of the educational qualification for labor which a number of states now require, and urged that our schools should face the fact that numbers of children go out today into automatic work without any real preparation for life. Alice P. Barrows, director of the Vocational Guidance Survey, New York city, confirmed the opinion of Miss Campbell and urged that there is great danger that vocational guidance "may try to guide children in vocations. Guidance and information are two different things." She argued that we cannot now give even information because we are ignorant of conditions, and urged that children are now being exploited more subtly than ever before, because fourteen years is the age of most crucial mental development, whereas the chief injury of labor to the ten-year-old child is the physical harm. As examples of imminent danger in vocational guidance she mentioned: the formation of employment bureaus which are in danger of degenerating into school agencies to find jobs for children; bureaus for giving advice about occupations; bulletins about occupations which may tend to turn the attention of children toward industry before the proper time; encouragement of short cuts in industrial education; and failure to recognize that vocational guidance is reaching down into the regular school as well as forward into regular training. She contended, however, that the possibilities of vocational guidance are far greater than its dangers, that it promises to correct the maladjustment

between the school and present social conditions by giving those in school a knowledge of conditions in which children work and live. Vocational guidance is serving its chief function, she thinks, by determining that educational forces instead of industrial forces shall care for the children; by bringing both mental and physical considerations to bear in extending the compulsory school age; and by providing that the school, through vocational guidance, shall be the arbiter between children and industry.

The value of this suggestion was emphasized by the report of Helen T. Woolley, director of a five-year study of Cincinnati working children, who referred to Ohio's new certificate laws and continuation schools for working children as affording a channel through which data concerning working children can be gathered. A comparative study extending over five years is being made of a large group of children in industry and another of the same age in school. It is believed that the result of this study will have a tremendous bearing upon the problem of vocational guidance by furnishing information not yet available as to the advantages and disadvantages of different employments for children. The writer expressed his belief that the chief value of vocational guidance and industrial training in our schools will be a by-product, *i. e.*, that such vital elements will so enrich the school curriculum that children will want to stay in school instead of wanting to get out. He urged that the wide-spread criticism upon the school is unfair and that even if children were trained for vocations it would not follow that all children could be profitably employed. On the other hand probably 75 per cent of the occupations for children in any industrial community are unfit for children under any condition. The industries need training quite as much as the children, and if the American school system can so adapt its activities as to win the loyal support of parents and children and thus add approximately two years to the average school life it will have rendered the highest possible service, not only in the education of children, but in the elimination of this subnormal element from our industrial currency. A leading educator backed up this opinion by urging that society is to blame for present conditions and must eliminate, through better wages, and proper maintenance of the home from state aid, if

necessary, many of the causes now responsible for children leaving school and going to work.

There was no difference of opinion as to the inhumanity of evening schools for working children. To force upon a child with inadequate education two hours of school, at the close of a twelve- or ten- or even eight-hour work-day, was branded as brutality unworthy our civilization.

Federal Aid to Education was the topic of the annual address of the chairman, Dr. Felix Adler, and was discussed also by Dr. Samuel McCune Lindsay, vice-chairman of the committee. Dr. Adler said in part:

If it is the object of our nation to build up American civilization, then it is its concern to educate and train every child. There is nothing so educative as the responsibility of each state to educate its own children; hence it is wise for the states to be charged with this duty. But if any state is incapable of performing this duty, then the nation must aid it. The United States census of 1910 shows that there are more than six million illiterate persons in our country. We cannot expect the South unaided to fulfill this duty of education, because of its heavy burdens and lack of means. We must spend more than ever before for education, so as to give the children the benefit of special training, such as industrial and agricultural education. Can we not love our schools as Germany loves its army and navy, by supporting them with hundreds of millions of dollars?

Dr. Lindsay pointed to the fact that our public school system in America is not equally distributed to those who need it, because while the larger part of the funds is raised through local taxation the system militates against the interest of the child in the poorer section. In the United States only about 3 per cent of school funds is from state sources, in England more than 62 per cent. He urged that the federal government should do its share toward the support of the common school and that its share is ten times greater than the amount now contributed, and said:

The constitution of the United States provides specifically for the common welfare, and as education is certainly for the common welfare there should be established in this country a national board of education, having administrative control of the funds provided for the schools, and which would stimulate the progress of education in this country as no other one agency could possibly do.

In line with this suggestion for more aid to education, Prof. W. H. Hand, high school

inspector of South Carolina, presented tables of illiteracy taken from official sources which showed that over 300,700 native white males of voting age in the Southern states are illiterate. This is 12.2 per cent of the total number. As to the need for compulsory education in the South he said:

The South could once boast of an aristocracy capable, broad-minded, and highly trained—in the language of Henry W. Grady, “almost feudal in its grandeur.” The conditions conducive to such a society have been swept away, and the South today is pre-eminently the land where training and fitness of the masses are indispensable.

He called attention to the fact that although the ablest and safest leaders of the South have been tireless in their efforts for the past twenty years to get the children into schools, more than 25 per cent of the native white children between the ages of ten and fourteen are in no school at all.

He declared that the poor child is the very one who most needs the aid of the state to bring him into possession of his own.

Mrs. Florence Kelley, secretary of the National Consumers' League, urged part-time compulsory schooling for all minors above sixteen years, and one of the speakers said that in his view the public school should be so adapted to public needs that it would release its hold on the American citizen only when the undertaker gets him. He suggested as an important measure that evening schools for minors between seventeen and twenty-one years should be provided, to give them training at least in civics and hygiene, two or three evenings a week.

One of the most important topics of discussion was the need for minimum wage boards. Dr. John A. Ryan, of St. Paul, Minn., said that although in his judgment there would soon be a universal eight-hour work-day for women, and a sixteen-year age limit for the employment of children,

the raising of wages is a more difficult problem, as no beginning has been made. Legislation is the one remedy. The state should provide boards to fix minimum wages, as in Australia, for men, women, and children.

He declared that there was nothing unreasonable in the demand, and his suggestions were reinforced by Mrs. Kelley and Mrs. Trumbull.

Mrs. Trumbull, secretary of the Child Labor Commission of Oregon, said:

The next reform in Oregon will be the establishment of minimum wage boards, by means of the initiative, if the legislature does not provide them.

She protested against the segregation of children into separate classes, in any development of practical training in schools, as tending toward class distinction.

Although the program was so largely devoted to a discussion of the educational phase of the child labor problem, no session passed without specific references to the evils of child labor in various industries. The abuse of child labor at night in glass factories; the employment of little children in fruit, vegetable, and sea-food canneries in the eastern and gulf coast states; the problems of the night messenger service, and the regulation of street trades were given due consideration. Reference was also made to the rapid growth of tenement manufacturing industries, and the impossibility of safeguarding the health or education of children so long as they can be exploited under their parents' direction at home. The opinion was expressed by a number of factory inspectors that the national committee and its allies have been over-critical of officials and more sympathetic co-operation was urged. The attention of these officials was called to the fact that in every legislative campaign the national committee has emphasized the importance of increased appropriations, and has protested against having laws put on the statute books without providing the officials with adequate means for their enforcement.

In an address on the Social Cost of Child Labor John P. Frey, editor of the *Molders' Journal*, of Cincinnati, complained of the lack of statistics in this country to show such cost. He warned the people of this country against a repetition of that economic error seen in Great Britain—the continuance of succeeding generations in certain factory industries. He expressed the opinion that

were it not for such organizations as the National Child Labor Committee, and the influence and force of organized labor to protect children, we should doubtless find ourselves in worse condition than that England has experienced.

Referring to the attitude of certain sections of the country, he read a document published in 1898 from one of the states which has been attempting since then to improve its child labor laws, but was at that time apparently

more eager to promote its industries. The circular read:

No strikes; no laws regulating the hours of employment and the age of employes; cheap labor; and the home of the cotton plant.

On the principle of first aid to the injured Congressman Andrew J. Peters appealed for the passage of the Children's Bureau Bill then pending in Congress and argued that such a bureau should collect those facts which have a bearing upon the health, efficiency, and character of the future citizens and rulers of the country. Resolutions favoring the bill, which was passed by the Senate two days later,¹ were adopted at a crowded mass meeting.

The closing address of the conference was delivered by United States Commissioner of Education P. P. Claxton, who expressed the heartiest sympathy with efforts to relieve children from grinding labor. Approaching the subject from the educator's point of view, he urged practical steps in the revision of the school curriculum which should both enrich and lengthen the period of education. He argued that if some plan could be devised by which, without exploitation, children might contribute to the material welfare of the family at the same time that they were being industrially educated, both their lives and the interests of the community would be enriched. As a specific suggestion he proposed the scheme of agricultural education in mill villages, which should continue through the year, giving especial attention to the raising of garden stuffs during the summer months under the immediate supervision of the public school teacher. He urged that the policy of mill agents who go through the rural communities and mountain homes offering cash wages to those who, while living in simple comfort on the mountain sides, probably never had \$50 in their lives, was a powerful incentive. After these families reach the mill villages they soon awaken to the fact that rent, grocery bills, increased cost for clothing, and other items of expense more than offset the difference in wages and lay upon them an ever-increasing burden of poverty. It is not unnatural therefore that these families in desperation are eager to exploit their little ones to save the family from disintegration. He stated his belief that a solution of this problem in most cotton mill towns could be found by putting into the schools teachers-

¹ See *THE SURVEY* for last week, page 1723.

who know city and town agriculture; who know how to cultivate soil in the best way; who know how to inspire confidence; and who work as fathers would work with their own children and make the out-door garden life a part of the educational scheme. Dr. Claxton was able to mention two or three places in which something of this kind is being tried out, and although he acknowledged that the plan would probably not work in metropolitan centers like New York, the principle might be in some way applied as a relief of the home-working and street-trading abuses that prevail in large cities.

The national conference passed resolutions endorsing the proposed uniform child labor law recently adopted by the commissioners of the American Bar Association, and expressed appreciation of the cordial hospitality accorded by Louisville, and the addresses given by Ex-Governor Wilson, the lieutenant-governor, and Lafon Allen, chairman of the Kentucky Child Labor Association, who said of the effect of the meeting on the people of Kentucky:

Whatever good seed is sowed in our ground comes up, enjoys the light, and gets to ripeness in due time, and so you have planted good fruit and may be sure you have not wasted your visit.

The writer presented a summarized report of the work of the committee during the past year, showing, as one item of progress, better laws passed in thirtystates in 1911.

The conference was closed by a brief address from the national chairman, Dr. Felix Adler, who referred to European criticisms upon our American democracy and especially upon its failure properly to educate its people and said in closing the meeting:

We do not feel that they are right. We do not feel that democracy has failed. We know we are going to do better, but we want your help. We want you to feel how serious the problem is and hope that we have left some stimulating influence with you. Our work concerns not only the children and the future, but concerns the good name, the honor, the fair fame, the decent reputation of the country to which we belong and to which we are devoted.

AID FOR JEWISH WOMEN IN AMERICA

A Russian girl of thirteen, who had been in America a year and a half, accidentally dropped her baby sister and thought it was killed. The shock to her nerves was quickly followed by violent insanity. Her father, employed in a large packing-house where he earned from twelve to fifteen dollars a week, and who had a wife and six children dependent upon him, was unable to maintain his daughter in a private sanitarium. The doctors certified that the girl went insane from causes in existence prior to her landing. This meant deportation. In Russia there was no one to look after her except an old grandfather. But Russian law would send the child back to the community where she was born, and the grandfather lived in another town. Would it have been just or humane to send her back? Who was to answer that question?

During the past three years the Council of Jewish Women, through its Committee on Immigrant Aid, has given help and advice to 36,933 girls, according to a recent report of the committee. Twenty-nine thousand of these were aided at the ports; the others after landing, many of them in inland cities. Before the immigrant girl leaves Europe, at

Hamburg, Bremen, Berlin, Libau, Antwerp, Brussels, London, Southampton, Liverpool, or Havre, where nearly all American-bound Jewish women take ship, she is given a leaflet printed in Yiddish, English, and German. Recently Jewish immigrants have been sailing from Italian ports, and efforts are now being made to secure at these places connections similar to those established at the ports named. This leaflet explains that wherever the traveller lands in this country she will find a woman to greet her and to give her friendly help and information. On the leaflet is a warning against strangers who volunteer assistance. With the permission of the United States government, the Council of Jewish Women copies from the manifest sheets the name and destination of each incoming Jewish girl between fourteen and thirty-five years of age travelling alone. This information is sent to correspondents in 300 cities, who visit these girls to learn their surroundings, to offer help towards Americanization, and to interpret, little by little, institutions like the public school and the social settlement. At the four Port Cities each case of detention or exclusion is investigated, and if, in the opinion of

the agent, the exclusion is unwarranted, data are prepared from which an appeal may be made either by the council itself, or, as in New York, through the Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society.

Throughout this plan of work the general aim is that of first help to the immigrant: welcoming the immigrant girl, seeing that she has reached the home to which she is bound, guarding her against wrong, assisting her to secure work, providing her with wholesome amusement, placing her in touch with Americanizing agencies, etc. To do this the council has created a chain of connections beginning in the foreign ports from which the girl comes, extending through ports of entry here, and ending in communities where final abode is taken up—a lengthening chain already numbering over 300 cities as links.

It is in just such cases as that of the Russian girl who dropped her sister and went insane that machinery of this kind finds its opportunity for service. This particular case involved correspondence lasting eight months and totalling sixty letters, six telegrams, and forty telephone calls.

These are some of the facts made known at the recent Triennial Conference of the Council of Jewish Women in Philadelphia. Interesting also was the report of the Committee on Purity of the Press, which seeks to put a stop to the publication of indecent, sensational, and otherwise objectionable news; to suppress offensive advertisements; to prevent use by newspapers of names and pictures of juvenile delinquents; to improve the comic supplement. Thirty-one cities actively at work reported progress. An educational campaign outlined will include an investigation to determine whether tales of suicide and crime in the newspapers have any tendency to excite readers to similar conduct.

Originating in the Congress of Jewish Women at the World's Fair in Chicago, 1893, the Council of Jewish Women is now active in twenty-four states and in Canada. Ten committees carry on its work: the two mentioned, and those on Religion, Religious Schools, Education, Peace and Arbitration, Reciprocity, Council of Jewish Juniors, the Blind, and Philanthropy.

As result of a conference on sex hygiene, held in connection with the Philadelphia triennial, classes in this subject have been organized in Philadelphia and lectures and conferences arranged in other cities. The Commit-

tee on the Blind has made a census of Jewish blind in a number of cities. In Pittsburgh and Cincinnati permanent associations for all the blind, Jew and non-Jew, have been established through the efforts of the council. This committee has prepared a Hand-book for Friendly Visitors to the Blind, which Lady Campbell of the Norwood, England, School for Blind has highly praised. The methods pursued are as follows:

(a) Conservation of Eyesight: examination of eyes by specialist; treatment, care, operation, instruction to mothers and midwives; special leaflets and talks.

(b) Economic Position: markets for work; trade training; money loaned for business.

(c) General Health: digestion; torpidity of organs; teeth carefully looked after; aid and exercise; taken for walks; outings provided.

(d) Education: sick children taught at home; parents persuaded to place children in school-coach; assistance to school and college students; post-graduate teaching.

(e) Mental Tone Raised: concerts given; guides furnished; special entertainments for children; reading aloud daily papers, stories; Tickets for theater, concerts, lectures; Special holiday and birthday celebrations; excursions; shopping; games.

(f) General: transfers from almshouse to homes; securing legislation; co-operation with health boards, schools, institutions, guides.

The Committee on Philanthropies conducts 105 agencies in various cities with 1037 volunteer and fifty-two paid workers. It has expended over a quarter of a million dollars in three years. Its work, not of an alms-giving nature, includes such preventive efforts as hospital social service, caring for those discharged from correctional institutions, clubs and recreations, employment agencies, visiting housekeepers, juvenile court aid, dances for working girls, etc. The Committee on Education "seeks to bring about co-operation between public schools and parents, and stimulate the satisfaction of special needs for weak and defective children." It has secured in several cities medical inspection of schools, school lunch rooms, classes for immigrants and immigrant mothers, classes for defectives, kindergartens, co-operation with the public school authorities in establishing industrial training and in caring for delinquent children, etc.

Motion pictures of Exodus were given at the Philadelphia meeting as an object lesson in this method of teaching the Bible. Hope was expressed that this plan, already in use by the New York section of the Committee

on Religious Schools, would be adopted by others and extended to non-Jewish children. The aim of the Committee on Religion is to stimulate the study of Judaism, Jewish history, and other matters of Jewish interest; that of the Committee on Religious Schools is to make its members understand the needs of their own children for religious education as a basis for a real social service.

Report was made at Philadelphia on the investigation of conditions of 300 patients discharged from sanatoria, a study which eminent physicians have pronounced of "material value." "The point which seems to us to stand out more clearly than ever," writes Health Commissioner Lederle of New York, after studying the results of the investigation, "is the need for work among these tuberculosis patients after they have returned to their homes." Of similar opinion is Sadie American, executive secretary of the council:

The next step in the care of discharged patients is the appointment of social workers who shall take up with discharged patients the subject of occupation, who shall make it possible for them to change their occupations or to learn a new trade, who shall convince employers of the need and the necessity to provide for it, who shall see to it that families do not live in such quarters as to sacrifice the good that the patient has received, or to sacrifice themselves; in short, who shall see to it that the capital invested in health, in money, in prevention, shall not all be lost because at the critical moment the right help is not there, who shall prevent the sliding back into the slough of disease and despond of those who otherwise might climb to the heights of health and become once more useful to themselves and to others.

The Council of Jewish Women states its purpose as follows:

To further united efforts in behalf of Judaism by supplying means of study; by an organic union to bring about closer relations among Jewish women; to furnish a medium of interchange of thought and a means of communication and of prosecuting work of common interest; to further united efforts in work of social betterment through religion, philanthropy, and education.

COMMUNICATIONS

AN UNMET RESPONSIBILITY

TO THE EDITOR:

May I suggest that the strike of the Lawrence textile workers affords an excellent opportunity to would-be social reformers and friends of labor in general to make good, so

far as possible, their professions? The cause of the strike is clear and admits of no dispute. Immediately following the passage of the Massachusetts fifty-four-hour law for women the mill owners made preparations to cut the wages of all their employes to make up, as they alleged, for the loss of labor time imposed by law. The question does not arise as to whether the employers were just or unjust; nor does the other question arise as to whether the strike is conducted in such a way as to please the conservative-minded. For the social reformers of Massachusetts this is no time for weighing the ethics of other people's acts; their own ethical responsibility stares them in the face. I believe that there can be no disputing the statement that those well-intentioned persons who, without consulting the unorganized mill workers as to its probable effect, handed out to them legislation providing a shortened working week meant this reform to do them no financial damage. When the workers, acting through their trade organizations, demand shortened hours they incorporate in their demands a clause providing for no diminution of pay and they have a well-filled union treasury to support their demand. This the trades unionists who stood behind the fifty-four hour bill knew; and they and the reformers knew too that the majority of the workers to be affected by the bill have no such treasury to depend upon. I therefore put it straight up to the prosperous membership of the reform bodies of Massachusetts—of the consumers' leagues, the associations for labor legislation, and all other philanthropic persons who stand for a shortened working week—whether they are not bound to make their law really effective by giving generous financial support to this strike against a cut in wages. They cannot shift this direct responsibility, and, if any plead poverty, the poverty of the working-class comrades of the strikers who are now giving beyond—far beyond—their means will give them the lie.

F. S. BOYD.

New York.

SATURDAYS, NOT MONDAYS

TO THE EDITOR:

The holiday calendar is one that is having the attention of far-sighted merchants. We can all work better if we have the right amount of play properly distributed through the year. And what is true of employer is likewise true of employe.

But the suggestion that the holiday calendar be arbitrarily made over so that holidays shall fall on certain days in certain months, without regard to the inspiration of historic truth, is one that ought to be rejected.

There is a most commendable humanitarian reason underlying the suggestion, *viz.*, that having all holidays on Mondays would result in two to two and one-half days off when holidays occur. But it is more important that we shall do nothing to undermine the patriotic traditions and impulses of the country, which

changing dates around for business reasons is very apt to do. True, there is doubt as to the historic accuracy of certain holidays. But custom has now fixed them in the minds and hearts of several generations. Don't disturb these—just because doing so may help business.

Considering the suggestion in its selfish respect, no one day of the week could be selected, doubtless, that would be acceptable to all. What some interests would be glad to have others would oppose.

As Saturday generally has come to mean, for the most part, a relatively inefficient half-day, why not make all Saturdays in July and August full holidays—and let the historic holidays alone?

Boston, Mass.

A. LINCOLN FILENE.

THE SCHOOLMAN'S POINT OF VIEW

TO THE EDITOR:

The editorial on a new calendar of holidays proposes a change which will confer great benefit not only on the laborers in the industrial field but on another group, represented in schools, colleges, and universities—teachers, students, and parents. All the reasons given for the change apply with even greater force when one considers the peculiar effects on a student body of the mid-week holiday. If the work of the mature laborer is affected both on the day before and the day after a holiday, how much more is the young child, the boy, or the young man influenced by the thought of the joy to come and by reflection on the joy that is past! A mid-week holiday means the loss of approximately a week for the student, for his week is only five days in length. Furthermore, the matter is of especial importance to schools, as the school year in America is so short. This short year of about thirty-five weeks is broken into by holidays in October, November, December, and January, by two holidays in February, by Good Friday, and by Memorial Day in May.

We celebrate not the birth of our great men but their accomplishments. Surely it is as appropriate to celebrate the work of Lincoln on a Monday as on a Wednesday. By all means let us start a campaign for a change which will mean such a saving of time and energy, and will make really worth while these interruptions to the tedium of the life of the toiler.

VIRGIL PRETTYMAN.

[Principal Horace Mann School, Teachers' College, New York.]

ON MONDAY HOLIDAYS¹

TO THE EDITOR:

The happy chance which has given us so many double holidays in recent years has

¹It was at Thanksgiving time that Mr. Wevill first brought his plan of a revised holiday calendar to the attention of THE SURVEY. The February holidays seemed to offer the most appropriate setting for putting it before the public for discussion. In the interval Mr. Wittington's letter has reached us, quite spontaneously, making a similar suggestion from an entirely different quarter.

been welcomed by almost everyone. The advantages of having our holidays permanently fixed on the second day of the week are obvious. They were seen by those who determined that Labor Day—the day dedicated to the laboring man—should fall on Monday. In England, the place of Labor Day is filled by the Bank Holidays, which also fall on Monday.

If every holiday were placed on the second day in the week, the employer, as well as the employe, would benefit. The working week would not be divided into two halves—one of expectation and the other of recuperation: on the contrary, the workman, having had all his holiday in one dose, comes back to work refreshed by the longer period of rest, to do better work in the shorter week that remains. Young men who do not work too far from home could get back to their families for two days where they could not for one; or—in the case of those fortunate men who have Saturday afternoons free—the two days and a half would prove a real vacation. Some could get away into the country: all would come back to work refreshed by the real interruption of the daily grind.

If our holidays were made to fall on Monday, the "sane Fourth" movement—which has received such an impetus of late, because Independence Day has been a double holiday since 1909—would be strengthened. Instead of loafing about the city, throwing cannon-crackers at passers-by, our children would have a chance to get out into the country—to go for a two days' tramping trip, perhaps. Those families of which members have been killed or maimed by our terrible method of showing frothy "patriotism" that is not real love of country should be ready converts to this plan. To foster a fieldsome spirit is to stop the waste of money, the wreck of property, and the loss of life which our modern celebration—defying common sense—entails.

Were Thanksgiving Day changed from Thursday to Monday, more people would have a chance to get home; family ties would be strengthened, and the sacred character of the day—now forgotten by many who over-emphasize the culinary celebration—could be observed on the day before, "Thanksgiving Sunday." This would also be true of Memorial Day—another holiday that has its sacred side: the churches could recognize this on Sunday, while the Monday could be given up entirely to the secular activities which so many people deplore, saying they change the character of the holidays.

Besides Labor Day and Thanksgiving, we have another "movable feast"—Easter. There is no reason why Christmas could not also be made movable, for the birth of Christ was hypothetically fixed on December 25. It could very well be changed to the last Sunday (and Monday) of December; in England December 26 is recognized as a holiday; and the fact that our Christmas would not coincide with that of the rest of

the world—until they took the same step we had taken—is of no importance: Russia's Christmas comes a fortnight after everybody else's, as it is.

Thanksgiving should then, be changed from the last Thursday to the last Monday in November: with Memorial Day established on the last Monday in May, Washington's Birthday on the third Monday in February, Patriot's Day on the last Monday in April, Independence Day on the first Monday in July, Labor Day as it is now, Columbus Day on the second Monday in October, and a double holiday for Christmas at the end of December, we should get a series of holidays that would prove little vacations to many hard-worked and hard-working people.

Our law-makers may be made to see that such an arrangement will bring a great deal of good to a great many people. We must not be tied to definite dates like February 22, July 4, May 30, or October 12, when we are celebrating the spirit of those days—what they stand for—rather than the days themselves. Habit is a bad thing when it stands in the way of common sense: we Americans have little use for the man who does a certain thing because he has always done it, even in the face of one who comes to show him a better way. Let us, then, take this plan to those in authority, both in church and state, and ask them to act in the matter.

Boston, Mass. ROBERT WITHINGTON.

JOTTINGS

LECTURES ON WORK WITH BOYS

Boys' Clubs and How to Manage Them, and How to Develop and Maintain Leadership, are the subjects of two lectures to be given by John R. Boardman in the interest of Scout masters, teachers, and other leaders of boys, February 20 and 27, respectively, in the auditorium of De Witt Clinton High School, Tenth avenue and Fifty-ninth street, New York. These are the concluding lectures in a course of four given Tuesdays during February by the Department of Education of New York, in cooperation with the New York and Brooklyn Councils of the Boy Scouts of America.

THE FREE CIRCULATING LIBRARY

The second in a series of monthly conferences extending from January to April, under the auspices of the Charity Organization Society of New York, will be held at 11 o'clock on the morning of February 20 in the assembly room of the United Charities Building. J. Frederic Kernochan will discuss the Wonderful History of the New York Free Circulating Library, Annie Carroll Moore, supervisor of work with children in the public library, will tell about the Children's Department, and Anna C. Tyler, also connected with the public library, will tell a story.

JANUARY 13 ISSUE WANTED

UNEXPECTED demand has exhausted the files of THE SURVEY for January 13, 1912. Subscribers who do not save their copies for binding are urged to return this issue for the benefit of new subscribers and of libraries. Send it to THE SURVEY, 105 East 22d street, New York.

The index for Volume 26 (April to September, 1911) is now ready for mailing. It is regularly mailed to libraries only. Copies will be sent to other subscribers on request.

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PRISON LABOR

You are interested in this country-wide problem. The American Prison Association and the National Conference of Charities and Correction have the subject prominently on the program for 1912.

The Review for February, just out, has special articles as follows:

The State Account System of Prison Labor, by Henry Woller, Warden Minnesota State Penitentiary.

Prison Labor, by Dr. E. Stagg Whitin, General Secretary, National Committee on Prison Labor.

Baltimore's Prisons, by Joseph N. Ulman, President Maryland Prison Association.

New York's State Prisons. (Report of Investigating Commission).

Other special articles on Prison Labor have appeared in November, December and January numbers.

The Review is published monthly by the National Prisoners' Aid Association. O. F. Lewis, 135 East 15th Street, New York, editor.

Dr. Hastings H. Hart has written:

"I had occasion recently to write the history of the social work during the past year. In so doing I went through a year's files of three periodicals. I found in the Review a clear account of almost everything that had been accomplished in legislation and administration along the lines of Prison Reform, presented briefly and with discrimination."

The special features of the March number will be a **Symposium on Capital Punishment**, and the letters to The Review of a number of **Governors on their plans for Prison Reform**.

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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

THE ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION

We trust that the revival of discussion in the press of the pending charter of the Rockefeller Foundation means that those who are in charge of the measure in Congress are finding the conditions favorable for final action. We see no reason for further delay. Over a year ago, in discussing the amendments which were then adopted, we expressed the opinion that the charter should be granted.¹ There is no occasion to repeat the arguments against a self-perpetuating board of incorporators, against the possible accumulation of income in the hands of trustees, and against the principle of perpetual endowment. All of these principles, which were in the proposed charter in its original form, and which are in the charters of many excellent institutions, have been either abandoned outright by the amended bill, or so modified as to be free from serious objection. Trustees, under the pending bill, are to choose their successors, but the choice in each case must be submitted to certain high government officials and university presidents and it becomes void if a majority of these outside, independent, and highly qualified electors disapprove. Income cannot be accumulated or added to the principal but must be currently applied to the purposes for which the corporation is created. After fifty years the trustees may distribute the principal of any particular endowment, and after one hundred years the trustees must make such distribution if directed to do so by the Congress of the United States.

These amendments are important as precedents and as a formal recognition of sound principles of philanthropic endowment and public control. They make it easier for the public to know what policies are governing the trustees, and they make it easier for the public to interfere if there should be occasion. We have no desire, however, to magnify the importance of the changes made in the bill, or to fix attention exclusively on the possibilities of abuse of power inherent in any institution which has at its command such resources as are suggested by the clause limiting the total property of the institution to one hundred million dollars. After due attention has been given to the safeguards against abuse it is altogether natural and proper to revert to the need for just such foundations and to the immense good which they may accomplish. The Rockefeller Foundation is to devote its resources to the acquisition and dissemination of knowledge; to the prevention of suffering and to the promotion of any or all of the elements of human progress. It is to be assumed that this great educational, philanthropic, and civilizing institution will be guided with an eye single to these great purposes. To refuse legal sanction to such an undertaking would be a national blunder. The greater our confidence in the intelligence and in the capacity of the democracy the more heartily will we welcome such voluntary socializing of wealth. Let the state do its utmost to provide for education and the relief of distress, there will still be ample room for all that a hundred million dollar endowment can do in fields which are not ready or which never will be

¹THE SURVEY, January 14, 1911.

appropriate for state action. A dozen institutions with equal resources, each doing its self-appointed work in co-operation with one another and with less amply endowed agencies, could find legitimate place in the forward movement of human progress and civilization. They will not kill private initiative or any desirable public activity, but will rather promote both. The general effect of the large endowments recently created has been to stimulate and encourage the efforts of those who are working to the same ends both in public and in private. The General Education Board and the Carnegie Foundation for the advancement of teaching have enormously strengthened the better tendencies in higher education. The Russell Sage Foundation has had a similar effect in its sphere.

To be afraid of large gifts like these would be to confess civic incompetence. If in some respects courts and legislatures do not now fully protect the public interests and reflect the deliberate public will, this is becoming less and less the case. If we cannot count confidently on the ultimate integrity and good faith of our judges and lawmakers, then there may be some excuse for stubbornly opposing the creation of great institutions of learning and of social reform; for such institutions cannot be carried on without great financial resources; and the possession of great resources implies always the possibility of turning them against the public interest. But if we do have full confidence in our political institutions, in our power to inflict condign punishment on faithless officials, in our ability to modify by peaceful and lawful means the customs which we have inherited as new needs and conditions arise, in the ultimate soundness and efficacy of the government to which we have entrusted the protection of the public interests, then we may look with appreciation and equanimity on the planting of new institutions which are avowedly consecrated to education, philanthropy, and social reform. Such institutions are needed now and they will be needed to-morrow. Recognizing that they may not be needed forever, the sponsors for the Rockefeller Foundation say in effect: After fifty years we may and after a hundred years we must, if your representatives then so direct us, lay down our task and distribute even our principal funds. Each generation should decide, and will more or less definitely decide for itself, what its needs are, and to what purposes the surplus resources at its command shall be directed. For this reason wise and generous philanthropists are increasingly leaving to their trustees a very broad discretion as to the manner in which and even as to the purposes to which their gifts shall be applied.

The pending charter of the Rockefeller Foundation gives the most complete and explicit expression to this idea. Benjamin Franklin, perhaps the shrewdest and most far-sighted man of his generation, left legacies to his native city of Boston and his adopted city of Philadelphia which lay unused for years because he innocently imposed impracticable conditions on the executors of his will. No such difficulties will arise in this instance: first, because of the broad terms in which the scope of the foundation is defined; and second, because in case this scope is found to be broader than is consistent with public interest, the Congress of the United States may at any time impose such limitations upon the objects of the corporation as it may deem the public interest demands.

THE COMMON WELFARE

CHILDREN OF A STRIKE

By the second week in February the Lawrence strikers had received contributions to the amount of about \$12,000, two-fifths from Socialists, two-fifths from individual trade unions, and the remaining fifth from sympathizers in other walks of life. Eighteen commissaries were established for families, the largest being at the co-operative store carried on by the Franco-Belgian group of strikers. In addition, individual meals have been supplied in soup kitchens, on some days to the number of 1,600.

But though the strikers were proving themselves expert in making a little go a long way, the problem of providing for 20,000 people with their children was a staggering one. Italian Socialists in New York broached the idea of taking care of the children in the families of outside working people, after a method which has been employed in Italian, French, and Belgian strikes. The *New York Call* (Socialist) gave publicity to the proposition, and within three days received well up to four hundred letters from people who offered to take one or more children. At the New York end, the Lawrence Strike Committee of the Industrial Workers of the World and the Socialist Women's Committee investigated the homes of the letter writers; at Lawrence, like committees took in applications for temporary homes, bought outfits for children, and had them examined by a physician. Four women, two of them trained nurses, made the trip with them to New York, February 11. Two hundred and fifty were expected, but some parents dreaded the risk of the trip for their little ones, and only a hundred and twenty set out. They ranged in age from five to fifteen years.

The train arrived in New York at seven o'clock in the evening, after a delay of four hours on the road. For this four hours, the Grand Central station was crowded with working people,

Italians, Jews, Germans, and Americans. At six o'clock the numbers were swelled by others on the way from work. The coming of the children was singularly impressive. The crowd pressed up to the hand railing and someone in the group started the Marseillaise. It spread in many languages, and then the International was caught up by the voices. The children marched down the platform, four in a row, holding hands, all dressed much alike in their new cloaks and caps. First there was silence, then a curious emotional wave passed through the crowd. Some interpreted it afterward as a sense of the preciousness of youth, quite out of keeping with the hard facts of experience which had gone into the lives of these children, some of whom were not only children of strikers but strikers themselves. To the workers who met them they were not merely hands in the mill.

The silence was followed by a steady roar of cheers, and to its accompaniment the children were led to the elevated station, a black-draped red flag in front of them. The special detail of police called out in evident expectation of trouble found that they had nothing more serious to do than to keep a free pathway for the children, which they did efficiently and good-naturedly.

Another crowd awaited them in the Labor Temple. It turned out that many had come to offer a home to any child who might be "left over." There was no one left over, and at the headquarters of the committee it is stated that there are still some thousand homes of working people eager to receive one or more of the strikers' children.

FOSTER HOMES INVESTIGATED

Most of the hundred and twenty went to such homes. The Polish groups were accompanied by a woman of their own nationality, who visited the children in their temporary homes before she returned to Lawrence

to report verbally to their parents, and the same method has been used with the other national groups. The children are visited regularly by four women of the strike committee, and the parents are kept informed by reports sent to the strikers' headquarters at Lawrence and by letters sent home by the children themselves. A hundred more children were brought to New York last week and plans were set on foot to take two hundred to Philadelphia. Thirty-one of the children have been taken by the Italian Silk Weavers' Union of Hoboken, who voted to meet the expense of their support out of the profits of the union co-operative store. None have thus far been taken to Boston, where the *Boston American* has been waging a campaign against the plan. Letters have been received, however, from the neighboring textile towns which, from the standpoint of caring for the children, would be given preference by the strikers' committee over New York or Philadelphia.

The movement to take the children away from the seat of conflict, thus easing the strain on the strikers' funds and providing for them better than empty pay envelopes and a meagre commissary can do, has been sharply criticised. It has been denounced as a trying and hazardous experience to put the children to, and as rankly exploiting them for the benefit of their elders. John Golden of the United Textile Workers criticised the plan as a labor leader, and Colonel Sweetser has issued an order that no children shall be removed without written assent of their parents. Impartial investigation has not been made of the homes of the temporary "foster-parents." The indications seemed to be that so far as physical care and personal interest go rather remarkable standards characterized this "emergent placing-out work." If this proves the case judgment as to the plan hinges on the clear-cut issue as to whether an industrial conflict justifies such a wholesale separation of children from their parents and their transfer to strangers in a distant city. As a strike measure, the care of the chil-

dren has offered an outlet for the quick sympathies of working people in other centers, and gives them a direct human link with the cause of the strikers.

MASS AND CRAFT UNIONS

The plan has been the most picturesque, and in some respects the most effective, of the methods that the mass strike at Lawrence has exemplified. They contrast with the more conservative methods of the old craft unions, which in the face of mill opposition have not been able to muster the ranks of unskilled labor in the woolen trade. The Lawrence mills were practically unorganized, and through these methods the Industrial Workers of the World have made common appeal to the polyglot races of the town. The different nationalities that have swung into line behind their banner have been at once the strength and the weakness of this insurgent labor organization in marshalling the strike. They range from the Franco-Belgians, disciplined to work together in their co-operative enterprises, to the Sicilians and South Italians, volatile and used in their home countries to personal recourse in disputes. The socialistic Germans and the individualistic French-Canadians are strong midway groups, the great element of uncertainty lying in the 10,000 mixed nationalities over and above these. The police orders, preventing mass meetings on the squares, thus driving the people to the smaller halls, have helped the strike committee in getting the leaders of each of the nationalities to hold their men intact.

Events move rapidly in a strike, and it is not feasible for a weekly journal, which must go to press in advance of its publication date, to attempt to keep abreast of them in detail. Certain developments of the past few weeks, in which efforts at settlement have been made from different angles, can be noted.

The first official step by the Massachusetts legislature towards settlement was made February 8, when a joint committee of eight members from the Senate and the House met strikers and

mill owners in an effort to bring about conciliation. The Sanborn order, which passed the House and called for a complete investigation of the situation, was not adopted by the Senate. It was announced that the present committee would act merely as a conciliatory body, endeavoring first of all to bring together the two factions among the strikers themselves: on the one hand, the Industrial Workers of the World, which had a small local in Lawrence at the outset of the strike and with whom three small unions of skilled men threw in their lot; and, on the other hand, the United Textile Workers, (who are represented in the mills by a few hundred mule spinners) and their natural allies, the city trades represented in the Central Labor Union of Lawrence, which is affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. In a statement issued early in the month John Golden, president of the United Textile Workers, said:

As trades unionists we cannot permit these

unfortunate people to be starved into submission; neither can we silently permit the pernicious doctrines of brute force further to be spread broad-cast by the would-be leaders at Lawrence without suffering an injury to ourselves.

In reply the representatives of the Industrial Workers of the World said:

Such a proclamation can emanate only in the brains of idiots or in the offices of the mill agents.

Last week the Central Labor Union succeeded in bringing about meetings between committees from the various mills and the mill agents, with the result that, according to delegates' reports, the agents would "take the matter under advisement for a few days." The Industrial Workers of the World continued to hold out for one settlement for all the striking operatives, and a statement given out by William D. Haywood, president of the Industrial Workers, credited the Central Labor Union with

making a spectacle of themselves, contemptible in the eyes of all right-thinking people.



A NEW YORK MEAL FOR LAWRENCE CHILDREN.

Courtesy the Call.

and putting themselves out of the pale of unionism.

Another phase of the controversy, quite as acrimonious as that between these groups of labor leaders, has been illustrated by certain Boston newspapers whose news and editorial columns have been given over to the mill corporations since the trouble started. These were loudly contending that the backbone of the strike was broken even while the mill agents were negotiating terms of settlement with committees of their operatives. As illustrating the heavy cost of the strike to date, and the position of the mills, it is currently reported that five weeks of idleness have already destroyed the possibility of turning out samples for the spring trade, and if the looms remain quiet much longer the strike will seriously cut into the fall business.

Another phase of the conflict has been illustrated by a statement in a Boston newspaper by the Rev. Clark Carter, secretary of the Lawrence City Mission, to the effect that "living conditions in Lawrence are magnificently progressive." The facts of the situation as revealed by the strike¹ run counter to Mr. Carter's estimate, in spite of the fact that he may be supposed to have based it on charitable work in Lawrence for a score of years. The Lawrence City Mission is supported largely by the mill owners.

The hearing of John C. Breen, the Lawrence school committeeman accused of planting dynamite so as to discredit the strikers, was held over until February 26. Breen, an undertaker by profession, is accused of being the political handiman of certain mill interests. Some of the dynamite was discovered wrapped in a sheet torn from an undertaker's journal.

Joseph J. Ettor and Antonio Giovanetti, the strike leader and his assistant, were put on trial last week. They have been held throughout this period in the county jail on charges of being accessories before the fact to the murder of Anna La Pezzi, who was shot in the riot of January 29. On February 6, Judge Braley in the Supreme Court denied without prejudice their petitions for release on reasonable bail by writ of habeas

corpus. An interview given out by Prof. Frank W. Taussig of Harvard was to the effect that the arrests were brought about "to put an end to Ettor's leadership despite the prejudicial effect it might have in the strikers' cause." In the interview Professor Taussig is quoted as saying:

I do not want it to be understood that I am a supporter of Ettor. He is nothing but a well meaning fanatic—a crank. His intentions are good, but I believe he is a highly dangerous man. Nevertheless, he is entitled to justice just as much as any other resident of the United States.

THE NEWSPAPER AS CHILDHOOD'S ENEMY

Joseph T. Williams, assistant secretary of the Committee on Criminal Courts of the Charity Organization Society, has been making a study of "what the New York newspapers do to increase juvenile crime." His criticism is directed against the habit of many papers of "playing up" children's misdemeanors as heinous offenses, giving names, addresses, and such details as brand the delinquents in their own eyes and those of their acquaintances as wicked and vicious criminals. The power which these stories have by their suggestion to draw other lads into crime is also pointed out by Mr. Williams, who writes:

Almost at random I select a clipping. I find that Hannah Irons, a Brooklyn girl, sixteen years old, is held on bail on the charge of larceny; she has stolen a ring from her sister-in-law. Also, that she is a wayward girl and has been arrested for vagrancy. Now, I do not know Hannah's history, what physical or mental defects may have been imposed by nature or what social and educational limitations by society. But I assume Hannah, in her brief years, has had at least vaguely some ideals of life, some notion of happiness, some cherished things, comfort, luxury—these, if nothing better. It has been made known to me and thousands of others that Hannah is a thief and a vagrant. Whatever potentialities of good womanhood the girl also has are not mentioned—only that she is a thief and a vagrant. None of us had any use for this knowledge. If we needed to be told of this case at all it could have been said that "a girl was thus arrested" without mentioning a name; but now we all know and Hannah knows we all know that it was she who was the thief and vagrant.

Stories of juvenile delinquency should not be published for reasons which stare us in the face. It makes the bad boy a

¹See THE SURVEY for February 2 and February 17.

hero in the eyes of himself and others and therefore encourages him to a criminal career. It brings the suggestion to other juveniles that they may succeed in forbidden achievements. It affords them too many clever suggestions as to procedure. It is a great wrong to all children to have this early stigma published broadcast and preserved in newspaper files, and it is especially a wrong to the young girl, as she finds it the most difficult to live down sinister opinion. Why can not the newspapers get together and agree to quit it?

A boy of fourteen arrested in Brooklyn recently confessed to many burglaries. A vacant lot and a cemetery were places chosen for burying gold and precious stones, *i. e.*, gold watches and several diamond rings. Among incidentals stolen from one house were theater tickets. He imprudently risked the use of these and then calamity, in the shape of two detectives, came to him. However well satisfied this youth was with himself before, the newspapers confirmed his fame. His name has become exalted with those of Raffles and Captain Kidd. One paper printed his picture two columns wide with the heading, "Boy burglar points out hidden loot"—*World*. "Police astonished that youngster is flathouse robber who baffled them"—*Mail*. "Blue-eyed burglar confesses in Children's Court"; "Brooklyn's daring house-breaker"; "A Little Lord Fauntleroy"—*Evening Sun*. "Robbed so many places he cannot remember all"—*Tribune*. "Idea came to boy when he saw lock opened with buttonhook"; "Shows cunning of a veteran crook"—*Press*. "The only key I ever had was made out of a buttonhook; I can open

any lock with it"—*Brooklyn Citizen*. "Retired from the messenger service when he discovered how easily locks could be opened"—*Morning Sun*. "Obtained booty worth thousands of dollars"—*Herald*.

On my desk is a large package of newspaper clippings which give the details of juvenile criminal cases in New York city for more than a year past. Now, the law says all of these are cases only of juvenile delinquency. Not so the newspapers. Their accounts let us know that there are certain children in New York city (giving names and addresses complete) who are burglars, beggars, robbers, thieves, highwaymen, incendiaries, remarkable liars, vagrants, shoplifters, gamblers, and sometimes even prostitutes.



SUGGESTIONS FOR YOUR CHILDREN.

Commenting on this arraignment of newspaper practice Bernard Flexner, of Louisville, Ky., writes:

Mr. Williams puts his finger on one of the sore spots in the handling of offending children in the New York court. THE SURVEY has pointed out many times the outrage of subjecting children to the treatment that the communication indicates. It is inconceivable that the press of any city will refuse deliberately to protect children against this kind of exploitation once the matter is unmistakably brought home to them. It has been possible to accomplish this in many places where the appetite for human interest news items is as keen as in New York. The offense is due in most instances to the zeal of reporters to whom the details of the child offending are given. Whether this occurs in the court room or out of it, a judge really in earnest about giving this measure of protection to children could do it, and the failure to do it argues a lamentable indifference to a very obvious defect in the administration of the children's court.

CANADIAN WOMEN SHOW AWAKENING

The following very interesting and advanced platform issued by the Toronto local of the National Council of Women of Canada shows an awakening among women there, as in the rest of the world, to a sense of social responsibility. The platform of the local, which is made up of forty Toronto clubs, was sent recently to each representative in the Ontario legislature. The complete platform, which contains a demand for the franchise for women, follows:

There should be separate trials for women in the police courts, to which the male outside public is not to be admitted.

Medical examination of females in actions for rape or for assault should be conducted by a woman physician, and where the service of such a one is not obtainable, in the presence of a police matron or some other woman.

There should be established a branch of the police service consisting of police women, whose special province should be the dealing with prostitutes and the carrying out of regulations applying to disorderly houses, and who are also to be present at police court or criminal court trials where women appear as prosecutor, accused, or chief witness.

Women should be eligible as magistrates and as justices of the peace.

Women should be eligible to serve on juries.

The establishment of juvenile courts in all parts of the province should be compulsory.

Where a decision to establish a juvenile

court has already been passed steps should at once be taken to carry same into effect.

The Provincial Government should introduce a system of state pensions for the benefit of destitute minors who have lost their father and whose mother does not possess separate estate.

The employment after eight o'clock in the evening of children under fourteen years of age, in trades and conditions which are not covered by the factory acts applying to the employment of minors, should be forbidden.

Steps should be taken to provide adequate jail provision in cities and county districts.

Insane paupers or poor people should not be admitted to jail whether accused of crime or not, but should be received in institutions where proper treatment can be extended to them.

Wherever such institutions do not exist, or where they are inadequate, adequate accommodation should be provided.

State provision should be made for the aged and for the infirm poor of this province.

Prison farms for women should be established with proper opportunities for training in farming and in dairy and domestic training, and the raising of vegetables, fruit, and poultry, such prison farm to be entirely separate and removed from any prison farm for men.

All convictions to the Mercer Reformatory should be made uniformly for two years less one day, not, however, without the establishment of a parole board consisting entirely or partly of women.

Provision should be made for proper domestic training in this reformatory, and the present grant for schooling purposes be increased so that daily schooling can be provided.

Immediate provisions should be made by the Provincial Government for the adequate segregation and care of the feeble-minded of the province.

Separate classes for defective children should be made compulsory in connection with public schools.

Medical inspection of school children should be extended to the rural districts of Ontario, and be made compulsory.

A provincial housing commission should be established in connection with the Department of the Conservation of Health to deal with the problem of housing the ever-increasing numbers of immigrants arriving in the cities of this province, such a commission to be partly composed of women.

Women should be directly represented on the Advisory Technical Education Committee in the city of Toronto.

The right to hold homesteads in Ontario should be granted to women on the same terms as men.

The provisional franchise should be extended to the women of Ontario of and above the age of twenty-one who are British sub-



—K. L. Russell in the Paterson, N. J.,
Guardian.

THE CITY PROBLEM.

jects, and who have either been born in the dominion or have become duly naturalized, and have fulfilled the other necessary qualifications as they at present apply to the male voters of the province.

A STREET CORNER INTERVIEW

M. S. HANAWAY

"No Miss, I never ask for tips, people don't give 'em when you ask for 'em—yes, I get a lot of tips—ten cents at a time most always. Dorothy, she always asks for money and she don't get so much as I get 'cause she asks. Yes, lot o' times mens want me to go to the movin' picture shows with 'em, but I never go 'cause I gotta hustle. My mother ain't got no work and I gotta bring in a dollar a day. I make always a dollar—No, I never go home till I get a dollar. I don't like sellin' but I gotta, that's all. Paper, sir? I go to school but I come right up here after school, and I most always sell till nine o'clock in the night. Paper? The big boys is awful bad. They ask me all the time to go in the alley with them. They use the bad word, too (I'm 'shamed to tell you), but, no siree, I don't go. I just tend to my sellin' and tell them to go on and mind their businesses. I'm nine years old and I'm the oldest in our family and my mother—O, look, lady, them

men is whistling at you, on the corner—she's trying to get work. My father's dead, so course I gotta help. There is four other girls as big as me sells papers. This is my corner and they has corners, too. I get something to eat when I get done sellin'."

It was past seven o'clock in the "pick-up" district of Baltimore in the heart of the "Great White Way." The street corner was lively with people seeking to pass away the time in one of the three moving-picture houses half a block away.

Good people of Baltimore wonder at statistics showing that 1,000 cases were recorded last year in a single hospital of venereal infection among young children in their city.

Can we connect this child's life with such a record?

EDITORIAL GRIST

A BRAIN-STORM OF CHARITY

Much comment is being passed in St. Louis just now, especially among the well-to-do, about a recent attempt to relieve the poor during an unusually cold fortnight by large gifts of clothing, bedding, and money. Zero weather is rare in St. Louis, and so its continuance for several days was the occasion for a small, informal meeting of prominent business men of charitable feelings. The outcome of the meeting was the formation of a Citizens' Emergency Relief Committee.

This volunteer committee—without consultation, it is said, with the organized charitable associations of the town—determined rapidly on relief action as follows. The newspapers were asked to give great publicity to the announcement that on Saturday, a monster collection of clothing and bedding would be made and on the following Monday distribution to the needy would take place. It was the original intention that no money should be collected, but a few volunteer donations started a fund which grew to nearly \$8,000.

Everything was hustle and bustle. The newspapers gave much space and push to the movement. As Saturday neared numerous automobile trucks, each manned by one or more policemen and two or more Boy Scouts, made the rounds of the city. Each driver clanged a bell, and the Scouts ran to the open doors of the houses passed, where the people stood with their bundles ready. During the following week many requests for additional calls and complaints that bundles had not been collected were received and met.

The Citizens' Emergency Relief Committee had by this time asked the three large charitable associations—the Provident Association, the United Jewish Charities, and the St. Vincent de Paul Society—to formulate a plan of distribution. It was decided that no bundle would be given out unless a signed application from one of the three societies was presented. And so the societies had a run that required hiring extra assistants, and even then the social investigation of applicants was impossible. Many blanket requisitions vaguely reading "clothing" were signed.

On Monday began the distribution, from a large empty down-town building, by volunteer workers, mostly young women. There was no time for proper sorting and arrangement of the great piles of clothing and bedding, and the poor workers had a Herculean task in trying to meet requests. One hears of ludicrous, lamentable mistakes—such as one woman's getting seven shoes for one foot.

Distribution went on for a week, and, though approximately eight thousand requisitions were filled and the weather was mild once again, applications continued. At the end of the week, the clothing left was divided among the charitable associations and police stations, and all money received was divided into three parts, one-third going to each of the three large organizations which in St. Louis take the place of an Associated Charities.

The Citizens' Emergency Relief Committee has resolved itself into a permanent committee and has determined to hold an annual bundle collection day, but

to turn over the entire returns to the charitable organizations.

Undoubtedly both good and harm were done. Real and "fake" needs were supplied. One hears that an influx of hoboes occurred, that the business of pawnshops increased suddenly, and so on. And those acquainted with social work realize that there already existed—and exists—a good organization called the Emergency Aid Society, which this group of business men forgot or of which they never knew.

SOME EXPRESSIONS OF DEMOCRACY

GAYLORD S. WHITE

About one hundred and fifty people all told, social workers, Socialists, ministers of the Christian and Jewish faiths, and numerous other citizens less readily classifiable, gathered on Lincoln's Birthday at Union Theological Seminary, New York, on the invitation of the faculty, for the sixth annual conference for social workers. In previous conferences addresses have occupied the chief place on the program and there has been little opportunity for discussion. In the hope of making the gathering this year a conference in fact as well as in name, no addresses were scheduled for the morning session, but a topic was proposed for general discussion. This topic was: How Can the Spirit of Religion promote Democracy in Every-day Life? At the afternoon session there were brief addresses by Mrs. V. G. Simkhovitch of Greenwich House on Training for Democracy and by Prof. Charles P. Fagnani, of the seminary, on the Democracy of Jesus.

Interest appeared to be directed chiefly to the expression of democracy in industrial relations, in public education, and in the church. That religion and democracy are practically identical, democracy being simply the expression of the religious ideal, was asserted more than once by the speakers. If one fact emerged more clearly than another in the course of the discussions it was the evident conviction that it is in industrial relations that the next steps in the realiza-

tion of democracy must be taken. Henry Moskowitz brought out the need of developing a technique of democracy and cited as a hopeful experiment the voluntary action of employers and employes in the cloak and suit industry in forming a grievance board after the close of the last strike. Here was an effort in representative government in industry. Another speaker expressed the hope that, as this right of representation in industry is a moral right of the workers, legislation would eventually make it also a legal right. Prof. Henry R. Seager stated that it seemed to him that, next to the public school, the institution that is today making most for democracy is the labor union. He pointed out that the obstacles which oppose the development of labor organizations are on the one hand the attitude of the average employer, impatient to succeed in his business and irritated by unfortunate experiences with particular trade unions, and on the other hand the difficulty of getting wage earners to pull together and the scarcity of competent leadership. To promote a better understanding of the labor movement on the part of employers, to help to cultivate a more intelligent public opinion, and to influence the situation wholesomely is the part social workers can play in promoting industrial democracy.

The public school system came in for criticism as undemocratic in denying representation to the teachers in determining the method of their work and in the uneven distribution of the opportunities offered the pupils, as, for example, when economies are so often effected at the expense of the children in the lowest grades. There were, however, not wanting those who championed the schools as important factors in training for that group activity which is the essence of democracy.

It was chiefly by ministers of religion that the complaint was lodged against the church of clinging to an individualistic type of religion, of making class distinctions, of smug contentment in ignorance of actual conditions, of timidity in espousing needed reforms that threaten existing social and economic conditions.

That democracy, "while a hope in

which we have such confidence as to justify ourselves in calling it religious, is still not a hope independent of human will," but that it can be realized only by "co-operating democrats" was the contention of Mrs. Simkhovitch in her address opening the afternoon session. The inevitable intertwining of democracy and religion, so that, for the modern man, the one in some manner involves the other, makes a discipline for democracy as imperative as it has always been for religion. "The art of fellowship," as the speaker put it, worked out in social experience, can alone supply this training. Other devices are useful and even necessary, but democracy can be learned only by doing. "Comradeship, like swimming, can be learned in one medium alone." Through family life, through friendships, in fraternities, in settlements, in trade unions, in political parties, in churches, this discipline is experienced. Through the give and take of associative life and effort, the contribution of each is tested by the group. Social responsibility must come to consciousness. Remorse for personal worthlessness must be matched by remorse for our lukewarm attitude toward the problems of our common life. To those who see in the art of fellowship the solution of our problem, the street gang, the club, the groups of friends, all hold something sacred. "No wonder that he who looked deepest into life said: 'Where two or three are gathered together, there am I in the midst of them.' God, life, is found only in the group, and the group of groups for us is found only in this democracy for which Lincoln lived and died."

To Professor Fagnani democracy means "Brothers in love." Democracy, then, rests on fraternalism as opposed to paternalism. Three un-Christian elements of paternalism are benefactors and benefactions, superior persons who assume charge of their inferior fellow beings, and the notion that people in general are not competent to take care of their own interests. All these forms of aristocracy were opposed by Jesus, who said: "The kings of the Gentiles have lordship over them; and they that have authority are called benefactors. But ye

shall not be so."—"I am in the midst of you as he that serveth." These declarations of Jesus, and others like them, exceed our Declaration of Independence. They do away with systems of governors and governed and substitute mutual service and brotherly love. They illustrate Jesus's reverence for and confidence in his brothers in contrast to all inhuman distrust of human nature. While he must ever be to us the supreme manifestation of all that is adorable in God and man, it is by the name of comrade—"room-mate"—that he would prefer to have us call him. This intimacy will make us as democratic as he was.

In a closing word Prof. William Adams Brown of the seminary expressed the belief that the office of religion in promoting democracy was threefold. Religion reveals to the individual a consciousness of his own worth as a child of God. It discloses to each man the undiscovered value of his neighbor. At the heart of each individual, no matter how degraded he may be, is a capacity for the things of the spirit which makes all our self-sacrifice worth while. And finally we are coming to see that there is a spiritual unity, a bond of fellowship, which unites all men of every race and creed. This sense of brotherhood transcends class consciousness; and in the religious ideal we find a platform upon which all can meet.

THE FIRST YEAR AT THE COLLEGE SETTLEMENT

JANE E. ROBBINS, M. D.
Headworker Little Italy Neighborhood Association, Brooklyn

[THE PUBLICATION OF TWENTY YEARS AT HULL HOUSE, THE TWENTY-FIFTH ANNIVERSARY OF THE UNIVERSITY SETTLEMENT, THE RECENT VISIT OF G. STANTON COIT, ITS FOUNDER, TO THIS COUNTRY, ALL HAVE GIVEN RENEWED INTEREST TO THE BEGINNINGS OF NEIGHBORHOOD WORK, AND THE SURVEY HAS BEEN FORTUNATE IN GETTING DR. ROBBINS TO TELL INFORMALLY OF THE EARLY DAYS OF ANOTHER PIONEER HOUSEHOLD—THE COLLEGE SETTLEMENT.]

"Tell us what you did in '89," said the youngest social worker. "I was one year old then, and I imagine that those early college women were much finer than we are."

One of my duties, I remember, was to clean the front steps. We had only a little money, though several Boston friends had proved their faith by

their gifts, and we were obliged to live very simply. The kindly janitor of the house next door, after watching my struggles, contributed his wisdom and several buckets of water. Perhaps his broom and bucket might serve as a symbol of that neighborhood common-sense and effective helpfulness which has been the basis on which the successful settlement has always been built.

As Helen Thayer Rand has described the life in Blazing the Settlement Trail, "we painted floors and sewed carpets, we washed windows and shoveled snow. It was all rather badly done, no doubt, but it was good for the souls of the residents, and it helped to establish a relationship with the neighbors which was the very heart of the settlement work."

Because Miss Fine had been for a year in charge of the girls' clubs at the Neighborhood Guild, where Mr. Stover had the work with boys, we began with girls' clubs. Stanton Coit, who had started the Guild after seeing Toynbee Hall, had been really eloquent on the subject of forming close friendships and of grappling these young people to us with hoops of steel. We caught the idea and as a result some of these twelve-year-old girls have grown up to be our closest friends. We had read of the Russian young women who had "gone to the people," and Besant and others had written attractive stories about pleasant hospitality.

Most of our predecessors in organized work discouraged us, though Phillips Brooks and Dr. Rainsford were notable exceptions. When I tried to describe to the head of a large city mission-work what we had in mind, she answered, "It is a dream, my dear, a dream." American parents are proverbially good-natured. At first they tried to stop us, but they ended by helping, though they remained in a bewildered state of mind. "This system," said a Maine judge, "by which my daughter is to pay six dollars a week for the privilege of working hard on Rivington street reminds me of the sentences of the ancient law courts by which a man could be condemned to be hanged and to pay the costs."

But his daughter found the life very much to her mind, and there has never

been a time when there have not been other young women ready to fill the house in Rivington street. The settlement opened in September after a summer of active correspondence and in October we had a household of seven residents, a house-keeper, and a little maid—who after staying until she had received some training was to give her place to some other small girl. Of the residents four had come for the winter. These were Miss Fine, who was to be head, a woman doctor getting ready for a career in Asiatic Turkey, and two of us who were students. Three of the residents were transients and were to stay only two months, when their places were to be taken by others. This odd plan made for variety, fresh enthusiasm, and a wide circle of interested friends scattered through the country.

Up-stairs in our rooms it seemed as if we were back at college again, and down-stairs we were beginning to enjoy our possessions by sharing them. We tried to make the house attractive with piano, pictures, and the books and magazines we had coaxed away from our families. "These pictures on the wall belong to everybody," said a small girl.

We clung to the idea of festivity which had come to us from the London People's Palace opened in 1887.

So we had the great good-fortune to help in launching the American Settlements on the present struggle to obtain for the masses of the people an opportunity for wholesome recreation, and if we had our lives to live over again we would probably give still more energy to the planning of parties and outings and dramatics. In England some one had said in adverse criticism of Toynbee Hall that they were trying to save men's souls with pictures, pianos, and parties, and we soon found that we could do much for girls' souls by the use of these simple means.

The streets on Sunday were full of children after the Sunday schools had opened, for the neighborhood was changing rapidly from German to Russian Jewish. So we asked them to come in to listen to stories and to learn the beautiful songs that children so much enjoy. These children, recent arrivals from Russia, were an interesting addition to our

group of friends. Having known much of cruel persecution they were of course somewhat suspicious.

One day as I walked along the street with three small Russian boys a voice from a group at a corner called out, "Don't go with her! Don't go with her! She is going to make you Irish!" Joseph gazed across at them with his big, thoughtful eyes and then announced solemnly, "They hain't got no sense."

The girls at work in the nearest Grand street store were invited to join an evening club and we soon found that they were interested to learn all that we knew of cooking and sewing. The clubs developed rapidly. We had been in the house only a few weeks when, the rumor of good times having spread, a fourteen-year-old boy, with his friends behind him to give moral support, thrust a tousled head in at the door and inquired, "Are boys 'llowed in?" We were soon struggling with clubs of boys which added greatly to the excitement of our days. As Helen Thayer Rand says, "For every boy who came in to attend a club there were always two or more boys who were necessarily excluded and some of these attempted ingress through windows and coal-holes." A small-sized boy of fourteen, known as Captain, was trying in every way to be a copy of a bold, bad man. One evening by considerable effort I induced him to apologize for his rudeness to one of the kindest of the new residents. She met him in the hall, as she came home from church, and with the street-door wide open, she stooped and kissed him, as she would have her own small brother, making quite unconsciously a beautiful picture for the stunned inhabitants of Rivington street.

"How can Miss R.," once exclaimed a casual visitor, "sit down and play with that dirty little boy!"

And the house-keeper answered, "But you see, to Miss R. he is not a dirty little boy."

What we tried to keep in mind was the cheerful hospitality of the homes in which we had all grown up. We made a good deal of our music and as we gathered about the piano on Sunday afternoons and sang Old Black Joe and Brahm's Lullaby and afterward told stories, it was all very satisfying and natural.

On Wednesdays, from three o'clock in the afternoon until ten at night, we gave out books and played games with the boys and girls, "I never heard so much noise in a library," said a visitor.

Many friends dropped in to help us with the children and it has been quite astonishing to me, in later years, as I have met these young women, to find how much of real value they learned over these games of checkers.

When summer-time came, one of our friends, who was going to Europe, gave us the use of her sea-side cottage, and the things we learned by living with our young people were real discoveries.

"The girls complain that you swear on the ball field," I said to a conscientious-looking boy of sixteen.

"Yes," he answered, "I hear so much swearing where I work that the words come out without my knowing it."

Both the working-boys and the working-girls were devoted to the five-year-olds.

"I am going over to sit in the lap of that nice boy," whispered a four-year-old to me.

Ever since that first summer the older boys and girls have done an important work for the younger ones. The neighbors accepted as only natural and probably American our enthusiasm over their children. "Get married and have one," said a fine young working boy as he watched a young woman enjoying herself with a baby.

The doctor was a connecting link with many homes. One day, having found a patient in great need, she asked a new resident to see what she could do as an amateur nurse.

Miss S. reported gaily at dinner: "That patient said that she had had her breakfast, that she did not want anything, and that she did not like strange people poking around in her bureau drawers anyway. This did not sound to me very discouraging, so I stayed."

In one family, where the mother and all the children were suddenly taken sick, the doctor brought home with her a lively small girl two years old. She was not ill enough for the hospital, and

with the aid of a new little maid, who had tended a small brother at home, we mothered her at odd moments, including several spells of wakefulness at night. This family is still near and dear to us.

The newspapers were our greatest thorn. "Seven lilies have been dropped in the mud," declared one journalist, and the mud did not seem to be particularly pleased. We "threw a hate," as the children say, at the newspaper reporter, because he interfered seriously with our plans for harmonious co-operation with our neighbors, and we were distinctly cold to a bright young resident who said that she wished to be the Dickens of the East Side.

Next to the newspapers came the prosperous ministers and their wives, to whom we were a special shock. We learned in time, however, to answer their criticism by saying: "We believe that it is the life of teachers that is catching, and we will be glad to help any minister with high ideals to find a house in this neighborhood." We had no idea at first that a public career was looming up before any of us, but it was not many weeks before an invitation came for some one to speak at a Unitarian conference. We were most of us ill with the grippe, a disease that had just arrived by steamer, but we managed to rise to the occasion and to send an untried and faint-hearted speaker. Soon after, Mrs. Florence Kelley bore a resident off to Albany to oppose child labor. Next a rumor that music was to be put off the street sent us with a grand letter of introduction down to the mayor to appeal for the retention of the hurdy-gurdies for the sake of the children. We had become a part of the great modern humanitarian current and were swept along into a wonderful new land of opportunity.

There was an abandonment of ourselves to the life and to whatever might come along with it that charmed us all. As one of the old residents says, "There was something delicious about every club meeting and even about capturing Bennie Miller's hat, thrown in so many times, and hearing him say 'Miss Waterman. I tell you for the fourth (for the fifth) time, I want my hat!'"

THE TREND OF THINGS

Socialism is the subject of a two-part article by H. G. Wells running in the last two issues of *Harper's*. Rejecting Marxian Socialism as crude and unconstructive, he gives in a few words a very interesting account both of the original purpose and the real accomplishments of Fabianism—"the first real attempt to meet the fatal absence of administrative schemes in the earlier Socialisms." "Starting from that attack on aggregations of property which is the common starting point of all Socialists," says Mr. Wells, "the Fabians, appalled at the obvious difficulties of honest confiscation and an open transfer from private to public lands, conceived the extraordinary idea of *filching* property from the state . . . For a decade or more . . . the London Fabian Society pitted their wits and ability . . . against the embattled capitalists of England . . . without any apparent diminution of the larger accumulations of wealth." As Socialists attacking capitalism, then, they were unsuccessful; but they had another purpose, which was gradually to restore their property to the expropriated proletariat. In this Mr. Wells believes that they have been more successful, not as Socialists, however, for this brought them in too close contact with the philanthropic rich. "Their project," says Mr. Wells, "changed steadily in character until it ceased to be antagonistic to wealth as such. . . . The man with the gun and the alleged social mad dog returned very peaceably together. The Fabian hunt was up." Furthermore, he goes on, they no longer aimed at the socialization of the world but simply at the "complete state control of labor under a free plutocracy. Our present chaos was to be organized into a servile state."

Mr. Wells's own suggestions for a practical constructive socialist philosophy are interesting but rather vague; they have the advantage of being considerably more democratic than the Fabian schemes.

Volume I No. 1 of the *Flint Arrow* (Flint, Mich.) announces the purposes and policy of this new civic publication. Its object is to be, it seems, to turn social unrest into socially useful channels, to disarm class hatred by establishing justice in the relations of employer and employe, and to promote efficiency and decency in politics. Flint, be it said, is one of half a hundred American cities with a Socialist mayor.

"The *Flint Arrow*," says Arthur C. Pound, the editor, "will be independent in politics, but my idea of independence is not that of certain journals whose attitude toward public questions is merely non-partisan and passive. My ideal independent newspaper is one that has a full set of man's size opinions on local questions. Such a journal recognizes politics as a live issue; but is ever ready to leap over party

lines in search of the staunch man and the progressive measure. The *Arrow*, therefore, now pledges its support to worthy men working for worthy ends. Recognizing Politics as the handmaiden of Progress, I want to keep the servant in this civic partnership in her rightful place, and not let her boss the game."

The first issue devotes much space to the local Men and Religion campaign, and discusses among other topics marriage and divorce, and the suffrage as interpreted by Jane Addams.

* * *

"The movement of commission government," says the *World's Work* for January, "has been so rapid that no one has been able to keep up with it." The *World's Work* gives a list of 182 towns in thirty-two states which have adopted this form of government, but makes no claim to completeness, conjecturing indeed that the real number is about 200. Figures of towns in South Dakota, Oklahoma, Illinois, Texas, and Kansas run from eleven to twenty-seven. Many other western states have a good showing, the West coming out stronger than any other geographical group of states, but many southern states are represented by one or more cities, Alabama having eight. On the eastern coast Massachusetts and New Jersey together take the lead, with five cities each. In addition to those omitted through lack of information, the *World's Work* believes that a complete list should include Boston, St. Joseph, Mo., Seattle, Wash., and Charlotte, N. C., where semi-commission government exists.

* * *

In the last issue of the *Quarterly Journal of Sociology* Lucy M. Salmon, professor of history at Vassar, discusses the five impediments to democracy between mistress and maid. These are: the tendency toward conservatism in the household; the lack of recognition that the household worker is on the same basis of dignified wage-earning as are workers outside the home; the personal element of relationship in the household which fails to give a recognized position to an inmate not connected by blood; the constant personal contact in the household which tends to confuse democracy with undue familiarity; the tip, the Christian name, the word "servant," and many other minor but important remnants of servility.

In the same issue I. A. Hourwich of the Bureau of the Census discusses statistically the foundation or lack of foundation, for that "favorite topic for newspaper editorials, the alarming increase of the number of alien criminals." In rebuttal, he compares prison population with immigration statistics and arrives at the generalization that the "wave of criminality in certain years coincided with the lowest ebb of immigration, while the high-tide of immigration was contemporaneous with a decrease of crime."

* * *

The *North American Review* and the *World's Work* for this month also have

articles on immigration, in both cases by authorities in this field. In the *North American Review*, W. Jett Lauck outlines briefly the findings of the Federal Immigration Commission, showing the political, social, and industrial problems presented by the extensive south European and Russian Jewish immigration of the last ten years. In the *World's Work* E. Dana Durand, director of the census, gives figures for the absolute increase during that period of immigration of these races, which has trebled, while the immigration of North European races has actually decreased—dwelling with special alarm on the growing tendency to "huddle" in the great cities. Mr. Durand has no definite constructive suggestions to offer. Mr. Lauck summarizes the recommendations of the Immigration Commission, which are given special pertinency by the bill now before Congress.¹

* * *

With this same issue the *World's Work* begins its series about "getting on the land," designed to give practical advice to those who wish to leave the city. This month's article is an entertaining account of *How We Bought Our Farm*, by Jacob A. Riis. The *Century* for this month also goes into the subject of *Back to the Farm*, present drawbacks and future prospects being discussed by Harvey W. Wiley of the Federal Department of Agriculture. As a means for bringing the city, equipped with "culture, with intelligence, and with knowledge," into closer communication with the country—the ultimate solution, in Dr. Wiley's view, of country problems—he advocates the nationalization of transportation. With the intelligence and the population of the city applied to the country he believes that the problems of agricultural production will be solved. "As a rule," he says, "there are two hands to each mouth, and these hands in the far future, as far as philosophy dares look, will be able to supply the wants of the mouth."

* * *

Following up an earlier article on the German system of industrial training, Elmer Roberts in this month's *Scribner's* takes up one of its results in the *Passing of the Unskilled in Germany*. A by-product of the splendidly organized system of trade training for German youths is the periodical immigration and emigration of over half a million unskilled laborers from Russia, Poland, Austria, and Italy. Agriculture is their chief employment, January to October their months of residence in Germany, and higher wages the chief inducement to migrate. Unskilled work at a higher wage is what Germany offers the foreigner. From anything more ambitious, police regulations definitely shut him out. "The police," says Mr. Roberts, "under the close registration system take note of a foreigner holding a workman's pass who engages in higher manual employment. The employer's attention is drawn to the fact that the man in question is a foreigner; and under

the statutes of various states the employer is obliged to discharge a foreign workman. Obstacles are also placed in the way of ordinary workmen becoming German subjects. Naturalization is refused to workmen except under certain conditions."

COMMUNICATIONS

A NORTH DAKOTA PENITENTIARY

TO THE EDITOR:

My attention has been called to an article published in *THE SURVEY*, January 20,¹ in which you quote an extract from my report to the governor for the biennial period ending June 30, 1910, relative to a bad condition in reference to our sewer outlet, and also some other imaginary facts that are unfair and unjust, and which, if true, would be a disgrace to the state of North Dakota and the management of this institution, but, if untrue, do not do justice to your publication and certainly cannot reflect credit upon the author of the article, who has seized upon a recommendation that I made to change the method of disposing of our sewage, in which I called attention to the then existing conditions, which were not nearly so bad as your contributor has painted them.

The outlet to the sewer is fully a half-mile away from the institution, and, while it was obnoxious at times when the east wind prevailed, it had never caused any bad results.

There were only five fever cases treated in this institution during the two years covered by the biennial report, as set out on page 93 of the report, and only one death from fever.

The very fact that this matter was presented to the proper authorities should be a patent proof that the management was concerned about the welfare of the inmates of the institution; and the further fact that the legislature made an appropriation to provide the septic tank asked for is evidence that the request did not fall upon deaf ears.

Your article seems to be predisposed to an adverse verdict that, because the sewer outlet was bad, everything else must be at least as bad or worse, and that the moral and physical welfare must be shamefully neglected.

There is the expressed fear that the men are not graded, etc. The writer abolished the lash and the dungeon when he took charge five years ago; the grading system was also established and stripes abolished, except for third graders. Since that time the parole system has been put into effect and the indeterminate sentence law has been amended and made workable; and at times over 70 per cent of the inmates have been at work outside the prison walls. Farming has been carried on on a large scale. Last year over 3,600 acres were occupied by the institution, 1,600 acres being tilled, the balance being meadow and grazing land.

¹See *A Northwestern Prison*, *THE SURVEY*, January 20, page 1597.

¹See *THE SURVEY* for February 17.

There are over 300 head of cattle in our herds; over 200 hogs and over fifty head of horses. All of this work is performed by the inmates.

We have heard a great deal about convicts working in camps without guards, etc. We have had our men at work in the open for many years, upon our farm, driving valuable teams, wagons, carriages, machinery; also operating valuable machinery such as steam plows; our men drive teams through the city, over the prairie, and through the woods, either singly or in squads; go mounted on horses over the prairie, herding cattle and tilling the soil. An armed guard is not allowed on the premises except those stationed in watch-towers on the walls, and what is more, none are needed.

You complain that half our population is listed as having no trade, and that 25 per cent are without religion. I will add that one-half are residents of this state and the other half are non-residents. We are compelled to accept our men just as they come from society. In many cases their early training has been neglected. This is deplorable but not our fault. We turn out more men professing religion than we receive. We receive illiterate men but no illiterates are discharged. We discharge many more men proficient in some trade than we receive. We even have a musical instructor and have rendered musical and theatrical programs that have pleased hundreds of inmates and visitors.

We are not apologizing for our institution. We offer our record as evidence of work performed. Our daily average population is 209 males and one female. There are 320 cells in the main cell-house, 160 of which are new and of fire-proof brick and concrete construction; they are large and roomy, with open fronts, and are equipped with running water, lavatories and toilets in each cell, and electric lights. Each cell has an independent ventilating shaft, and only one occupant.

There is also a large hospital building with eight large convalescing cells, and three large roomy sick wards; provision for kitchen and dining rooms; also convalescing rooms, bath-rooms, and toilets beyond our present needs and requirements. Some mistakes were made in the construction of the hospital building, but it is large and the surplus room affords much relief.

There is a shower bath where every man gets a bath once each week.

We have a library of 2800 volumes, accessible to all. The circulation record shows that 7283 volumes were exchanged last year, which is the largest percentage of circulation of any library in the state.

Let us consider the allusion to the up-build of man. God knows that a prison at best is a poor place to build character; but let us see what is done in that direction:

(1) There is the regular Sunday service, every Sunday.

(2) The Society for the Friendless has a membership among the inmates of from forty to seventy-five.

(3) The Brotherhood Society, for literary development, has a membership among the inmates of eighty to ninety.

(4) A school is conducted for the illiterate in which the primary grades are taught.

(5) Men are trained as follows: Nurses for the hospital; barbers, printers, plumbers, electricians, laundrymen, blacksmiths, tanners, painters, carpenters, joiners, patternmakers, brick layers, engineers, steam fitters, musicians, plasterers, cooks, waiters, butchers, machinists, tailors, shoemakers, janitors, florists, gardeners, dairymen, coachmen, teamsters, poultry men, stock raisers and breeders, and farmers, without mentioning the two industries of brickmaking, which is a useful and necessary trade, and twine- and rope-making, which is also a useful and important trade.

I am sorry that you have been so manifestly careless over the facts, that you have permitted your columns to be used without making an investigation. It is hard enough to take the initiative and carry out the reforms that have been accomplished without being hamstrung by those who ought to uphold us. The Scriptures say, "Whom the Lord loveth, He chastiseth."

If you want to see an up-to-date prison with humane management, come out and pay us a visit. Judge Ben Lindsey visited us and lectured to the inmates. He said our institution was a model in equipment and in moral and sanitary attainments. Prison pallor here is conspicuous by its absence; in its place the sun has painted the brown and ruddy tan, emblematic of rugged physical vigor and manhood.

The star of hope is still active in the breasts of the inmates. There is an abiding faith in humanity. Love and charity have a place where once malice and envy reigned; and over all there is a feeling that man to man is brother.

F. O. HELSTROM.

[Warden North Dakota State Penitentiary.]
Grove, N. D.

[If the points Warden Hellstrom sets forth had been stated in the report which was sent to THE SURVEY for review no such one-sided criticism, as he considers it, could have been made. But one searches the pages in vain for

THE SURVEY is in receipt, also, of a letter from I. A. Acker, legislative reference librarian of the North Dakota Public Library Commission, which covers some of the same points made by Warden Hellstrom and adds this personal note of appreciation: "I can assure THE SURVEY that the penitentiary here is one of the best institutions of its kind in the country. The warden, Mr. Hellstrom, is a graduate of Kansas University, a broad-minded, big-hearted man, and a keen student of criminology and sociology. Unfortunately, he is so modest and unassuming that he has not advertised himself in the same way as other prison reformers have done. He has done his work here in a quiet way, but it has been effective just the same.

"The prisoners are afforded every convenience that a prison can afford. They have access to an excellent library, their education is by no means neglected, and only third-graders wear stripes. They have an excellent orchestra, and theatrical performances are staged by the inmates once or twice a year. A brotherhood has been organized by the prisoners, which meets once a week, and their programs are very interesting."

them. THE SURVEY can hardly regret having criticised conditions there, since it has given the warden a chance to show what work is actually going on unheralded in any official document.

1. There is no allusion to the fact that the offending mouth of the sewer "which has a very vile stench" was a half a mile from the prison. Even so it seems to have been an unfortunate condition long-delayed in reforming. THE SURVEY merely quoted an extract from the warden's report—verbatim. It was creditable to Warden Hellstrom to call public attention to the bad conditions—and, as the event proved, an effective way to secure reform.

2. It is true that the report refers to farming operations, but none of the facts about trusting the convicts are mentioned. It does say that they have been carried on *with profit* and have furnished employment to "some of the inmates." That is the only reference to the *human* inmates in connection with this admirable means of developing and disciplining men. Other inmates have more space—in fact a page—given to them, and the interested public of North Dakota has also the exciting information that Coyote and Coctus and Rowdy and Tobe and Topsy and Nancy and other horses to the number of forty (whose names and ages are all given) have also been employed on the land. "Some inmates" describes the men, but North Dakota has also seventy-nine cows, 139 steers and heifers, fifty-two calves, 237 hogs, 298 chickens, and thirteen "mantrailers" or bloodhounds. There is no mention of the number of acres cultivated, but there is a statement that the "institution should own 2000 acres." As it is, they have to "supplement farm products by some purchases."

3. As to the hospital, it is to be feared the warden did not read his physician's report, for he says in this printed report:

The hospital, a large and commodious building, is so badly arranged for the care of the sick that it is impossible to give good service in it. The rooms chiefly occupied by the sick are poorly ventilated and heating arrangements are unsatisfactory. The corridor on which the rooms open is dark and dingy and gets no direct sunlight. There is no dressing room for minor surgical dressings and the greater part of that work has to be done in the toilet room of a ward.

4. A catalogue of the library accompanied Warden Hellstrom's letter, and they certainly have a fine lot of wholesome books, *but there is no allusion to library, schools, trade teaching, or chaplain in the report.* The reviewer could hardly evolve all these from his inner consciousness as they ought to exist.

5. Parole is alluded to, casually. It had been in operation only a year and the results do not seem to have been brilliant. A foot-note calls attention to the fact that of the fourteen men paroled in two years, though five did well, four were "discharged by the court, and sentence suspended without complying with rules and requirements of the law"—"and so far as I am informed," says the

warden, "nearly all of these cases have turned out to be failures."

North Dakota is to be congratulated if her state penitentiary is better than her official documents represent. Perhaps the next step in prison reform there would be to let the people know what educational, disciplinary, and uplifting methods are employed, in addition to working the men ten hours a day for six cents.—I. C. B.]

"OLD CLOTHES TO SELL"

TO THE EDITOR:

I often read of the hard times wage-earning girls have to clothe themselves. Many social students give the need of warm and decent clothing (not to speak of what is attractive) as one of the chief causes of moral shortcoming.

Now this letter is to suggest that some method be devised for handing slightly used clothing over to the self-respecting working women who do not care to apply to the usual charitable agencies. Most women heap all sorts of clothes upon their maids, who are already well dressed and well nourished. Domestic servants are beyond question better able to buy their own clothes than factory girls.

Can you suggest some central agency that will come forward to handle cast-off clothes and sell them at a nominal figure to wage-earners? I have given clothes to the Waverly House; but I want to see decent girls helped more. Perhaps we do too much for the submerged and not enough for those to whom a helping hand means the retention of self-respect.

Can the Consumers' League undertake to see that the right women are reached? Or is it best to start a store where the expenses can be met by the sales? The start could be made with dresses and coats, later on hats, shoes, etc., could be added. Some method must be devised whereby the right girls, the girls who really need help, are reached. Can it be done through the Working Girl's Clubs? I can see in my mind's eye a flourishing store with seamstresses engaged to alter dresses and make over hats at a nominal cost.

As the goods are all donated, the only expenses would be the rent and saleswomen. Incidentally this will open more positions to women.

Is my plan feasible? I shall contribute at once a purple cloth skirt and coat and some shirt-waists, also a warm black cloth skirt.

ANNIE NATHAN MEYER.

New York.

LIBERTY AND PROPERTY

TO THE EDITOR:

Was it wit or sarcasm that prompted THE SURVEY to print as Common Welfare the resolution and letter of the American Liberty and Property Association? It is doubtless true that some of this material is in accord with the spirit of social work, such, for

THE SURVEY, January 20, page 1594.

example, as the statements that the "proper function of government is to maintain equal liberty," that "every man has a right to labor at whatever useful occupation he chooses, and is entitled to all he earns", and that it is not the duty of government to make "men virtuous by law." Other equally true statements, however, are conspicuous by their absence. We do not read that when government has failed to preserve equal liberty classes are created, and therefore class legislation is necessary to restore the desired equality. We do not read that no man is entitled to the product of another's labor, nor that government has a duty to prevent by law those conditions which force men to lose their virtue, nor that it should discourage the accumulation of capital in the hands of a few who have captured rather than earned it.

Can one really interested in social work raise the cry for more justice to the "rights of property" when we dwell in the midst of injustice to men? Is not the plea of the secretary of this association really for more privileges to propertied men? And do not such absurd implications as that Socialism stands for "public ownership of private property", and such statements as that "Socialism is unsound and unscientific" and that the newspapers are "the only agency through which the facts . . . can be fairly put before the people" suggest an attempt to stifle the "remarkable increase of Socialistic sentiment" at any cost?

The readers of the Bethlehem and Birmingham numbers of THE SURVEY, unlike Mr. Schalkenbach, need have no fear of a movement which shall "seriously threaten the established order of society" or prove "contrary to the spirit of American institutions." The student of Socialism sees in it no "menace to the welfare and prosperity of our workers." The only menace is to those "other citizens" who do not work. A rapidly increasing number are coming to regard it as a movement which at once shall furnish a solution to industrial difficulties, render unnecessary all strife between man and man, and mark another step in the evolution of the divine kingdom. But whether Socialist or not, the social worker must recognize that the word "state" means the people organized for mutual protection and work, that "state help" means the people cooperating for mutual service, and that any organization attacking the principles of cooperation and service is acting contrary to the spirit of social work.

ELMO A. ROBINSON.

Canton, N. Y.

BAR ASSOCIATION AND LENROOT BILL

TO THE EDITOR:

I read with much interest Professor Goodnow's article¹ referring to Mr. Lenroot's bill, H.R. 16808, which, according to his description, is the same as Mr. Clayton's H.R. 16459.

¹See THE SURVEY, January 27, page 1645.

I am very glad this principle has your support. This latter bill was drawn by the committee of the American Bar Association and was unanimously approved by the association at its Boston meeting. I ask your special attention to this fact because it disproves the statement so rashly made, and which a leading magazine has recently presented in offensive form, that the American bar is indifferent to the existing abuses and takes no interest in their correction.

On the contrary, you see that, as soon as the decision of the appeal in the Ives case was announced, the proper committee of the American Bar Association took up the matter and recommended a bill which would enable a review of such decision to be had, and the bill was unanimously approved by the American Bar Association.

That association is composed of about 2500 representative lawyers from every state in the Union. I hope you will call editorial attention to this, and also to the fact that the committee of the Bar Association met in Washington last week and had a hearing before the Judiciary Committee of the House, and a similar committee of the Senate, and urged the passage of the bill in question.

It would be very useful if readers of THE SURVEY would write their respective representatives and urge the support of the bill.

EVERETT P. WHEELER.

New York.

CENTRALIZATION AND INEFFICIENCY

TO THE EDITOR:

A recent issue of THE SURVEY has an article by Robert Garrett on the Baltimore Social Service Corporation.¹ There are two points I should like to raise in this connection. Mr. Garrett says: "Centralization and combination are the tendencies of the day, and, *properly safeguarded*, they are desirable. *Decentralization* spells inefficiency, weakness, stagnation." The italics are my own. My first question is:

Is there danger in philanthropy, as in large-scale production elsewhere, of destroying individual initiative and profitable variation of method, by over-standardizing? If the Baltimore and Kansas City organizations are independent of social movements in other cities, they may represent a wholesome development—new centers through which new policies may, if they seem best, be worked out, through which new groups of local social workers may develop and to which they can look for recommendations. On the other hand, if it means that in Baltimore or Kansas City no social worker or charitable effort will be tolerated or can secure funds unless conforming to the social creed of a restricted group, it is not at all clear to me that the organization of a local charity trust is desirable. It is only to a certain extent that decentralization spells inefficiency, and to a similar extent centralization may also spell stagnation.

¹See THE SURVEY, January 20, page 1625.

My second point is Mr. Garrett's comparison of sociological organizations to those of the railroads. He is carrying his analogy too far when he compares the laborers "to the clientèle of the social organization." This would seem to indicate either an idea of industrial organization in which the laborers are not co-workers but beneficiaries of the capitalists, or an ideal of social work which is essentially undemocratic.

THOMAS D. ELIOT.

Philadelphia.

CHILDREN AND SOCIETY

TO THE EDITOR:

I have been an attentive reader of THE SURVEY for years—it is, absolutely, the best journal of its kind and purpose in the United States. Its contents are reliable, its comments sensible, its humanity real, its sympathies true. It advocates the saving the lives of children born in the slums of the great cities, the East Sides and purlieus of the same, the factories and mill towns, the tenement and the poor districts. Of two things in this connection I am well aware: the love of the poor for their babes, and the loving desire of THE SURVEY to save these children. But when I think of some facts, I wonder what will be the almost certain fate of the great mass of these infants thus born. Go to the coal mines, the factories, the cotton and other mills; think of the greed and demands of business, that rob these helpless ones of their childhood, their education, their hopes, and their ambitions, and make of them mere things. Then think of the human animal lust that requires the ruin of thousands of these little girls, the practical enslavement of many of these boys—the hard fate that society, intending it or not, imposes upon the under classes. Further remember that hundreds of these will fall under the ban of the law and find themselves feared, hated, and ostracised, sent to fill prison pens, branded as criminals by that very society that made this fate an almost unavoidable certainty.

When I think of all this and a thousand times more I feel that these little ones better join "the lambs of the upper fold" before they learn to curse the day that they were born.

P. C. JOHNSON.

[Chaplain Nebraska State Penitentiary; Member Nebraska Legislature.]
Lincoln, Neb.

RULE OF THE MOB IN AMERICA

TO THE EDITOR:

A recent summary of lynchings in the United States for the past twenty-five years or more shows that there is but a slight decrease in the number of these crimes in this country. There seems to be but little encouragement in the figures, as a whole.

In the year just closed, for instance, there were seventy-one victims of lynch law. In the year previous there were seventy-four; in 1908, 100; in 1900, 115; in 1892, 255, the largest number on record; in 1893, 200, the next

greatest number in a single year; in 1885, 184. From these figures it will be seen that, while the high average is not maintained, there are still many violations of the criminal code in this country, and, as the late Justice Brewer of the Supreme Court of the United States said, lynch law is still "the habit of the American people." And to our shame and disgrace it is true!

The question still confronts us: What are we going to do about it? Or are we determined to let the present conditions continue indefinitely, unhindered and unpunished? For they *are*, practically, unhindered and wholly unpunished.

It seems to the writer that the present situation calls for prompt and drastic action by the federal, not state, government. Certainty of punishment of the most positive character is needed to meet the situation. But the history of the administration of justice in this country clearly shows that our courts, as at present constituted, can never secure the conviction of the mob. Such a conviction never has happened. While not a certain index of what may happen in the future, this goes far to show that convictions can never occur under our present criminal procedure.

The undersigned has, on many occasions, urged both constitutional and statutory changes in the criminal code as imperatively demanded in order to reach those crimes committed by the mob. Any civilized community which persistently tolerates the crime of the mob comes far short of meeting the public needs. And however much we may abhor the necessity for drastic legislation touching this subject, the history of all human experience unquestionably shows that we must make the commission of crime dangerous, if we hope ever effectually to deter it. Surely this is a condition which we are facing at this very moment upon this particular subject.

Will our law-givers afford us relief?

DUANE MOWRY.

[Late Member Milwaukee School Board.]
Milwaukee, Wis.

JOTTINGS

FOR UNIFORM LEGAL PROCEDURE

The establishment of a uniform system of legal procedure in the United States is the aim of the American Academy of Jurisprudence, in process of formation. Ninety-five jurists of prominence are said to have endorsed the plan. The academy will publish *Corpus Juris Codex*, or book of the law. Among those interested in the academy are Charles E. Hughes, Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court; John M. Dillon, former president of the American Bar Association; Thomas G. Jones, twice governor of Alabama; Peter S. Grosscup, of Chicago; L. H. Alexander, of Philadelphia; Senator Elihu Root, Alton B. Parker, and

Eugene E. Prussing, of New York. To meet the expenses of the academy subscriptions from 250 lawyers throughout the country will be asked.

THE WHIPPING POST

Like a sweet morsel under his tongue must the head of Russian prisons roll the fact that in this country, where his cruel measures of discipline have been so severely—and justly—criticized, prisoners are lashed on the bare back in the open air in zero weather. The state of Delaware, which has never been willing to give up the whipping-post, has brought this disgrace to our country. The two men thus lashed were guilty, according to the papers, one of larceny and one of highway robbery, both crimes calling for serious and prolonged discipline. In addition to the forty lashes the highwayman must suffer two years in prison. These men were whipped at the county workhouse. The question is not whether they deserved punishment. One may take it for granted that their guilt was proven. The question is whether the treatment they received will prevent other men from committing highway robbery and will fit these identical convicts for an honest life hereafter. No sensible man will for a moment say that this brutality was the first wise step toward their reformation. It was vengeance pure and simple. If Delaware had a reformatory prison, the indeterminate sentence, and her prisoners *under the management of the state instead of under the thumb of a county workhouse* these things could not be and there would be more hope for a lessening of crime in that state, which has so long refused to look at the light in prison science which has been kindled in other parts of the land.

I. C. B.

COUNTRY PLACE FOR HULL HOUSE

Through the generosity of one of its most interested and public spirited supporters, Hull House has come into possession of a winter and summer country place. It is to be known as the Joseph T. Bowen Country Club and is given by Mrs. Bowen as a memorial. Situated on a bluff overlooking Lake Michigan, with some lowlands intervening, it consists of seventy-five acres, about a mile and a half from the railway station at Waukegan, Ill. The place is covered with old virgin timber, and two ravines with little streams supplied by springs make it a beautiful spot. There are three other springs, and also an old apple orchard. The mayor of Waukegan had bought it to prevent its being cut up into building lots, hoping to induce the city to buy it as a park. When this plan failed, Mrs. Bowen secured it. Waukegan is thirty-six miles north of Chicago, with eighteen trains a day between it and the city, some of them taking only fifty minutes.

On the site is an old house of about twelve rooms, and also a pavilion about 100 feet long and forty feet wide which was built

for a dance hall. It is proposed to make the house habitable at once. The lower part of the pavilion will probably be used as a play room, and the upper part turned into a dormitory. One more cottage will be built at once to be occupied by the caretaker. Mrs. Bowen has included in the gift an endowment sufficient to pay all expenses of the place, with the exception of food and the transportation of those visiting it. She hopes in the future to erect more cottages—one for little girls, one for little boys, and one for young working girls. It is planned to keep one cottage open during the winter for working girls who are ill or need a vacation, or for anaemic children who need rest or the quiet of the country.

ARKANSAS FELLOW SERVANT LAW

The federal Supreme Court recently reversed a decision of the Supreme Court of the State of Arkansas which declared unconstitutional the Fellow Servant Law passed by the state legislature in 1907. This law made railroad companies and mine operators liable in damages for injuries or death of employes resulting from the carelessness of a fellow servant. The company in question (Aluminum Company of America), operating a railroad, based its defense on the fact that this was discriminatory legislation, since it applied to only two industries, and therefore violated the fourteenth amendment to the constitution. The State Supreme Court decided in favor of the company. The federal court reverses the decision on the ground that since all railroad corporations are included in the statute there is equality within the class, and since classification by the legislature is perfectly constitutional the fourteenth amendment is not violated in this case. The United States Supreme Court, however, does not settle a second point which was raised by the defense but which it found did not apply in this particular railroad case. The law applies to corporate employers but not to partners nor individual employers. The constitutionality of this discrimination is not passed on.

BIG SISTERS ORGANIZE IN PORTLAND

A Big Sisterhood has been organized in Portland, Ore., along the lines of the Big Brothers. It was instituted as an auxiliary to the already systematized aid being given women and girls by the settlement workers, the Juvenile Court for Girls, and the Municipal Department of Police Protection for Women. "The keynote of the work," to quote the secretary, Mrs. J. Allen Gilbert, "is co-operation with every organization which endeavors to help the delinquent, dependent, wayward, or needy girl. From a central committee of three a case is assigned to a Big Sister. Frequent reports are made back to the central committee, and at each monthly meeting of the seventy members now enrolled concrete cases and methods of meeting their needs are discussed. In addition there is also committee work. For example, a committee waited upon the judges

and editors of the city to confer in regard to the suppression of publicity, as far as possible, in cases where a stigma would be placed upon the girl. Especially was this asked in cases of contributory delinquency. Another committee is at work upon what has been done elsewhere in the teaching of sex hygiene to the young. Still another investigated the reasons why the waiting list at the Oregon State Institution for the Feeble-minded should be so large.

WOMEN AND THE MERIT SYSTEM

Civil Service Reform is looked upon as having been a burning subject in the public mind fifteen or twenty years ago, yet sustained efforts are being made today to interest young persons in it. Witness the Executive Committee of the Women's Auxiliary to the Civil Service Reform Association of New York, whose sixteenth annual report tells how it is trying to win women and girls, especially club women, to definite activity for the extension of the merit system. Over 2,500 circulars were sent to women's clubs the past year, designed to start investigation into the method of appointment to state, county, and municipal offices in different states, and to urge educational and legislative campaigns for the passage of civil service laws in the states that have none. Women's clubs of Idaho and Michigan are reported to be working hard for the passage of such bills now pending. The work is not confined to New York city, and there are few schools, colleges, Christian associations, settlements, libraries, and clubs in the United States that have not been reached. The principals of fifty-eight public schools in New York were asked this winter if they would permit essay contests to be held among their pupils, but the Board of Education prohibited such contests.

THE NEW WOMANHOOD

The New Womanhood is the title of a lecture to be delivered Tuesday, March 5, at Genealogical Hall, 226 West 58 street, by J. E. Owen of London, England. This is the third of a series by Miss Owen, the second of which will be upon the Philosophy of Robert Browning, February 27. Miss Owen has been identified with the Social and Political Education League, National Service League, and Women's Industrial Council of London.

COMPARATIVE KINDERGARTEN STUDY

In order to carry out its general purpose of harmonizing the different methods of educating children younger than six years of age, the National Kindergarten Association, 1 Madison avenue, has undertaken to discover the opinions of persons now engaged in teaching children by offering three prizes for essays on the benefits of the kindergarten. The first prize is \$100; second, \$50; third, \$25. The contest is open to all kindergartners and primary teachers. The Board of Directors suggests the following subjects:

Why should all our schools have kindergartens?

What the kindergarten does for the child. The influence of the kindergarten on the home.

The kindergarten as an up-lifting influence in the community.

TEMPERANCE AMENDMENT

Congressman Hobson of Alabama has introduced into the House of Representatives a joint resolution for an amendment to the federal constitution, prohibiting the "sale, manufacture for sale, and importation for sale of beverages containing alcohol, in the United States and in all territory under their jurisdiction." It was referred to the Committee on Alcoholic Liquor Traffic. The National Woman's Christian Temperance Union has announced that it is planning for a saloonless country within a decade.

FELLOWSHIPS FOR WOMEN

Three fellowships and four studentships in economic research are offered by the Women's Educational and Industrial Union of Massachusetts to women who are desirous of preparing themselves for active service in social-economic work. The subjects of investigations for the present concern the employment of women. During the last three years four industries in which women are employed for the manufacture or production of women's wear have been investigated, resulting in studies on dress-making, millinery, and machine operating on women's wear. The fields for research for the year 1912-1913 will include subjects which have grown out of the work of previous years, and may include studies in home work, bookbinding, or trade training. A candidate must hold a degree from a college of good standing.

The Research Department had its origin six years ago in the attempt of the institution to secure ideal conditions within and to stimulate public opinion and secure legislation for the protection and betterment of industrial workers throughout the state. The object of the Research Department is therefore threefold: To aid propagandism in the various directions outlined; to afford an opportunity for training in research; to establish a storehouse of facts concerning the industrial relations of women, and to see that these facts are utilized to the utmost.

For the purpose of stimulating scholarship among women the Boston branch of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae, aided by the Radcliffe Alumnae Association, the Boston Alumnae Club of Smith College, and by alumnae of Bryn Mawr College, Vassar College, Wellesley College, and Boston University, offers a graduate fellowship of five hundred dollars. The holder must be a "woman who is a graduate of an approved college, is of good health and excellent character, and has proved her ability and initiative. The fellowship must be used, in Europe or in America, for one year of constructive work, and not for purposes of general culture."

PERSONALS

It is sometimes said that the children of reformers take no interest in the reforms inaugurated by their parents. Frederick Howard Wines was a notable exception. His name is so closely identified with that of his father, Dr. E. C. Wines, the distinguished penologist, that the seam where the work of the one ended and that of the other began is difficult to find. To those who knew them both the life of one is merged in that of the other, and the history of the son seems to have begun only when the mantle of the father fell upon his shoulders.

Long before that, however, Dr. Wines had lived a life of his own, as a boy in a minister's home, as a young man in college, as a worker during the civil war in charge of the refugees brought by our troops into Missouri, as pastor in the First Presbyterian Church of Springfield, Ill., and as public lecturer and publicist. No parish, however, was large enough to hold him, and the state of Illinois was fortunate enough to secure his services for many years as secretary of the State Board of Public Charities and again after his national work on the census, so that at the end he died in her service.

As secretary of the state board he became familiar with all the details of charitable and correctional work and acquired a fund of knowledge and experience of untold value. He was tactful and considerate in his dealings with men and institutions. His great good sense, grasp of principles, and clear and concise way of putting things made him leader in Illinois and in the larger conferences made up of state officials, as in the National Conference of Charities and Correction which he helped to organize. So closely did he adhere to the original plan of this society as a union of members of state boards that he was never quite reconciled to its phenomenal growth and the wide range of subjects brought under discussion. He was so active and alive himself that he did not willingly resign the reins to the next generation.

Mr. Wines belonged to that wonderful group of men who, in the historic Prison Congress of 1870, announced the principles on which the best penology has been founded. Like brothers these men worked together, honoring one another. Thus Mr. Wines, whom the world at this day holds to have been of foremost help in promoting prison reform, once said of his co-workers: "The remarkable impulse given in the latter half of the nineteenth century to the cause of prison reform in the United States is chiefly attributable to three men, of whom two—F. S. Sanborn and Z. R. Brockway—survive to rejoice in the abundant harvest from seed planted in what then appeared to be sterile and unpromising soil. Dr. Wines [his father] has long been 'where the wicked cease from troubling.' Dissimilar as were these three in temperament,

experience, and habits of thought, their fundamental agreement as to the nature of the changes demanded in criminal law and its administration, and their mutual regard and affection, so united them in purpose that they constituted a threefold cord not quickly broken." F. H. Wines was easily the fourth to make a four-ply cord. One has but to read his admirable books on these subjects, so clear, direct, simple, and appealing, to appreciate his secret of influencing thoughtful people. His mind was the home of high thought, and his facile pen and ready speech made him convincing and inspiring. He was also gentle and tender. At a conference of charities and correction he once held a great audience in almost breathless sympathy as he related an incident showing the strength of mother-love as exhibited in the affection of a woman for an imbecile daughter so shapeless and deformed that she was known as "the snake girl." Her love, said he, was so manifest "that in that hour I got a new sense of the love of God for his children which I have never lost, and which has often comforted me in my own deepest sorrows."

This sympathetic spirit was at the basis of his many warm friendships and of his devotion and loyalty to his family. He could hardly utter the words "my father" without a tremor in his voice, and the many tributes he paid to him abound in loving appreciation.

The list of topics on which Mr. Wines wrote during his long life is varied and interesting, but they are mainly allied to charities and prison reform.¹ Cultured by much study and

¹Mr. Wines wrote the following books: *Defective, Dependent, and Delinquent Classes in the United States* (Vol. of 10th Census); *Crime, Pauperism, and Benevolence in the United States* (Vol. of 11th Census); *Punishment and Reformation, 1895: The Liquor Problem in Its Legislative Aspects, 1897, 1898*. He was the author also of numerous pamphlets on charities and penology, reports of the State Board of Charities of Illinois, etc.

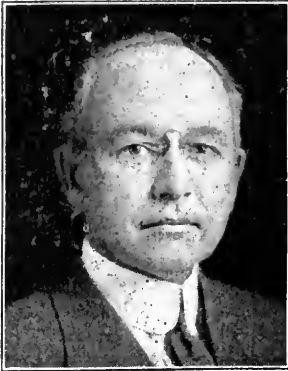
wide travel, he seldom went far afield in branches outside his own domain, but his contributions to the various charities and penal matters were invaluable. He had always the courage of his convictions and by nature as well as by his religious training he was ready to stand with the minority if he deemed that minority on the side of truth and justice.

He gloried in calling attention to the work of his associates. "They were in his thought harbingers of the dawn of a new day." These words that he applied to his father we believe were true of the son. He also was a harbinger of a better day, and while he lived he earnestly tried to prepare the world for its welcome dawn.

ISABEL C. BARROWS.

Arthur William Dunn, the new executive secretary of the Public Education Association of New York, brings to his duties an exceptional equipment on both the educational and the civic side. A native of Illinois, he was graduated from Knox College in 1893, and received his M. A. degree from this college

three years later. After two years (1896-98) passed as director of the university extension department and instructor in English at the University of Cincinnati, he went to Chicago as a Fellow in the department of sociology. He left this position in 1900 to take up teaching in the public schools of Indianapolis and



ARTHUR W. DUNN.

continued in this work for ten years during the last three of which he held the position of Director of Civics. While there he wrote and published the *Community and the Citizen*, in which is laid down a new method of training in civics which has been successfully applied in many parts of the country since 1907. Dr. George Kerschensteiner of Munich has repeatedly recommended this book to his countrymen.

In Indianapolis Mr. Dunn did not confine himself to school work, but played his part in civic life. In 1908-09, he served as chairman of the Education Committee of the Commercial Club, and during the following year as chairman of the club's Civic Improvement Commission. He resigned his position in the schools of Indianapolis in 1910, to take up the duties of civic secretary of the City Club of Philadelphia. While serving there he was invited by Superintendent Brumbaugh of the Philadelphia public schools to aid in reorganizing the school course in civics, and served also as chairman of the Committee on Civic Education of the National Municipal League. With an acute analytic faculty Mr. Dunn unites a sober judgment. His first work for the Public Education Association, carried on in connection with a committee of that body, has been the construction of a program of work for the past winter.

J. K. PAULDING.

In the charity organization world Charles Finney Cox was one of the builders of the New York society. He entered its service as a member of its Seventh District Committee in 1890. In the same year he became a member of its Central Council, two years later a member of its Executive Committee and was

a vice-president at the time of his death January 24. There is hardly an important committee of the society on which he has not served and to the activities of which he had not given initiative and direction. He was first chairman of its Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis upon the organization of that committee in 1902. He was an original member of its Committee on Philanthropic Education, which was formed in the year 1899. In the year 1892 he became chairman of a special committee to consider the advisability of inaugurating a Provident Loan Society, to correct the evils then attaching to the pawnbroking business. This committee reported in favor of the organization of such a society, and its report led two years later to the organization of a society for philanthropic pawnbroking on a business basis, under the title of the Provident Loan Society. It started with a modest capital of \$100,000 and now operates on a contributed capital of \$6,000,000, and loaned last year over \$13,000,000. Mr. Cox was one of the incorporators and original trustees of that society and continued active in its affairs until shortly before his death.

Mr. Cox's service to the Charity Organization Society was modestly rendered, and his counsels always carried conviction. The tie which bound him most closely to his associates, however, was not his ability and experience, marked as both were, but his own personality and sincerity of purpose.

The charity organization circle was only one of Mr. Cox's many spheres of public service. He had a keen interest in scientific work; was president of the New York Microscopical Society in 1888, a prominent member of the Linnaean and New York Zoological Societies, and one of the founders and chief promoters of the New York Botanical Gardens, of which he served as treasurer until the time of his death. Foreign scientific honors and American university honors were his likewise.

Charles H. Chute has been called from the service of the National Child Labor Committee to the secretaryship of the Pennsylvania Committee on Child Labor, recently vacated by Frederick S. Hall, who succeeded Francis H. McLean as associate director of the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation.¹ The improved child labor legislation enacted in Indiana last year followed a personal investigation by Mr. Chute of the glass industry, his study covering every factory in Ohio, Illinois, and Indiana and many of the factories in Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and other states. The son of a Congregational minister in Massachusetts, Mr. Chute graduated from Oberlin College and then travelled for a lumber insurance company. He is a graduate also of the New York School of Philanthropy.

¹See THE SURVEY, October 21, 1911, page 1065.

The students of the State University at Fargo, N. D., held recently a non-partisan national political convention. La Follette, Harmon, Wilson, Taft, Roosevelt, and several others were put in nomination for the head of the ticket; but one man's name was placed on the ticket with each of these, as vice-president. That man was Judge Lindsey of Denver. This college incident has led to considerable gossip in the Denver papers, running up into rather large headlines as to the juvenile court bench and the presidency. Judge Lindsey has been asked from various sources to become a candidate for vice-president with Governor Wilson, but has stated very clearly that he has no desire to become a candidate for vice-president, "no thought or expectation of being a candidate for any office except Juvenile Court judge." The latest rumor is that he is to be Colonel Roosevelt's running mate.

The preventive and educational work of the Brooklyn, N. Y., Bureau of Charities has recently been put under a new department, called the Department of Social Betterment, with James Jenkins, Jr., as director. Mr. Jenkins is the executive secretary of the Committee on Prevention of Tuberculosis of the Bureau of Charities. For two years he was associated with the Committee on Tuberculosis of the Charity Organization Society of New York. The department of Social Betterment has taken up Tenement House Reform and the Prevention of Tuberculosis, and plans to enter other fields soon.

Willard V. Trevo has been appointed secretary of the Tenement House Committee. During the past four years Mr. Trevo has taught in a boys' school.

Richard Waterman, for the past two years secretary of the City Club of Philadelphia, recently became financial secretary for the Philadelphia Children's Hospital. The directors of the Children's Hospital are planning a campaign to raise a million dollars to erect and endow new hospital buildings on a site that has been purchased at 18th and Fitzwater streets. It is proposed to make the institution the best equipped and finest Children's hospital in this country. Mr. Waterman will perfect the plans for the new buildings and then direct the financial campaign. As a preliminary step a study will be made of the need for new hospital facilities for children in Philadelphia.

Mr. Waterman brings to this new work a trained mind and rich experience as a social engineer. On graduating from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, he continued his training at the University of Chicago and abroad. For six years, while principal of a large public school in Chicago, he was active in civic and social movements in that city. From there he went to Boston to become Mr. Filene's private secretary, assisting him in many of his philanthropic achievements—notably the Boston City Club, of which Mr. Waterman was assistant sec-

retary and one of the directors. As secretary of the Philadelphia City Club, Mr. Waterman has been active in making the club one of the most progressive and useful civic organizations in the city.

Workers for the blind throughout the country lost a gifted personality in the death in the late fall of Wilhelmina Dranga Campbell.



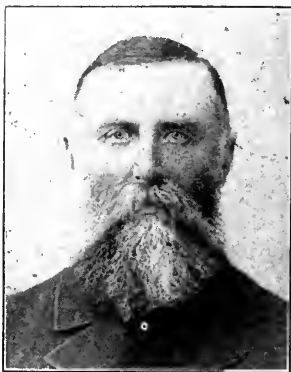
WILHELMINA D. CAMPBELL.

Mrs. Campbell died of pneumonia at Columbus, where her husband, Charles F. F. Campbell, had recently become executive secretary of the Ohio State Commission for the Blind. Both as co-editor of the *Outlook For The Blind* and as an active executive, Mrs. Campbell for years threw herself into movements for improving educational and industrial opportunities for those handicapped in vision. Her training was in the Massachusetts Normal Art School, and following her marriage in 1903 she applied it to the new field in which her husband's interests lay, lecturing with lantern slides on the undeveloped capacity for usefulness among the blind, and helping Mr. Campbell to found the Massachusetts experiment stations for the trade training of the blind. In this field she found opportunity to work out the unique art fabrics which are now woven by the blind in many states.

The appointment of Oscar Leonard to the superintendency of the United Jewish Educational and Charitable Associations of St. Louis holds special interest in that Mr. Leonard is himself an immigrant who has belonged—and still belongs in sympathies and understanding—to those whom he will serve. Mr. Leonard is thirty years old. He came to America from Roumania when seventeen years of age and worked in a New York factory. Eight years ago he came to St. Louis and, though he has gained his livelihood by feature work on the newspapers, Mr. Leonard has constantly been a social worker

from whom other social workers were sure of gaining prompt, energetic, and enthusiastic aid. At all times during his St. Louis residence he has been the leader of high-spirited groups of social students—the idealistic, poor young Jews studying modern drama or discussing knotty social problems in the People's Forum. In one of these groups Mr. Leonard met the young immigrant who is now his wife and co-worker. Last year Mr. Leonard graduated from the School of Social Economy and early in the summer became a Juvenile Court probation officer.

By the death of Dr. J. W. Y. Fishbourne at his home in Melbourne, Australia, a great leader in the world's work for the mentally affected has been lost. Sixty-eight years old, Dr. Fishbourne had been for nearly forty



DR. J. W. Y. FISHBOURNE.

years a specialist in mental diseases. In season and out of season he preached that the public should recognize and accept full responsibility for these unfortunate members of the community through early care and observation, through the establishment of adequate and sufficient sanatoria and hospitals for the insane, conducted on the most enlightened principles, and through the provision of permanent care for the mentally defective. With the plans for widespread sterilization of the unfit he had little sympathy, considering that they were but an evasion of our real social responsibilities.

Among the public positions which Dr. Fishbourne had held were those of superintendent of the Hospitals for the Insane at Ararat and at Kew, and later that of Health Officer of Essendon, all in the state of Victoria. He was at the time of his death the head of a school for deficient children which he and his daughters had conducted for fifteen years. He was one of the originators of Australia's first epileptic colony. His last public appearance, a week before his death, was at a meeting of the Hospital Sunday Committee to ensure the name of the Talbot Epileptic Colony being added to the list of charities to be benefited. During the same week he con-

tributed a paper to the Australian Medical Congress sitting in Sydney, on work for the epileptic in the United States.

Dr. Fishbourne was the son of the Rev. Robert Fishbourne, of Ardagh, Ireland, and a graduate of Trinity College, Dublin.

The memory of one who has done so much for the mentally defective and deranged is to be perpetuated in the very practical form of an extension to the Talbot Epileptic Colony, situated a few miles out of Melbourne.

ALICE HENRY.

Mayor Blankenburg has commended his administration to many Philadelphians by his selection of cabinet members as noted in a recent issue of THE SURVEY.¹ Heads of departments selected by the mayor have, with one possible exception, been closely identified with some of the more active agencies for the improvement of social conditions. The re-appointment of Dr. Joseph S. Neff as director of Health and Charities was particularly gratifying to the social workers of the city, who became accustomed under Dr. Neff's former administration to expect prompt and effective co-operation from the department. It is especially encouraging that the director, with the approval of the mayor, has asked Alexander M. Wilson, the director of Phipps Institute and a well known social worker, to serve as his colleague for the next four years.

Mr. Wilson, a Pennsylvanian by birth, is a graduate of Westminster College and of Princeton University. He spent some years in teaching and railroading. After graduating from the New York School of Philanthropy in 1903, he became executive secretary of the Charity Organization Society of Jersey City, then Executive Secretary of the Boston Anti-Tuberculosis Society, and later occupied a similar position in Chicago. There he also took up the work of the Chicago Bureau of Charities, succeeding Ernest P. Bicknell. As director of Phipps Institute in Philadelphia, for the last two years, he has been not merely the leader of the campaign to eradicate tuberculosis from the state but has given freely of his time and thought to other lines of social endeavor. He is president of the South-western District Conference of the Society for Organizing Charity and chairman of the board of directors of the Joint Registration Bureau. His appointment as assistant director of the Department of Health and Charities gives to the city for the first time in its history the services of a trained social worker in the director's office.

By creating the office of superintendent of Charities and Correction as a part of the city administration of Cincinnati, and by appointing to that position Dr. Otto P. Geier, identified with the campaign for pure milk, Mayor Henry T. Hunt gratified the progressive spirits of Cincinnati. This office is to

¹See THE SURVEY, December 16, 1911, page 1356.



MARY MACARTHUR.



WILLIAM C. ANDERSON.

be under the director of Public Safety. It will have charge of medical and sociological work in the city institutions, including the City Hospital, the Hospital for Consumptives, the House of Refuge for delinquent and dependent children, the work-house for adult offenders, the infirmary, and the Municipal Lodging House, and will have supervision over the inspection of tenements.

It will direct all of the city's medical work not under the Department of Health, such as the medical and surgical work of the police and fire departments. A staff of five salaried physicians devoting their time entirely to the service of the city will be assigned to duty in the several institutions and may be called upon at any time for help in special work undertaken by the superintendent; besides these physicians there will be an advisory staff of four unpaid medical specialists who will be called into consultation concerning the treatment of the city's deformed and defective charges, the cure of drunkenness, specific diseases, etc.

Dr. Geier combines thorough training in medical practice and considerable experience in allied social work with a broad outlook upon civic problems. His most conspicuous service has been rendered in connection with the campaign for pure milk. As secretary since 1906 of the Cincinnati Milk Commission, he secured the Ohio law prohibiting the use of distillery slop as feed for cattle. This commission was the first organization of its kind to be granted the services of an expert by the federal Department of Agriculture for making tuberculin tests of cattle and officially inspecting all dairies. Dr. Geier started the movement for the formation of the American Association of Medical Milk Commissions, of which he has been secretary since 1907. This association of hy-

gienists and sanitarians has commissions in sixty-eight cities of the United States and Canada.

"His wife I was," said a great woman of her husband long after he had passed away, "but also his comrade in all that pertained to his public life." It is typical of the world's new life that we more and more hear of marriage between co-workers, and the latest happy example of this is the union of William C. Anderson, Labor member of the British House of Commons, and chairman of the Independent Labor Party, to Mary R. MacArthur, secretary of the British Women's Trade Union League.

Mr. Anderson is a Scotchman and started life as a druggist's assistant, and while so engaged became a member of the Shop Assistants' Union. It was when he came south to Lancashire that he came in touch, through his union, with Socialism. He joined the Independent Labor Party and after a few years rose to be its chairman.

Miss MacArthur, Scotch also, is the daughter of a manufacturer. When a young girl she went into her father's office. After attending a meeting of some unorganized shop assistants out on strike she entered the world of organized labor. Her powers of organization and leadership led to her appointment as secretary of the British Women's Trade Union League, a position which she continues (as Mary MacArthur) to retain since her marriage.

The ceremony took place at the City Temple and was celebrated by the Rev. R. J. Campbell, in the presence only of Miss MacArthur's immediate relatives and friends, all of whom she has won over to the principles she and her husband represent.

ALICE HENRY.

National Child Labor Committee

105 EAST 22d STREET, NEW YORK CITY

NEW YORK, February 20, 1912.

EDITOR OF THE SURVEY,
105 E. 22d St., NEW YORK.

DEAR SIR:

Please tell your subscribers that if any wish a copy of the arguments for the Federal Children's Bureau presented by Lillian D. Wald, Jane Addams, Leo Arnstein, Judge Ben B. Lindsey, Dr. Henry B. Favill, Prof. Charles R. Henderson, Florence Kelley, and Dr. Samuel McCune Lindsay, they can get a copy by sending a postal card to this office.

In the present Congress this Bill is known as Senate Bill 252. The Bill passed the Senate on January 31st and is now before the House.

Sincerely yours,

OWEN R. LOVEJOY,
General Secretary.

Classified Advertisements

ADVERTISING RATES ARE: "Want advertisements," under the various headings, "Situations Wanted," "Help Wanted," etc., five cents for each word or initial, including the address, for each insertion. The first word of each advertisement is set in capital letters without additional charge. Other words may be set in capitals, if desired, at double rates. Replies will be forwarded by us to the advertiser.

SITUATIONS WANTED

PRESENT Chief Probation Officer wants Superintendency or Assistant's place in Industrial School or Reformatory. Best reference. Address C. M., SURVEY.

POSITION by a man as Secretary of Charity Organization Society or as Executive officer of organization planning social or civic work—College graduate. Age 30. Experienced. Address Official, SURVEY.

A GENTLEMAN of large experience in institutional work desires a position of executive character. Apply M, SURVEY.

WANTED for June, July or longer, a position as Investigator for a New York charity. Address Investigator, SURVEY.

AMERICAN woman of 33, liberally educated, experienced as teacher, church social service secretary, settlement worker, now Sup't of orphanage, would take charge of settlement, club work or institution, preferably in Middle or Far West. Address Friend, SURVEY.

HELP WANTED

WANTED: A trained Jewish woman social worker for relief work with Jewish institution in Chicago. Address A.B., c/o THE SURVEY, 31 W. Lake St., Chicago.

GENERAL Secretary by society in college town of 10,000 in Middle West doing family rehabilitation and general social work. Salary \$900 per year. Address, D. O. SURVEY.

FOR RENT

ROOMS—In a settlement neighborhood, steam heat, running water, moderate rents. Ladies only. References. 221 E. 104th street.

TO CHICAGO READERS OF THE SURVEY

Who may have files of THE SURVEY, complete or incomplete, for the last two or three years. Will you assist The Chicago Women's Trade Union League in replacing the files lost in the recent fire? Sets of books also welcome.

Please communicate with the Secretary, Room 201, 31 W. Lake St. Telephone: Randolph 2455.

OCTOBER 28 ISSUE WANTED

UNEXPECTED demand has exhausted the files of THE SURVEY for January 13, 1912. Subscribers who do not save their copies for binding are urged to return this issue for the benefit of new subscribers and of libraries. Send it to THE SURVEY, 105 East 22d street, New York.

SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

OUR MOST CONSPICUOUS FAILURE

No editor can summarize in two pages the extraordinarily valuable articles which we present in this number of *THE SURVEY* on various aspects of the relation between feeble-mindedness and the general welfare. You—social worker, citizen, teacher, minister, law-maker, whoever you may be that read this paragraph—must read them for yourself. Read and digest them and then act as your informed intelligence and your capacity for indignation and for pity lead you to act. Read them all—Dr. Goddard, Dr. Fernald, Dr. Davenport, Dr. Schlapp, Dr. Little, Dr. Davis, Mr. Johnstone, Mr. Kirkbride, Miss Johnson, and Miss Kite. Not one of them could be spared; and for your sake, conscientious but always hurried reader, we have insisted on compressing their several messages into the briefest possible compass.

Governor John A. Dix contributes to this number an eloquent exposition of his policy of developing and conserving the state's natural resources, embodied in a bill now before the legislature which the governor is rightly proud to have known as his pet measure; and Fiscal Supervisor Dennis McCarthy applies the idea to lands held by the state institutions. The governor deprecates the accumulation of wealth accompanied by the decay of men. There is no better test of the genuine appreciation of this doctrine than the future action of the legislature and governor in the matter of the appropriation for the development of Letchworth Village and other similar institutions. Parsimony in such appropriations will mean precisely and literally the decay of men for the saving of a little wealth. Here we have to do not with a possible and hypothetical deterioration of character, but with demonstrable mental and physical degeneracy. From feeble-mindedness comes a very large part of all our prostitution, alcoholism, crime, pauperism, and disease. This too is demonstrable and is once more clearly demonstrated by the typical facts set forth in these articles. By segregation in comfortable and well managed institutions and colonies, we attack these evils at their source. By neglecting to provide such care and by treating the feeble-minded as if they were responsible for their acts, we exhibit the most astounding folly, the most complete disregard of all sound principles of human conservation. Not by cutting appropriations for state institutions, but if necessary by resorting to a direct state tax, should the balance between receipts and expenditures be maintained. Notice should be served now upon the committees and members of the legislature and upon the governor that their support is confidently expected in the rapid development of Letchworth Village as the next obvious step in this state in reversing the fatuous policy which has condemned to prisons and reformatories thousands of unfortunate children of mature years but of immature minds; which has left at large in the community tens of thousands to become harlots, drunkards, and paupers who should have been recognized even in childhood as incompetent and tenderly cared for, if necessary at public expense; and which has entailed upon us and upon our posterity a grievous

burden of illegitimacy and degeneracy ten-fold more expensive than all the hospital and institutional care for which state boards of charities and state conferences of charities have been making their vain petitions.

Feeble-mindedness as a continuing heritage, as a persistent cause of poverty, dependence, crime, and misery must be abolished. No doubt there are forms of disease which result in impairment of the minds of normal infants, and idiocy may be expected in individual sporadic cases until these obscure injuries are better understood. But the feeble-mindedness which fills the almshouses to overflowing, recruits the jails and prisons, clogs the reformatories, furnishes victims to the white slave traffickers, and intermingles unhindered with healthy strains to gain a new vitality and to extend its blight to hitherto untainted families—this feeble-mindedness which is obvious, obtruding itself whether we like it or not upon public notice, laughing to scorn our penny wisdom by imposing its pounds sterling of foolishness on every tax payer, this surplus feeble-mindedness, we must drain off as the true human conservationists are showing us how to drain it, by providing adequately for all who will voluntarily accept custodial care, and for those who are dangerous to their neighbors, even though it means compulsion.

We need as a basis for a complete social policy accurate statistics of feeble-mindedness. They are hard to get, as the census authorities have discovered, but this means only adopting better and more appropriate means.

The New York Chamber of Commerce is right in urging upon Congress adequate appropriations to enable the commissioner of immigration to detect and exclude alien immigrants who are mentally and physically defective. These decisions should be made, if it is practicable, at the port of departure instead of on arrival here, and in every way possible the hardships imposed by the immigration law on those who are excluded and their families should be mitigated. But the defective should be excluded.

In the public schools a constant watch should be kept for those who require institutional care and for those who can be retained safely and taught with success in special classes. Those who are feeble-minded should have attention quite as much as normal children, but they should have appropriate attention and not ordinary class-room work from which they can derive no advantage.

In the courts the defective delinquent should be recognized, just as we recognize the juvenile delinquent, and this discrimination, before sentence is pronounced, should become the basis of the decision as to what treatment is required.

The greatest need of all is for more institutional care. When this has been brought about in every state we shall witness a great gaol delivery even more significant than that which has followed the discontinuance of imprisonment for debt, or the abolition of the saloon, or the introduction of the probation and parole system. Care for the feeble-minded adequately for a generation and expenditures for prisons, reformatories, police, fires, hospitals, and almshouses will be enormously reduced, or, what is even better, expenditures for such purposes will be accomplishing desirable tasks which we have not yet had the courage to undertake. Biology and economics unite in demanding that the strains of feeble-mindedness shall be eliminated by the humane segregation of the mentally defective.

THE COMMON WELFARE

MOVEMENT UNDER WAY FOR INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION

The movement for a Federal Commission on Industrial Relations is making headway. Various conferences have been held in New York, Washington, Chicago, and elsewhere among groups interested in the project, a national committee has been organized to secure action by Congress, and a measure drafted.

The committee, like the signers of the communication¹ to President Taft, who first urged the need for such a federal inquiry, is made up of people not directly concerned in industrial disputes either as employers or employes, who nevertheless know conditions of labor at first hand. They are proceeding on the basis that the position of the public is not merely that of an outraged umpire in the struggle between two contending forces in our economic life, but that of the prime sovereign of the rules of the game. We hear often during strikes that the rights of the great third party must not suffer. It is the contention of the committee that the public has not only rights but obligations, and that such a governmental inquiry which will throw light on the exact factors entering into our industrial relations is the first step in meeting those obligations. What is proposed, however, in the words of Jane Addams, whose name heads the list of members, is not a reiteration of what has long been said on the subject of conciliation and arbitration, but an investigation from a newer point of view, based on the profound changes in our industrial life in recent years. As pointed out² in a pamphlet issued by the committee, the growth of industry which in fifty years has changed the face of the country is but half the story. The growth of in-

dustrial corporations in which industry has taken shape has in turn thrust new problems of individual rights and public responsibility deep into the working life of Americans. In numbers which mount higher with every year, the citizens of the United States look to these new and massed forms of employments for their livelihood. They have become the permanent basis on which much family life and citizenship depend. The purpose of such a federal commission would be in the last analysis to survey the relations which we as free, self-governing people thus bear to corporate forms of work.

Edward T. Devine is chairman of the committee; Adolph Lewisohn, one of the group of New York philanthropists who have given so largely to progressive social reform, vice-chairman; Lillian D. Wald, head worker of the Nurses' Settlement, treasurer. Allen T. Burns, secretary of the Pittsburgh Civic Commission, has been granted leave of absence by that body to act as Washington representative. Militant economists, social workers, churchmen, and civic leaders make up the committee, which has found remarkable backing both from progressive manufacturers and the labor press. Harvard, Williams, Yale, Chicago, Columbia, Cornell, Leland Stanford, the Catholic University of America, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin, and St. Paul's Seminary are included in the membership—an unusual battery of university men forging into public affairs.

The backing of some of the leading members of both houses of Congress, both Republican and Democratic, has been enlisted, and the co-operation of readers of *THE SURVEY* is asked by the Committee in securing the active support of their representatives and congressmen.¹

¹See *THE SURVEY*, December 30, 1911.

²*WORK RELATIONSHIPS AND THE DEMOCRACY*. A pamphlet setting forth the proposal for the federal commission. By Paul U. Kellogg. Copies to be had from the committee.

¹The office of the committee is Room 607 Kent Hall, 116th street and Amsterdam avenue, New York, from which printed matter may be obtained.

THE EMBARGO ON STRIKE CHILDREN

Fifteen children of Lawrence strikers, whose ages ranged from two to twelve years, became the bone of contention between a score of foreign mothers and the city police on February 24, in the ineffectual attempt by the strikers' committee to send a delegation of children to Philadelphia. Col. E. Leroy Sweetser, in charge of the militia, had issued an order early in the week that a repetition of the New York excursions of the two previous weeks would not be allowed, and the new city marshal, John J. Sullivan, had warned the strikers' committee the night before.

Forty children and as many fathers and mothers were on hand before the train for Boston arrived. The city marshal and twenty policemen told the groups of parents that they had a choice either of going home peaceably, or of being locked in the police station if they attempted to put their children aboard the train. Most of the mothers clung to their children—some, infants in arms—and when the train pulled into the station the policemen with drawn clubs hustled the shrieking women and children aboard a big ordnance truck from the state arsenal. In the guard room of the police station, mothers and children were held until well into the afternoon, when Associate Judge Rouell declared that under the statute I consider these neglected children. When parents voluntarily allow their children to go from their custody to a city hundreds of miles away, it appears to be nothing short of neglect.

Until their hearing before the Juvenile Court the children were sent to the City Home, a procedure which Robert S. Maloney, commissioner of charities, characterized as a

foolish and heartless makeshift. It was plainly unknown to the probation officers that a record of pauperism stands against all inmates of the City Home and that in this instance the parents would also be regarded as paupers.

Such conservative papers as the New York *Sun* and the Boston *Herald*, which have been sharply critical of the conduct of the strikers, have not minced words in declaring that the Lawrence authorities in this instance overshot their mark, and invaded personal liberty.

FEDERAL REGULATION OF WORKING HOURS

One of the interesting by-products of the Lawrence strike, which may become a permanent issue growing out of it, is the introduction into the House of Representatives by Congressman McCall, of Massachusetts, of a bill of remarkable brevity but big in significance. It reads:

That the following article is proposed as an amendment to the Constitution of the United States:

Congress shall have power to pass laws regulating the hours of labor throughout the United States.

Mr. McCall holds that with a uniform tariff law the manufacturer should be protected by uniformity in the regulation of this other important element in production. Child labor legislation and legislation limiting women's hours of work are necessary and proper, he holds, but only result in the long run in driving the manufacturers from states where the regulation of hours is stringent to those where it is lax. In corroboration of this, he points to the recent rise of the textile industry in the South, where there is little or no factory legislation. In other words, regular Mr. McCall, like insurgent Senator Beveridge, comes out for federal regulation of industry. He would accomplish, however, by the slow but direct method of constitutional amendment what Senator Beveridge wanted to accomplish in a quick, round-about way in the field of child labor reform, by prohibiting child-made goods from interstate commerce. This latter method the Massachusetts Congressman regards as legal evasion.

The bill, or rather the joint resolution, has been referred to the judiciary committee and there is a chance that there will be a hearing on it this session. Then the clumsy machinery of constitutional amendment would be set in motion toward the day when the various child labor committees, labor unions, and consumers' leagues could fold their little tents at Albany and Trenton and Madison and Columbus, and join at Washington under the spread of a great two-winged caravansary.

DEATH MATCHES IN THE DARK

In spite of the favorable hearing before the Congressional Ways and Means Committee January 10, it is learned that the Esch Phosphorus Bill was on January 25 referred to a secret sub-committee. Before this extraordinary action was taken ten of the twenty-one members of the full committee had promised to vote for the bill. It is understood that at least four of the five members of this new secret sub-committee are not among those who had so promised.

One year ago the bill was referred to a sub-committee of which John Dalzell, of Pittsburgh, was chairman. The only result was another full year's delay. This latest method to smother the legislation has served, however, to win new friends for it. The following comment is in point:

The *Outlook* [February 17]: The method for putting an end to the practice (use of poisonous phosphorus in matches) proposed in the Esch Bill not only would be efficacious but it is a perfectly legitimate and proper use of the taxing power of the federal government.

New York *Times* [February 6]: The bill is being treated in a cowardly way by the Ways and Means Committee.

New York *Evening Post* [February 8]: To attempt to smother such a bill in committee is an outrage. . . . Any congressman, big or little, upon whom can be fastened a responsibility for the present tactics of delay may count on having a hard reckoning to settle with the people before his account is closed.

New York *Christian Advocate* [January 18]: It ought not to be necessary for any thoughtful and conscientious representative to be goaded to his duty like an obstinate steer.

Reading (Penn.) *Herald* [January 11]: To the thoughtful layman it would appear that the bill ought to become a law straightway. Unhappily we are not all thoughtful laymen.

New York *Globe* [February 9]: If it dies in the white phosphorus committee's hands the worst possible construction is sure to be put upon the case.

New York *Press* [February 9]: There ought to be some way of reaching that committee.

Philadelphia *Inquirer* [February 8]: The point is that Congress was very quick to use the taxing power in a case where a large body of voters was affected, and it is very slow to use it now where the considerations are less political than humane.

TAFT FAVORABLE TO COMPENSATION

The compensation bill proposed by the federal Employers' Liability and Workmen's Compensation Commission was formally presented to Congress by President Taft last week. In the message which accompanied the commission's report and bill, the president strongly recommended its passage, saying:

I deem it one of the greatest steps of progress toward a satisfactory solution of an important phase of the controversies between employer and employe that has been proposed within the last two decades.

In addition to the reasons commonly urged for a law which does away with the old liability system, President Taft points out its probable important effect on congestion in the courts:

The administration of justice today is clogged in every court by the great number of suits for damages for personal injury. The settlement of such cases by this system will serve to reduce the burden of our courts one-half by taking the cases out of court and disposing of them by this short cut. The remainder of the business in the courts will thus have greater attention from the judges, and will be disposed of with much greater dispatch.

On the constitutionality of the bill, concerning which he is well equipped to speak, the president has this to say:

Three objections to the validity of the bill of course occur: In the first place, the question arises whether under the provisions of the commerce clause the bill could be considered to be a regulation of interstate and foreign commerce. That seems to be already settled by the decision of the Supreme Court in the employers' liability case.

The second question is whether the making of these remedies exclusive and the compelling of the railroad companies to meet obligations arising from injuries for which the railroad would not be liable under the common law is a denial of the due process of law which is enjoined upon Congress by the fifth amendment to the Constitution in dealing with the property rights.

This question the report takes up and in an exhaustive review of the authorities makes clear, as it seems to me, the validity of the act. This is the question which in the Court of Appeals of the state of New York was decided adversely to the validity of the compensation act adopted by the legislature of that state. How far that act and the one here proposed differ it is unnecessary to state. It is sufficient to say that the argument of

the commission is most convincing to show that the police power of the government exercised in the regulation of interstate commerce is quite sufficient to justify the imposition upon the interstate railroad companies of the liability for the injuries to its employes on an insurance basis.

The third objection is that the right of trial by jury, guaranteed by the seventh amendment, is denied. As a matter of fact, the right is preserved in this act by permitting a jury to pass on the issue when duly demanded, in accordance with the limitation of the act.

Following the reading of the message Senator Sutherland introduced the bill, which was referred to the Committee on the Judiciary.

NEW YORK TO COMPETE WITH HER LOAN SHARKS

After three years of agitation New York city began this week her first attempt to compete with the "loan shark." The step taken, besides constituting a blow at the most virulent and resourceful "loan shark" ring in the country, may give nation-wide impetus to the fight now gathering head against this class of social miscreant.¹

The Chattel Loan Society of New York, Inc., a remedial institution incorporated under the banking laws of the state, has been organized for the purpose of enabling small borrowers to obtain loans at reasonable rates of interest upon the security of chattels. Office has been opened on the fourteenth floor of the Germania Life Building, 50 Union Square. Organized on the initiative of the Russell Sage Foundation, it has a paid-in capital of \$200,000. This is nearly double the capital of any similar agency in existence and three times that of most others. The new society is not a charitable institution. It is a business organization to be conducted on sound business lines. Interest will be charged at the outset at the legal rate of 2 per cent per month. The hope is expressed that this can be reduced later. Returns to its contributors are limited to 6 per cent per annum. For a time its field of action will be confined to the borough of Manhattan, and only a limited number of applicants

will receive attention. These will be required to demonstrate both their ability to repay the loan and their need for it. It is not the purpose to the new society to encourage borrowing.

If the society meets the demand for small chattel loans among the deserving it will have fulfilled the declared expectations of its organizers. The experience of similar societies conducted with much less capital in smaller cities is that the gambler and spendthrift can not easily be induced to leave the professional money-lender, who asks no questions. But the deserving borrower is more apt to go to those who will not exploit his need.

Years of fruitless struggle with this problem, declare the organizers of the new society, have shown that the loan shark has arisen in response to a real need. Publicity campaigns and legislative activity, it is felt, cannot permanently curtail his operations. For example, in spite of laws in New York intended to protect small borrowers, usurers successfully charge rates as high as 500 per cent per annum, the interest seldom running lower than 120 per cent. Reform is negative, it is declared, unless accompanied by an agency that will perform the service of the professional exploiter at reasonable rates and under humane methods.

The officers of the society are:

Robert W. de Forest, president;
Mortimer L. Schiff, vice-president;
Pierre Jay, treasurer;
Arthur H. Ham, secretary;
R. R. Stevens, general manager.

The board of directors includes:

George D. Pratt,	Geo. S. Brewster,
Harold T. White,	John D. Crimmins,
Paul D. Cravath,	Wm. Sloane,
John M. Glenn,	Edwin G. Merrill,
Johnston de Forest,	Henry Ruhlender,
Frank Tucker,	

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE ON DEFECTIVE IMMIGRANTS

The Chamber of Commerce of New York state has transmitted to Congress resolutions urging more adequate appropriations for enforcing the law which aims to exclude feeble-minded immigrants from this country. The resolu-

¹See THE SURVEY for February 10, page 1728.

tions were drafted by the chamber's Committee on Foreign Commerce and the Revenue Laws, and in recommending their adoption the committee quoted a portion of Immigration Commissioner William's last annual report to show

that in spite of present safeguards a number of feeble-minded immigrants are admitted to this country and their children are found in public schools of New York.

The resolutions follow:

Whereas, The federal statutes exclude the admission to the United States of all aliens "who are found to be and are certified by the examining surgeon as being mentally or physically defective, such mental or physical defect being of a nature which may affect the ability of such alien to earn a living"; and

Whereas, The commissioner of immigration of this port is without the proper machinery to enable him to detect all alien immigrants who are mentally or physically defective; and

Whereas, The failure to detect all such aliens results in a heavy burden being placed upon the taxpayer; therefore be it

Resolved, That the Chamber of Commerce of the state of New York urges upon Congress the necessity of making adequate appropriations in order to enable the commissioner of immigration to give the United States the protection it needs in the exclusion of feeble-minded immigrants by effective enforcement of the provisions of law.

The following passage from Commissioner Williams's report was quoted by the committee:

In my last annual report I dwelt at some length on the important legislation of 1907 which added to the excluded classes all persons suffering from any physical or mental defect which may affect their ability to earn a living, pointing out that this was wise, progressive legislation, but often difficult to execute under existing conditions. I am of the opinion that means should be found to give full effect to this excellent provision of law, which may be made to mean so much to the welfare of our country. I desire to add a few words on the subject of "feeble-minded" immigrants. Our attention is from time to time called to the number of feeble-minded alien children in the public schools of New York, many of whom have passed through Ellis Island. One reason why some are not excluded is, as pointed out in my last annual report, lack of time and facilities for thorough examination as to mental condition. Another is that while idiocy and imbecility can usually be recognized even in infancy, yet feeble-mindedness can rarely be discovered so early and is usually recognized only as the child approaches the school age.

As to the children under five (and a great many such alien children come here) it is probably correct to say that nothing short of an inquiry into their heredity will enable the government to determine whether or not they are feeble-minded, and since no such inquiry is now made the law as to the exclusion of young, feeble-minded children is virtually a dead letter and the Ellis Island authorities have not the means at their command to vitalize it. Not only is a feeble-minded person likely to become a charge upon the community but such an individual may leave feeble-minded descendants and so start a vicious strain that will lead to misery and loss of future generations and influence unfavorably the characters and lives of hundreds of persons. At a time when the subject of feeble-mindedness is becoming more and more important in civilized countries and the nature and the bearings of this taint are being carefully studied by scientists, the government would seem called upon to make far greater efforts than it does to prevent the landing of feeble-minded immigrants.

COAL CRISIS IN ENGLAND

Spring strikes in the coal fields of both England and America have been prophesied all winter. Negotiations between the operators and miners of the anthracite field opened this week in New York. In England, the situation has reached a far more critical juncture, where March 1 was set for the general strike which was averted at Christmas time. The cause is the refusal of coal operators to grant the revolutionary demand of the Miners' Federation for a minimum wage in all coal fields. This demand is representative of a very remarkable change of temper that has come over the mine workers' organization within the last few years. The threat to strike is itself evidence of this change, as it has been for some years the custom of the miners' representatives to call strikes only to retain old rights which are threatened, not to gain new ones. The beginnings of this change of temper were noted in THE SURVEY over a year ago, when the miners showed a tendency to reject the agreements made for them by their conservative leaders¹ and, as did the railway men more recently, criticised the workings of the conciliation boards. The recent development of an even

¹See THE SURVEY, November 12, 1910.

more radical policy is thus explained by a correspondent of the *Labor Leader*:

The key to the mystery is found in South Wales. Here a new method was adopted this year of selecting members of the national executive and the federation nominees for national positions. Previously, as is still the case in other areas, the federation executive appointed these officers without any reference to the rank and file. On this occasion, however, after great pressure from outside, the executive consented to take a ballot of the members. The result has been startling. W. Brace, M.P., T. Richards, M.P., and A. Onions, who have represented South Wales on the national executive since the federation was formed in 1898, have all been defeated. These men are typical of the old school; they are avowedly Liberal in their sympathies and, before the miners decided to affiliate with the Labor party, Brace and Richards stood as government candidates. Their successors—Vernon Hartshorn, C. B. Stanton, and G. Barker—are the three men in South Wales who have been most prominent in the attack on the "rest-content" policy. They are Socialists and members of the Independent Labor party.

THE EVENTS OF THREE MONTHS

In the present strike movement, wary perhaps of this spirit of the rank and file, the conservative leaders from Yorkshire, the Midlands, Northumberland, and Durham offered little opposition—the Scotch fields have always been radical and represented by radicals—and the unanimous vote for a national minimum wage, graded to suit conditions in the different fields, but nowhere falling below 5s. a day, followed. The scale adopted was sent out to the coal operators, and on November 14 a special conference was held to discuss their replies. It was found that returns were as yet incomplete and the meeting was adjourned to December 20. On that date the delegates again came together, and, the reply of the majority of the operators being unfavorable, set January 10-12 as the date for a referendum on a national strike. The two-thirds favorable majority necessary to call the strike was exceeded in the returns, and the strike was set for the end of February, thus leaving two months for possible peaceful settlements. Concessions were offered in January by the miners in almost all fields, but the majority of the operat-

ors refused to accept them as a compromise on the ground that, even so modified, the demands of the scale would ruin them.¹

Negotiations in various quarters had come to naught the first of last week, when, after a session of the British cabinet, the government took action to bring the parties together and avert a conflict. The week closed, however, with no adjustment, and on Monday 500 Derbyshire men went out. For weeks past the chance of 1,000,000 miners throwing down their tools has been regarded with foreboding by the British public. Said the London *Times* early in February:

Let no one suppose that a coal strike would be like previous coal strikes, or that it would stop with the miners. If it continued even for a few weeks coal would not only become excessively dear, but would be unprocurable. Gradually industries would cease to be carried on, works and mills would be closed, railways would leave off running, ships would be laid up, gas, electric light, and power would fail. Most employments would cease, the country would become dead.

The temper of other British unions enters into the situation. The railway unions and the miners' organization had hoped to strike at the same moment at Christmas time. The railway strike was averted,² but the railway men are still restless. They have since formed a strong amalgamation of their four unions and have worked out a national scale of demands, including wage minimums for the different classes of work, standardization of hours and of other working conditions. The seamen are levying contributions for a fund to finance a second strike for still further improvement of conditions over those obtained through their strike in July.

¹Some of these modifications are shown in the following table:

COUNTIES.	ORIGINAL DEMANDS.	MODIFIED DEMANDS.
Yorkshire,	8s.	7s. 6d.
Derbyshire,	8s.	7s. 1½d.
Nottinghamshire,	7s. 9d.	6s.
North Wales,	7s.	4s. 11d.
Somersetshire,	6s.	4s. 11d.
Bristol,	6s.	7s. 1½d.
South Wales,	8s.	

The miners proposed that special rates under these minimums be arranged for individuals whose work is below the average and whose cases would be determined by a committee of employers and employed.

²See THE SURVEY, JANUARY 20, page 1618.

Among members of both organizations there has been talk of refusing to handle coal from Europe or America during the coal strike. The cotton operatives too are far from satisfied with the terms under which they returned to work after their three weeks' lockout.¹ So that a coal strike would find the labor movement in a state of ferment. Under these conditions the employers and the government have been making preparations for trouble and endeavoring to stave it off.

In the latter part of October was held the first meeting of the Industrial Council of the Board of Trade, formed soon after the August strike to provide a machinery for investigation and arbitration of disputes referred voluntarily by employers and employed. Sidney Buxton, president of the Board of Trade, thus speaks of the objects of the council, which is made up of representatives of employers and employed in equal numbers:

We believe that, if the council obtains and retains the confidence of the country it will come more and more to be considered the proper, the right, and the natural course in the case of a dispute, where the disputants cannot come to terms themselves, that before a stoppage of work takes place the case should be submitted for examination and advice.

This on the side of conciliation; on the side of defence the government issued a circular early in the fall calling for a volunteer police reserve of permanent special constables,² and made a military survey of London and the other large cities, so that in the event of another great strike the government would be better prepared to meet it. The employes and property holders of London have organized a special protective league of their own to supplement the government special police. Employers have applied in great numbers to Lloyds for strike insurance. Most important and

¹The causes of the cotton lockout were given briefly in THE SURVEY of January 20 (Industry Department). A compromise has since been arranged by which the trade unionists agreed to a truce of six months on the question of working with non-unionists and six months' notice hereafter in case of dissatisfaction for this cause.

²A clause of this Home Office circular on the police reserve provides that strikers may be enrolled as constables. This on the one hand has been regarded as a means of conciliation, and on the other as an effort to play loyalty against solidarity.

interesting of all these defensive measures of capital, the greatest firms of London, of national and not merely local importance, and representing many million pounds, have formed an association. Like the new unionism itself, this association of business men is not limited to a special trade group but seeks strength in a general merger of interests as the London Waterside Manufacturers' Association. Among its members are the Associated Portland Cement Manufacturers, British Oil and Coke Mills, Doulton and Company (china), Lawes (chemical manufacturers), Henry Tate and Company (matches), Abram Lyle and Sons (marmalade), the South Metropolitan Gas Company, and the Thames Ironworks Company.

FABLES

TARIFF, IMMIGRATION, AND THE LIVING WAGE

JOSEPH LEE

Once there were some people wrecked on an island, where they found it a hard task to keep themselves alive. A steamer stopped off the island, and the captain came ashore and made two propositions to the shipwrecked people. He said he would either send them food in exchange for some of the natural products of the island, which were valuable in his country, or he would keep the food and send them a thousand of his steerage passengers.

The people held a council and the matter was long and warmly debated. On one side it was urged that if food were brought ashore it would compete with the food that the people were producing for themselves and so would cut down the price of food and lessen the profits and wages of those producing it. So that as a result of bringing more food ashore the islanders would, it was said, be more starved than ever. It was said that what was really wanted was the thousand steerage passengers, because these could be used to develop the re-

sources of the island; they would furnish a labor supply by means of which industry could be profitably carried on, and so would enhance the prosperity of all.

On the other hand it was urged that what the islanders were really short of was food rather than people to be fed, and that no manipulation of wages and prices could alter that fact; that in the long run the way to have more food for each person was to increase the amount of food rather than to increase the number of persons among whom it was to be divided. The foolishness of this latter argument was, however, seen through by the majority, and they accepted the thousand steerage passengers and refused the food.

When the islanders were last heard from, a hopeful agitation was on foot for a law fixing a minimum wage. It was thought that the proportion of food to each inhabitant could be raised by this means.

TWO PLEAS

JOHN HAYNES HOLMES

[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.
—Declaration of Independence.]

He was a great employer, a good churchman, a generous philanthropist, a "best citizen"; and he stood before the Governor of the Commonwealth.

"I must have protection for my property and my life," he said. "Men mad for plunder are destroying my mills by stoning the windows, battering down the doors, and smashing the machinery. They are even threatening to kill me. I must be protected."

"Immediately, sir," answered the Governor. "This is an outrage. These rioters must be taught their place."

And instantly—regiments of infantry around the mills with fixed bayonets, regiments of cavalry in the streets and squares with drawn sabres, regiments of judges on the bench with summonses and injunctions, blood in the gutters, prisoners in the cells.

He was an humble employe, a husband, a father, a householder, a citizen; and he stood before the Fourth Assistant Secretary of the Second Assistant Secretary of State of the Cabinet of the Governor of the Commonwealth.

"I must have protection for my property and my life," he said. "Men mad for money are destroying my home by charging exorbitant rents, paying starvation wages, and exacting high prices. They are killing me and my wife and my children with over-work and under-pay. We are hungry, thirsty, naked, sick, in prison—come unto us and save us!"

"This is really too bad," said the Fourth Assistant Secretary of the Second Assistant Secretary of State. "I am very sorry; but there is really nothing that we can do for you. The state protects property only when it is assailed with stones and torches and bombs; it protects life only when it is attacked with brickbats, knives, and bullets. 'Good day!'"

[LABOR IS PRIOR TO AND INDEPENDENT OF CAPITAL. LABOR IS THE SUPERIOR OF CAPITAL AND DESERVES MUCH THE HIGHER CONSIDERATION.

—Abraham Lincoln, in his first annual Message to Congress, December 3, 1861.]

EDITORIAL GRIST

ALFRED BINET AND THE BINET TESTS

When Prof. Alfred Binet, French psychiatrist, head of the psychological laboratory at the Sorbonne, Paris, and author of the Binet "tests" for mental development, died recently in Paris, little public notice was given to the fact in this country. Yet, to quote an American who worked with him, Professor Edmund B. Huey, of Johns Hopkins University, Binet's

scale of tests for the measurement of intelligence is distinctly superior to anything else yet produced for the same purpose, and is doubtless destined to have an immense practical usefulness and range of application in the schools, in courts, and in institutions for defectives.

Adapted versions of Professor Binet's tests were first used in this country in

the Vineland, N. J., Training School for Feeble-minded Girls and Boys. In the formulation of these tests Professor Binet made an immense number of observations of normal children to determine the average age at which certain intellectual faculties may be expected to develop. His measurements, which consist largely in questions asked or tasks assigned, are arranged for children of from three to thirteen years. Thus one of the queries for a three-year-old is, Where is your nose? A child of four may be asked whether he is a boy or girl. According to Binet the normal child of three does not know its sex. One of the tests for a child of eight is the reading of a brief newspaper clipping, after which he is asked to recall the separate ideas set forth.

Prof. Binet's notion of these things may best be described in his own words, as quoted in the *Review of Reviews*, August, 1907:

Look at these twenty to thirty pupils who, more or less attentively, are listening to their master. Do you really think that all these boys have similarly molded minds—that they all have the same aptitudes and the same

needs? People thought so at one time. We know better now. We have come to see that education is a question of adaptation, and that in order to adapt it to the needs of a child we must make ourselves thoroughly acquainted with his or her mental and physical characteristics. The principle, therefore, that guided me when forming this new laboratory was the knowledge of the average state of development of children of all ages—an entirely new idea in pedagogics, and one which I imagine will prove to be very fruitful. What my assistants and I set ourselves to find out, in a strictly scientific manner, was the physical and mental value of the average child at various ages. Once having discovered this, we drew up tables of averages, and it is thanks to these that we are able to make prescriptions so definitely whenever a fresh subject arrives at our laboratory.

Of the man himself Professor Huey, who knew him in Paris eight years and again two years ago, says:

Binet was a busy worker, but gave no university lectures when I knew him, and kept the university laboratory open but a single afternoon during the week. Consequently he did not attract foreign students and was not generally very popular in Paris; nor was he esteemed as highly by most French psychologists as he has come to be in America. His work being that of research



—Wood in Milwaukee Star.

ANOTHER BREAD LINE.

of a more or less private character, he labored with a few devoted colleagues and friends. With them, and certainly with me, he was most affable, frank, and anxious to be of service. He concerned himself much with the problems of French education, and seemed to have the ear and confidence of the government's department of education. He tried out and developed his now famous "tests" in part in a small psycho-pedagogical laboratory located in a public school in one of the poorer quarters of Paris. He was the moving spirit in a society formed for the psychological study of children, which publishes a bulletin, conducts a laboratory, and in varied ways is, as he once remarked to me, "a society which does things." The idea of his scale, more important than the particular tests themselves, amounts to an important discovery which will doubtless lead to the formation, from data gathered empirically, of many other valuable scales for various mental measurements. While he was not held to be an especially profound theoretical psychologist, he was yet one of the ablest interpreters of mind in action, an empiricist whose methods and example are deserving of the favorable recognition which they have been accorded in America.¹

STARVING RUSSIA

Five years ago we were pained at the reports of suffering in Russia from a famine that included many provinces. This year a still more disastrous famine is spread over eighteen provinces, involving in misery twenty million people. The world has heard little of it, because the Russian government has taken pains to keep the facts from the press. But when the question arose in the Duma the premier had to acknowledge a total failure of crops in six provinces with only two-thirds the usual crop in all the others. As forage of all kinds was a failure, cattle and horses were almost given away. The people have had to assuage the pangs of hunger by a compound of ground bark, acorns, bran, and field weeds. Even that failed when the deep snows came. And this awful substitute for food has brought on severe illness and death. Pitiful letters have been received from teachers describing the pining away of the children under their charge and the death of many. The village priests appeal for help in

¹Prof. Binet is the author of many books, chiefly small volumes presenting various phases of his experimental work. His *Année Psychologique* has long been the leading French psychological review.

the name of God. Two priests applied to their superiors for instructions, as the whole population came to them in despair begging for the last sacrament before they died of starvation.

Though spring seems at our doors, it is a long cry to spring in those Russian provinces. Every day the misery grows, the babies die, the mothers sink under the burden of hunger and sorrow, and the strong, willing peasants are helpless before this terrible scourge.

It is not strange that Russia would gladly hide this frightful condition from the eyes of the world, for with a good government and the resources of the country developed there need be no such terrible famines as seem to overwhelm it every few years. But the poor peasants are not responsible, and a well-fed country like ours can afford to stretch out a full hand to these poor starving people. In 1907 \$69,000 was sent from here to Russia. The leaders in that movement—Mr. Shishkoff, who came from Samara to tell of the distress, Bishop Potter, who was chairman of the committee to aid, S. J. Barrows, who was the efficient secretary, and many others—have passed away, but there are others in their places who are pleading for the little children, the unhappy mothers, and the starving men of the famine-stricken districts. The appeal goes forth in the name of the Friends of Russian Freedom, and is signed by the chairman of the executive committee, James Bronson Reynolds. Checks may be sent to the treasurer, Hamilton Holt, 135 East 15 street, New York.

FOUR COMMISSIONS AND A FIFTH

PAUL U. KELLOGG

The scope of the proposed Federal Commission on Industrial Relations stands out clearly enough, if we set it off against four other commissions which have contributed in perfectly definite ways to the general welfare.

THE ANTHRACITE COMMISSION

The Anthracite Coal Commission of 1905 was an example of a national

scrutiny of the line of cleavage between employer and employe in one great industry. The public's interest in that conflict was immediate and direct, in so far as a fuel shortage threatened to close down factories and cause household discomfort throughout a wide range of states. By consent of both the operators and mine workers the commission was made up of an officer of the United States engineering corps, an expert mining engineer, a judge of the United States courts, a sociologist (labor official), and a man familiar with the physical and commercial features of the coal business. In suggesting a Federal Commission on Industrial Relations, the national committee¹ which is seeking action by Congress does not of course advocate that the Commission of Inquiry be given authority, like this coal board, to compel acceptance of its findings. But it would have broader powers in this—that it need not be limited to one trade group, but could take up those master lines of production which set work standards throughout the whole United States. And we proposed this scrutiny, not while a strike is on, but in normal times, to be prosecuted wholly independently of the merits of any particular controversy.

THE EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY COMMISSION

In the Federal Employers' Liability Commission, which has reported at this session of Congress, we have an example of a national scrutiny of one phase of the unwritten work-contract between employers and employes. When a "servant" hires out to a "master" (the very terms in which the rulings are couched smack of long-gone industrial relations), the common law has assumed that the servant has assumed the risks of the trade: that is, that he has no claim against the master for accidents which result from nobody's negligence but which come in the ordinary course of work. The economic loss therefrom stays where it first falls: that is, on the families of the killed and injured workmen.

This phase of the common law, coupled with various twists given to it in a long line of court decisions (such

as the fellow servant doctrine, which leaves the workman to bear the full loss, also, when he is hurt by the carelessness of another workman) may have fitted well enough a labor situation in which an English squire, his hostler, and his chambermaid were the parties at law. Such a household dispute was cited in the first English case. But it has been a poor rule of thumb to apply to a railway system, with its team play spread over vast areas involving workmen without control over each other's actions, and dealing with destructive powers of steam and speed. Within the last month the United States Supreme Court has upheld the power of Congress, where interstate commerce is concerned, to abrogate many of the old defences read into the rule of negligence; and the federal commission referred to has recommended a compensation system which would lift it bodily out of the legal conception of the work-contract. Within the past few years, also, commissions in twenty-two states have been at work slowly sifting the laws and the facts, as a basis for legislation which would systematically make every industry pay for its human wear and tear. By applying principles of insurance such as were unknown to the old judges, they would spread the bill onto the cost to the consumer. Such laws have been enacted in ten states, and upheld by the Supreme Courts of five.

We suggest a national scrutiny of the labor contract in all its bearings, as here it is being scrutinized at one point—a thoroughgoing review of law and practice with respect to the rights of employers and employes, to the end that men who singly or collectively act within the limits of the law shall be strong and not weak in securing substantial justice.

THE CONSERVATION COMMISSION

In the Conservation Commission we had a national scrutiny of natural resources, on which to base policies which would utilize without waste that wealth of timber and water power, ores and soils, with which we, as few people, have been endowed, but of which under spur of self-centered interests we have been spendthrift time out of mind.

¹See page 1821.

As one result of these conservation policies, we have seen the creation of a Federal Bureau of Mines. This bureau is taking up the development of mineral resources from all angles, but it has set "Safety first" as its immediate slogan and has put chemists, electricians, engineers, and practical miners at work upon devising means for cutting down our staggering death roll. Within two years they have proved, in boiler-plate galleries and experimental mines, that bituminous coal dust explodes, and that dust explosions have been the cause of those great disasters which have wrecked whole communities. They are demonstrating that safety powders and shot firers, sprinkling systems and zones of powdered stone may check and prevent these casualties—precautions which, if they had been put into general practice even ten years ago, would have saved thousands of lives. Here was human waste to which the interests of managers and men were alike bound by the ties of sheer self-preservation. Yet, left as nobody's business, to be reckoned with in local or fragmentary ways, or not at all, by the industrial corporations and bodies of men engrossed in the day's output of the soft coal pits, this wastage has run its course. The enactment and enforcement of safety rules remain in the hands of operating companies and mining states; but they have a powerful ally in the laboratories and expert staff which the federal government has thus set in motion. These it holds to results in human engineering in the same way that managers and men in the ordinary course of the trade are held up to getting out coal. Under the impact of these new forces the problem of safety is thus resolving itself into its elements.

We suggest that the problem of industrial relations should be subjected to somewhat the same sort of skillful and resourceful scrutiny.

THE INTERSTATE COMMERCE COMMISSION

In the Interstate Commerce Commission we have a federal body charged with large administrative and judicial powers which there would be no occasion to vest in a commission of inquiry. It has afforded, however, a remarkable ex-

ample of national scrutiny of the relations existing between one group of industrial corporations (the interstate railways) and those who trade with them.

When freight was moved by team, barter between shipper and truckman resulted in substantial justice, the rules of the road were sufficient law, and all comers were treated alike at the toll gates. But with the development of steam we had a mighty shifting in the setting of things; railroads could make or break a town; secret rebates could put a competitor out of business; excessive tariffs could drain the profits of a manufacturing district; and, on the other hand, cut-throat methods could wreck a railway system, or stunt the development of an important artery of traffic. With the development of public regulation, orderliness has slowly gathered headway. The government has taken its stand by the side of the individual shipper who is in no position to bargain successfully with a great trunk line; and it has taken that stand not as a piece of paternalism, but as a co-operative act, through which the public may visé its bargains wholesale. In the development of pure food legislation, the government in much the same way protects purchasers unable to know by any off-hand magic what ingredients go into canned goods, of the type which used to be put up over their own cookstoves but are now manufactured in great commercial kitchens. So, also, with federal meat inspection.

Legitimate business has gained by this governmental standardization and the stability which has gone with it. This legislation, however, has largely confined itself to safeguarding the relations between powerful industrial corporations and consumers. What we propose concerns their relations to producers, to those whose bargain with them has to do not with way-bills, or jellies, or canned beef, but with hours, wages, and the conditions of work. What we propose is national scrutiny to see if here, too, the act of bargaining has become a lopsided one in any quarter, and what conditions, if any, should be established by federal or state governments.

RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION

VI

THE RELIGION OF HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS

GRAHAM TAYLOR

It is not more human to err than to be religious. Man has been described as "an incorrigibly religious animal." Religion of some sort is as natural to human beings as real religion is supernatural in its origin and results. Its rootage is as deep in the social relationships, which associate men, women, and children together, as it is in the individual instincts of each of them.

The very terms which both Old Testament and New Testament use to describe our relations to God are just those which describe our relations to each other. They are the terms of the known quantities which interpret to us the unknown quantities of our spiritual relations. Upon the terms of our family relationships we are dependent for our knowledge of what God is like, of what he is to us and we are to him and to each other. "Like as a father,"—"as one whom his mother comforteth," so is God. We are "children"—"brethren"—"sons and daughters of the Lord Almighty"—"of the household of faith." Love, obedience, sacrifice are the home terms which reveal our fundamental religious duties. "My Father's house" is the one disclosure of the unknown future which enables us to feel "at home" there. If the family terms were taken out of our Bible, its revelation of our spiritual relationships would cease to reveal.

So the activities of the "faith which works" are described in terms of our work-a-day life, and of our industrial relations. We are God's "husbandmen"—"builders"—"fishers"—"shepherds"—"yoke-fellows"—"fellow laborers"—"workers together with God." By such political terms of civic relationship as "commonwealth"—"fellow citizens"—"kingdom of priests"—"holy nation"—"city of God"—"country of our own," we learn to live that corporate life, to

share that community of interests, to realize that ideal social order in which religion unites all who seek "the city which hath foundations, whose builder and maker is God."

If these terms are figures of speech, they as surely mean the earthly types of the heavenly realities. Without these visible signs, the unseen things signified would be unknown. But their significance rises no higher into the divine than their rootage runs deep into the human. For the whole Old Testament and ancient world both show us how surely the consciousness of self and of God roots in our consciousness of each other. Throughout those ancient times men were more conscious of belonging to the group—the family, the tribe, the nation—than of belonging to themselves. Their morality and religion, their rewards and punishments, their life and destiny were family, tribal, and national characteristics, which were shared by these groups, and were rarely claimed for individuals apart from the group. Indeed, consciousness of the group life was so much stronger than the consciousness of self, as separable from the group, that the family, tribe, or nation was the individual unit, of which persons were but fractions. The household, the kinship, the people were the wholes, of which individuals were only parts. Therefore the prophets and the law-givers addressed the people as a whole; punished or rewarded families and tribes, without regard to distinctions between their members; summoned the whole nation to repentance; and addressed all the really religious Israelites as "Servant of Jehova—the sacrificing, suffering, world-saving and-serving Messianic people." The personal Messiah is represented as the culmination of this national Messianic history, and as the initiator of a still

higher social order called the "kingdom of God," and the equivalent of the "Golden Age."

Thus it was entirely natural for Jesus to come "preaching the gospel of the kingdom." It was inevitable that he should group his followers into a fellowship of "the twelve," "the seventy," "the disciples." It was as historic as it was prophetic for him to expect the "kingdom of the Father" to grow up out of this fellowship. And it was practical for his disciples to gather themselves within the "communion" of local churches and organize their effort to bring that "kingdom" into the world and transform the world into the "kingdom."

From the very beginning of the Jewish version of human history, God is represented as making the world good and declaring it to be so. And to the very end, "the kingdoms of this world" are promised to become the "kingdom of our Lord and of his Christ." What then is "the earth" and "the world" which are said in the Old Testament to be "the Lord's?" What is "the world" of which Abraham is said to be "the heir," which God "so loved," which Jesus "came not to condemn, but to save," and for which he prayed unto the very last not that his disciples should be taken out of the world but "that the world might believe?" What is it but the natural associations of human lives, the primary relationships in which men, women, and children were meant and made by God "to live and move and have their being?" What is it but the "cosmos," the order of life, or the life-spheres in which human beings naturally and inevitably relate themselves to each other? The "world," therefore, which "the kingdom" is to win and sway is nothing more or less than those primary, elemental, essential relationships which we call the family, the neighborhood, industrial associations, fellow citizenship, and religious affiliations. These constitute "the world," over which man is bidden to "have dominion," the evil part of which is judicially decreed to be overcome and pass away and the redemption of which is declared to be the purpose and triumph of both Judaism and Christianity.

How fatally fictitious the hard-and-fast and mutually exclusive distinction between "the church" and "the world" really is, and how untenable it is coming to be, let this vigorous protest from the editor of the *Hibbert Journal* for October, 1906, attest:

The statement that the race at large is "lost" or ruined escapes criticism only so long as it is kept within the realm of vague generalities; but let the attempt be made to find the seat of this moral bankruptcy, or to rail off the solvent remnants from the rest of the race, and the charge will either evaporate or be maintained by its supporters at the cost of their reputation for justice and good sense. . . . No doubt there are multitudes of lost souls everywhere, but that is very different from saying that the race is ruined. If the race were ruined, no section of the race would be aware of the fact. In the words of Principal Caird, "The proposition would be unintelligible unless it were false."

If by "the world" we mean such things as parliamentary or municipal government, the great industries of the nation, the professions of medicine, law, and arms, the fine arts, the courts of justice, the hospitals, the enterprises of education, the pursuit of physical science and its application to the arts of life, the domestic economy of millions of homes, the daily work of all the toilers—if, in short, we include that huge complex of secular activities which keeps the world up from hour to hour, and society as a going concern—then the churches which stand apart and describe all this as morally bankrupt are simply advertising themselves as the occupiers of a position as mischievous as it is false.

If, on the other hand, we exclude these things from our definition, what, in reason, do we mean by "the world?" Or shall we so frame the definition as to ensure beforehand that all the bad elements belong to the world, and all the good to the church? Or, again, shall we take refuge in the customary remark that whatever is best in these secular activities is the product of Christian influence and teaching in the past? This course, attractive though it seems, is the most fatal of all. For if the world has already absorbed so much of the best the churches have to offer, how can these persist in declaring that the former is morally bankrupt? . . .

Extremists have not yet perceived how disastrously this dualistic theory thus recoils upon the cause they would defend. The alienation from church life of so much that is good in modern culture, and so much that is earnest in every class, is the natural sequel to the traditional attitude of the church to the world. The church in her theory has stood aloof from the world. And now the world takes deadly revenge by maintaining the position assigned her and standing aloof from the church.

The false dualism will never be ended by the defeat of either member at the hand of the other. The true solution of this, as of every other problem of history, does not arrive until the opposing elements become merged in a higher unity and the claims of the parts are finally overridden by the claims of the whole.

It is into these world-spheres, therefore, that Jesus sends his disciples, as he himself was sent. His imperative mandate is "Go ye into all the world." And into it, further and further, not out of it, must we go, if we obey and follow him, if we share the fellowship of his suffering and of his glory. To do so intelligently, individually or collectively, we must know just what these life-spheres are which constitute "the world" into which we are to bring "the kingdom," in order that the kingdom may possess the world and make it a part of itself. We must know what these primary human relationships mean, what they are for, what each of them is expected to do that nothing else can do so well, if at all, what institutions and agencies express and fulfill the functions of each of these essential human partnerships which constitute every local community and society at large.

There is no better way to study and fulfill our social obligations and opportunities than to get a clear idea of the function and sphere of the family relationship, of neighborhood, of industrial conditions and relations, of the humanitarian responsibility and service incumbent upon any group of people constituting a township, a village, a county, a city, a state, a nation. To find out just what is to be done and just how to do it in each one of these spheres of life and work, of their rights and duties, there is no better way than to group the actual or possible agencies that are, or may be, available to help each one of us, or every group of us, to fill our parts in and through the home, as parents and children, as husbands and wives, as brothers and sisters; in and through the neighborhood, as neighbors to those neighboring us; in and through our business partnerships and our industrial fellowships, as those who are partners with our Father God and are parts of his very Providence

whereby he feeds and clothes, shelters nourishes all his children, and "opens his hand to supply the wants of every living thing"; in and through the town and city, as citizens charged with the tremendous responsibilities of building and maintaining the frame-work within which every one in each community is born, grows up, lives and works, meets death and destiny; in and through the church, as members of Christ and each other, commissioned to reveal and apply the ideals of religion to ourselves and to all others in every one of these life-spheres in which we live, or which is within the reach of our individual and collective influence throughout all the world.

What then is the function of the family relationship as expressed and fulfilled through the institution of marriage and the home? Is it not the propagation of the race, the nurture of child life, the culture of the whole life, the rest and recuperation, character-building and satisfaction, of every human being? Is it not to set the type and inspire the spirit which should characterize and dominate human beings in all their other relationships, neighborly, industrial, civic, and ecclesiastical? If this idea of what a family is for is borne in upon us, will it not impel us to seek and create every agency that will help us and others to make the most of and do the best by our own homes and others'? Will not our effort thus to group around the family those agencies which are most tributary to it, or to which it may be most tributary, help us the better to define, organize, relate, and utilize these agencies?

If we realized that most of us depend upon neighborhood for our human fellowships, our recreations, philanthropy, and social progress, would it not mean more to us to be neighbors and to have neighbors, and to rescue and restore, fulfill and enjoy those neighborly relationships which are well-nigh lost in the readjustments and transitions of modern life?

If "business" and the "office force" and the "shop's crew," the labor union and the employers' association should come to be recognized as the means and agencies through which the very

Providence of God is providing for the preservation, sustenance, the material comfort, convenience, equipment, and progress of life, will it not most surely and swiftly free each one of us, and also the world, of that sordidness and selfishness, that fratricidal strife and work-a-day atheism which lay the heaviest curse upon the human race? Is there any other way of turning business into brotherhood and human brotherhood into business? Is there a steadier, more equitable, more effective way of making "life more than meat and the body than raiment," of making the physical and material serve the spiritual and not dominate and destroy it, of making the way of earning a living also "the way of life" and not the way to moral destruction and spiritual death?

If politics were invested with no less a function than the protection of life and property, the repression of vice and crime, the promotion of virtue, the realization of the highest ideals of each individual life and of every family and of each community and of the whole social order, would we talk of "dirty politics"? Would we not consider citizenship as serious as religion and a part of it, would not a city and town be like a sanctuary, and a ward and a precinct be a holy place, and the voting booth and ballot box a holy of holies?

If all life were invested with such sanc-

tity and every sphere of it were sacred, religion would be no less revered and its sanctuaries would be all the more places of privilege and power. For then the supreme function of religion would be recognized as essential to all life. And the unique and pre-eminent prerogatives of the church would identify it with all that is both divine and human. For to the church the world would look for the revelation of the divine ideal of life, individual and collective; for the inspiration to aspire to it; and for the power to realize it in personal experience and all social relationships.

The course of thought to be pursued in the remaining studies of this series will follow the order of these primary human relationships, by grouping about each of them the institutions and agencies which are to be known and used by all who would put religion into social action and would apply its facts and forces through the work of the church, or of any other group of citizens, for the local community. The family is our next theme, with the social agencies related to home life.

[THIS IS THE SIXTH OF PROFESSOR TAYLOR'S SERIES ON RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION, WHICH ARE RUNNING SEMI-MONTHLY IN THE SURVEY THROUGHOUT THE MEN AND RELIGION CAMPAIGN. PREVIOUS ARTICLES WERE: I. LIFE AND RELIGION, DECEMBER 2; II. THE HUMAN POINT OF VIEW, DECEMBER 16; III. PERSONALITY A SOCIAL PRODUCT AND FORCE, JANUARY 6; IV. THE CALL AND EQUIPMENT FOR EFFECTIVE SERVICE, JANUARY 20; V. CHANGING CONDITIONS OF A WORKING FAITH, FEBRUARY 3.

A PRAYER

MADGE E. ANDERSON

TOLSTOI, PRAY TO GOD FOR US,
 POOR WORLD, SO FILLED WITH WAR AND CRIME;
 AND YET CHRIST DIED FOR US;
 TWO THOUSAND YEARS THE CHURCH BELL'S CHIME
 HIS LOVING, LIVING WISH HAS RUNG!
 "GOOD WILL AND PEACE ON EARTH!"
 AND STILL THERE'S WAR AND GREED;
 HIS PEACE HAS NEVER COME TO BIRTH.
 TOLSTOI, PRAY THAT WE BE FREED,
 OII, PRAY FOR PEACE ON EARTH!
 FOR US FOR WHOM CHRIST DIED,
 THOU FRIEND OF GOD AND MEN
 WHO NOW ART CLOSE TO GOD;
 OH, TOLSTOI, PRAY! AMEN.

THE BURDEN OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED



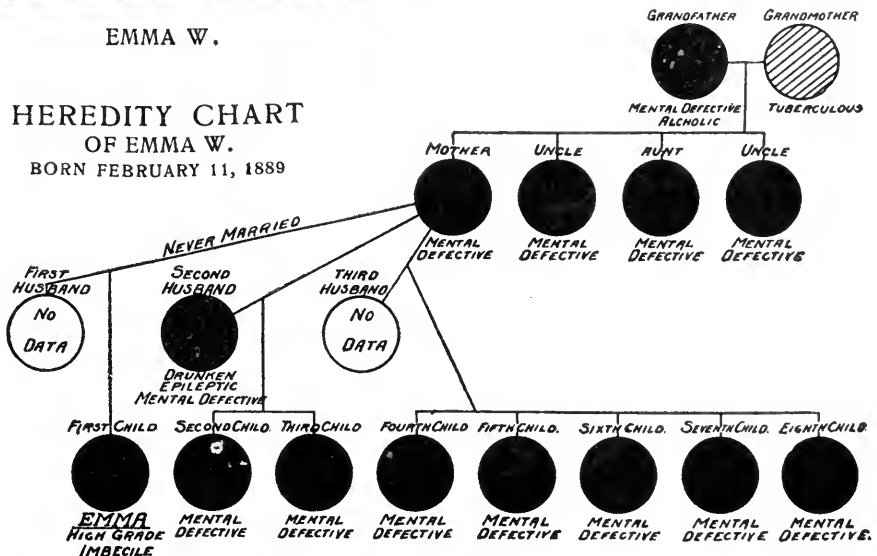
EMMA W.

A CHILD WHO HAS HELPED TO LEAD THE WAY

IN the movement for more adequate provision for the feeble-minded, a place beside the scientists and physicians and educators and legislators must be made for this little half-witted girl. The facts of her heredity were published in the first annual report of Letchworth Village. They have done more than heavy tomes to convince people that it is bad policy to let the feeble-minded draft in and out of the almshouse; that it is but humanity and economy to segregate them, and to strike at the causes of mental defect.

Emma W. came to life in an almshouse, stamped with illegitimacy and feeble-mindedness. Her family's record reads: mother, two brothers, and a sister feeble-minded; mother's father feeble-minded and mother's mother tuberculous. When a second child was expected the mother was induced by well-meaning people to marry the father, who was a drunken epileptic. Two children were born. Still later the same well-meaning people aided her to get a divorce in order to marry the father of another child about to be born. Since then four more have been born. All of these children are feeble-minded. Entire family, with exception of the oldest child, is at large.

HEREDITY CHART OF EMMA W. BORN FEBRUARY 11, 1889



THE RIGHT TO BE WELL-BORN

FRANKLIN B. KIRKBRIDE

A group of public-spirited people were lately discussing feeble-mindedness and the causes of a certain prevailing reluctance to face the issue squarely. "The trouble with the problem of the feeble-minded," said Joseph H. Choate, "is that there are so many of us."

Perhaps there may be even more of "us" than Mr. Choate suspects! For this is not a question of one generation, but of our children and our children's children. It took philanthropy a long time to emerge from the merely "relief" stage. Slowly we are taking the next step. Our "comprehensive plan" concerns itself with more than the individual life—we have begun to care for posterity, no matter how little posterity may have done for us. With this outlook even statistics of degeneracy become less depressing, for we recognize in them the basis of relief, prevention, and constructive effort.

A study of either town or country shows the dwarfed intellect, the perverted instinct, the weakened body, and the preventable disease in every community. In some places they have run riot to the almost entire extinction of the finer and higher types. The pyromaniac continues to amuse himself by destroying property and life; insidiously, but no less surely, the union of defective and degenerate parents is destroying the vitality of whole communities. But we as a people are awakening to a better realization of the fact that from the standpoint of the taxpayer, if from no other, it is good business policy to seek out the causes of human waste and stem the tide of degeneracy.

Of all our natural resources, the conservation of human life is surely the most important. It is beyond dispute that our social fabric needs improving, society, as it exists today, being its own index-finger pointing to the fact. The hopeful sign of the times is that here, as everywhere, the need implies the means.

The child of an imbecile girl and of an artist, a genius almost, who had abused hospitality and wronged an inno-

cent victim, grew to young womanhood believing that she was the daughter of an aunt. She was beautiful and talented, and one day she told of her engagement. The aunt struggled between duty and desire. Whichever way she looked, tragedy faced her. To tell the truth or to keep silent; to bring sorrow to two lives or to let anguish come through the perpetuation of a tainted strain which by an inexorable law two normal beings were powerless to avoid!

Parentage, says H. G. Wells, is altogether too much a matter of private adventure, and the individual family is altogether too irresponsible. As a consequence there is a huge amount of avoidable privation, suffering, and sorrow, and a large proportion of the generation that grows up grows up stunted, limited, badly educated, and incompetent in comparison with the strength, training, and beauty with which a better social organization could endow it.¹

And he goes on to show that our ways of begetting and rearing children, of permitting diseases to engender and spread, are chaotic, entailing enormous hardship and waste. "And while the scientific man seeks to make an orderly map of the half-explored wilderness of fact," we must also seek "to make an orderly plan for the half-conceived wilderness of human effort."

That this is not an isolated viewpoint is shown by the following statement:

Every society ought doubtless so to organize itself as to favor the survival of its strongest, most efficient, and most valuable members. But in fact, nearly all societies are actually so organized as not only to permit the physically and mentally defective to leave descendants, but even to favor their survival at the expense of those more richly endowed. There has thus arisen in all civilized societies, in various ways and for various reasons, a process of selection of the less fit, which is a grave and growing danger to the future of the human race. Not only has the natural elimination of the inferior stocks been checked, but most societies permit and promote the elimination of the superior.²

It has been well said that our public institutions for the insane, the criminal,

¹NEW WORLDS FOR OLD, page 52.

²Announcement of the First International Eugenics Congress, London, 1912.

and the defective are but monuments to our own folly. Yet, until the source of the trouble is eliminated, we must continue to build them in order to make provision for all who ought to be within their walls. That it pays better to provide permanent care for a feeble-minded boy or girl during the entire reproductive period than to support their offspring admits of no argument. And each year's delay in their permanent segregation means added expense, added difficulties, added misery. The cost of caring for the bodily, the mentally, and the morally sick is trifling when considered as insurance, as protection, as prevention, but the cost of unchecked disease and crime is incalculable.

The cretins, who formerly abounded in Aosta in northern Italy, were segregated in 1890, and by 1910 only a single cretin of sixty years and three demi-cretins remained in the community.¹

In education we have potent forces for the uplift of the race. "The child that should never have been born" cannot be put out of existence, but can be developed and trained. His presence should be detected early, and he must be protected always, for, although many can be made self-supporting, few, as Dr. Fernald tells us, can become self-controlling. The years of greatest receptivity of the normal as well as of the defective child are the early years. And the mind of every child, whether sub-normal, normal, or super-normal, should be trained to the fullest extent possible, so that he may reach the highest development of which he is capable.

The part the state and nation can take in conserving health and improving human strains is as yet hardly realized. The first step is to secure the facts, vital statistics being the necessary foundations. The reports and registration of births, communicable disease, and deaths are duties in many parts of the country more honored in the breach than in the observance. Yellow fever, plague, and small-pox rouse to instant effort, but the far more insidious ravages of less dreaded maladies go on unchecked. The

prevention of disease is a duty which every community should discharge; the treatment of the malady may properly be a personal affair. Sanitation, pure food, pure drugs, and pure products of every kind can only be secured by the exercise of a police power delegated by the community to local, state, and national government. Uniform marriage laws, intelligently enforced, can be of great value. Here Indiana has led the way.

It is axiomatic that, to be effective, law must follow public opinion, not precede it. And although radical changes in the social order might be prescribed with every indication of success, their practical application would probably result in a revulsion of popular feeling and the defeat of the very ends sought to be accomplished. Thus common sense counsels constructive measures, easily understood, generally approved, and promptly productive of practical results.

But there is a step beyond prevention. The work of Burbank with plants, of the American Breeders' Association with live stock, have shown what constructive effort can do. Fortunately we are also awakening to the need of perpetuating normal and healthy human strains. More than this, we are recognizing the possibility of still further improving these strains. In an investigation of 2,000 children in the general population Goddard found 80 (4 per cent) super-normal. To neglect the development of these children and doom them to the training suited to a mediocre mind is as great a folly as to permit the laggard to retard the advancement of the normal child.

There is a wide and hopeful field in the laboratory; for the study of eugenics, of heredity, of pathological conditions, and of biological chemistry is opening new vistas and enormous possibilities.

The right to be well-born has been denied to many. Society can redeem this injustice only in part, and for that reason the very best that intelligence and science can give is imperative. To the large and more fortunate majority who have been well-born, education and a higher social conscience must teach race improvement.

¹HEREDITY IN RELATION TO EUGENICS, Davenport, page 259.

FEEBLE-MINDED AS CITY DWELLERS

MENTAL CLASSIFICATION IN THE SCHOOL: THE FIRST STEP IN SELECTION

ELEANOR HOPE JOHNSON

A short time ago articles appeared in two of our leading magazines, the proximity of which induces grave doubts as to the efficacy of some of our correctional methods. One was in the *Outlook*, on the Feeble-Minded Incendiary or Pyromaniac, the boy who is excited and charmed by the sight of fire and is too defective to realize his individual responsibility or the frightful danger he is bringing on his neighborhood. The second article was a vivid account of a conflagration which certain insurance underwriters and fire experts assure us will visit New York sooner or later and which, when once started, can probably not be checked until there has been incalculable loss of life and property. The consideration of these articles raises a question we must all face. By failing to deal with the pyromaniac in an effective fashion—one which should regard him as the abnormal person he really is and therefore provide for his permanent supervision—are we not by just so much increasing the chances of our general conflagration? For these defective incendiaries are now being punished as any ordinary offender is punished: they are sent to "the Island" or to Elmira for a limited period, and then turned out to begin again their peculiar form of amusement—setting fire to stables, to loft buildings, to private houses. This punishment does not in the least meet the necessity of the case, nor affect in any way the causes of their misdemeanor or crime.

A report¹ has recently been published on the Feeble-minded in New York. This danger and many others of greater gravity are carefully presented in it. It was prepared for the Public Education Association by Dr. Anne Moore, and was intended to cover only cases of mentally defective children who now are or who have been in the ungraded classes of our public schools. But the subject, after the most cas-

ual study of it, was seen to be of such far-reaching import that Dr. Moore enlarged it to include studies of other classes of feeble-minded persons: those supported by charity; those who have been discharged from institutions, penal or otherwise; those who have been found living in the community with no more supervision than if they were entirely normal.

Taking the subject first from the economic point of view, Miss Moore found in the records of the principal charitable societies persons partially supported for many years who were distinctly feeble-minded. Help, however generous, could never permanently relieve them. Conditions which seemed to be adjusted would in a few months appear in as bad a form as ever, and the only conclusion which could be drawn from these cases was that permanent custodial care was their only possible solution. The expense to the societies and to the public at large has often amounted to far more than the expense of caring for such a person permanently in an institution where it would be possible for him to contribute largely to his own support or to the maintenance of the institution. Let me state one such case:

On August 16, 1901, an idiot boy was admitted to Randall's Island. His mother seemed mentally unbalanced and was afflicted with tuberculosis and heart disease. Her husband had a cancer. They are Russian Jews and arrived in this country in 1897, when the idiot boy, Harry, was nine years old. Another boy, Sam, a year old, was feeble-minded. In 1899 a second feeble-minded boy, Leon, was born. As is seen from the record, Harry did not become a public charge until four years after the family landed.

The family soon became dependent and were entered in the books of one of the private charities, and on February 21, 1906, a commitment of all the children was asked for. Besides the three deficient children there was one girl, Hannah, who was apparently normal. For four years the family remained public charges, alternating their appeals to the Department of Charities either to commit the children to institutions or to release them, with appeals to the private organization to pay rent or give clothing. At last, early in 1910, the woman's mental condition was be-

¹THE FEEBLE-MINDED IN NEW YORK. By Anne Moore, Ph. D. Inquiry concerning this report should be addressed to Henry C. Wright, 105 E. 22d street.

lieved to have so much to do with the dependent state of the family that at the request of the charitable society she was committed to Bellevue for observation and all the children sent to institutions, the girl going to the Clara de Hirsch Home. On March 2 a report was received that the woman had been kept at Bellevue only one day and then discharged to her brother; and on March 16 the youngest boy was discharged from Randall's Island as "cured" and sent to his mother. Off and on during these four years the woman was paid a weekly allowance of \$3 by the private organization, and besides this was occasionally given money for clothing and rent. Hannah was sometimes at school, sometimes at home, sometimes at the Clara de Hirsch Home. Whenever she was at the latter place the mother almost immediately demanded her release, having been told she could receive no help from private charity if she was not attempting to keep her family together.

No steps taken in the treatment of this family were ever final. Whatever was done had to be done over and over again. The records of the three feeble-minded boys show this:

Harry: admitted to Randall's Island August 16, 1901; discharged May 28, 1903; re-admitted March 16, 1906; discharged April 16, 1906.

Sam: admitted to Randall's Island Feb. —, 1905; discharged almost immediately.

Leon: admitted to Randall's Island March 16, 1906; discharged April 14, 1906. Later he was sent to Randall's Island again and on Feb. —, 1907, was discharged. Re-admitted March 20, 1907. His mother refused to allow him to go to Rome and finally, on March 16, 1910, he was discharged to her custody as cured.

February 18, 1910, Sam was committed to Randall's Island by Justice Wyatt, and, so far as we know, is still there.

It would be illuminating, were it possible, to compute the difference in dollars and cents between the expense to the community of this sort of care for this woman and her three defective children and the expense of her permanent care in an institution, had she been committed to one before any children were born.

The most important point in this report, however, the one on which we cannot too often insist and the one which it seems impossible to exaggerate because of the appalling nature of the facts, is the question of heredity. For light on the rapid increase of the feeble-minded through propagation we have only to turn to Dr. Goddard's article in this issue of *THE SURVEY*.¹ As emphasizing the peril to their neighborhoods of the unrestrained

¹See *The Basis for State Policy*, by Henry H. Goddard, Ph. D., page 1852.

ed presence of feeble-minded men and women, we have the records from Bedford and Elmira to help us.²

Miss Moore cites many cases of feeble-minded men paroled from Elmira who constitute a grave danger in the community. One case of a pyromaniac illustrates many such:

Henry Y., a feeble-minded man of twenty-five years of age, started forty-five fires within three months. The loss was estimated at a quarter of a million dollars. He usually left something burning in the air-shaft or woodbin. At his trial he was declared sane and was sent to Elmira. After thirteen months he was released on parole and later won his absolute release. At the time of this report he was working in a hospital in Newark, N. J.¹

Of the eighty-five cases of men paroled from Elmira during 1904 who were declared beyond question to be feeble-minded, thirty-seven have been arrested at least once after leaving the institution. That is almost 50 per cent for whom the treatment has been entirely unavailing and who to our knowledge have continued as a burden and a danger to the community. Of those who have succeeded in obtaining some sort of work, one, who was arrested twice for stealing before being sent to Elmira, is now working in a moving-picture show; and one, who was sent to Elmira for arson, having been previously arrested for drunkenness, is now married. Statements of equal gravity concerning feeble-minded women have been made by the superintendent at the Bedford reformatory.

The problem is now before us clearly. What can a city like New York do to prevent the expense and danger which feeble-minded dependents and delinquents constantly cause the city or state? The first step in the solution of this problem seems to have been taken by the Department of Education, which has opened in the public schools ungraded classes for mentally backward and deficient children. There is no law compelling these children to attend school. The compulsory education law exempts from school attendance children who are physically or mentally unfit, so the decision is left with the parents, as it is in the case of sending their children to institutions. But, contrary to a usual feeling against institu-

²See *Feeble-minded Women in Reformatory Institutions*, by Katherine Bement Davis, page 1849. Also, *Feeble-minded Boys and Crime*, by Max G. Schlapp, M.D., page 1846.

tions, there is seldom any objection on the part of the parents to sending their children to these classes, and the difficulty is to provide rooms and teachers for the children who apply. It is from the ranks of such children that the numbers of the mentally defective in Elmira and Bedford and similar places are recruited, and it is here that the preventive work must begin. All through these classes can be found children who should be in institutions, but there is no power which can send them there in case the parents are unwilling, as they usually are; and there is very little room, if any, in the institutions to which they should be sent. This is our problem, and its importance can be illustrated over and over again by the cases constantly met within these classes, or by the cases of children who have left the classes and who, to the certain knowledge of the teachers, are on the streets or in homes where they cannot be properly cared for. Of fifty children formerly in the ungraded classes, chosen at random from many cases which have been followed up, there are two who are doing work more or less steadily. The others have been in constant difficulty in one way or another since leaving school; are known to be immoral, have been arrested, have been in institutions and withdrawn, are known to be the means of corruption of other children with whom they come in contact, or are known to have incendiary tendencies. There is no plan of dealing with these children except the one proved useless by the results at Elmira and Bedford; that is, arresting them and placing them in detention for a limited period. Of 100 cases of children in the public schools when Dr. Moore's report was written, sixty-three are known by the teachers to be immoral or delinquent at present or are believed to be in immediate danger of becoming so; and yet these teachers have no choice but to send these children home when the school period is over, or when the parents demand that they shall be sent. The teachers can urge institutional care and are constantly doing so, but their advice is almost never taken.

In the light of the facts stated in the first part of this paper; in the light of

the danger to the community of these children as they grow older, and as the bad habits which they are so easily forming become fastened on them; and in the light of the descendants most of them are sure to have: it is time to urge that effective measures be taken, and taken at once, to meet this problem. There is no greater danger to normal children than that of being led into immoral habits by companions who are not mentally responsible for their acts. There is no greater danger to a neighborhood than the presence in it of mentally defective youth, ready at any time to indulge their uncontrolled impulses; and there is no burden that will bear more heavily on our charitable or correctional institutions in the future than that of the feeble-minded offspring of these feeble-minded delinquents and dependents. In Dr. Moore's words:

✓ That the segregation of defectives costs money is remembered, that it saves money is often forgotten. The initial cost of segregation would be great, but the saving effected by correcting our present lax methods would be greater. As tax bills are not itemized the ordinary citizen does not realize that he is at present paying for the unrestrained presence of the feeble-minded. An added tax for their segregation would be an apparent rather than a real increase, for through segregation of defectives the number of criminals, the number of prisoners, the cost of trials, the demand upon public and private charity, would be decreased; and as control of hereditary conditions resulted in decrease in the number of defectives, and training rendered many of them self supporting, the expenditure necessary for their maintenance would from year to year grow less.¹ ✓

And the first step in this policy of the prevention of dependency and crime is to provide adequate institutions to receive the unfortunate persons who are so evidently in need of permanent care.

Important progress in this direction can be made by New York city in the ungraded classes of its public schools. Here these children are under observation and training, and here it can be learned how many of them should be under observation and training during twenty-four hours of the day rather than during five or six. Several organizations are recognizing the importance of this fact, and the value of the

¹THE FEEBLE-MINDED IN NEW YORK. By Anne Moore. P. 11, D.

work inaugurated some years ago by the Board of Education. This work is being done with great ability, but as yet incompletely, owing to the smallness of the staff. These organizations believe that the department of ungraded classes should be enlarged, that the examining physician should be given more assistants, and that it should be made possible for her to give her whole time to this work; also that the supervisor of the classes should be supported in every way possible.

A program has been suggested to the Board of Education by the Committee on Provision for the Feeble-minded of the New York State Charities Aid Association and by the Public Education Association and is already being partially carried out with their aid. It is thought that the work now being done will prove that all should be done eventually under the Board of Education and not through private agencies. Suggestions have been made from time to time for psychological clinics to be undertaken by private agencies, but we believe that the work already done by the board has been so wisely planned that all needs in this direction will be met by increasing the present staff. If this department of the public schools should be enlarged and the power given to the proper institutions to transfer from the schools all children who are recognized by the teachers and examining physicians as in need of permanent custodial care, much preventive work of the utmost value, to normal children

as well as sub-normal, would be accomplished.

The definite program is stated in these four divisions:

First, the Department of Education shall undertake to classify mentally all children of school age now under its supervision or brought to its attention by the permanent census bureau or other agencies.

Second, the degree of mental deficiency of those reported as sub-normal shall be determined by scientific methods.

Third, full and accurate records of all sub-normal children shall be obtained and filed; these records shall include school work, home conditions, and heredity data.

Fourth, names of such children as are deemed to be custodial cases shall be sent to the proper state authorities.

By obtaining and filing records of home conditions and heredity data, in addition to the school and medical records now on file, ample information as to the histories and needs of individual children may be obtained by any organization or society needing such information. In this way valuable co-operation between the children's court, the Prison Association, and the ungraded classes should be made possible.

A social worker, formerly a volunteer of the Public Education Association, is now at work on these records. Much is already being done by the department in the direction indicated by the first two divisions of this program. It is only necessary to make complete the work already begun.

FRAGMENTS OF HUMANITY—I

A SERIES OF SIX SKETCHES BY ELISABETH A. IRWIN.

MARIA

Maria is a low-grade child who has been tried in an ungraded class but cannot be taught there under present conditions. She is an institution case pure and simple, but the family is unwilling to let her go away, and there she remains in spite of the fact that seven different agencies are interested in getting her where she belongs. The personnel of the family that is permitted to decide what is best for this helpless child is as follows: the mother is feeble-minded and keeps a filthy and verminous home for the child; the father is alternately ugly and sodden; the older sister is not only very feeble-minded, but is so repulsively disfigured as to be terrifying. The younger children are sore-eyed and unhealthy in appearance, and will doubtless be discovered to be deficient when they reach school age.

THE NAMS

THE FEEBLE-MINDED AS COUNTRY DWELLERS

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A study has been made of a rural community of New York state far distant from that of the Jukes. This community lives in a valley known, for the purpose of this paper, as Nam's Hollow. A great amount of consanguineous marriage has taken place, so that the population of the hollow is closely related by blood. One "family" here which traces back to a single pair comprises over 800 individuals of whose traits more or less is known. In this community the study showed 232 licentious women and 199 licentious men, and only 155 chaste women and eighty-three chaste men. Fifty-four have been in custodial care either in asylums or county houses, twenty-four have received outdoor aid, and in addition private aid has been given them by charitable persons for years. Forty have served terms in state's prison or jail. There are 192 persons who use alcohol in extreme quantities, *i. e.*, are sots.

From the pedigree of this family a sample may be taken to show how they marry, how their traits reappear in successive generations, and how, by constant inbreeding, the fraternities are coming to be of a uniform type.

We start with *IV 37*¹, a lazy and alcoholic man, living on a pension as an ex-soldier, a pauper receiving out-door aid, who died of cerebral hemorrhage. He married a woman licentious in youth and alcoholic, who bore him eight children; space permits us to consider the descendants of only three.

The first was a suspicious, causationless, alcoholic harlot who married a slow, unambitious, honest, chaste, illiterate cousin, a man equipped with a good memory but with no initiative or reasoning power, a pauper living in a shack—a man derived from an honest father but

a slattern mother and of low stock. Of the seven children who grew up all were slow, unindustrious, unable to learn at school—the men alcoholic and their sisters harlots.

The second was an indolent, inefficient, alcoholic, illiterate man who lived in Nam's Hollow successively with two women, A and B, and had three children. By A, a harlot, he had two children, the second of whom died young. The mother's fraternity (of Canadian origin) was not without mechanical ability but was full of licentiousness. Her son, though licentious, showed the influence of the outside blood in his ambition, temperance, and a pride in his personal appearance. The other woman, B, a cousin, was incapable of learning, indolent, alcoholic, and a harlot. She was in the House of Refuge for women, where her child was born; in a number of other correctional institutions, in various houses of prostitution, cohabited with an Italian beyond the hollow, contracted syphilis, and soon after died of consumption. She belongs to one of the worst strains in the hollow. The ten-year-old son of this pair is a stubborn, uncontrollable mischief-maker who ran away from the orphan asylum where he had been placed.

The third member of the main fraternity is an active, industrious, ingenious, somewhat ambitious, but alcoholic man who married his cousin, a woman without sense of causation, hysterical, called "crazy," who received temporary aid during four years, lived in the county house almost continuously from 1894 to 1902, and died in 1905 of pleurisy. Her fraternity shows the typical Nam laziness together with much taciturnity. From this pair came six offspring, two dying soon after birth. The eldest son was lazy and died in early youth; the next was lazy, unambitious, disorderly when intoxicated, has cohabited with his equally disorderly and alcoholic sister, and has

¹This reference number is that employed in a report soon to be issued as Memor. No. 1 of the Eugenics Record Office, based on work done by Dr. A. H. Estabrook of that office.

had by her two children—both destroyed by their mother at birth. His slow, lazy, unambitious, alcoholic brother, who works fairly steadily at wood-chopping, has cohabited for the past seven years with his cousin, an active, forward, talkative, but mentally retarded girl with complex sex-relations. Of their four children one died at six months; the others are all shy and slow.

It is not possible, without further study, to give even an approximate idea of the cost to the state of this entire family, even if the cost to the state of a syphilitic prostitute could be precisely evaluated. We have the record of an active, irascible, stubborn, vicious man, formerly alcoholic but for the last twenty years temperate and industrious. He married an indolent, feeble-minded, careless woman, quite incapable of appreciating the relation of cause and effect, and with an exceptionally strong sex-instinct. They had three or four children. The paternity of the fourth is uncertain; he was born in the poorhouse, where the mother and her children have been con-

tinuously since 1893, excepting two children who were discharged in 1905. The total cost to the county of maintaining these five is \$6,300 up to the present; the mother will be an inmate of the poorhouse throughout life; she has one low-grade feeble-minded brother in a town farm and another feeble-minded brother in the state's prison for incest.

No one should deceive himself by thinking that because this is happening in a far-away rural district it does not affect him. The imbeciles and harlots and criminalistic are bred in the hollow, but they do not all stay there. Not a few cases are known where harlots from the hollow have become prostitutes in the cities, even in New York, and the tendencies to commit arson, assault, and burglary have gone with the individuals which they tenant to remote parts of the country. Would you rouse yourself if you learned there were ten cases of bubonic plague at a point not 200 miles away? Is not a breeding spot of uncontrolled animalism as much of a menace to our civilization?

FRAGMENTS OF HUMANITY—II

A SERIES OF SIX SKETCHES BY ELISABETH A. IRWIN.

SAMMIE

Sammie is only six. He cannot talk, but shouts, calls out, and runs around like a little animal. He has no more sense than one. He loves to play. He smiles and waves his hands in the air as an expression of his joy in life. He seems to have a very low grade of intelligence, and yet who can say how much he has under the conditions in which he is living?

His home is filthy. His mother is ill probably with tuberculosis, his father is ignorant, dirty, and indifferent. There is no one else to look after Sammie. The neighbors beg to have him "put away," saying that he runs about the streets forlorn and neglected, barefoot in the snow, and eating what he can find or is given him.

He is now in an ungraded class, called for, taken to school, and washed for the day, by one of his little ungraded classmates. But this is clearly not the place for him. Aside from being too much of a tax upon a teacher with fifteen other very special children, he cannot get the training that he needs here. He must first be taught the very simplest acts of waiting upon himself, all the little things that a properly cared-for baby of three knows better than he. This is no task for a class-room, but for an institution.

Sammie should at least have a trial under favorable conditions of kind treatment and wise training before he is placed for life with low-grade imbeciles. There he would undoubtedly be put if sent to any of our existing institutions, where, because of overcrowded conditions, classification must necessarily be made according to the amount of care required, rather than according to the potential powers of the individual child. Once placed with low-grade children he would never rise above their level.

THE COURTS AS SIFTERS

FEEBLE-MINDED BOYS AND CRIME

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Insanity, feeble mindedness, and crime are increasing in all the countries of the world in which we find reliable records. No doubt these infirmities are developing among the population of every nation. Like causes produce like effects everywhere. It is not the afflicted persons alone that are affected by the conditions, neither is it the prospective victims who must fall in ever increasing vast numbers that are to be considered only with the others. The danger comes to every man's door; the menace, possibly, to everyone who walks the street. In short, the amazing increase of insanity, feeble-mindedness, and crime has a bearing on the present population of the world, whose interests are bound up in it. Considering future populations it looks at first thought as if it were only a matter of arithmetic to decide when they will become extinct; but our reasoning would hardly lead us that far, because conditions, of themselves, must change.

When we take the statistics of the countries of Europe that are most accurate in preparing them and most thorough in their methods of gathering them, and arrange them in charts, we know from the line waves denoting the rise and fall of insanity, feeble-mindedness, and crime, with the passing years that there is a fixed relation between the three. We would know this if our medical schools and our medical practice had taught us nothing, and further, if we had learned nothing about abnormalities of mind that sometimes, if not usually, make criminal acts involuntary.

These diseases are not "catching." We may consider ourselves quite safe, then, so long as our persons or our families are not threatened. We are apt to forget that with crime increasing every-

where, not by reason of poverty or environment, but because of much graver conditions than any produced by social ills, some of us, or our next door neighbors, may be among the victims of irresponsible or vicious persons running at large.

Feeble-minded children and feeble-minded men are roaming about these streets to-day as free agents. Parents are not compelled by law to put a feeble-minded child in custody. Yet that feeble-minded child, unsuspected as such, amiable, carefree as he frequently is, is potentially a criminal and at any moment may commit a crime. That child is permitted to grow up without restraint, except such as parents exercise, and this has no effect whatever in these cases. The child is allowed to marry and bring forth children of his own kind, more feeble-minded, more dangerous. There is no system designed to pick out from the community persons so afflicted, and no law whatever to prevent their untrammelled movements.

Statistics show us only the feeble-minded persons in institutions. We have no way of recognizing or estimating the number of those outside, but if we could get the figures they would be astounding. A law should be enacted requiring that all feeble-minded persons whether in institutions or at liberty be registered by the state. We would get a fairly close count of them after a while and would always have their identity and the history of their cases and we could keep watch over them.

Family physicians should be required to make reports of suspected cases and these reports should be followed by thorough examinations by a commission, made up of medical specialists, and their conclusion should determine the care of

the child. From the nature of the case they could determine whether it ought to be left in charge of its parents or whether it should be sent to an institution and kept there while mentally unsound. Other agencies than the family physician could be utilized, all of them created in a way by law to segregate insane or feeble-minded persons from the mass. Public school teachers, for instance, or superintendents, could have blank forms for making returns of peculiar cases coming under their observations, such as extraordinary inability to learn, or persistent misconduct notwithstanding correction or kindly counsel, and all those cases that are so plain as to occasion comment among the children themselves. Other means that might be adopted to segregate these mentally unbalanced children will at once suggest themselves. These two will suffice to show how readily we might accomplish what would at first seem a difficult task.

An institution must be established by the state of New York exclusively for feeble-minded delinquents. It should be in or near the city of New York. Here it would have the benefit of a faculty it could get no where else in the state at any price, and here it would have it almost without cost. Specialists only should be employed in this institution.

Taken at a proper age, many mentally defective children can be wonderfully improved. After they pass fifteen it is possible only when they have had the best of influences favoring them. When they approach the age of manhood or womanhood it is almost impossible.

We could do much more than we are doing now with the facilities we have if we had a better application of them and some authority to change the established order. For example, take the New York Children's Court. The judges there are a high order of men. They are sympathetic, thoroughly human. In correcting and improving the children that are brought before them they could do more if they had the means or assistance. Although the way has been pointed out, it is appalling how slowly the city or the state or the public moves.

If, when a child accused of a misdeed is arraigned before a Children's Court,

the judge thinks he detects some of the symptoms of feeble-mindedness, he sends the offender to the court's examining physician. The physician reports to the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, where these examinations are made, and this society sends the report back to the court and the judge considers it in disposing of the case.

Right here is the first serious fault of the system. Only a very small per cent of the children that are brought before the judge are sent to the physician for examination, though doubtless many more children, who pass the court unobserved, are mentally affected. No one, not even an expert in this line of work, is able to say at a glance that a child is mentally unsound. If an expert is unable to say so, a judge certainly cannot. Everyone recognizes an idiot, but few recognize what we may term "high-grade defectives." Yet the "high-grade defective" is more dangerous than the idiot, because the high-grade imbecile has initiative, whereas the low-grade imbecile has none or very little.

Medical examinations should be made in many cases that do not now get beyond the observation of the Children's Court. From the actions of the child, from his parents and family history, from the frequency with which he repeats some offense particularly pleasing to him, and by virtue of psychological tests and careful medical examinations, the examiners should be able, almost unerringly, to pick out the children who should be objects of scientific care and treatment. To this end the legislature should define the power and jurisdiction of the inferior courts and their officers. It should provide that before a judge disposes of questionable cases he must order an examination by a physician who has had adequate experience in the treatment of feeble-minded and insane persons. This should be especially provided in cases of juvenile delinquents accused of offenses which if committed by persons over sixteen years would be felonies, or of those found to be habitual truants or in danger of becoming morally depraved.

Characteristics of feeble-minded persons are usually deceiving. One expects

to find them with low brows and furtive looks, and more or less vicious in appearance after they develop criminal tendencies. They might be expected to manifest stupidity at a glance or certainly under examination.

On the contrary, they are sometimes amiable, bright on the surface, good-tempered under trying circumstances, and almost always likable for their external social side. This is particularly true of the "high-grade defectives." The lower order may be taciturn, gloomy, and retiring, and these traits may be noticed almost from infancy, but, as they grow up their social nature may be developed and they, too, may give an appearance of amiableness. One notable thing about many of them is their pose of frank innocence. In this they are engaging and almost convincing. I will cite two cases from my records:

C. N.—A boy born of normal parents with a normal family history. The mother noticed that he did not walk as early as other children of her own family or as most children usually do and he did not speak until after he was two years old. Even then his speech developed slowly. As he began to have understanding he avoided other children, did not play with them as did his brothers and sisters, and showed a disposition to be alone. He developed into a shy, morose child. In his kindergarten work he did not work like the other children. All of his processes seemed to be strangely different. The teacher noticed how difficult it was to hold his attention on any one thing. His mind fairly flew from one thing to another; it could never be kept on a lesson. Even the children noticed that he would never finish a game. It became apparent that this child was not like other children. At ten he stole money from his mother and stayed out all night, spending it somewhere with older boys. The next day he was found by the police in a distant part of the city. From that time on he became a runaway boy, incorrigible, stealing whatever he could lay his hands on. He was taken out of school and put under a private instructor, who reported his lack of attention and the hopelessness of getting him to fix his mind on anything not to his liking. At seventeen this boy was a bad character. He sought evil companions and associated with evil women. Before he was sixteen he had frequently been intoxicated.

This is as far as the history goes. There is today only one end for that boy and that is the penitentiary. He will listen agreeably to any older person who cares to reason with him, but whether it

is good advice or a graphic recital of the fate that will befall him if he does not mend his ways, or whether it be kicks or blows he receives for his misconduct, the result will be the same. He is alike indifferent to kindness and cruelty.

Now, if this boy had been taken from school when his teacher noticed he was not right, when even his little companions noticed it, and there had been a state institution, exclusively for such cases, to which he could have been sent and patiently watched while his symptoms were being studied, the physical lesion causing his disturbance might have been discovered and corrected and this boy saved to himself. One criminal less to prey upon society might have been the result.

R. O.—The son of a well-to-do business man, apparently all right up to the age of fourteen, according to the parents; bright, cheerful, laughing, happy, but very likely having latent the qualities of a moral imbecile. When scolded by his mother and father he took it pleasantly and promised not to offend again. He seemed frank and innocent in his intentions and inspired confidence, notwithstanding his repeated failures to keep faith. He stayed away all night, and when he was upbraided he would agree that he had not done right. The singular thing about him was that he manifested no love for his parents and he did not seem to be capable of deep attachments; singular, because he was so agreeable in his attitude toward his parents and all people. This is peculiar to high-grade defectives. They have a cunning that passes for intelligence.

Trades-people asked his mother about various sums he had been borrowing from them for a long time, saying his mother wanted the money and had sent him. He concocted extraordinary tales in order to get this money. He had almost a genius for stringing reasons together to make it appear plausible that his mother, who could scarcely be imagined in want, should seek to obtain money in that way. As a young man he was known about town and was very popular, a great favorite among friends, a happy, congenial companion. He had good positions, many of them in turn, obtained through his father or through the intercession of friends. He never stayed in any of them longer than a few weeks.

Employment did not interest him, it was a bore. Usually he lost his place by going out one day, happy and care-free, and never returning to work. His father reasoned with him, friends reasoned with him, employers reasoned with him, all liking him and taking personal interest in his welfare.

Nothing had any effect in changing him; no one could impart to him a sense of his

own responsibility in the world; nothing could move him, neither the sorrow of his friends nor the tears of his mother. He remained indifferent through all and whenever he wanted anything and could not get it in an easier way he stole it if he had the chance. He was locked up several times for stealing. His father settled and hushed up some of his queer transactions with checks. Finally he was convicted of forgery and is now in the penitentiary.

This is another criminal who might have been saved. He never should have been permitted to grow up drinking and gambling and running loosely about the

city. If we had proper supervision of incompetent children he would doubtless have been detected before the age of fourteen, when his peculiarities became pronounced.

A year or two later the case was hopeless. Criminals who are criminals by reason of early neglect or environment, or actuated to crime in the first instance by pressure of need, may be rescued and reformed. Adult criminals, who are instinctively criminals because their feeble minds are unable to exercise restraint, cannot be cured.

FEEBLE-MINDED WOMEN IN REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS

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In our annual reports for the past two or three years, we have called attention to the fact that the New York State Reformatory for Women in common with other institutions of its type has to face the problem of dealing with a large number of inmates who are decidedly below par mentally.

The women who are committed to us are sent for a maximum of three years. At the end of this time they must in any case be turned back into the community. The work of a reformatory is successful in proportion to the number of individuals whom it can send out to lead law-abiding, self-supporting, respectable lives. It is obvious that if a considerable percentage of those committed to its care cannot be trained for this, owing to ineradicable mental defects, the money and effort of the state are misspent. The work of Dr. Fernald in Massachusetts and of Dr. Goddard in New Jersey shows the danger to the community, from the economic as well as the moral point of view, of allowing these women to propagate their kind. With the widespread use of the probation system Bedford, as well as other reformatories, has received an increasing proportion of defectives. They include those who have failed on parole, those who were placed on parole for their first offence and

have been convicted a second or third time, those who have not done well in private institutions, and those whose social records, as looked into by the probation officers, seem unpromising. Many of these women, particularly the high-grade cases, appear well, answer ordinary questions in what seems a fairly intelligent manner, and to the casual observer seem not different from the ordinary working girl of their class.

Once in a reformatory the mentally defective clog the educational system devised for the fairly normal, add to the disciplinary difficulties, and swell the lists of failures on parole. It is quite obvious that the methods of an educational institution designed to train young women for competition in the world are quite other than those of an institution designed for the kind, custodial care of women who will never have need for self-direction.

We who are in charge of state reformatories have a serious problem to face and a serious responsibility is upon us to make an effort to help solve it. The first step would reasonably seem to be to determine the size and the exact character of the problem. How are we to determine its size? In other words, how are we to know just what proportion of those sent to our care are below par mentally and how many, if any, of

these are so far below as to be positively unfit to re-enter society?

The executive officers of a reformatory, the resident physician, nurses, teachers, and matrons test the girls under their charge through their daily experience in working with them in their respective departments. The teachers in the book school soon find out which girls can learn the rudiments of English. The industrial teachers discover which can learn an occupation well enough for self-support. The cottage matrons find out which can perform the common household duties satisfactorily. The superintendent is enabled from all these sources to form in a few months a pretty accurate estimate of the general make-up of the individuals.

Three years ago Jane Day of the Public Education Association spent two months here in the study of defective girls. She made no tests but decided from a study of the records, from discussion of individual cases with those having them in charge, etc., that forty-four out of 300, or 14.6 per cent, were defective, and that thirty-nine of these should have custodial care.¹

One day in August, 1909, our resident physician, Dr. Margaret S. Halleck, and myself went over the records of the women in the institution at that time and decided that a fraction over 20 per cent were so subnormal that no one who knew them at all well could possibly question our judgment. Soon thereafter we went carefully over the records from the opening of the institution. We believed that the percentage of subnormality was increasing. Out of 1000 cases we picked out 157 cases whose feeble-mindedness was absolutely above question. We were both sure that the actual percentage was much higher than this. But the unsupported testimony of personal opinions is not sufficient to convince the layman.

In the summer of 1910 Dr. Eleanor Rowland, of the Department of Psychology of Mt. Holyoke College, gave her services for six weeks to make an experimental study of selected cases. She

spent from nine to ten hours a day for six weeks in a study of thirty-five cases. These cases were chosen by the superintendent and belonged to three classes; those considered normal, those we felt sure were defectives, and a border-line group. Miss Rowland was unaware of the superintendent's rating of these cases. Her tests included the following:

- Reaction time.
- Memory.
- Attention.
- Direct and indirect suggestibility.

By these tests she described thirteen of the 35, or 37.1 per cent, as subnormal. Only three girls succeeded in all the tests.¹

The results, so far as they went, seemed to confirm the possibility of a rather accurate estimate of mentality after experience with a case. The desirable thing is to know beforehand—to diagnose before instead of after treatment. If this is reasonable in medicine why not in penology? Is it not safe to push the analogy thus far?

What is needed is a set of tests that can be applied with reasonable certainty on commitment, the result of which will be a guide to proper treatment of each individual case in the reformatory; or, better still, a set of tests capable of application after conviction as a guide to the rational sentence to be imposed. For our own institution we wanted also accurate knowledge as to the proportion of actual feeble-mindedness, in its varying degrees, among those committed to our care.

In Dr. Jean Weidensall we secured a woman who had had not only the advantage of a thorough training in psychology but who had also worked with Dr. Healey in the Psychopathic Clinic in the Children's Court of Chicago. Dr. Weidensall came to us in July, 1911. Dr. Goddard's work at Vineland with the Binet tests has made them well known in this country. They are given with a minimum of difficulty and almost no apparatus. Through the courtesy of Dr. Goddard, Dr. Weidensall spent several weeks at Vineland studying his methods. Since then she has given the

¹THE FEEBLE-MINDED IN NEW YORK. A Report Prepared for the Public Education Association of New York, by Anne Moore, Ph.D. June, 1911.

¹Tenth Annual Report of the New York State Reformatory for Women for the year ending September 30, 1910.

tests to about 175 girls. Some of these were special groups tested for special purposes.

To arrive at the percentage of feeble-mindedness at the time of admission it is advisable to give the tests while the girls are still in quarantine, taking them in order just as they enter. We decided not to include the Negro girls, as we think they will form a proper study by themselves later.

We have tabulated the results of the tests of 100 recent cases, all white girls, taken practically in serial order. The tests have been most carefully given, under identical conditions, precisely the same method, even to the exact form of the question, being used in each case.¹

The results of the 100 sets of tests taken at the reformatory follow:

Mental Age.	No. in Group.	Physical age	No. in Group.
5 to 6 years	1	16 years	9
7 " 8 "	3	17 "	15
8 " 9 "	8	18 "	8
9 " 10 "	29	19 "	11
10 " 11 "	39	20 "	9
11 " 12 "	19	22 "	5
12 years	1	23 "	7
	24	"	5
	100	25 "	7
Average mental age, 10.05 years.	26	"	4
Average fundamen- ment year, 7.54.	27	"	1
Average age, 20 yrs., 9.7 mo.	28	"	3
	29	"	4
			100

Were the Binet tests in themselves conclusive we would be led to the startling conclusion that out of the 100 young women tested who are from sixteen to twenty-nine years of age there is not one who is normal mentally. Their average physical age. If these tests accurately measure their mentality, these young women with the physique, the strength, the appetites, and passions of grown women, with their experiences of the life of the underworld, have only the average mental capacity of little girls of ten to guide their own lives.

¹We have arranged to have the same tests given in precisely the same way by a trained psychologist to young women of about the same average age in one of our best normal schools. The results are unfortunately not yet ready for comparison.

Of these 100 young women seventy-seven came from New York and twenty-three from other counties. Twenty-two were foreign-born; thirty-seven were American-born with both parents foreign-born, and ten were American-born with one parent foreign-born. Thirty were American-born of American parentage.

Seventy-one were committed for soliciting or as common prostitutes, four as habitual drunkards, and twenty-five for felonies or misdemeanors (twenty for larceny, two for assault, one for burglary, and one for maintaining a house for smoking opium). Of the twenty-five committed for other than sexual offences all but six gave a record of immorality. Of the six, all larceny cases, two were married women, four were domestic servants.

The mental ages by groups of those leading immoral lives and the proportion of each group committed for felonies or misdemeanors is interesting. The numbers studied are too small as yet to admit drawing conclusions. The statistics are offered at their face value:

Mental Age.	No. in Group.	Convicted of Felonies or Misdemeanors.	Circuit Ages.
5 to 6 years	1	0	0.
7 " 8 "	3	1	33.33
8 " 9 "	7	1	14.28
9 " 10 "	27	4	14.88
10 " 11 "	39	10	25.64
11 " 12 "	16	3	18.75
12 years	1	0	0.
	94	19	or 20.42

We are hoping to be enabled to go on with the work and the scope of the study will broaden as rapidly as circumstances permit.

As to the ultimate outcome of the study now being given to the subject of feeble-mindedness in reformatory institutions there is little difference of opinion. The day will come when we shall do our testing previous to sentence. The mentally defective criminal woman will be committed to permanent custodial care in institutions planned to give the maximum of pleasure consistent with the safeguarding of society from the dangers attendant on free propagation of defective offspring.

THE BASIS FOR STATE POLICY

SOCIAL INVESTIGATION AND PREVENTION

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Three hundred thousand persons in the United States are feeble-minded. Five hundred thousand persons have not sufficient intelligence to manage their own affairs with ordinary prudence; are unable to compete with their fellows on equal terms and thereby to earn livelihoods. A still larger number have not sufficient will power to force themselves to do the right thing when it is pointed out to them.

This army of more than five hundred thousand persons furnishes the recruits for the ranks of the criminals, the paupers, the prostitutes, the drunkards, the ne'er-do-wells, and others of our social misfits. Their incapacity would be a *priori* cause for believing that they eventually become public charges in one form or another, and so it is not surprising to discover upon investigation that the groups of criminals, paupers, prostitutes, and drunkards actually do contain large percentages of people mentally irresponsible. The managers of our jails, reformatories, and prisons estimate that from 4 to 50 per cent of their inmates are mentally defective. Since the larger number is given by those who are more familiar with the problem of feeble-mindedness, it is likely to be nearer the truth.

Actual tests in our reformatories for girls and boys show that at least 25 per cent of them are distinctly feeble-minded. Of one hundred consecutive admissions at the State Reform School for Boys at Rahway, N. J., twenty-six were feeble-minded. Nearly as many more were border-line cases. In the State Home for Girls at Trenton a similar condition was found. We examined fifty-six girls who had been inmates of the Massachusetts Reformatory, but had been released on probation. They were selected because of their bad conduct and inability to remain in the homes found

for them. Fifty-two of the fifty-six were distinctly feeble-minded. Note their type as shown in the following two cases:

No. 1 is eighteen years old and tests twelve. Father is drinking man; mother, a low-grade woman, absolutely no sense or power to control her children, probably immoral. One brother out of reformatory on probation; another just out of truant school on probation. Girl's history: hard to manage; was a fairly good scholar, a great mischief-maker, and terrible story-teller. Would call up strange people on telephone. Took a much-prized hand-woven towel belonging to the lady for whom she worked and cut it up to make a dressing-sacque. Will do work well one day and the next not seem able to do anything. Will steal little things. So untruthful and such a trouble-maker; tells stories about the people for whom she works, and is so crazy about the men (has been immoral) that she cannot keep a position.

No. 2 is twenty years old; tests nine. (Indian blood.) Mother immoral—living with man not her husband—keeping house of ill-fame, using her children for gain. Own father alcoholic—lives with a woman not his wife—attempted rape upon his own children. Two sisters immoral—one (been in prison) now living a vicious life. A younger sister insane. A younger brother an unruly boy. Girl's history: Committed at fifteen as beyond control, immoral, and a runaway. Responded to little training. Never worked without supervision. Fond of attracting attention. Would faint on street or in store to create scene. Paid \$10 for doll. Did not care to play with it, only that it was pretty. Had child; father unknown. Wholly incompetent to care for it. Some days wants to give baby away and next day would not part with it for the world. Very nervous and moody.

Of one hundred youths in the Detention Home of the Newark Juvenile Court we found one who had average normal mentality. All the rest were below, while sixty-six of them were so far below as to be beyond question feeble-minded.

A large percentage of the paupers in our almshouses are mentally defective and have become public charges because of their inability to earn an honest living. Just what the percentage is has

never been determined. Careful observation of people who are living lives of prostitution has shown that of these a very high percentage are feeble-minded girls. Of the drunken sots that make our problems in intemperance a large percentage are mentally defective. These statements can be verified by anyone who understands the problem and who will make an examination in any section of the country.

In view of these conditions, how inadequate has been our treatment of these cases in the past. A man, woman, or youth is brought before the court, convicted of petty thievery, sentenced to jail for sixty days, serves his time, and goes free. What has been accomplished? Nothing. The chances were one in four at least (and probably greater) that he was so mentally deficient that he was incapable of knowing the right from the wrong or, knowing it, was incapable of keeping himself from doing wrong when strong temptation came. He was so mentally deficient that his two months in jail have had no possible effect on him and he comes out with the same weak mind and the same incapacity for acting sensibly. In a few weeks, or days, he is again before the court for the same or a similar offence, only to be sent up again—for three months or six months this time. His time served, he is set free to repeat over and over the same procedure.

A young girl attracts the attention of the social worker. Coinely and interesting, she is known to have been sexually immoral, but it is assumed that if someone will take her into a good family, give her care and instruction, watch over and train her, she may be reformed. Time and money and sympathy are bestowed upon her—all to no purpose, because she is feeble-minded. Within a month, it may be, she is again in disgrace, and is sent to the almshouse until her child be born. A home is found for the babe and the mother starts her life again. In the quickest time possible she returns to the almshouse to give birth to another illegitimate child. And so the history runs to the end of the chapter.

What we forget is that the woman is

not responsible. She can no more live in accordance with the conventions of society than the cats and dogs in the street. The writer examined eight women in one of the best county almshouses to be found. All of these women had given birth to feeble-minded children within six weeks of each other. The superintendent of that institution said that of one hundred and five children born there during a period of five years, one hundred and two were feeble-minded.

The argument could be extended, the instances multiplied many times. What should be the state policy in regard to its dependent and delinquent classes?

Our government spends hundreds of thousands of dollars examining immigrants to see that none who are suffering from contagious diseases or who are paupers or feeble-minded are admitted to the country; but here is a group already in our country who are breeding a race of feeble-minded people more dangerous than many barred by the immigration inspectors.

Every commonwealth spends hundreds of thousands of dollars examining persons who are accused of crime, with a view to determining their guilt or innocence, so as not to punish any one who may be innocent; but here is a group of people as undeserving of punishment for the crimes they commit as the man who shoots his neighbor by accident.

We spend thousands of dollars to determine whether Harry Thaw is criminal or crazy, that we may know whether to send him to the electric chair or to a hospital for the criminal insane; we are very particular not to make any mistake in such cases as his. But here is an army of law-breakers as to whom it is a serious question whether the punishment be sixty days in jail or permanent care where they will be happy and harmless; yet little is done to determine their responsibility and we make mistakes without blushing. Our mistakes are as cruelly unjust to the individual as they are costly to the state, not alone in money but in moral effect and even in human life.

The only thing for the state to do is to

establish stations where these cases may be all carefully and critically studied, so that the courts and other authorities may be able to act intelligently upon the facts. As well try to cure a fox of eating chickens as to attempt to reform such as these by prison sentences, education, or social uplift.

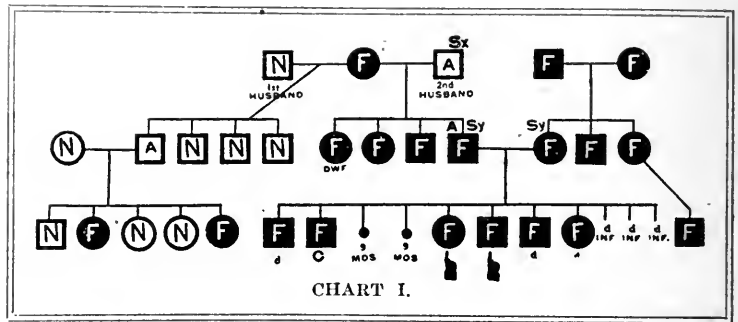
What, then, is to be done? What should be the policy of the state in regard to these cases after they have been discovered? There is only one answer. They must be removed from that environment, in which it has been proved they are incapable of functioning in a manner endurable to the rest of society. They must be segregated, colonized in groups where they may be perfectly happy and somewhat useful, where they may live natural lives under the guidance of those who are wise and intelligent and capable of directing them. Only one limitation need be placed upon their existence in these places, and that is that they must never become parents. Our studies at Vineland have shown that 65 per cent of feeble-minded people are the children of feeble-minded people; in other words, that the condition is strongly hereditary. Therefore, if these people are allowed to become parents, they will bring into the world another group of people like themselves who will thus perpetuate the social waste.

The following charts show the heredity of two families. We have two hundred like these—65 per cent of all our inmates show such history.

The symbols used in the charts are the following: Square indicates male. Circle indicates female. A capital letter indicates disease, habit, or condition, as follows: A, alcoholic (habitual drunkard); B, blind; C, criminal; D, deaf; E, epileptic; F, feeble-minded, either black letter, or white letter on black ground (the former when sex is unknown); I, insane; N, normal; Sx, grave sexual offender; Sy, syphilitic; T, tuberculos. Any of these letters may be used

with no square or circle when sex is unknown. When even the letter is omitted the vertical line points to the fact that there was an individual of whom nothing is known. Small black circle indicates miscarriage—time is given (in months) when known, also cause; stillbirth is shown as a miscarriage at nine months; b = born; d = died; m = married; inf = infancy; hand shows which child is in the institution for feeble-minded; illeg = illegitimate; heavy line under any symbol indicates that the person is in some institution at the expense of society.

Chart I shows the descendants of a feeble-minded woman who was married twice. Her first husband was normal. There were four normal children, one of whom is alcoholic. This alcoholic son married a normal woman and produced two feeble-minded and three



normal children. This is another instance of the defect skipping a generation, being transmitted by the grandmother through the father.

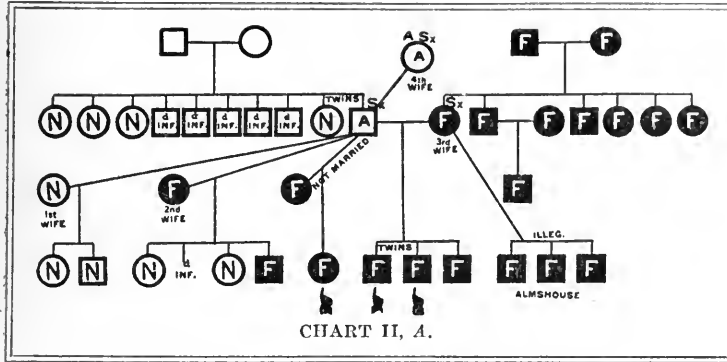
The second marriage of this feeble-minded woman was with an alcoholic and immoral man. The result was four feeble-minded children. One of these became alcoholic and syphilitic and married a feeble-minded woman. She was one of three imbecile children, born of two imbecile parents. The result here could, of course, be nothing but defectives. There were two still-born, and three that died in infancy. Six others lived to be determined feeble-minded. One of these was a criminal. Two are in the institution at Vineland. The mother's sister also has a feeble-minded son.

Chart II (in two parts) is in some ways the most astonishing one we have. There are in the institution at Vineland five children representing, as we had always supposed, three entirely independent families. We discovered, however, that they all belonged to one stock. In Chart II, A, the central figure, the alcoholic father of three of the children in the institution, married for his third wife a woman who was a prostitute and a keeper of a house of ill-fame, herself feeble-minded, and with five feeble-minded brothers and sisters. One of these sisters is the grandmother represented on Chart II, B.

On A it will be seen that this alcoholic man was four times married. He comes from a good family but was spoiled in his bringing up, became alcoholic and immoral—a degenerate man. His first wife, however, was a normal woman and it is claimed that

ferred to is a half-sister of the other girl referred to on Chart II, A.

We are discussing a possible state policy. We are looking not to the immediate solution of this difficulty, but to the gradual reeducation of our present troubles and the prevention of them hereafter. Such a state-wide policy must begin at the beginning and include many things that will be of importance later on. As already stated, we must carefully examine all cases that come to public notice. The feeble-

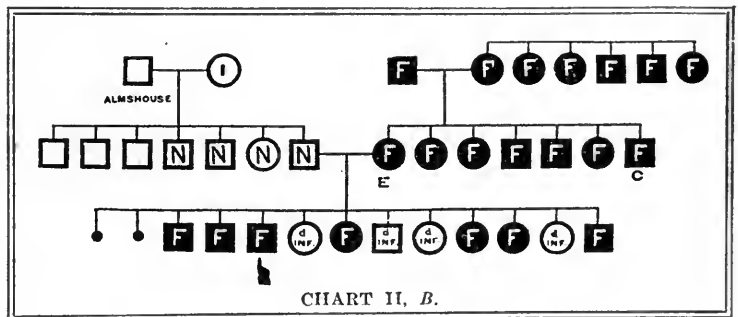


the two children were normal. For his second wife, he took out of the poorhouse a feeble-minded woman. Her children were: two normal, one that died young, and one feeble-minded. He married the third time. The woman was the prostitute above referred to. She had three illegitimate children, all feeble-minded. After their marriage, they had three children, all of whom are feeble-minded. Two of these are in this institution. The father then deserted this woman and married a fourth wife, who is alcoholic and a prostitute. Of this union, however, there are no children.

There is, moreover, very strong evidence that he is the father of the third child in this institution by another woman, who is also feeble-minded.

Chart II, B, will be understood if we note that the mother's mother is a sister of the third wife of the much-married man of Chart II, A. This sister married a feeble-minded man, and the result of that union was seven feeble-minded children, of whom one is a criminal and one an epileptic. Four are married. The feeble-minded epileptic woman married a normal man, who is one of a fairly good family. His mother was insane, the father died in an almshouse; however, we find no mental defect. As the result of this marriage, we have seven feeble-minded children, four others that died in infancy, and there were two miscarriages. This is the fourth child of this strain that is in our institution. The fifth one re-

ferred to is a half-sister of the other girl referred to on Chart II, A. We are discussing a possible state policy. We are looking not to the immediate solution of this difficulty, but to the gradual reeducation of our present troubles and the prevention of them hereafter. Such a state-wide policy must begin at the beginning and include many things that will be of importance later on. As already stated, we must carefully examine all cases that come to public notice. The feeble-minded must be cared for and kept in an environment where it will be impossible for them to become public nuisances, but where they will be happy and fairly useful. But many parents are either normal or of such a high grade of defectiveness that they never get into court and yet have feeble-minded children. We cannot touch these adults. We must somehow get hold of their children. Our compulsory education laws bring every child to official notice or can, upon slight change, be made to do so. The child thus brought to official notice will be examined as to his mental development. If he be normal he will go on to school as now; if he be merely back-



ward he will be placed in a special class; if he be an idiot, an imbecile, or a Moron, his condition will be recorded. If he be a borderline case, he may be sent to school, but he must be watched and the

ward he will be placed in a special class; if he be an idiot, an imbecile, or a Moron, his condition will be recorded. If he be a borderline case, he may be sent to school, but he must be watched and the

moment he develops evidence of mental deficiency, the fact must be recorded. At the proper time and in a proper way, the parents must be informed of the condition of the child and of the willingness of the state to take care of it in a colony. When these colonies are located within a reasonable distance, a great many parents will become willing sooner or later to allow their children to be cared for in this way. To those who are not willing, the state can only say:

Inasmuch as you are unwilling to give up the child, we shall leave him in your custody, but we insist that you shall care for him, shall be responsible for him throughout his life, shall see that he does not get into mischief, and above all that he does not become a parent. Whenever the time comes that we find that you are incapable of performing or are neglecting this duty, then we shall take him and place him in the colony.

It is true that such a policy as we have proposed will cost money, but so does the crime that we now have to endure; and for the latter there is a moral and social cost which, unless reduced in some such way as we have suggested, will very soon mount until the burden of crime and disease becomes insufferable. The expense of farms and colonies will before long be compensated for by the reduction in the populations of prisons, almshouses, insane asylums, and other institutions for the temporary care of these persons. Also it must not be forgotten

that when these mentally defective persons are recognized in childhood, and trained intelligently, many of them become self-supporting under direction. The colony of defectives costs the state less than the jail or reformatory.

To sum up: all groups of dependents and delinquents are made up of a large percentage of persons who are mentally defective and therefore irresponsible, incapable of doing right. The rational procedure would be to determine their responsibility and consequently what mode of treatment is most likely to reform them or to protect society.

Having thus provided for the existent situation, we must prevent the replacing of this army by others of the same kind as the years go by. To do that we must look to the children. We must detect all the mental defectives in childhood, keep a record of them, and colonize them either at once or upon the first intimation that their parents are not taking care of them and that they are becoming nuisances. Because of the enormous hereditary factor in all of this problem, we must see to it that none of these people shall become parents.

We may reasonably hope that such a policy carefully followed will in a generation or two largely reduce our feeble-minded population, and thereby our problems of pauperism, prostitution, disease, drunkenness, and crime.

FRAGMENTS OF HUMANITY—III

A SERIES OF SIX SKETCHES BY ELISABETH A. IRWIN.

MORRIS

Morris is now a boy of fourteen, healthy and well developed, but undoubtedly feeble-minded. For more than two years, his mother and father have taken him from one philanthropic agency to another, demanding advice and asking for help in finding a proper place for the boy. He was not admitted to an ungraded class in a public school because he is too low-grade. This family disappears and reappears periodically, still searching, still inquiring for an institution of which they have vaguely heard, Letchworth Village. Since that is not yet ready to receive a boy of fourteen, Morris is now spending his time at home, unhappy, undeveloped, untaught. By the time that the state has a fitting place to put him, Morris will have passed his educable years, and will have to join the ranks of the helpless, useless feeble-minded, while, if he could be taken in time, he might be taught not only to wait on himself, but to become under careful supervision a happy and partially self-supporting individual.

He spends his time at present in three small rooms at the top of an East Side tenement, thrashing about, longing for activity. His mother cannot leave him, and cannot let him go out alone. He is growing and developing very rapidly and longs for some outlet. At present he is necessarily repressed, and becomes less and less tractable and more and more stunted and helpless.

IDIOCY AND LABORATORY RESEARCH

L. PIERCE CLARK M. D.

NEW YORK

Not so many years ago, secondary dementia embraced a large class of the insane. Now the term has largely vanished in its more exact components of dementia praecox, paralytic dementia, epileptic and alcoholic dementia, etc. So with the old term idiocy; in its collective sense it has vanished from scientific reports and in time will be permanently excluded through the movement of a host of workers in this special field of pathological mental development. We now have some fifteen types of idiocy classified on either distinct clinical or pathological grounds, the names of which are not germane to our subject. At autopsy the naked-eye appearances of the brain are sufficient to enable us to classify the cases. In all cases of low-grade idiocy there are definite and well recognized changes in the autopsied brain fully explaining the previous mental state. These tissue alterations are most frequently the residue of old inflammatory changes which occurred in the early life of the individual subject. Side by side, however, we see conditions in the brain of idiots due to inflammations on the one hand and to arrest in tissue development on the other.

In view of the popularized dissemination of recent eugenic studies of feeble-mindedness and idiocy we are in grave danger of believing that the heredity causes are all-sufficient and final in accounting for this entire group of mental defectives. Such a view is, however, far from the case. Even by the most careful work (Goddard) in this special field of heredity study, 35 per cent of the ordinary type of feeble-mindedness is of *normal* heredity, while 60 per cent of *normal* heredity obtains in low-grade idiocy. It is a recognized fact in medicine that the presence of a distinctive sign of disease in but 60 or 70 per cent of all cases suffering from that disorder makes the sign of doubtful diagnostic value, while in the field of causation of disease even a very small group of ab-

solutely negative findings as regards the particular cause renders that specific cause not sufficiently determinative to speak of it as the *main* cause, much less the *sole* cause. Therefore, we are far too prone to look upon modern heredity studies as being final—which the careful investigators themselves in this field are far from willing to allow.

It is quite legitimate for us to speak of heredity as one of the great causes of feeble-mindedness. The brain changes seen at autopsy are frequently those of defective development; such conditions range all the way from slight defects of brain cells to the grossest defects or absence of whole tracts and parts of the brain. Again, while the arrest of brain development is the most striking change in the feeble-minded brain, the various residual inflammatory changes of the idiot brain often outrank defects of development. Either development defect paves the way to the sequential inflammatory changes, or *vice versa*; probably the former is the case, although the burden of proof still rests with those who believe hereditary factors are mandatory and not permissive. One thing is certain: that the various low grades of idiocy, as separated ordinarily from the higher types of the feeble-minded class, have many causations—such as inflammatory overgrowth in the meningeal coverings of the brain, wasting of the cell contents of the gray mantle of the brain, hemorrhages, plugging of the blood-vessels in the brain substance, cysts, softening and hardenings of certain parts of the brain, etc. Any simple or easy method intended to schematize the causes of idiocy at present will probably be foiled in time by the facts. Many brain pathologists have found themselves in scientific confusion when they have attempted a similar explanation of the living facts with those seen at autopsy in idiocy. Even the dawn of a rational explanation of the whole problem is far from the keenest vision of the foremost

worker in brain pathology. The inconclusive opinion regarding clinical and pathological correlation which brain anatomists are forced into may be shown in the recent report of a very able pathologist studying a frankly paralytic brain of an idiot. He concludes after a most painstaking analysis that the so-called paralytic brain is often seen in those showing simple idiocy or imbecility from birth. He therefore inquires: "Are not the latter class entitled to be called *born paralytics* as regards *all* brain functions?" He answers his own ingenious inquiry in the negative, as most intensive analysis of the latter class shows that they gradually gain a paralysis of all functions at six or seven years of age, the period at which paralytics, as well as the normal child, contract the mishaps most frequently. In other words, many idiotic children are simply born with mental and

therefore cerebral defects upon which paralysis is later insidiously engrafted from some unknown cause. On the other hand, in the brains of two idiots who suffered from paralysis of the legs the same investigator saw, in addition to the paralytic changes in the brain cortex, certain foci unmistakably characteristic of defective brain development. The form of this latter change showed that its primary cause lay in the blood vessels and had given rise to arrest in development in this manner. It was further apparent that the whole process was of remote origin and probably heredo-syphilis. Such cases are by no means rare in asylums and are often overlooked. Many simple idiots undoubtedly are child paralytics. The child brain is very prone to develop encephalitis even when we invoke no heredity to insure vulnerability; it is one of the commonest causes of idiocy. This

FRAGMENTS OF HUMANITY—IV

A SERIES OF SIX SKETCHES BY ELISABETH A. IRWIN.

MINNIE

The case of Minnie shows what may take place in a family when it is relieved of the burden and disgrace of an incorrigible, morally depraved child.

Minnie was born on the East Side. From the time she was three she stole. At that age she took a piece of jewelry from a visitor and hid it in her mouth, thereby bringing suspicion on every member of the family. From then on, she was incorrigible, robbing the neighbors, staying out at night, begging in public places, and bringing upon her brothers and sisters the stigma and disgrace of having a criminal in the family. The mother was heart-sick and discouraged. No one of them cared how they lived, for they could have no friends nor social life. The father's small earnings were often depleted by having to pay for things that Minnie stole in the neighborhood.

The father tried to have the child committed at the age of ten, but she was pretty and attractive, and the judge said that he should be ashamed not to be able to control so young a child and for that reason refused to send her away.

Minnie was finally discovered by a neighborhood house and recognized by the residents as an abnormal child of the moral imbecile type, irresponsible but still teachable. They were able to send her away from home where she could have proper training and discipline.

The whole family at once took a new lease of life. They moved into new quarters, improved the condition in the home, dressed the other children better, so that now after two years they are scarcely recognizable as the same family. While they have paid religiously a part of Minnie's expenses every month, they have been relieved of the burden of her debts and the disgrace of her deeds; and all the members of the family give promise of turning out well. Minnie herself is so improved that when she returned for a short visit after two years' absence everyone was delighted with the change, and she bids fair to become a responsible member of society. This is entirely due to the expert care and training that she is receiving, which, as the parents clearly recognized, it was impossible for her to receive at home.

It remains true that if she were not cared for and taught by private individuals nothing would have been done, as there is at present no room anywhere in New York institutions for children of that type.

type of encephalitis in children is quite different in many respects from the adult type. It often appears first at the juncture of the gray mantle and the underlying white matter. Many of the obscure and bizarre symptoms of idiocy, epilepsy, and palsies are to be explained by the seat, character, and extent of this peculiar form of encephalitis.

Formerly, even as now, arrested development was much discussed in relation to idiocy. It was even then assumed that development stopped short from innate causes. The work of Hammenberg based on many autopsies gave much support to this view. While his technique still remains of value, his illustrations do not seem to bear out his contentions. For instance, an idiot brain seldom resembles a foetal brain. The parallel is most in evidence in the symmetrical or dwarf convolitional brain (microcephalic idiot), but ever here there are marked and important differences. In the vast majority of cases, as previously stated, there is no marked primary arrest of development *per se* in the idiot brain, but there are definite tissue changes in the nerve cells showing atrophy or hardening, altered blood vessels, excess and overgrowth of interstitial tissue about the cells themselves.

These somewhat fragmentary remarks go to show that idiocy probably has many complex causes underlying its defective development aside from the hereditary factors. These causes are more complex and even more difficult of detection than those of feeble-mindedness. Moreover, the brain is not the only organ that suffers in the pathological development of idiocy. The heart, kidneys, and indeed all the highly specialized organs participate in the defect. Obviously, the studies now being carried out on the defects in weight of the different bodily organs are of special value, as it has been shown that the idiot exhibits general depression of vital energy as shown in size, growth, weight, longevity, etc., when compared with average normal beings of the same origin. Certain laws of growth are constantly modified in the different epochs of development. Defective organ development may be general, as in dwarfism and infantilism, conditions which

were especially studied by Bourneville at the Bicetre. Gross defect of development in even such simple structures as the teeth occurs in almost one-half of all idiots. It may be reiterated that, from the pathologic standpoint of the brain, idiocy is always associated with definite disease alterations of the brain cortex. There has never been a reputed case of idiocy studied at autopsy where there have not been unequivocal organic changes in the brain and other organs (Ziehen). No one is able as yet, however, to ascribe certain defects of intelligence to the exact changes which will be found in the brain tissues after death. Thus the intelligence defects of a cretin, a brain paralytic, and an epileptic idiot may appear to be the same in character, yet widely different brain changes may show in the post-mortem findings in these three quite dissimilar types of disease defects. Thus *arrest* in development and *disease changes* in the idiot brain are still indissolubly bound together in the pathologic study of idiocy. It may be said as a final statement that the mental defect of idiocy can be due, (1) to inflammatory conditions of the brain during the embryo period, (2) to a blood-vessel disease during infancy or early childhood, or (3) to a grossly perverted function of the ductless glands of the body; all these disease changes may or may not be based upon a hereditary defect. This statement is made in contrast to the one frequently heard that mere arrest of development acting alone may produce the pathology of idiotic brains. This being the case for two-thirds of the mental defectives as a class, what should be the future scientific approach to gain a final understanding of the parts the different causes play? The remedy in prevention of idiocy can not be found until we solve these questions. The whole question of the nature and cause of idiocy needs a thoroughly detailed study from all standpoints. Now that state care and segregation of mental defectives is finally in the ascendancy in sociologic progress, we may look forward to a time when all institutions caring for this class will have properly equipped laboratories for studying the problem.

If I were asked of what the research

laboratories in this field should consist, I might hazard here a tentative scheme of their organization. As there exists in no land at present a thorough and systematic research as to the nature and causes of idiocy, great difficulties are presented in bringing the subject into full accord with, or within the modern scope, of preventive medicine. The scheme must embrace:

(1) The present admirable system of intensive research of family stock to record the environment and parentage from which idiocy is recruited;

(2) Studies in the institutional laboratories along approved methods of psychology, anthropology, and clinical pathology. The effects of education and training, nurture and growth of idiots, and the relationship of such studies to normal child life need to be carefully studied. No one dares to say that there are not slight borderland grades of mental defects that may not be conserved to the normal if placed under an ideal life of training treatment. This class may be small, but there must be questionable cases of defective children which should be given the benefit of the doubt—that backwardness does not always spell irremovable defect. To this borderland, the twilight of the normal child mind, the trained pedagogue, psychologist, alienist, and internist may well afford to devote their best energies—not alone for the advantage of this small and possibly unproductive group of backward children, but for the enormous flood of light such study will throw upon so-called normal yet aberrant types of neurotic child-life. The main conception of individualization of teaching and an effort at industrial and sense training according to a scientific system for the development of mental defectives was instituted first by Itard and Seguin, about a hundred years ago. Their revolutionary innovation of teaching idiots according to their plan has been the essential foundation of all

systems in institutional training schools ever since. The wholesale adoption of Seguin's principles of teaching mental defectives in the curriculum of public schools in this country and abroad is but a further confirmation of the fact that careful studies in the mental defective group contribute to our knowledge of normal child development in somewhat the same degree and is of the same value as researches in psychiatry are to the advancement of our knowledge of normal psychology. The so-called Montessori method is an excellent recent illustration of the same principles.

(3) Finally, when we have traced the individual idiot from his stock origin through his individual reactions to the ideal colony life in all its training features of mind and body, noting the modifying influences of such training and care on his development and growth, the laboratory of research should be so equipped as to analyze the whole terminal state at death. Modern science of the mind has compelled workers in this field to analyze all functions of the whole body if they seriously intend to make real contributions to progress in understanding the nature and causes of insanity, idiocy, and their allied disorders.

To summarize our needs in a laboratory for research into the causes of idiocy and feeble-mindedness, we should have (1) studies in the eugenics of our subject, (2) studies in the make-up, life, and growth of the individual child, and (3) neuropathologic studies of the lesions found in the *entire* body after death.

Having segregated the mentally defective class; having placed them under careful study, care, and treatment; and, as a necessary corollary of the foregoing, having obtained and digested the material as to the nature and cause of their defects: who can doubt that we shall then be in a position definitely to prescribe what shall be done to prevent this pitiable by-product in the evolution of the human race?

TWO BROTHERS

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FIELD WORKER NEW JERSEY TRAINING SCHOOL FOR BACKWARD AND FEEBLE-MINDED
VINELAND, N. J.

During the early days of the last century, two half brothers having had the same father but different mothers began their respective careers in one of our older states. Nothing could have been more widely divergent than the social standing, the mental endowment, the material possessions of the two brothers, who none the less in physical feature bore a striking resemblance to each other.

One of them, the inheritor of the homestead farm, whose broad acres overlooked a lordly river, was a man respected by all who knew him, intelligent, well married, with children who in themselves or in their descendants would cast nothing but honor upon the family name. The other, feeble-minded and morally repulsive, lived on a mountain-side in a hut built of rock fragments so loosely put together that more than once the roof slid from the walls. For a quarter of a century this hut existed as a hotbed of vice, the resort of the debauched youth of the neighborhood, and from its walls has come a race of degenerates which, out of a total of four hundred and eighty descendants, numbers in almshouse cases, in keepers of houses of prostitution, in inmates of reformatories and institutions for the feeble-minded, in criminals of various sorts and in feeble-minded not under state protection, 143 souls!

And yet the progenitor of this social evil gave in early manhood hopes of something better. The freshness of youth hid the degenerate tendency that was soon to assert itself. He married a young woman of decent family and the two together saved a few dollars with which they bought an acre and a half of uncleared ground. Here they built their hut and here began to appear, in quick succession, the offspring of the pair, who almost as quickly were bound out among the neighboring farms. Twice, during the next few years, the couple added to their initial plot of

ground, for the county records show that once a half-acre was purchased for five dollars, and again two-thirds of an acre for eight dollars. From this date no gleam of ambition illumines the dark way the couple were going, and it was not long before the wife, poorly nourished, overworked, and scantily clad, succumbed to the inevitable, dying with the thirteenth child.

Left to himself the husband lived on, much as he had lived before—avoiding work perhaps a little more effectively, drinking perhaps a little heavier. His wife's family had moved to Cincinnati, where they had prospered, and during her life-time offered to pay the price of transportation if the couple would join them, but this along with other inducements had been set aside by the husband, who had neither the mind nor the will to grasp the opportunity offered him. As time went on, the grosser elements of his nature gained ascendancy, which, added to habitual filth, made him a most repulsive person, so that he merited the name bestowed upon him of the "Old Horror." At election time he was a well-known figure. Then he would appear dressed in a suit of cast-off clothes given him for the occasion, very conscious of the ephemeral importance which his power as a citizen gave him. It was well known that his vote was the possession of any one who would give him a drink, and there was no lack of men ready to make the bargain. But with all this, his utter inoffensiveness, coupled with a genuinely kind heart, characteristic of the family, won for him a sort of protecting pity in the vicinity. Many an old farmer would allow him to sit on the porch and draw off, unnoticed, measure after measure of cider from the barrel which was always in evidence. When the old fellow had taken so much that he lost his balance and rolled off, the farmer would chuckle—"Well, well, I do declare! Them steps of mine does need fixin'!"—at which the simple-minded

ed neighbor would gather himself together, really believing the steps had caused his fall!

After the death of their mother, three of this man's daughters subsequently known as "Old Mol," "Old Jane," and "Old Kate," came back to their father and either settled near or lived with him. It was then that the crude hut, hidden deep in the mountain thicket, became known in the neighborhood. Memories of the scandals that now and then leaked out, involving the names of sons of prominent citizens, are still in the minds of many living persons, although the perpetrators of the deeds have long since passed to their reward, leaving behind them a long train of descendants, many of whom now may be found among such water-logged humanity as settles at the bottom of our big cities, or remain in their native hills and continue to carry on the work of their progenitors.

How different the story of the other half-brother! In his case there is a clear normal line of intelligent citizens, who in their varied activities have constantly tended to increase the preserving force of our commonwealth, lifting its energies to an ever broadening outlook.

The same is true of his five full-blood brothers and sisters who attained manhood and womanhood. Among their three hundred and fifty descendants are many who have entered our large cities, where they are to be found as doctors, lawyers, ministers, merchants, pharmacists, bankers, manufacturers, teachers; still others have become pioneers in the West, while those who have remained in the country are land-owners, farmers, blacksmiths, undertakers, store-keepers and mill owners, always capable and industrious, abreast of the problems of life, which they meet with the intelligence of normal citizens.

But whence, it may well be asked, this astonishing difference in the characters of these two branches, springing, on the paternal side, from the same source?

Reason will at once decide that this difference must be found in the women who became the mothers of the respective lines, and in the subtle subjective forces that brought about and accompanied each mating.

Fortunately, church and family records, local tradition, our nation's history even, can aid in finding an answer to the question, Who and what were these two women? And under what circumstances did each enter into the life of her husband?

The early records of the province where these events took place tell us that in 1774 "a simultaneous blaze of indignation from North to South, broke out at the tidings of arbitrary acts of the British Government perpetrated against the port of Boston. Measures were at once taken for organizing the various counties into a combination of the friends of liberty who should insure promptitude and unity of action throughout the province." On Sunday, September 23, 1775, at precisely four o'clock, the news of the Battle of Lexington "carried by express riders reached the chambers of the New York Committee of Safety and thence the stirring news spread on to Princeton and Philadelphia, spreading like wild-fire over all the neighboring counties. Meetings were called and resolutions adopted for regulating the militia of the colony."

By spring of the following year, companies had been organized and stationed at the various strategic points. To one of these on the "King's Highway" connecting two important trade centers came in April, 1776, a youth not yet twenty-one, who had lost his father five years before. He had been reared by his mother with four "spinster sisters" on a farm of some two hundred acres, situated about five miles away, that had come to them in direct line, part of an original purchase made in 1734 by their paternal great-grandfather. This ancestor was of sturdy English dissenting stock that had always been sober, industrious, and God-fearing. The young soldier inherited these qualities, but having been so early deprived of a father's care, and so suddenly plunged into the relaxed atmosphere of camp life, succumbed to excesses unknown in the annals of his family. Ready he was to answer his country's call and to fight when the time came, but in the various monthly tours which he served there were plenty of off-duty times when the fires of patriotism burned lower than the other fires within him.

Even to-day the remains of numerous old taverns scattered along the road, still called the "King's Highway," attest the ancestral thirst which called them into being. That our young friend frequently found means to quench his own thirst is not to be doubted, and it is equally certain that among the wayward girls who frequented these taverns was one, a native in the locality, who attracted the soldier, now in the full swing of re-action from the restraint of his well-ordered home. This girl it was who became the mother of him who subsequently built his hut on the mountain-side scarcely two miles distant. She, in accordance with an instinct that has been followed by her descendants for generations, gave to the child the full name of its father, thus making his identity known.

Of this girl, history has nothing and tradition very little to tell. That she attained an advanced age is learned from her great-granddaughter, who remembers that her mother "lived with the old woman after she had become completely imbecile and that she often told of how difficult it was to care for her." She lived in a log cabin back in the woods, and at one period, late in life, had passed as the wife of an old soldier, who belonged to a good family, but was of striking peculiarity. At his death she failed to receive his pension, since it could not be proved that she was his lawful wife. She died about 1842. Of her name or ancestry no trace can be found to-day. Her son, who seems to have been her only child, did not live long with his mother, but was bound out with a well-to-do farmer of the vicinity. There is no evidence that the father ever at any time recognized either the mother or her child, although he could not have remained ignorant of the latter's existence nor of the name which the lad bore. The shifting fortunes of a soldier's life did not permit him to remain long in one locality and he probably was changed long before the child was born.

When we next find him, it is on the eve of battle when an accidental wound in the right arm disabled him for further service. He then returned to the home farm, and during a summer of

subdued activity fell in love with a young Quakeress of the vicinity. The girl found his suit acceptable, but her shrewd father was not so easily moved. At first he objected to the union, for the young man was too much handicapped by lack of worldly possessions, by his sisters, still minors, and by his disabled condition. In reply to the objection of the old man, the young suitor is recorded as saying, "Never mind, I'll own more land than thee ever did, before I die"—a promise which he made good. The paternal objection must have been shortly overruled, for the church records give the date of his marriage with the Quakeress as January, 1779. No uncertainty shrouds the ancestry of this woman whom he made his wife. She came of a respected English family, which, however, having imbibed principles too broadly democratic to be tolerated in that country, had been compelled to seek shelter in the New World. Here it had quickly taken root and through thrift and industry had acquired material possessions which placed it in the front provincial ranks. Its best possession, however, was that uncompromising rectitude which forms the backbone of our nation and which invariably has made for intelligence and ability in its offspring.

The eldest son of this union was the respected farmer referred to in the beginning of this article. In the family Bible is a carefully preserved record of the five daughters and two sons born of this union, but no mention is made of the older son, born of the other union, whose name, had the whole truth been told, would have headed the list of his father's children. Of this illegitimate son, no family Bible ever held the record, and his existence would certainly have been allowed to pass unnoticed, had it not chanced that his great-great-granddaughter was placed in a home for feeble-minded, where she was long studied and watched before an attempt was made to unravel the thread of her past history. When once undertaken, it was traced back to the mountain hut, where it might have rested, had it not been found that the degenerate man bore the full name of the Revolutionary hero, married as the rec-

ords show in 1779. Persistent search revealed the fact that several persons still living had always known of the blood relationship of the two brothers, whose lives were in such striking contrast to one another, and that they retained a vivid impression of the strange doings and disorderly ways of these wild people of the woods. For it will surprise no one to learn that the degenerate family has always been a complex problem, inheriting and preserving from its normal ancestor strong and attractive personal characteristics along with the low mental and moral endowment from the subnormal side, thus from its complexity impressing itself deeply upon the commu-

nity. This strange mixture shows itself even to the sixth generation.

As the above recorded facts were being dug from records it began to seem a singular coincidence that these two brothers, here singled out for comparison, should have been born so near the time of the promulgation of that basic principle of our democracy that "All men are created equal"—and both of them, in a way, the direct outcome of those forces that made its establishment possible. It was as if to epitomize in them and in their descendants the necessity for drafting such a social context for this great doctrine as will make it, with each generation, more nearly true.

PUBLIC PROVISION FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED

EDWARD R. JOHNSTONE

SUPERINTENDENT TRAINING SCHOOL FOR BACKWARD AND FEEBLE-MINDED
VINELAND, N. J.

For several decades the United States Census Bureau attempted to record the number of the feeble-minded. This was discontinued after the census of 1890 because it was impossible to get complete and accurate returns. The difficulty encountered by the enumerator in getting other information was usually increased when he asked concerning feeble-mindedness. Too frequently also families either did not know their children's condition or were adverse to stating the facts.

The census takers, learning only of those cases recognized by unskilled persons, found 76,895 feeble-minded in 1880, or one in 652. In 1890 they found 95,609, or one in 655. The estimate among students of the feeble-minded of one in 500 was therefore conservative, even with the small amount of information available at that time.

In 1908 the English Royal Commission reported for England one feeble-minded person in 217;¹ for Scotland, one in 400; for Ireland, one in 175, and,

¹REPORT OF THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON THE CARE AND CONTROL OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED. Wyman and Sons. London.

while the commission was composed of men with professional training, a careful review of their methods carries the conviction that they could not possibly have discovered all the cases.

In 1910, the director of Public Health and Charities made a municipal census of the feeble-minded of the city of Philadelphia. The study sums up by saying:

Philadelphia with a million and a half population contains very probably three thousand evident cases of feeble-minded and eight thousand others so deficient that a statement of their mentality depends principally on the view point of the examiner.²

In 1911, the pupils in the public schools in a town of 10,000 were carefully tested by trained observers, using the Binet measuring scale. This test² showed one in 200.

The commission appointed to locate the site for Letchworth Village, after collecting much data, estimated that there might be 12,300 feeble-minded per-

¹THE NUMBER OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED. Cornell Publication. Department Public Health and Charities. Philadelphia. 1910.

²Two Thousand Normal Children Measured by the Binet Measuring Scale of Intelligence. Goddard. *Pedagogical Seminary*. June, 1911.

sons in the state of New York. A canvass of the institutions for feeble-minded, epileptics, and seven of those for the insane and reformatory cases, made a few months ago, shows 6,650 in institutions. None of the special classes or almshouses nor of the vast numbers kept in their homes were included.

The field workers of the three institutions¹ in New Jersey have been recording cases as they happen to find them in the communities where they are studying family histories. Within the year they have reported 4,124 cases not in institutions. There are in New Jersey institutions 1,348, with 393 on waiting lists, making 5,865 recorded cases in that state.

Careful testings in the special classes throughout the country show that a large percentage of the children formerly supposed to be merely backward are actually feeble-minded. The English commission found that feeble-minded mothers produce an average of twice as many children as normal mothers. Four families studied by the training school at Vineland show 2,798 individuals of whom 687 are known to be feeble-minded and 1,532 undetermined. Two hundred and sixty-seven other families show 11,345 individuals, of whom 1,049 are known to be feeble-minded and 6,219 undetermined.

All recent studies make it evident that from 60 to 90 per cent of the cases of feeble-mindedness are hereditary. Alcoholism, tuberculosis, and syphilis are found inextricably mixed with this condition.

What has been set forth so far goes to show that until a careful canvass is made by trained investigators we can only guess at the truth. We believe that 1 to 500 is entirely too conservative an estimate of the ratio of the feeble-minded to the total population, and that 1 to 300 is more nearly correct; but if there is danger of wasting energy in discussing the ratio of 1 to 300 let us say 1 to 500. That means 182,260 in the United States.

About 10 per cent of the estimated

¹The state village for epileptics, the institution for feeble-minded women, the training school at Vineland.

March 2. 1912.

number of the feeble-minded are now cared for in proper institutions. Here they have all creature comforts, cleanliness, and medical attention. They are made happy by entertainments, toys, and games. They help in household duties of every description. They acquire surprising proficiency with tools, learning carpet-weaving, mattress-making, broom-making, and the simpler side of carpentry, painting, masonry, dress-making, and tailoring. They are effective workers in the making of bricks and in concrete work. On the farm and in the care of stock, under supervision, they are far superior to many "hired hands." In this way they contribute much toward their own support and from 10 to 30 per cent become fully self-supporting under direction. In most institutions there are excellent school departments where the elements of reading, writing, etc., are taught to the small number who can really use this knowledge to good advantage.

But what of those who are not in the proper institutions? Many are in prisons and reformatories, sent there for crimes committed through ignorance or at the suggestion of others. Murder, arson, thievery, and innumerable immoralities are charged against these irresponsibles (so pronounced by the superintendents of the penal institutions). A complete "research" examination should be made of every questionable prisoner, and an abstract of the findings presented to the judge before he passes sentence. Then the incompetents would be sent to a "village for the simple," there to live out a harmless, useful, and happy life. Now they live through a series of circles made up of crime, arrest, trial, imprisonment, parole, discharge, and crime again, entailing upon the community a burden of expense to which it seems indifferent.

In the hospitals for the insane these deficient are adding to the already overcrowded condition. They do not need the care of an expert physician and the expensive, protected buildings—they want mothering, directing, and the opportunity of the land. They need a job, with ma-

STATE CITY.	IN INSTI- TUTIONS FOR DE- FECTIVES.	WAITING LISTS.	REPORTED IN REFORMATORIES, ETC. ¹	REPORTED IN HOSPITALS FOR INSANE. ²	TOTAL RE- CORDED CASES.	EXISTING FACILITIES.
ALABAMA			Industrial School	10	10	Epileptic com- mission appoint- ed.
ARIZONA			Benson	5	5	No institution for feeble-minded.
ARKANSAS						No institution for feeble-minded.
CALIFORNIA						
Eldridge	954	70	Waterman	80	1161	
Santa Clara..	35					
Los Angeles..	10	12				
COLORADO						
Pueblo	50		Reformatory	110	160	
CONNECTICUT						
Lakeville	295	20			315	
DELAWARE						
			Girls' Indus- trial Home	102	102	Agitation for an institution.
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA						Children now sent to Elwyn, Falls Church, and Vineland.
FLORIDA						No institution for feeble-minded.
GEORGIA						No institution for feeble-minded.
IDAHO				Orfino	80	
ILLINOIS						
Godfrey	60	300	St. Charles	50	2824	
Lincoln	1464	950				
INDIANA						
Ft. Wayne....	1251	105			2201	
New Castle...	140	705				
IOWA						
Glenwood	1350	75	Eldora	72	1655	
Iowa City ...	18			Independence	117	
Red Oak	25					
KANSAS						
Parsons	456		Hutchinson	30	956	
Winfield	462	8				
KENTUCKY						
Farmdale	85	293	Louisville	6	690	
Frankfort	300	6				
LOUISIANA						No institution for feeble-minded.
MAINE						
West Pownall.	230	300			530	
MARYLAND						
Baltimore ...	13	0		Baltimore	40	
Owings Mills.						
MASSACHUSETTS						
Barre	53	100	Westboro	20	3628	
Palmer	858		Northampton	105		
Waverly	1429	600				
Wrentham ...	287	116				
MICHIGAN						
Dearborn	21				1164	
Kalamazoo ..	27					
Lapeer	1002	114				
MINNESOTA						
Faribault	1500	235	Red Wing	30	1765	
MISSISSIPPI						No institution for feeble-minded.
MISSOURI						
Marshall	448	200		St. Joseph	40	768
Marthasville..	51					
St. Charles...	19					
St. Louis.....	10					
MONTANA						
Boulder	54	115			169	
NEBRASKA						
Beatrice	451	168		Norfolk	22	641

¹These records are incomplete but are given as suggestive.

STATE CITY.	IN INSTI- TUTIONS FOR DE- FECTIVES.	WAITING LISTS	REPORTED IN REFORMATORIES, ETC. ¹	REPORTED IN HOSPITALS FOR INSANE. ¹	TOTAL RE- CORDED CASES.	EXISTING FACILITIES.
NEVADA						No institution for feeble-minded.
NEW HAMPSHIRE						
Laconia	108	115		Concord	61 284	
NEW JERSEY						
Cranbury	11		Trenton	72 Trenton	90 5865	
Haddonfield ..	52		Rahway	135		
Plainfield	20		Jamesburg	75		
Orange	23					
Skillman	370	350				
Vineland	226	18				
Vineland (women)						
Vineland (children)	401	125				
NEW MEXICO						No institution for feeble-minded.
NEW YORK				State Hosp. In.	20	
Amityville ...	40	10	Bedford	Willard	120 7597	
Newark	795	135	Elmira	Buffalo	70	
Randall's Island	1590		Industry	King's Park	68	
Rome	1085	500	Randall's Island	Ogdensburg	80	
Sonyea	1500	268				
Syracuse	553	52				
NORTH CAROLINA						
Kinston						Site purchased and contracts let.
NORTH DAKOTA						
Grafton	163	7			170	
OHIO						
Columbus ...	1684	48	Mansfield	50 Columbus	120 3379	
Gallipolis	1477	0				
OKLAHOMA						
Enid						
OREGON						
Salem	193	22	State Train- ing School	15	230	
PENNSYLVANIA						
Elwyn	1074	3000	Huntington	36 Danville	173	
Oakbourne ...	88	70		Norristown	300	Site chosen and contracts let.
Philadelphia .						
Polk	1620	15			6903 ²	
Spring City...	359	168				
RHODE ISLAND						
Slocums	50		Howard	38	88	
SOUTH CAROLINA						
SOUTH DAKOTA						
Redfield	174	74			248	No institution for feeble-minded.
TENNESSEE						
Murfreesboro..	12					
TEXAS						
Abilene	385	275				
UTAH						
			Provo	35	35	Provision soon to be made.
VERMONT						
			Vergennes	64	64	Send children to Massachusetts and New Jer- sey.
VIRGINIA						
Falls Church	74	11			185	Much agitation to start a state institution.
WASHINGTON						
Medical Lake.	160	62	Chehalis	66	288	
WEST VIRGINIA						
Huntington ..	157				157	
WISCONSIN						
Chippewa Falls	990	30	Milwaukee	10	1055	
Oak Leigh....	25					
WYOMING						No institution for feeble-minded.

¹These records are very incomplete but are given as suggestive.

²Other institutions show 1133 Philadelphia cases, making a total loss of 8036 recorded.

terial to work, with instructions as to what to do, a place to perform the labor, someone to take care of the product, and encouragement. With these they are useful and happy; but these the hospital for the insane does not furnish.

In the almshouse—and here the greatest numbers are found—they lead lives of idleness and mischief. They are imposed upon until they become vicious or the playthings of the more intelligent paupers. The women are in especial danger here, and the story of those who return to the almshouses in winter to give birth to illegitimate children is all too common. Dr. Goddard tells it again in this issue of *THE SURVEY*.¹

They are found in orphanages and children's homes—in the special and the regular classes in the public schools. The city has its share and the country is not free from them. The dependency, crime, immorality, and poverty of the Jukes of Ulster county, N. Y., is paralleled in at least two counties of New Jersey and probably in every state in the Union.

They are found in the homes of the rich and the poor. Here they are a constant source of worry and irritation. In many cases nearly the whole time of one normal individual is required to care for each one.

They are found among the immigrants. There is much criticism of the department because of the foreign-born in our communities who are later found to be feeble-minded. A careful inspection of conditions and facilities at Ellis Island show how unjust such criticism is. The department is doing surprising work with what it has, but it has little. If the critics would urge upon their Congressmen the needs of the station some real good might be accomplished. Cannot some plan be devised by which examiners of the immigration department shall make their examinations on board the steamships while they are making their trips? This would give ample time and place for a satisfactory but inexpensive laboratory equipment.

Five states have laws authorizing the unsexing of this class, but it is questioned

whether any of these laws will stand a test case in the courts. Too little is known to justify the extension of this method of elimination. A number of experimental cases should be carefully studied through a period of years. Work has been begun by the Committee on the Elimination of the Defective Human Strains of the American Breeders' Association.

A few, because of their general condition, can be cared for in their homes with but little inconvenience and no danger. But for the large majority institutions must be built in which they may have permanent custody.

The first thing is to locate some of the feeble-minded or epileptic persons in their homes, and present through the mails literature showing the advantages of institutional care.

A blank form sent to the parents will bring the names of business and professional men who personally know of the case. A series of letters to these men will further impress upon them the need of proper facilities for caring for and training these children or protecting the feeble-minded women; and then should come the request for letters to be sent to or calls made upon the legislators for whom these men vote. Superintendents of hospitals for the insane, of reformatories, and of almshouses, social workers, and officers of charity organizations have been besieging the various legislatures to make or extend provision for the feeble-minded, with but little success; but when the man who votes goes to or writes to the man for whom he votes, and says, "I wish you would provide for my neighbor's girl or my cousin's boy or my child," something is done. The average citizen likes to have an excuse to write to or see the member from his locality. He likes to have his neighbor feel that his word has weight, and a good active committee by following the matter up, sending the facts to the newspapers and legislators, can accomplish wonders. Then, too, there is something in making provision for the helpless, innocent, and irresponsible that appeals more strongly than requests for appropriations for any other cause.

¹See *The Basis for State Policy*, page 1855.

LETCHWORTH VILLAGE

THE NEWEST STATE INSTITUTION FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED AND EPILEPTIC

CHARLES S. LITTLE, M. D.

SUPERINTENDENT LETCHWORTH VILLAGE

Letchworth Village is situated in the town of Haverstraw, on the west side of the Hudson river and three miles back from it. Its 2,000 acres stretch away to the west, climbing the Ramapo hills to a height of 1,100 feet. The farm and building sites comprise about 1,300 acres and include a tract of land bounded on the west and north by the Ramapo hills, on the east by the highway running through Thiells, and on the south by farms. The Minnisceongo creek, like the flat side of a broad blade, cuts the territory in two with its forty feet of average width. To the east of this stream is a broad ridge, rising abruptly and again dipping rapidly toward the main line of the Erie railroad and the highway. The best farming land of the village is located on this ridge. Between the Minnisceongo creek and the Ramapo hills on the west extends a broad valley, running almost the entire length of the improvable land. Here will be located the groups of buildings for girls and women. This region is a natural fruit country. Scattered over the farm is an abundance of small fruit and grafted apple trees. A second growth of chestnut and oak covers the hills.

During the past year an important piece of work has been accomplished, when it is considered that we are planning for a very large institution. Plans have been prepared for buildings which may be administered economically and

which at the same time will present architectural beauty. Several principles laid down in the beginning have been rigidly adhered to. Some of the ideas were obtained in a personal interview with that student of institutional conditions and noted philanthropist, William Pryor Letchworth, whose name the village bears.

The first was that the line of segregation between the sexes should be firmly drawn. Dormitories for girls are to be separated from those for boys by a stream running through the middle of the grounds. Other decisions were that buildings should not be more than two stories high, nor should they contain more than seventy inmates; that the basements should not be used for purposes other than storage; that the dormitories should be at least two hundred feet apart, with sufficient space for each to have its own playgrounds; that there should be such separation of groups that inmates of one grade could not come in contact with those of another grade; and that in locating the buildings advantage should be taken of the natural beauty of the place. With these principles in view, we have planned an institution with six separate groups, each distinct and complete in itself and so far removed from the others that it may be considered as a small institution by itself. That is, each group will consist of a certain number of dormitories, varying in size to



DORMITORY AT DISBROW COLONY, LETCHWORTH VILLAGE.



CLEARING FOR NEXT YEAR'S CROPS.

accommodate from sixteen to seventy inmates, arranged in general like a horseshoe. In the center of each group is to be located a kitchen and dining-room building and a hall which will be used for gymnasium, dances, entertainments, and Sunday school. In those groups which are designed for improvable cases there will be a school and industrial building. Slightly removed from each group is an attendant's home and doctor's house, for each group is to have a doctor and matron in charge who will be responsible to the superintendent. In this manner three groups are planned for each sex; one for the young and improvable; one for the middle-aged and industrious; and one for the infirm and helpless.

The other buildings necessary to make a complete institution are also provided for in units. The administration group will consist of an office building, cottages for men and women officers and a library and fire station. The hospitals for acute cases and the laboratory for scientific purposes constitute still another group. A tuberculosis hospital is hidden away among the cedars on an adjacent hill. In the center of the main tract are grouped the boiler house, laundry, refrigerating plant, bakery, store-house, and workshops. There will also be observation buildings where inmates may be carefully classified before being transferred to the various sub-groups. A club house is planned where all the officers of the institution may meet for social purposes. It is hoped that a community provided for in this way may give the personal touch of a small institution, but at the same time have the advantages of classification and economic administration of a large one.

As the law provides that we are to care for epileptic and feeble-minded persons, and as the training for both is along similar lines, it has been thought advisable to classify both feeble-minded and epileptics into groups, separating them only with distinct and suitable buildings.

The purpose of an institution of this nature is four-fold. First, it is a home where the feeble-minded and epileptic of all ages may be given the pleasures and comforts of the ordinary home. To this end our day rooms will be provided with games, colored pictures, flowers, music, etc. Each dormitory will have its own playgrounds where base-ball, football, basket-ball, croquet, etc., may be played by the children. Swings, hammocks, and picnic grounds will be provided for in a grove. Holidays will be celebrated in an appropriate and American fashion. A birthday party will be given each month for those having birthdays that month, making a gala evening for all. Inmates and employes will join in a weekly dance. There will be Sun-



HOME ECONOMICS.

Boys preparing the noon meal at Secor Colony, Letchworth Village.



SAWING WOOD AT SECOR COLONY, LETCHWORTH VILLAGE

day services appropriate to the condition and belief of the various inmates.

The second purpose of the institution is to be a school where suitable training will be given to all of school age. By suitable training is meant training that will eventually be of the most benefit in aiding the graduates to self-help, and that will at the same time provide them with mental and manual discipline calculated to increase their enjoyment in their enforced mode of life. It has been abun-

dantly shown in older institutions that the wise teaching of the feeble-minded has been a profitable investment for the state from an economic point of view.

The training of the lower grades of both feeble-minded and epileptics should consist in a variety of active gymnastic exercises, planned to stimulate their mental processes as well as their physical development. In training defectives there should be a routine of work and play so arranged as to occupy all the hours

FRAGMENTS OF HUMANITY—V.

A SERIES OF SIX SKETCHES BY ELISABETH A. IRWIN.

GIOVANNI

Giovanni is a graduate of an ungraded class. He is now sixteen years old, so the school no longer has jurisdiction over him. He has only attended spasmodically for some time and has pretended to work. According to his family, however, he has not been at school but has frequented moving-picture shows and run after fire engines. His father and mother would like to have him go to school, but he does not want to. They would like to have him work, but he does not care for it. They would even be willing for him to go to an institution, admitting that he needs care, but they would not urge him against his will. This is the sort of control Giovanni has at home.

His school record points him out clearly as an institution case, but he himself is left to choose whether he shall be taken care of in that way now, or become a public charge later, as he is almost sure to do. Perhaps he may be cared for by the state through committing some crime, perhaps as a pauper, having first been given the opportunity of bringing into the world a progeny with a bad inheritance and chances of failure even more certain than his own.

There is little question that the years of work an ungraded class teacher patiently devotes to such a child are lost, if, as in this case and so many others, the feeble-minded child shall alone determine at the end of them what are his best chances in life and what is to be his place in the community.

not needed for sleep. Just what is done is not so important as the life and enthusiasm with which it is done. It must be borne in mind that many will be the rough workers of the institution after they pass the training period.

The higher grades receive education along the same lines, except that they are trained to be the finished workers for the state. It is essential for this group that school-room work be prescribed combining a minimum of mental with a maximum of hand work. Live gymnasium classes, military drills, and industrial work in shops devoted to a variety of hand training are also necessary. What is produced is a by-product and is not to be considered the primary object.

An institution for the feeble-minded should be looked upon as a great school where everyone is teacher and where the personality of the highest as well as the lowest employe should be made most of. The cook, the laundress, and the laborer who come into most intimate relations with these unfortunates have more influence on their lives than those farther removed.

The third purpose of the institution

is coming to be recognized in every well organized plant of this kind. It is the laboratory purpose. When we realize that our institutions are filled with groups of from four to six children from single families which extend back beyond the reach of obtainable histories, we see that scientific study becomes imperative. Just how these studies shall be conducted is beyond the scope of a superintendent to direct. It is to be expected that much experimenting will be done before we find the right way, but only thus can advance be made. It is our purpose, however, to aid and stimulate in every way the workers in this field.

The fourth purpose can best be understood when we stop to think that this vast amount of energy must be kept by the state and utilized in such a way that its charges shall be happy and society protected. The institution should be a work-shop. The best work-shop for excess energy of this kind is the land. There is no reason why men and women not needed in the routine of an institution should not be busy out-of-doors, raising everything, if possible, that is consumed by this segregated community.



CLEARING LAND FOR PLOWING AT DISBROW COLONY, LETCHWORTH VILLAGE.

March 2, 1912.

THE TEMPLETON FARM COLONY FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED

WALTER E. FERNALD, M. D.

SUPERINTENDENT MASSACHUSETTS SCHOOL FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED
WAVERLY, MASS.

Picture a feeble-minded boy, an instructor, and two stone piles. A stone is placed in the unwilling hands of the boy, his fingers are closed around it, he is led to the second pile, his clasp is relaxed, and the stone allowed to drop. In company with other boys this is repeated the next day, and the next, until finally, assisted by the faculty of imitation, the boy learns to pick up a stone and drop it in a given place of his own accord. This is the lowest form of motor training. The education of the defective begins with special sense-training—teaching the child to see, to smell, to hear, to feel, and to taste. Motor training in the broadest sense is perhaps the most important factor.

From this beginning, according to the ability and capacity of the patient, he is led through a maze of complicated requirements in the way of motor response, stimulated and assisted by music and rhythm, and by the sight of his mates doing the same thing at the same time. In every way possible his flagging powers of attention and perception are aroused. If he proves sufficiently teachable his capacity for motor response is turned to practical account. Instead of picking up the stone from the formal pile he is sent off into the fields, where he assists in clearing the rough land, or is taught to use the grub hoe, to dig potatoes, to plant corn, etc. He is taught a rational form of manual labor.

The brighter class of the feeble-minded receive a more advanced form of industrial training. All the resources of the sloyd system and other highly-elaborated methods of motor training are brought into play. The patient is taught to knit and to weave, to plant beans and corn, to select and destroy the weed and to allow the onion to remain. He is taught to distinguish between the leaves of the beet and leaves of the noxious weed. At the same time he is given the

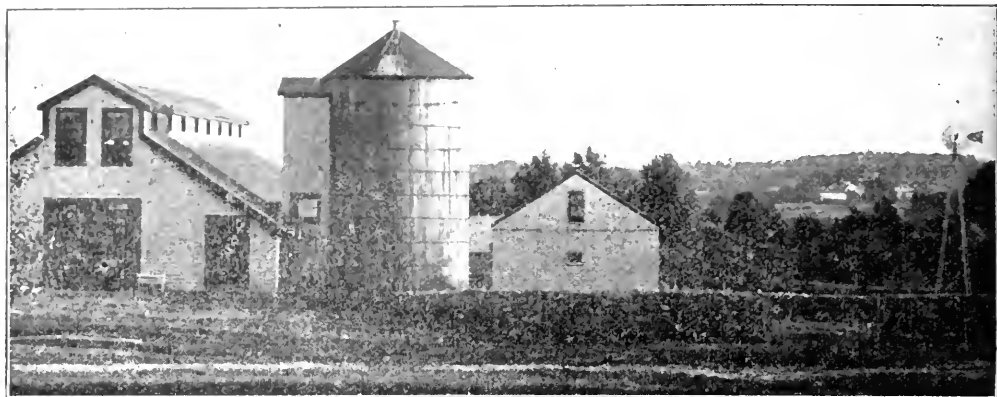
benefit of scholastic training so far as he is capable of receiving it.

The Massachusetts School for the Feeble-Minded is a conventional institution for defectives, following the methods of training and instruction which have been developed since the days of Seguin. Some thirteen years ago we realized that our institution was like a lake with many inlets and no outlets. We were appalled to find that, instead of a school, we were rapidly becoming a receptacle for chronic adult imbeciles, trained to the extent of their ability. There was no opportunity to exercise the trained capacity. Some of these patients were capable of doing a man's work under direction. Some of them could do a half, or a third, or a quarter, or an eighth of a man's work. It was difficult to discharge them. All our rough land was cleared up, and our rough work was finished. We had utilized these patients in the development of our own estate.

As a solution of this very practical difficulty, the trustees purchased in the north central part of the state some two thousand acres of land three miles long and a mile wide. Broken by hills and valleys and by a small river, which had several water-powers upon it, this tract contained timber, wood, gravel, sand, and building stone. The area selected was sixty-one miles from the parent school, because so large a tract with the required natural resources was not available nearer the school. It was located on the same line of railroad three miles from the station—a distance which did not seem to us a detriment.

Our idea in purchasing so much land was to let our patients feel that they owned a large area, and to give them a great deal of liberty. We wanted them to roam this vast estate without bars or bolts, locks or guards.

We selected fertile land—"abandoned



SOME FARM BUILDINGS AT TEMPLETON.



FARM HOUSE WITH DORMITORY IN REAR, TEMPLETON.



ANOTHER STYLE OF FARM HOUSE.

farms." In New England this phrase means the type of old-fashioned farm where the boys and girls have gone to the city and the old folks have died. No one wants to go back to the country, and so the farm is put on the market. We purchased this land very cheaply, at a little less than \$10 per acre. The land had been neglected. It had grown up to bushes and vines, and gradually had passed almost out of tillage. The area embraced seven large farms, with seven sets of old buildings.

In the summer of 1899 we transferred fifty of the trained adult male inmates to this estate. These patients busied themselves at first in the preparation of the permanent farm group. They dug cellars for dormitory buildings, wells for the water supply, put in the sewage plant, and performed other work necessary to fit one of the farms for permanent occupancy. At the end of the summer we had completed the repairs on one of the farm dwellings; had added a large kitchen and a large dining room for the boys at the rear of the old farmhouse, and had built two dormitories. Each of these was a plain one-story

wooden structure, with accommodations for twenty-five boys. In each there were three outside doors, many windows, and a large brick fireplace.

The elevation of this farm is 1,140 feet above the sea. That winter the temperature often reached twenty-five degrees below zero. The houses were heated with old-fashioned mammoth wood stoves, such as used to be seen in the New England school-houses and are found to-day in lumber camps and factories. The fuel used was the wood cut on the place by the boys themselves. They worked out of doors all winter. There was not a case of illness. We had no physician there. We paid one doctor's bill for 75 cents, and that was for some minor surgical operation.

The next spring was begun the construction of a second farm group. The boys did all the tearing-out of old material, all the excavating, all the rough stone-work, and all the painting.

When this second farm-house was ready, we transferred from the parent school another group of fifty boys. We now have four farm groups, nearly a mile apart, on this estate. Each group

FRAGMENTS OF HUMANITY—VI

A SERIES OF SIX SKETCHES BY ELISABETH A. IRWIN.

ABRAHAM

Abraham is sixteen, nearly blind, and an imbecile. He is personally filthy and unable to care for himself. He has bad habits and vicious instincts. He was excluded from the public school after a year's trial because he tried to assault little girls in the playground. His mother and father are own cousins. There is another brother twenty years old exactly like Abraham, even to having six fingers and six toes, as he has, but he was not allowed to come into the country. The two boys and the mother were sent back to Russia from the port of New York. Abraham was then brought in by his mother through Canada.

The family refuse to have the boy put into an institution because he is their favorite son. He is allowed at large upon the streets without their knowledge of his whereabouts, in spite of the warning from the school as to his danger to little girls.

Abraham can never by any possibility earn a living. It was said that he had been seen peddling shoe laces on the street, but his family deny this, and his former teacher says that he could not possibly make change. It may be that he accompanied someone as an object to attract pity, but that is scarcely earning a living. His mother and father are both old, his three sisters are all married and will have none of him, as they are afraid he will harm their children. When his father and mother are unable to care for him he will, without doubt, become a public charge, too late to be benefited by any sort of training. Clearly he ought to have been deported. If the law considered his school record sufficient to commit him, this would automatically have been brought about.



BOYS HARVESTING AT TEMPLETON.

differs a little from the others in the age and capacity of its boys, who are carefully selected with reference to their fitness for the different groups.

The boys work out of doors all day the year round. In the winter they prepare fuel for the next year, and care for the stock. In the summer they clear up the rough land, care for the stock, and cultivate the crops.

Boys who had become restless, unhappy, and troublesome at the home school, who felt aggrieved at seeing things they could not have and at seeing other people enjoy privileges which were denied them—these boys now make our estate their homes. They never go to town. The house-mother of their colony group represents to them what a mother is to the normal boy. This is the nearest approach to family life which many of them are capable of knowing.

At night they come in tired and hungry. In the sitting-rooms, until eight or half-past, there are games and sports. Someone reads to them, or those who are able to do so read boys' stories and books of travel and adventure, while others

look at pictures. Bed is a welcome place. Chaps who have worked in the fields all day need no night watchman. An attendant sleeps in an adjoining room, but there are no locks on the doors and the boys come and go as they please. We have had very few runaways from a class notorious for running away.

Since the formation of the colony no case of tuberculosis has developed among these two hundred boys, a class usually subject to tuberculosis and proverbially short-lived. There have been only two deaths in thirteen years, though of course these boys are selected for their able bodies and good health.

This farm colony is sixty miles from the parent school. Each of the four farm groups is entirely independent of the others. No executive officer has anything to do with any colony other than his own. The colonies are of the same size. They can be closely compared as to standards of service, training and conditions of the boys, amount of supplies used, etc. This encourages wholesome competition among the groups.

During the first years of the colony

the energies of the boys were largely devoted to constructing and repairing the buildings. For several years past, they have been employed exclusively in the clearing of the land and the cultivation of the crops. They have already cleared over 200 acres. All of this land was rough woodland, covered with stumps and bushes, with an incredible amount of large and small stones. The work of these boys has practically transformed this absolutely worthless land into fine, arable, virgin soil, ready for cultivation.

In the subjugation of this land only the simplest tools have been required. Most of the work has been done with the grub hoe, the use of which is easily learned by the feeble-minded.

The material returns from these renovated farms are now considerable. Last year we raised over 1,300 barrels of apples, 6,700 bushels of potatoes, and 620 tons of ensilage. Twelve full carloads of food products were shipped to the home school in addition to the vegetables used at the colony.

The houses are not distinguishable, at a short distance, from those in town. They are built of wood, are only one

story high, and present many opportunities for escape in case of fire.

The total cost of buildings and furnishings at the colony amounts to a little less than \$200 per capita. There is no comparison, in comfort, content, and health, between boys at the colony and the best-housed patients at the school.

We have met our problem carefully, because in a way it lay in a new field, and we were anxious not to make mistakes. Development has been slow, but the colony is the department which will probably grow rapidly in the future. A number of the boys have developed an amount of self-control, usefulness, and dignity which has induced their friends to take them home, where they are now useful and well-behaved members of the family and of the community.

We find that about 25 per cent of our patients at the colony have profited by the so-called literary instruction of our schools. A much larger proportion are from the middle and lower grades, capable of motor, manual, and industrial training, but unable to read or write. These boys are some of the most useful members of our colony.



ORCHARD AT TEMPLETON.

CONSERVATION AND STATE INSTITUTIONS

DENNIS McCARTHY

FISCAL SUPERVISOR OF STATE CHARITIES

The charitable institutions of New York state, twenty in number, have approximately nine thousand acres of land at their disposal. Forty per cent of this is woodland. Much is valuable either as timber or as a protection to the water supply.

On my appointment as fiscal supervisor of State Charities in November, 1909, one of the first problems that confronted me was what to do with this land owned by the state and occupied by institutions; how to increase the fertility of the cultivable portion; and how to secure some return from the woods, as well as from the uncultivable or waste lands. At my invitation, Mr. Whipple, then commissioner of the Forest, Fish, and Game Department, addressed a meeting of the association of managers of state charitable and reformatory institutions in Albany, in December, 1909. In the course of his remarks, he encouraged the managers to consider the subject of reforestation of any vacant lands around their institutions. He said that the Forest, Fish, and Game Commission would furnish either pine or spruce trees and would lend the finest experts in America to advise as to their planting and general care afterwards.

It seemed to me, in the light of these remarks, that the application of practical forestry methods to the state institution lands would provide model forests in various sections of the state, and that these would be an influence for good and for education to the community in regard to the benefits to be derived from scientific forestry. I requested the Forest, Fish, and Game Commission to make a report on forest conditions of the institutions, and the best methods of managing the forest lands. This work was undertaken during the past summer by the Division of Lands and Forests of the Conservation Commission, under the

direction of Robert Rosenbluth, a professional forester. The report states:

As it is now very little return, if any, is secured from much of the land, and almost none of it is producing as much as it should. Most of it, under forestry, can produce a good revenue, equivalent to about \$2 or \$3 net per acre per year, making a total return from these woodlots of between \$7,100 and \$10,700 per year.

There is a large acreage (681 acres, 7.7 per cent, of the total area), according to the report, in lawns, etc., with many valuable shade and road trees. The value of these trees is said to be very high and well worth attention. The report continues:

Immediate provision for forest management is urged by the Conservation Commission, which stands ready to do its share through the services of its professional foresters.

An example of the needs for forestry is shown in the woodland of Letchworth Village, Thiells, N. Y. Here there are 1,200 acres of rough mountain land,

by far best adapted to forest growth, where the present stand consists of scrub sprouts weakened by repeated fires and cuttings. The chestnut is doomed to destruction by disease, while the rest is exposed to very great danger from fire. The whole area is practically producing nothing in value.

The Conservation Commission recommends planting the slopes with valuable wood, mainly white pine, and taking immediate steps to protect the woodlands from fire.

At the Craig Colony for Epileptics at Sonyea, there are 1,045 acres of woodland with a stand so dense that it should be thinned at once in order that the younger trees will grow. Trimming and clearing will remove fire danger also. Fires have already burned through this woodland and killed standing trees. Waste from old logging can be seen on the ground.

The investigation has brought out that it is essential in the cases of institutions situated in mountainous counties that watch be kept against forest fires, both to safe-guard the institution and to insure the protection of watersheds. Even small fires, "by burning up the humes and leaf mold which acts as a sponge in retaining moisture," do a great deal of damage. At the Eastern New York Reformatory, Napanoch, the watershed beyond the reservoir is six miles long, and the maintenance of forest cover is extremely important to protect the water supply of the institution.

A summary of the reports of the Conservation Commission shows that important results will be brought about since a definite policy of forestry management has been decided upon, as follows:

1. Some pieces of land, so situated as not to be available for agriculture, will yield a very high return in basket willow, doubly valuable as producing material for an industry for the inmates.

2. Good agricultural land will be cleared of woods and open to cultivation.

3. The woods will be left in better condition, the growth will be increased, and greater

resistance to disease and possible destruction from insects will be effected.

4. The materials secured by thinning the woodlands will give good returns by cutting down the direct expense for coal, and in addition healthful work will be provided for the inmates in winter.

Several of the institutions have already availed themselves of the opportunity to purchase trees from the Conservation Commission and have planted them under the direction of expert foresters. A bill has been introduced into the legislature this year to authorize the Conservation Commission to report annually on the protection and improvement of forest conditions at all state institutions, and to establish nurseries for the propagation of trees for the purpose of reforesting lands within the state. By the terms of the bill trees and shrubs, including fruit trees, will be given to the state institutions.

It would therefore seem that the adoption of a definite forestry policy is assured. This will result in lasting benefit to the state through its charitable and reformatory institutions.



CRAIG COLONY, SONYEA, N. Y.

Woodland should be thinned at once so that younger trees will grow. Waste from old logging on the ground.

CONSERVATION OF MANKIND

JOHN A. DIX

GOVERNOR OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK

"ILL FARES THE LAND, TO HASTENING ILLS A PREY,
WHERE WEALTH ACCUMULATES AND MEN DECAY."

The American people have been listening to a warning. For a time most of them were heedless—some because of blind selfishness, others because of supposed helplessness, and still others because of uninformed indifference. To-day in every walk of life there are unmistakable evidences that even blind self-interest has seen a new light, that the masses deluded into the belief of self-impotence have felt the thrill of new powers, and that the victims of ignorant passiveness have been stimulated by informed aspirations.

The warning against the threatened, or already active, decadence in the lives, liberties, and enjoyments of the people has been expressed in various forms and by a multitude of different mediums, but by none so emphatically and impressively as by the messages and messengers of the conservation of natural resources. These awakening advices have been carried in lasting letters of living fire of destroyed forests, in ineffaceable lithographs of eroded soil, in the burning books formerly found unscorched in "running brooks" which have rushed uselessly to the sea, leaving behind a dry bed of reproach and unsightliness.

The reassuring advices as to remedial and preventive action have been brought home to a distraught and despoiled peo-



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GOVERNOR JOHN A. DIX.

ple by the apostles of conservation. It seems, therefore, that no synonym of conservation responds so fittingly and opportunely to the invitation of this subject's aim as salvation—a beneficent "deliverance from impending evil or destruction." Since the usual meaning of the word applies to the spiritual rather than to the physical salvation of men, let us substitute either betterment or preservation of mankind.

Crowned with the dignity of utility and the grace of aesthetics, conservation is enthroned on the hilltops of popular understanding as the prime minister of a regal power which is to restore the wasted forests and diminishing streams, and their wild inhabitants. Preservation, however, passes through the valleys and lowlands of the people's crying needs and deprivations, carrying hope to the highest and lowliest. Conservation is the rugged son of a sweet mother whose chief concern is the salvation of men.

Without a thought of impiety, the apostle of conservation believes that the spiritual advancement of his fellow men is incidental to, and not the primary purpose of, the conservation of mankind. Even the intellectual and the social advancement of the race are not made

prime factors in the conservation proposition, but, like the spiritual welfare, must in the interests of singleness of aim remain corollaries. And exalted corollaries to the splendid proposition they are, since they must be greeted as inevitable consequences of the physical and creature improvement of mortal existence and human living.

The New York State Conservation Commission succeeded to all the powers and duties of the Forest, Fish, and Game Commission, the Forest Purchasing Board, the Water Supply Commission, and the Commissioners of Water Power on Black river. The statute has consolidated under one department all the interrelated duties and problems of administration of the forests and streams and their wild inhabitants.

The formerly detached departments are now enabled to work together as never before, with the result that a powerful impetus has been given to the conservation of our natural resources. The commission is vested with jurisdiction over investigation of water resources; regulation and use of water in the principal watersheds; inspection and control of dams and reservoirs; prevention of flood; supply of potable water to municipalities; disposal of sewage; drainage and irrigation; tree culture and reforestation; care and custody of forests and parks; and the protection and propagation of fish and game.

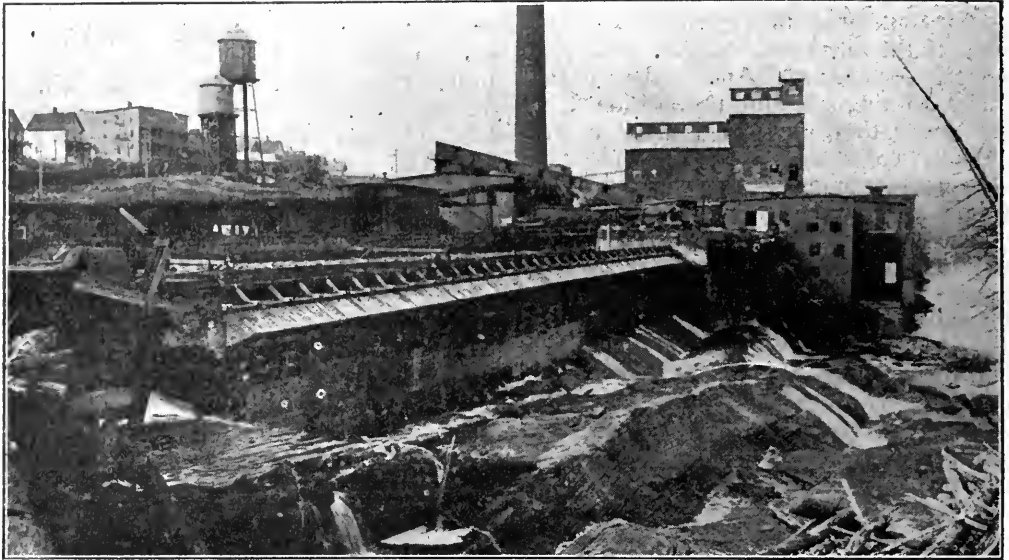
The wise economic law known as "division of labor," which recognizes specialization as an essential of effective co-operation among coordinate agencies operating for the accomplishment of a common purpose, was observed in the organization of the Conservation Department. It is comprised of three parts: Lands and Forests Division; Fish and Game Division; Inland Waters Division. Each division is in direct charge of a commissioner; but the three commissioners form the commission which directs and controls all the operations of the tri-partite department.

The New York State Conservation Commission interprets conservation to mean: "To correct past indiscretion, perfect present utilization, and insure

future accumulation in the state's renewable natural resources." That program means the uplift of present and future generations. Side by side with the conservation of material resources I would place "the preservation, protection, and perfection of mankind." An eminent American conservationist has well said that the problem of conserving our natural resources is only one part of the larger problem of conserving national efficiency; the other part relates to the vitality of our population. The conservation of the forests, waters, fish, and game, and the conservation of men are much more than interrelated. As a human uplift propaganda they are in-



THE WAY TO REAR WELL PRESERVED OCTOGENARIANS.



THE SEASON OF DROUGHT.

Wheels of industry idle, and wage-earners out of employment because of lack of water power.

separable, the latter being paramount and the *raison d'être* of the former. Of that fact too many students of conservation are apparently unaware, or at least unmindful.

Perhaps no more painstaking, observant, sympathetic, and authoritative student of nature ever threaded the paths of the woods or meandered through the flowering meadows than Henry David Thoreau. Yet on his return from a trip with "Nature, the dear old nurse," he is found pointing a criticism at his human brothers and sisters in this fashion:

Of all phenomena my own race are the most mysterious and undiscoverable. For how many years have I striven to meet one, even on common manly ground, and have not succeeded.

Was Thoreau's a case in any material way dissimilar to that of many men and women of today who go into rhapsodies, not over conservation, but over their own ideas of conservation?

"Reformers are like Esquimaux dogs, which must be hitched to the sledge each by a separate thong: if put in one common harness, they turn and eat each other up," declares Thomas Wentworth Higginson.

The true conservationist is not a reformer. He is a restorer. The various activities, humanitarian either in declared purpose or in latent characteristic, have accomplished much towards man's uplift, but the goal is much farther off than it should be today, and than it would be had they not been working in separate harness. Too often it appears that the uplift organizations and institutions have not only been hitched to different sledges, but also have been pulling in divergent and frequently in opposite directions. No wonder that it sometimes seems that human progress has been discouragingly slow.

The conservationist is not a panacea-ist. And besides disclaiming that conservation is a panacea for all human ills, he acknowledges both the existence and the worth of other restorers. To all others enlisted in the great campaign for the uplift of man, he extends the right hand of fellowship, especially to those organizations and institutions recognized as the leaders of the variously organized movement for human uplift, such as the pulpit and the press; the peace societies and sunshine circles; the medical societies and semi-public hygienic organizations; the pure water



RUINS OF PAPER MILLS AT SOUTH COLTON.
Timber supply of vicinity exhausted.

conferences and scenic preservation societies; the boards of trade, chambers of commerce, civic and charitable organizations; the sportsmen's clubs and agricultural societies; the labor unions and industrial associations; the athletic clubs and fraternal societies.

To these the conservationists say, "Let us get together. Let us attach ourselves to the same sledge, even if it be in different harness. We are all seeking the same goal and there is one good path, the nearest route, by which we all should travel. We do not ask to be captains or even guides, but merely the trail-makers through the morasses of want, the thickets of discontent, the quicksands of trouble, and the 'down timber' of waste, on up to the plateaus of peace and plenty for all."

The conservationist sees in his various points of contact with the other restorers or uplifters what seem to be natural locations for a general alignment of the humanitarian and philanthropic forces. The pulpit of recent years has displayed an appreciation, of noticeable and helpful effect, of the fact that God created the earth as well as the heaven. Ministers of all creeds, while still pointing to the skies with

unyielding fidelity to their high calling, have apparently come down more to the earth. The churches are looking more to the creature comforts of mankind, both in precept and in deed. While they lead in the cultivation of morality and spirituality, they do not lose sight of the fact that right living must take at least one of its cornerstones from the ground.

The great work of the press in this field lies along the line of conservation-education. The newspapers used to pay more attention to the humanities—literature concerned with human culture. Editors find that it is better to give more space to manuscript pertaining to the cultivation of the soil. And they do not stop here, for they have learned that there is such a thing as the cultivation not only of the forests but also of the waters. Thence it is but a step to the cultivation of the wild inhabitants of the forests and streams, then to the human conditions in centers of population. Politics still crowds the newspaper columns, but it cannot crowd out conservation-intelligence, because editors have discovered that politics has not responded either readily or satisfactorily to the cry of the people



PRIMEVAL ADIRONDACK SPRUCE FOREST.

In the latter part of April. Fewer trees per acre than planted forest, quality also inferior, "cleaned" trunks shorter, and larger percentage of crooked trees.

for relief from the high cost of living, for the amelioration of insupportable industrial conditions, for rescue from the fate of nations whose people are today perishing miserably because they wasted instead of conserved their natural resources.

The international arbitration and peace societies have close relations with the conservationists. They are striving to stop the insufferable waste of war—a waste industrial, economic, and social, and accursed in the sight of God and man. They seek to put an end to the waste of human life, the deterioration of human efficiency, the destruction of the materials of human subsistence, and the diminution of human opportunity, all pronounced phases of the movement for man's uplift in the material sense. These societies correctly advise that 72 per cent of the total revenue of the United States is expended in preparing

for war and paying for past wars; that \$423,000,000 is spent for war and \$181,000,000 is left for other purposes; that the yearly cost of maintaining the army and navy is piling up so rapidly that in the past eight years the increased amount totals over one billion dollars, imposing an annual tax of $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent on the total wages paid in the United States, or \$65 on the income of \$600! The conservationist is interested when a world peace advocate informs him that "the proposed White Mountain Forest Reserve of 250,000 acres of burned over and unproductive land could be purchased for the cost of one battleship, and put into an investment of production instead of destruction."—"This is a useless waste of money for war that should be used for the moral and physical welfare of the people," declares an international arbitration propagandist, and the conservationist says "Amen."



PLANTED PINE FOREST IN GERMANY, PLANTED IN STAR SHAPE.

The world peace authority adds, "International law, as it is, is inadequate; it needs recasting." Right again. The same is true with regard to the laws affecting conservation in many states. Let us all work together for the recasting of all laws affecting the uplift cause.

Even more intimate is the touch of the conservationists with the pure water conferences and scenic preservation societies. The Niagara Frontier Pure Water Conference has shown that the sewage and waste of 15,000,000 people are being dumped constantly into the Great Lakes, the natural reservoir for the water supply of an almost equally large population. That startling assertion may well challenge the attention of the entire nation when accompanied by the further information that last year over 17,000,000 people traveled on the boat lines of the Great Lakes, to say nothing of the millions who visited the communities of that region. In that section alone there were in 1910 over 1,100

deaths from typhoid, a "preventable disease." An eminent federal sanitationist declared that typhoid fever is either suicide or murder. Under the circumstances of federal and state control of the sources of water supply and municipal maintenance thereof, it would seem to be governmental assassination. In the movement to restore the purity of all public waters the conservationist is contributing his share. For the effectual accomplishment of this there is required again a recasting of statutes bearing on this vital matter.

To the medical societies, semi-public hygienic institutions, and the various public boards of health, the conservationist owes much helpful information and practical assistance. Many instances might be cited, but the mind turns to Prof. Irving Fisher's contribution to the National Conservation Congress: National Vitality, Its Wastes and Conservation. He discourses directly on the preservation of men. Professor Fisher



RACQUETTE RIVER, SHOWING UPPER STARK'S FALLS.

Looking from right bank of the river, August, 1908. Water power the equivalent of thousands of tons of coal wasted here annually.

shows that in India the average duration of life is less than twenty-five years, in Sweden over fifty, in Massachusetts forty-five. Wherever sanitary science and preventive medicine are applied, the length of life is increasing. At this the conservationist nods both approvingly and knowingly, because to his mind the Ultima Thule of sanitary science is to be found in the delightful journey to the forests, fields, and streams which is taken now by a rapidly growing army of nature-wise men and women. In Europe longevity has doubled in three and a half centuries. In Germany length of life has increased twenty-seven years in the last hundred.

For every death there is an average sickness of two years. This means that in the United States, where there are 1,500,000 deaths annually, there are about 3,000,000 persons on the sick list, or thirteen idle and unproductive days per capita.

The conservationist takes the closest heed of what authorities on sanitation and hygiene have to say of the two primary conditions in conserving the vital

resources of human life: namely, conservation through heredity and through hygiene. Of these, the articles in this issue bear on the first condition, or one phase of it. We can consider here the improvement of conditions of man's environment; the application of public hygiene, which relates to the governmental regulation of health; of semi-public hygiene, the professional and institutional care of health; and of personal hygiene, which relates to the private life and habits of the individual and family.

The conservationist finds his most intimate interest in personal hygiene, the correct living of the individual, for it has been well said that "personal hygiene is not only of direct importance to the individual, but also furnishes the public opinion from which alone sound public and semi-public hygiene can spring." Personal hygiene embodies one of the highest types of conservation of vital resources. It subdivides itself into the hygiene of environment, hygiene of nutrition, and hygiene of activity.

The leading factor of environment is of course the atmosphere. The con-

servationist throws up his hat and cheers for fresh air, the air of the mountains, the air of the woodland, the air of the trout brook. "Originally man was doubtless an outdoor animal," infers Professor Fisher. "Civilization has brought him an indoor environment, and with it tuberculosis. . . . The scientific study of diet has only just begun. . . . Overeating and food-bolting should be avoided. . . . Diseased foods, such as oysters polluted by sewage, may transmit typhoid and other maladies." Add to pure food pure water, and the prescription of a proper diet is pretty well prepared, if not delivered, in these days of exorbitant cost of living. The conservationist is not only advocating the use of pure and wholesome food, and the taking of it leisurely and more frequently in the out-of-doors, but he is striving by increasing the fish and the game to furnish more abundant, more wholesome, and more inexpensive food; and by the utilization of natural resources, especially water power now undeveloped, to lessen the hours of labor and afford to the masses more leisure in which to enjoy that by which they shall be fed.

Activity hygiene is a favorite theme of conservationists; more forests, more fish and game, more healthful recreation for the people in the great out-of-doors. "During the last generation the impor-

tance of exercise has come to be acknowledged, due largely to the growth of modern athletics," remarks Professor Fisher. Let the growing love for rod and gun, for mountain climbing, for communion with nature, share no small part of the credit. "Overexertion, physical and mental, is one of the chief American faults." True, and therein appears an advantage of the sports of forest and field over the severe contests of athletic sport.

The conservationist is in sympathy and accord with the purposes of the labor unions and industrial associations, and their efforts in behalf of the betterment of men. The business men's organizations, which are now doing their utmost to bring into play the undeveloped and unused resources of nature, are necessarily in close touch with the conservation movement. Perhaps the uplift organizations which are doing the least for the cause of conservation are fraternal societies, and to these bands of marvelous strength and force a special appeal for cooperation should be made at this time.

The utilization of natural resources now wasted in the forests and waters will procure for the workman and the capitalist shorter hours and more leisure for recreation in the out-of-doors. In an editorial in a recent issue,¹ THE SURVEY said: "In the same way that we

¹THE SURVEY, December 30, 1911.



EXPROPRIATED.

Restoring the elk to the New York forests.

Bruin would soon learn to be friendly.

have let our water powers stand neglected, have let our forests of matchless trees crouch down into stumpage, and have let our freshets waste our farm lands, we waste our human strength." Herein again appears the oneness of the conservation of natural resources and the salvation of men.

"This nation is dissatisfied with palliatives. It demands cures. The future of the race depends upon preventing the human waste created by unfair, inequitable, and unchristian industrial and economic conditions."—That is the well balanced and timely view of an up-to-date economist and philosopher, Judge Ben B. Lindsey.

The conservationists of New York are addressing themselves practically to two widely diverse conditions—first, the effects and present evidences of past waste and improvidence, and secondly, the wealth of remaining natural resources which have been unwisely depleted in the past, but not beyond repair.

The New York legislature has before it a proposed revision of the conservation law, consolidating into it all laws relating (1) to lands and forests, (2) to fish and game, (3) to inland waters, water storage, and hydraulic development. While not suggesting that this is a last word on conservation, there is reason to hope that this codification, if enacted, may serve not only as a basis for the new era in the Empire State, but also as a guide and model for others. As stated in my recommendation of the bill to the legislature, this bill (which I am proud to have known as my pet measure) "commits the state to the policy of developing and conserving the state's natural resources." Further utterances on the subject, in public addresses, in messages to the legislature, and advice to the commission, I believe have been correctly interpreted to mean that the fulfillment of this program will furnish the people more forests to use and enjoy; more recreation in the out-of-doors; more fish and game; cheaper light, heat, and power throughout the state by reason of the utilization of waters that now run wastefully and often

destructively to the sea. Already that program is well on its way toward fulfillment.

New York leads her sister states in the work of reforestation and forest protection. At the present time it is estimated that five trees are cut down to every one planted, but, at the rate of increase in reforestation, within three years at least one tree will have been planted to every tree destroyed. The conservation commission seeks legislative authorization to employ state prisoners not only in raising trees, but also in planting them on denuded state lands and along state roads. The state has about 1,600,000 acres in the forest preserves, and patrols and protects from fire this vast area of the people's playground and health resort, and in addition patrols about 5,000,000 acres of privately owned forest lands in the state. Great advances have been made in forest fire protection. Mountain observatories now thickly dot the great forest regions, and last year, in a year especially trying owing to abnormal drought, New York forest losses from fire were almost inconsiderable. The conservation commission is active in combating tree disease and tree pests.

The New York State Conservation Commission recommends the amendment of the state constitution to permit the leasing of camp sites in the forest preserves, to the end that there may be a more general use and enjoyment of the state parks. A most practical and sane recommendation is that urging a constitutional amendment which shall secure to the state some benefit of the tree growth in the forest preserves through scientific forestry, and turn into the state treasury some interest on the large investment in public lands.

But doubtless the most helpful and practical plans for relief from high cost of living and the lightening of private and public burdens are embodied in New York's conservation policy with relation to the utilization of the waters of the state. On this vitally important subject, it was said in the annual message of 1911:



FOUR-YEAR PLANTATION NEAR LAKE CLEAR JET.

It is now generally recognized that much of our prosperity, health, and progress depends upon a continuous, all-year supply of pure water for the people, and that this can be assured only in great quantities by the preservation of the forest lands of the state. Intertwined with these questions is that of the proper development of the great water powers which are now permitted to go to waste and the proper utilization of which would result in bringing to the state an annual revenue of many millions of dollars as well as adding greatly to the wealth of the people. . . . If coal from other states furnishes the heat energy, we pay the profit to the coal-producing states, although we have within the confines of this state power energy equal to all the power energy that can be produced from the coal mines of other states. . . . Cheap power is vital to manufacturing, and hydraulic energy is practically the only natural resource within this state for the development of power—that great and fundamental requisite to the prosperity and comfort of a civilized community.

On a basis of ten tons of coal for every steam horse-power developed, I estimate that by utilizing its own water power the state of New York could save to its people \$60,000,000 annually.

This forecasted the important work cut out for the state legislature and conservation commission. The annual message of 1912 has followed up the preliminary outline of last year's water conservation policy by saying, in part:

Conserving the waters of the high levels must be understood to embrace ownership or power of control and regulation by the state, to the end that the same shall be preserved to the people for their use and enjoyment forever, thus ensuring to them all the benefits to be derived from the development of natural resources of the state. This should be accomplished without adversely affecting existing interests. The storm waters of the streams in the state should be made available for public purposes, to benefit the health of communities along those streams by increasing the minimum flow and to avoid the devastating results of flood time.

That policy, wisely and sensibly carried out, in connection with our views on restoring the purity of all public waters, will mean for the people of New York an adequate supply of potable water; the reduction to a minimum of the annual loss by flood; and cheaper light, heat, and power for all.

The conservation commission indorses this water conservation policy by a recommendation to the legislature to the effect that

The state should own and regulate the disposition of whatever additional water power it may create, provide for the proper utilization thereof, and dispose of it at such reasonable charge as will yield a public revenue, stimulate the development of industries, and afford greater opportunities for wage-earners. If this cannot be economically accomplished

otherwise, then the state should develop and furnish power for the general benefit.

A cursory review of the conservation of the forests and the waters of the state, the prerequisites to a bountiful supply of fish and game, has now been made. The Conservation Department, which was created in 1911, is comprised of three divisions, the Lands and Forests Division, the Inland Waters Division, and the Fish and Game Division. The Fish and Game Division is striving to cater to the interests of all the citizens, looking after the needs and wishes of the farmer, working man, business man, professional man, and landowner, as well as of the distinct class known as the sportsmen. In the best sense of the word, an effort is being made to induce all to become sportsmen, lovers of nature, and devoted to the increase and protection of fish and game.

In conclusion, I beg that the other restorers, the press and pulpit, the boards of trade and peace societies, and the others of the human uplift propaganda to whom we have made appeal, give broth-

erly heed to these further words of suggestion, as to those phases of conservation which should be placed side by side with this new public thrift in material resources.

There is extravagance and waste in human energy as lamentable and destructive as the extravagance and waste which has denuded our forests, exhausted our soil, diminished our hydraulic energy, and inflicted incalculable loss upon the nation. The prosperity of the state depends upon the rational conservation of the energies of its citizens as much as upon the conservation of its natural resources. In the national sense, conservation has a far larger meaning than the stoppage of waste and extravagance in the utilizing of undeveloped resources of the nation. True conservation goes further and deeper. It means intelligent, orderly, and efficient use of all the faculties of men as applied to the solution of national problems, and the promotion of social progress and general happiness.



TREE-PLANTING IN THE ADIRONDACKS.

SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

ANOTHER BAD DECISION¹

We are really distressed to find that the highest court of the first state in the union has again gone wrong—this time in reversing by judicial legislation the legal definition of a tenement house which has been in force continuously in New York city for forty-five years. What is said euphemistically is that the court's decision has revealed a hitherto unsuspected technical defect. The bald truth is that the court has created the technical defect. The *New York Times* says that the motives of those who sought to defeat the bill intended to cure this defect after the decision was made "may be readily understood but they are not good motives." This strong language may or may not be justified; but if it is justified, as we think it is, the question arises as to the responsibility of the Court of Appeals.

Why should we be ready to denounce the motives of builders and owners who come to a court asking favors, and who, when they have obtained them, naturally object to being robbed of their boon by the legislature, and then gloss over the means by which they have obtained this privilege by calling it the discovery of a technical defect? In fairness to our enemies who have sought to destroy—and for the time being did succeed in destroying—the tenement house law in New York city, we insist that they must go into the pillory in respectable company. Judge Hiscock and those who have joined with him in this decision, whether inadvertently or deliberately, are the men who are primarily responsible to public opinion for the situation which made Senator Wagner's emergency bill necessary.

The facts are undisputed and easily stated. The legislature in 1867, recognizing the necessity of compelling greedy and indifferent landlords to observe reasonable regulations of safety, health, and decency for the benefit of tenants, passed an act for the regulation of tenement and lodging houses in the cities of New York and Brooklyn. The new tenement house law of 1901 was a far more sweeping measure, but it continued substantially the definition of a tenement house as first employed in the act of 1867. Neither the Gilder Commission of 1894 nor the de Forest Commission of 1900 found any change necessary in this respect. As to what a tenement house is, therefore, there has been no doubt in all this five and forty years, in the minds of law makers, municipal sanitary authorities, architects, builders, tenement owners, or tenants. Houses in which three or more families live independently of each other and do their own cooking are tenements under this time-honored legal definition. Whether the rent is \$10 a month or \$3,000 a year has been immaterial. Whether apartments are "arranged in suites," and the libraries "furnished in mahogany" has heretofore made no difference. "Fabric" on the walls of the dining room and "fine wall paper" on the walls of the sleeping rooms there may have been, but if the house was to be used for congregate living it has been sternly and impartially

¹For full text of decision of New York State Court of Appeals see page 1916.

required that it be built with the safeguards and under the conditions prescribed for houses intended for congregate living. It is true that some builders, finding certain of these restrictions irksome, have now and then proposed to establish a legal distinction between tenement houses and apartment houses; but they have never succeeded in convincing a legislative committee or a tenement house reformer that the distinction is either practicable or desirable.

How, then, has the owner of one of these "high-grade" apartment houses now succeeded in convincing the Court of Appeals that there is such a distinction? It so happens that the municipal assembly of New York city in 1899, acting under the authority of the city charter, adopted a building code. This local assembly had of course no authority to change a definition embodied in a state law. It could perhaps supplement or add to the provisions of the existing tenement house law but it had not the slightest authority to repeal or detract from such provisions. In this building code there appeared a definition of an apartment house similar to the established definition of a tenement house, except that the apartment house as there defined must have a kitchen, a set bath-tub, and a water-closet.

When the tenement house law was enacted in 1901, it expressly repealed all statutes of the state and ordinances of the city inconsistent with its provisions. The report of the tenement house commission on which this act was based painstakingly discussed the reasons for not making a distinction between tenement houses and apartment houses and the legislature was fully aware what it was doing. In the eleven years since this act was passed not a house has been built, not a plan has been filed, for an "apartment house." Every year hundreds of tenement houses have been built in which there are set bath-tubs and virtually every tenement house built in the decade has had its kitchen and its separate water closet. A few days after the tenement house law was enacted in 1901 the legislature in revising the municipal charter re-enacted and continued in force the "existing" building code. If this building code at that time exempted from the operation of the tenement house law any building which would otherwise have come under it, such exemption could not have been valid unless we are to assume that a local municipal assembly has the right to amend or repeal a state law. No one claimed that it did make any such exemption. For thirty-four years, at the time when these two laws were passed in 1901, tenement houses had been built and inspected under state law. After full and vigorous discussion, after an official investigation by a state commission, the existing definition was re-enacted, new and more stringent provisions were introduced into the law, and by a section of the new city charter a separate department was created in New York city to enforce these old and new provisions. What shall be said of a decision, which, at this late day, takes the extraordinary position that the definition in a local ordinance, which never has had any vitality or significance, which was expressly repealed in case it had any such meaning as is now assigned to it, supersedes and destroys the obvious and clearly expressed intention of the legislature? That intention certainly was to control through the tenement house act and the tenement house chapter of the charter the erection and sanitary condition of all congregate dwellings in which three or more families live independently.

The tenement house law expressly provides that the cities to which it applies may enact supplementary local codes imposing further restrictions and safeguards; and of course local authorities may classify tenement houses as they like for such purposes. They may call some of them apartment houses, some apartment hotels, and some palaces, if this seems to them advantageous. All such houses would remain tenement houses if they fall within the definition of the state tenement house law, and would remain subject to all of its provisions. So it was before the Court of Appeals spoke. So it is again since the legislature has acted, unless the governor should veto the Wagner bill remedying the court's "technical defect." The chaos created by the court's fiat has lasted only long enough to reveal its disastrous possibilities.

There are no safeguards required by the law in the construction of tenements which are not entirely reasonable and appropriate for middle-grade and high-grade apartments as well as for tenements without bath-tubs. If the presence of a bath-tub and especially of a "tiled" bath-room like those in the apartment house in question suggest that frequent sanitary inspection is less necessary than in a tenement without bath-tubs, the tenement house department may discriminate and it does so habitually. There has been no complaint from dwellers in high-class apartment houses that they are molested by unnecessary tenement house supervision. Even they are entitled to fire-escapes and such protection as the tenement house law gives. Any such distinction as the Court of Appeals seeks to establish is undemocratic, arbitrary, and useless. All that one can say as to the merits of the decision is that it puts a severe strain upon the strongest desire to retain respect for the courts. The question as to whether the house was under the jurisdiction of the tenement house department was not strictly speaking involved in the case before the court, the only question being whether there had been a violation of the law in its construction. The court seemed desirous of leaving no doubt of its willingness to destroy the law and the department at one blow and therefore dealt broadly with the question as to what houses are subject to the jurisdiction of the tenement house department, just as the same court a dozen years before when considering the case of a charitable society which receives public funds took occasion to remove from the jurisdiction of the state board of charities all societies which do not receive public funds.

Under the present decision, a tenement house is not a tenement house if it has a bath-tub—unless it happens to be in Buffalo. There, as the city council has not seen fit to try its hand at a local set of definitions, the introduction of a bath-tub does not deprive tenants of the beneficent safeguards of the tenement house law. We are quite serious in insisting that this is the only discernible distinction. All tenements of which we have knowledge have a kitchen, and all new tenements have water closets. The law does not absolutely require this in a house made up of one or two-room apartments, but we are informed that there are no houses which have taken advantage of this exemption. Our only remaining criterion therefore is the bath-tub—not even the Court of Appeals having attempted to read the "suite arrangements," the "mahogany furnished libraries," and the "finely papered walls" of bed rooms into the law. As the law requires the separate toilet within the apartment, and as the additional ex-

pense of providing a bath-tub where plumbing and space for a toilet are required is not very great, the natural and very desirable result is that 85 per cent of all new-law tenements actually do have a set bath-tub as well. Instead of taking out of the tenement house law therefore only a few so-called high-class apartment houses the walls of whose entrance halls are "covered with imported Vienna marble," and which can boast a "pretentious architectural finish," the court, so far as its power and intent extend, virtually destroys the entire law in its application to New York city and indirectly invites the local authorities in Buffalo to create special classes of "high-grade" tenements by local ordinance and thus accomplish similar results there. They may stick to the simple bath-tub test and so exempt a large part of their tenements, or go in for the refinements of pretentious architectural finish and imported marble and thus limit their exemptions according to the taste of the aldermen who are called upon to draw the distinctions.

Fortunately the court does not have the last word. The legislature is in session and its opinion of the reasoning of the Court of Appeals may be inferred from the fact that it took less than twenty-four hours for the Senate and Assembly, by a non-partisan vote, to re-enact the definition which the court had thrown out of the window, and to do this in a way which apparently leaves no room for doubt as to its meaning. There is nothing "indirect, implied, or obscure" about the new law and it will not again be necessary for this meaning to be "spelled out of some general statute." But this also was the case in the issue submitted to the court. The indirect, implied, and obscure spelling out in which Justice Hiscock indulged when he exalted the obscure definition in the building code ordinance above a more recent and explicit state law resembles nothing so much as the tortuous reasoning by which, in the other case to which we have referred, another justice on behalf of the same court held that a charitable society was not a charitable society, that the state board of charities could inspect only charitable societies which receive public funds—though the constitution and the statute said the contrary—and that anyway it could not inspect the particular society in question, although it did receive public funds, because it did not receive public funds for its main work but only for incidental purposes, this distinction having been invented for the convenience of this particular decision.

Let no one interpret these specific criticisms of a particular court and of particular decisions, all of which fall directly within the special field of interest of this journal, as an attack upon courts, or as justifying popular hostility to judges.

We believed, when we took exception to the position of the Court of Appeals in regard to workmen's compensation for accidents, that that opinion would not be followed in other states. Thus far events have justified that belief. The present decision deals with a subject which is not likely to arise elsewhere, but if reference is ever made to it, we venture to predict that it will be with an apology to the court, or with some such "inability to yield consent to the views therein taken" as was exhibited by the first state Supreme Court which had occasion to mention the compensation decision. We doubt whether the Bar Association enjoys the process of helping to amend the constitution by abridging

the clause guaranteeing "due process of law," as the court in effect declares that it must be amended in order to establish any kind of compensation system. We are even so rash as to doubt whether the court would have rendered so sweeping an adverse decision if it could have foreseen just what a reception the opinion was to have. In full confidence, therefore, that this tenement house decision is not representative; that it would not have been made in the highest courts of other states; that even in this state, as time passes, and a new generation of lawyers trained in modern law schools which attach some importance to an understanding of social and economic questions comes on the bench, we shall be less and less likely to have to suffer from such mistakes; and that frank, temperate discussion will be of service in diminishing the mistakes of the present generation, we have made our protest for whatever it is worth.

The radical way out of the deplorable situation created by such rare and unaccountable decisions as these lies in *the education of the judges*.

This is by no means so hopeless an undertaking as might be imagined. It is a more friendly and co-operative procedure than the recall. No court can possibly regard a willingness to educate as disrespectful or subversive of the principles of law and order. There must be no popular hostility to courts as such. We must abide by their decisions and we must uphold their authority in all appropriate ways. But if, when a particular subject is before the courts, it becomes evident that the judges do not understand it, that their innocence is being imposed upon, that their natural desire to do justice between individuals and to promote the rational and orderly solution of some pressing question is frustrated by a lack of familiarity with the economic issues or the elementary principles of government involved, then friendly intervention becomes absolutely necessary. Those who love the courts must be the first to administer wholesome discipline that their affection may continue to be justified. If the punishment smarts we assure the victims as fond parents and devoted pedagogues have always assured their victims that it hurts us also. We would say that it hurts us worse than it does them but we do not wish to exaggerate. So we only say that every word is inspired by affection and by hopeful faith in the ultimate response. We do not despair because in a given instance property is protected at the expense of health, decency, and human life. We do not assume that this is the real desire of the judges as men, or the natural result of our judicial system. In some instances the electorate may have been at fault through having chosen to the bench men who are incapable of learning; but a term of fourteen years gives liberal time for the educational process, except in a very hopeless case.

We hold it to be essential, as a condition of retaining popular respect for courts in general, that such decisions as this one destroying the tenement house law, the decision of a year ago destroying the workingmen's compensation act, and that of twelve years ago, which is still in force and effect, destroying the constitutional and statutory power of the state Board of Charities to inspect private charitable institutions, should be held up to the reprobation and scorn which they deserve. They could not have been made by judges who understood the questions involved, assuming of course, as we are bound to assume, an honest intention to safeguard the public interest and to uphold the law and the constitution.

We who have listened to Professor Goodnow's lectures on social reform and the constitution and whose imaginations have been stirred by the great scope our written constitutions allow for social advance, by the guarantees which they contain for substantial social justice, cannot well be silent when justice is subverted and when social advance is stupidly and unnecessarily blocked. When a reactionary and misinformed court interprets the constitutional guarantee of due process of law, which no one should desire to see abridged by amendment to the constitution, as inconsistent with any system of compensation for industrial injuries, except on a basis of personal fault and negligence on the part of the employer, we appeal, as the court contemptuously bids us, to the people. We choose, however, our own form of appeal. The fundamental remedy lies not in amendment, though that may be necessary; but in a public understanding and appreciation of the calamity involved in the decision, in a process of education through which it will eventually be brought home to the judges and their successors that such blundering with human lives, and with the just claims of widows and orphans, is not good law any more than it is good economics, philosophy, and morals. When the court twists and turns in its reasoning, as it did in the decision of 1900 to which we have referred, until Josephine Shaw Lowell was led to declare that "it is no light matter that the confidence of the public in the intelligence of the majority of the judges of its highest court should be put to such a test," we appeal again to the people, not for a reversal by "spelling out" some amendment to constitution or statute, but to bring to bear upon the bench and the bar that educational process which is our only genuine safeguard against such calamities.

When, finally, in the tenement house decision we have a deliberate policy of the state, enacted and re-enacted into law by the legislature, approved by successive municipal administrations and by overwhelming public opinion, lightly upset by a thunderbolt from a clear sky, by disinterring a clause from a local ordinance which never had any significance and which had been repealed by the legislature, we take a solemn appeal, of which the new legislative act is but an incident, an appeal in the wide forum of public opinion, an appeal to the people.

THE COMMON WELFARE

THE CRISIS OF THE TENEMENTS

The New York tenement house law, which has withstood the assaults of the speculative builders before every legislature since its passage in 1901, was all but wrecked the past month by a decision of the New York Court of Appeals on February 13.¹ The crisis called for one of the quickest campaigns in the history of social reform in this country. Led by the Tenement House Committee of the New York Charity Organization Society, a bill was carried through both houses of the legislature by February 22, nine days from the date of the decision, making good the technical defect which the court held existed in the statutes, and bringing back within the scope of the law and the enforcement of the municipal tenement house department all buildings of the class which have been understood as tenements since 1867.

The bill was introduced by Senator Wagner, Democratic leader, and an emergency message sent in by Governor Dix. In the brief interval while going through the legislative mill, an eleventh-hour effort to block the bill and get the governor to veto it was made by certain tenement interests. The bill reached the governor February 26, and as this issue of *THE SURVEY* goes to press thousands of telegrams from all parts of the state are pouring into the executive mansion.

[POSTSCRIPT: *Signed by Governor March 5.*]

The history of the law is treated editorially by Mr. Devine in *Social Forces*. The suit was brought by Otto Grimmer, owner of a building located on East 31st street, who for years has endeavored to get around the provisions of the law, and whose building was ordered vacated by the department because of failure to comply with its terms. Grimmer's attorneys found what they thought was a technical flaw in the jurisdiction of the department and the court, sustaining

¹See pages 1891 and 1916.

their contention, restrained the tenement house department on the ground that the building was not a tenement but an apartment house, as defined by the municipal building code of 1899. The court held that an apartment house was not a tenement house and defined an apartment house as one in which each family had a separate kitchen, separate toilet, and separate set bath-tub. Though the decision was limited to the particular case before it, the principle announced if applied generally would affect 85 per cent of the new-law tenement houses sheltering 1,500,000 people. Its sweeping character was recognized by Tenement House Commissioner John J. Murphy, by two former tenement house commissioners, Robert W. de Forest and Edmond J. Butler, and the fight to restore the jurisdiction of the department was headed by Lawrence Veiller, first deputy commissioner from 1902 to 1904. Its sweeping character was also recognized by the guerrilla housing interests, represented by the United Real Estate Owners' Association, who, too slow to block the measure in Senate and House, carried their fight to the governor. Said Mr. Veiller:

The men who are now attacking the law and seeking to take advantage of the Court of Appeals decision are the same group of men who for the past ten years have sought in every way to defeat the law and to handicap and embarrass the department. It was these men who contested the provision of the law requiring them to provide proper toilet conveniences for their tenants and who sought to perpetuate the old, vile privy vaults which had been such a source of danger and disease to the community for so many years. It was these same landlords who carried to the United States Supreme Court a case testing the constitutionality of this beneficent provision of the statute and who were beaten in every court.

It is these same landlords who year after year have appeared before the Board of Estimate and Apportionment opposing proper appropriations for the Tenement House Department. It is these same landlords who last year caused a bill to be introduced in the legislature, and who again this year have caused a similar bill to be introduced, which

would legalize thousands of dark rooms in the old houses.

The mere fact that these men do not own apartment houses but own the cheapest-grade tenement houses indicates this situation without the necessity of further argument.

To accomplish much the same purpose as that aimed at by the Wagner bill and re-establish the *status quo*, Alderman Ralph Folks last week introduced an ordinance amending the building code. As illustration of the tactics employed by the opposition, a man present at the hearings said that he represented the Allied Real Estate Interests—the conservative real estate organization of New York, representing 3000 builders and owners—and that they were against the ordinance. A little later Allan Robinson, president of the Allied Real Estate Interests, reached the hearing, and declared that at a meeting of their directors, attended by eighteen members, all but one voted to endorse the legislation to restore the jurisdiction of the tenement house law and department. The tenement-house standards might cost them more money, he indicated, but they were not only landlords; they were citizens.

THE HUGHES-BORAH BILL

The Hughes-Borah bill, providing for the creation of a federal commission of nine members to make inquiry into industrial relations, is before Congress. Representative Wm. Hughes of New Jersey introduced the bill in the House (H. R. 21094) where it was referred to the Committee on Rules of which Congressman Robert L. Henry of Texas is chairman. Mr. Henry has expressed himself as favorable to such an investigation. Hughes and Henry are considered two of the most influential Democrats in the House. The plan also has the active support of Congressman William B. Wilson of Pennsylvania, chairman of the House Labor Committee, who, like Congressman Hughes, carries a union card.

In the upper house, Senator William E. Borah of Idaho, the Republican Progressive who successfully championed the Children's Bureau Bill, is the introducer of an identical measure (S. 5546)

and chairman of the Committee on Education and Labor, to which it has been referred. The membership of this committee has been canvassed and the majority are for the inquiry.

The executive council of the American Federation of Labor last week endorsed the bill, and President Gompers is undertaking a campaign to secure the support of labor organizations throughout the country.

On the other hand the Committee on Industrial Relations organized to secure the commission is in receipt of letters from progressive mine owners, railroad managers, and manufacturers in different parts of the country who are actively supporting the plan. Readers of THE SURVEY are asked by the committee to write their Congressmen and Senators at once. While the initial response to the proposal has been favorable, the bills must run the gauntlet of the tension and distractions of a campaign year, and their passage hinges on how widespread and outspoken the public demand for such legislation is. The text of the bills follows:

BE IT ENACTED BY THE SENATE AND THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA IN CONGRESS ASSEMBLED:

That a commission is hereby created to be called the Commission on Industrial Relations. Said commission shall be composed of nine persons, to be appointed by the president of the United States, not less than two of whom shall be employers of labor, not less than two of whom shall be representatives of organized labor. The Department of Commerce and Labor is authorized to co-operate with said commission in any manner and to whatever extent the secretary of Commerce and Labor may approve.

The members of this commission shall be paid actual traveling and other necessary expenses, and, in addition, a compensation of ten dollars *per diem*, while actually engaged on the work of the commission and while going to, or returning from, such work. The commission is authorized as a whole or by sub-committees of the commission, duly appointed, to hold sittings and public hearings anywhere in the United States, to send for persons and papers, to administer oaths, to summon and compel the attendance of witnesses and to compel testimony, and to employ such secretaries, experts, stenographers, and other assistants as shall be necessary to carry out the purposes for which such commission is created, and to authorize its members or its employes to travel in or outside

the United States on the business of the commission.

Said commission may report to the Congress its findings and recommendations from time to time, and shall make a final report not later than three years after the date of the approval of this act, at which time the term of this commission shall expire, unless it shall previously have made final report; and, in the latter case, the term of the commission shall expire with the making of its final report; and the commission shall make at least one report to the Congress within the first year of its appointment and a second report within the second year of its appointment.

The commission shall inquire into the general condition of labor, especially in the principal industries of the United States, and especially in those which are carried on in corporate forms; into existing relations between employers and employes; into the effect of industrial conditions on public welfare and into the rights and powers of the community to deal therewith; into the growth of associations of employers and of wage-earners and the effect of such associations upon the relations between employers and employes; into the extent and results of methods of collective bargaining; into any methods which have been tried in any state or in foreign countries for maintaining mutually satisfactory relations between employes and employers; into methods for avoiding or adjusting labor disputes, through peaceful and conciliatory mediation and negotiations; into the scope and methods and resources of existing bureaus of labor and into possible ways of increasing their usefulness. The commission shall seek to discover and to point out the underlying causes of dissatisfaction in the industrial situation.

A SPECIAL SESSION ON WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

Gov. Chase S. Osborn of Michigan issued a special message last week calling an extraordinary session of the state legislature to consider two subjects—a Presidential Preferential Primary Law, and an Employers' Liability and Workmen's Compensation Act. A commission created by the legislature to study the question of workmen's compensation has issued its report and drawn up a bill. Governor Osborn declares in his message that this commission, which is composed of Hal H. Smith, chairman, Charles R. Sligh, Michael P. McCuen, William P. Belden, and Ora E. Reaves, with Richard L. Drake as secretary, "has done a painstaking and patriotic work which should have general approval." He continues:

The state of Michigan is indebted to it. The federal government and many states have given attention to the important questions involved. A bill has been prepared by your commission which I respectfully call to your attention and for which I request your favorable consideration. The arguments for the law proposed are irrefutable. I directed your attention to this subject in my inaugural message. Your early action will hasten the day which shall start a more just and wise and happy distribution of the hazard of industrial employment. In this question alone I could find easy justification for convening this legislature in extraordinary session. If you enact the bill recommended by your commission the law will go into effect a year earlier than otherwise; and the saving to the state in reduced court expenses, and to both employers and workmen by having just sums for damages applied in accordance with the right, and in obviating the bitter frictions and enmities of suits at law, will be many times the amount of the cost of a special session of the legislature.

A MARYLAND DEMAND FOR A CLEANING UP

"The Cut," as the Maryland House of Correction at Jessups is called, has come into prominence lately as one of the worst pest-holes in our penal system. The proximity of this institution to Washington has stirred the Woman's Welfare Department of the National Civic Federation to interest itself in the matter. At a recent meeting of the department, at which Attorney General Wickersham presided, definite knowledge of the actual conditions came to light through questions following an address of Dr. E. Stagg Whitin, secretary of the National Committee on Prison Labor, who spoke on the general conditions throughout the country. It developed that a report made by the national committee in November at the request of the Maryland authorities, though released by the governor, had never been given much publicity because of the desire of Maryland people to do their best to remedy conditions. Governor Goldsborough has personally seen to the correction of the more flagrant abuses, while the Department of Health, the local grand jury, and members of the legislature have demanded constructive reform. The Maryland Prisoners' Aid Society has introduced a bill calling for a commission to reform the conditions, while the Federation of Labor has

introduced a bill to reform the industrial system of the institution.

Stripes, marching in lock-step, whipping naked bodies with a cat-o'-nine-tails, disease-breeding filth, contract labor, partisan politics, and medical neglect are some of the things which the national committee reports at this state-supervised institution. General health conditions at the time of the report may be guessed from the following passage:

The corridors facing the cell-block are occupied by tables on which the convicts eat their meals. The cell-block showed the need of soap, water, and paint; the plumbing was rusty and in many cases leaking; the beds were dirty—the bed-clothes soiled and the blankets coarse and filthy. A prison official warned the investigators not to touch the iron railings on the stairs for fear of getting "the itch"; while the convicts reported the need of using fire to get rid of the bugs. The food served the convicts in the corridors filled the cell-house with the odor of food, which is offensive in most prisons even where there is a modern dining-room and the finest kitchens. . . . In the kitchen proper the investigators noticed a big cauldron piled high with swill, while the meat and bread cut and distributed on tin pans were arranged on the floor, and several convicts with mops and dirty water were attempting to mop the remaining part of the floor. These pans when piled one upon another to be taken in to the convicts naturally were cleaned by the scraping of the bottom of one pan on the food in the pan below.

TYPES OF INMATES

The report cites cases of twelve and thirteen-year-old boys committed to the House of Correction by the county magistrates, and declares that this should stop. In the broom-shop were a number of boys of nineteen who "had started out to see the world and got caught on a freight."

Here is the report's description of prisoners found in the overall shop, whose bright and airy rooms easily accommodated the thirty-two convicts working there:

More than half are colored women in the last stages of degradation. The others are white women, with the exception of a boy of twelve who because of his criminal nature was sentenced to the institution and because of his tender years and gentle ways is classed

with the females. One girl of eighteen of delicate, refined nature also makes a contrast to the hardened characters. Her crime was the result of bad surroundings—a step-mother and a long series of years of being placed out from an orphan asylum to work for some farmers who abused her. It is doubtful whether her father will take her home and she is absolutely without hope. The women are at work on men's overalls for Flint of Baltimore; their task is twenty-six pair and they work eight hours. Overtime is paid them and one woman earned \$3.05 one month, according to the books. The thirty-two women earned \$10.59 a month. Young Houston, the boy, earned two cents a month in this line of industry—that is, sewing strips on the back of overalls. The warden's daughter stated that he earned more than two cents carrying notes from the women to the male convicts, but that he has now promised to be good if she will give him the cigarettes which he could buy with the amount of money he had been earning; this agreement between the warden's school-teacher daughter and the convict of twelve is working well and he has at last consented to study at night with his new friend. The foreman of the shop is chaperoned by the old guard and young Houston, but the matron never intrudes into the upper loft to chaperone the women. The foreman is a good fellow and doing his best under difficulties. He is doing what he can to help young Houston and the eighteen-year-old girl and be gentle with two Negro women who are entirely out of their minds.

In Maryland the convicts in both state and city penal institutions are worked on contract, and this phase of the situation will be reviewed later in THE SURVEY. Of conditions in the shops at that time the report says:

The shop [of the Cumberland Shirt Company] was supplied with a few spittoons and many cans for expectoration—the doctor admitted that there were many cases of tuberculosis and many of the convicts looked it. The expectoration was not confined to the cans, and one sick convict was seen to expectorate over the packing-cases and the shirts. The man looked so sick and hollow-chested that inquiry was necessary, and it was found that he had been sick for five days but had not been able to see the doctor because of the doctor's need of giving his extra time to the fifteen typhoid cases in the hospital. With the hospital full it was probably too much to ask the doctor to examine cases which he had no means of taking care of. The shop was so dirty that if it had been a sweat shop on the East Side of New York city the laws of New York state would have permitted its being closed until it had been properly cleaned and fumigated.

A CHARTER OF DEMOCRACY

JAMES BRONSON REYNOLDS¹

Theodore Roosevelt's address² before the Ohio Constitutional Convention might with almost equal propriety have been called a Charter of *Social Democracy*. It sets forth in broad terms suitable for presentation to a constitutional convention the fundamental propositions in which state governments must do their share in furthering the solution of social problems. Detailed remedies naturally and properly are excluded, since such belong to state legislation. Naturally

Under these necessary limitations Mr. Roosevelt addresses himself in broad and constructive terms to fundamental propositions on the basis of which the great social reforms of America in the twentieth century must be worked out.

Recognizing that the keynote of modern philanthropy is help to self-help, we find that Mr. Roosevelt reiterates our proposition in civic terms:

We Progressives believe that the people have the right, the power, and the duty to protect themselves and their own welfare; that human rights are supreme over all other rights; that wealth should be the servant, not the master,



"WILL HE GIVE HER A LIFT?"
—Donahy in Cleveland Plain Dealer.

and properly, also, Mr. Roosevelt refrains from discussing national problems of importance, because state constitutions are not concerned with national affairs. A recognition, therefore, that a state constitutional conventional has nothing to do directly with either state legislation or national affairs is important for the understanding of the propriety of his exclusion of certain topics and his inclusion of others.

¹Mr. Reynolds, now assistant district attorney in New York, was for a number of years head worker at University Settlement. Later he represented President Roosevelt on a number of important special commissions—among them an inquiry into housing conditions in the national capital which resulted in the creation of the president's Home Commission, and, with Labor Commissioner Neill, the special investigation of the Chicago stock-yards following the exposures of *The Jungle*.

²A Charter of Democracy. Address before the Ohio Constitutional Convention, by Theodore Roosevelt.

of the people. . . . We test the worth of all men and all measures by asking how they contribute to the welfare of the men, women, and children of whom this nation is composed. . . . We stand for the rights of property, but we stand even more for the rights of man.

Modern philanthropy says we must provide better industrial training to secure the economic independence of a large proportion of our population. Mr. Roosevelt says:

We have no higher duty than to promote the efficiency of the individual. There is no surer road to the efficiency of the nation.

He connects this principle with the fundamental issue of constitutionalism:

I am emphatically a believer in constitutionalism, and because of this fact I no less

emphatically protest against any theory that would make of the constitution a means of thwarting instead of securing the absolute right of the people to rule themselves and to provide for their own social and industrial well-being.

He fully recognizes the difficulty of securing a better and more equitable distribution of wealth, but regards it as essential to the establishment of real democracy:

We are engaged in one of the great battles of the age-long contest waged against privilege on behalf of the common welfare.

He holds with Lincoln and Lowell that man, rather than institutions or forms of government, is the primary object of interest and concern. Quoting Lincoln's words,

This country belongs to the people who inhabit it. Whenever they shall grow weary of the existing government, they can exercise their constitutional right of amending it. . .

Mr. Roosevelt adds:

This country, as Lincoln said, belongs to the people. So do the national resources which make it rich. It will help the people little to conserve our national wealth unless the benefits which it can yield are secured to the people.

Mr. Roosevelt's long experience in the actual fight for good government has taught him the fallacy of trying to heal the ills of bad government, due to the selfish indifference of our citizens, by checks and devices which usually operate more effectually to prevent a good administration from doing its work than to restrain a corrupt government from accomplishing its purposes. We in New York who have seen reform waves follow a period of Tammany misrule have learned that one of the greatest obstacles to achievement in the way of our reform government is often the legislation enacted by the state legislature to prevent Tammany from achieving its ends. Mr. Roosevelt wisely discourages such remedies and exposes their fundamental defect:

It is impossible to invent constitutional devices which will prevent the popular will from being effective for wrong, without also preventing it from being effective for right. The only safe course to follow in this great American democracy is to provide for making the popular judgment really effective. . . It is a false constitutionalism, a false states-

manship, to endeavor by the exercise of a perverted ingenuity to seem to give the people full power and at the same time to trick them out of it. Yet this is precisely what is done in every case where the state permits its representatives, whether on the bench or in the legislature or in executive office, to declare that it has not the power to right grave social wrongs, or that any of the officers created by the people, and rightfully the servants of the people, can set themselves up to be the masters of the people. Constitution-makers should make it clear beyond shadow of doubt that the people in their legislative capacity have the power to enact into law any measure they deem necessary for the betterment of social and industrial conditions.

As best expressing his own views of the relations between capital and labor he quotes those words of Lincoln of imperishable truth:

Labor is prior to and independent of capital. Labor is the superior of capital, and deserves much the higher consideration. Capital has its rights, which are as worthy of protection as any other rights. Nor should this lead to a war upon property. Property is the fruit of labor. Property is desirable, is a positive good in the world. Let not him who is houseless pull down the house of another, but let him work diligently and build one for himself, thus by example assuring that his own shall be safe from violence when built.

Nowhere does Mr. Roosevelt strike a more inspiring chord, nor one more essential to the execution of the program of social betterment, than in his definition of the supreme ends of government as social prosperity and the common weal. Were his views generally adopted in law, as, I think, they are widely accepted in belief, we should have less difficulty in securing on their merits measures of direct social reform. Too often we ask for social legislation and get a political disquisition. Mr. Roosevelt urges emphatically that

The ends of good government in our democracy are to secure by genuine popular rule a high average of moral and material well-being among our citizens. It has been well said that in the past we have paid attention only to the accumulation of prosperity, and that from henceforth we must pay equal attention to the proper distribution of prosperity. This is true. The only prosperity worth having is that which affects the mass of the people.

But Mr. Roosevelt is no less insistent that honest captains of industry shall be given a fair chance:

I hold that he is the real Progressive, that he is the genuine champion of the people, who endeavors to shape the policy alike of the nation and of the several states so as to encourage legitimate and honest business at the same time that he wars against all crookedness and injustice and unfairness and tyranny in the business world.

Mr. Roosevelt shows his understanding of economic principles and present economic tendencies when he says:

Flintlock legislation, of the kind that seeks to prohibit all combinations, good or bad, is bound to fail, and the effort, in so far as it accomplishes anything at all, merely means that some of the worst combinations are not checked, and that honest business is checked. What is needed is, first, the recognition that modern business conditions have come to stay, in so far at least as these conditions mean that business must be done in larger units, and then the cool-headed and resolute determination to introduce an effective method of regulating big corporations so as to help legitimate business as an incident to thoroughly and completely safeguarding the interests of the people as a whole.

In summing up his views as to the ends of government, Mr. Roosevelt emphasizes that great truth brought home to everyone who has lived in close touch with the struggle of life where the iron heel of poverty grinds the hardest:

In a word, then, our fundamental struggle must be to secure genuine equality of opportunity.

No sounder doctrine ever fell from the lips of man nor could a truth of greater importance be impressed upon a constitutional convention. It is because some of us saw Mr. Roosevelt, while president, daily teaching and upholding this truth that we regard him as the great exponent of modern social progress.

His reference to the recall of judicial decisions merits a passing comment, particularly because some newspapers have stupidly or falsely misstated his views. One leading New York daily put in headlines: "Roosevelt favors the recall of judges." He does not. He clearly indicates his personal preference for the system of sober old Massachusetts, the removal of judges by simple majority vote of the two houses of the legislature. One addition only he makes. When a law has been duly passed by both houses of the legislature, signed by the governor, and subsequently declared by the Su-

preme Court of a state to be unconstitutional, there should be opportunity for a popular vote to determine whether the judgment of the legislature and of the governor or that of the court shall be deemed sound, and, as in all things, the people shall decide. It must seem comic to many English conservatives, staidly content with their government, whose legislative bodies are supreme and whose acts are without power of review by any court, to read that a proposed system more conservative than theirs is "viewed with alarm" in progressive America. It may properly seem as absurd to them as their fear of local self-government seems absurd to us. But to intelligent students of government the proposition to allow the people to sustain an act of the executive and legislative branches if they see fit can only appear as one important but slight step in the direction of "government by the people and for the people."

Formerly, when rulers and governors were to be feared, our constitutions were invincible bulwarks against abuse of power. But in these days we need to take care that these constitutions, once an aid to liberty and a protection to popular rights, be not allowed to become an obstacle to progress. As Mr. Roosevelt says:

All constitutions, those of the states, no less than that of the nation, are designed, and must be interpreted and administered, so as to fit human rights.

To all social reformers Mr. Roosevelt's recognition that all men have the right to social well-being and that the rights of men are always superior to the rights of property is a deeply significant statement from a statesman whose words carry far and whose teaching has been emphasized by his practice when in the gubernatorial and presidential chairs. His address is indeed a new charter of social democracy. It shows a statesman of wide experience, of careful study, and of reflection upon the principles of democracy and upon the writings of its greatest teachers. It also reveals a constructive statesman, who, with clear vision and confident hope, looks to the duties and opportunities of citizenship in the twentieth

century. Has any pronouncement by any national leader in the last forty years been more encouraging and more inspiring to those who expect great things of the twentieth century?

EDITORIAL GRIST

RIGHT OF FREE SPEECH IN LAWRENCE

OWEN R. LOVEJOY

With a desire to get a first-hand impression of industrial living conditions at a disturbed center, I visited Lawrence with a friend a few days ago, and, with a personal letter of introduction, we went to Colonel Sweetser at the armory. We found him courteous and frank in his discussion of the situation. He offered us every assistance in studying local conditions, and expressed a keen desire to have the militia relieved of the duty which called them to Lawrence. It was not, he explained, a soldier's job to patrol a town in this condition. It was police duty. He thought 100 properly directed policemen could do the work better than his soldiers. This is reasonable. A soldier is trained to work in association; a policeman to work alone. A squad of fifty men with drawn bayonets is a clumsy weapon at the best with which to explain to a lonely foreigner that he must not stand on the street corner or speak to a passerby. Some one of the fifty bayonets may be in wrong hands, and, as Colonel Sweetser significantly said, "the longer we stay here, the more chance there is of some one making a blunder."

Whether the purpose of the militia in Lawrence is merely to preserve law and order, or whether it is to end the strike, seemed to be a matter of doubt with a number of the soldiers interviewed; but many frankly professed keen interest in breaking the strike. How effectual they are we could not at first understand. We had known that street meetings and parades were prohibited; but on leaving Colonel Sweetser in the evening he kindly assigned a genial captain to guide us on scout duty next morning. On the

captain's advice we went alone instead, as he explained that pickets would run and hide if they saw a uniform coming.

That evening there was less tension. At remote points we were able to accost scattered people on the street and ask a few questions. But next morning it was different. Colonel Sweetser had said: "We do not allow the people to congregate; we keep them moving." In the morning we learned how these boys obey orders. When we paused to decide which way to go, a sentry's voice would invariably call "Move on!"—though not six people were within a block. This was not only in the mill section, but far away, in streets facing the public park, and in residence sections. We learned that in Lawrence today three peaceable citizens are not permitted to stand at a corner long enough to say, "Shall we turn up or down the street?"

We saw one man, probably a picket, run out of the mill section. At least he was a pale, poorly clad, shivering little man, without an overcoat, whose only mark of warmth was a small white ribbon on his coat which read, "Don't be a scab." A soldier with levelled bayonet was walking behind him as we came on the scene. A dozen other soldiers stood at the corner watching him go. Curiosity led me to ask a sentry, "Where are they taking him?"

"Anywhere to hell out of here," was the reply.

"But what was he doing?" I asked.

"Asking someone not to work, I suppose, or calling him a scab. He's a picket."

"But," I ventured, "asking a man not to work and calling him a scab are not the same, are they?"

"Get to hell out of here! I ain't got no time to chew the rag with you fellows," he said, with an ominous gesture that indicated that the resources of the great state of Massachusetts were backing him in quelling my riot.

I asked another lad in uniform: "Don't you allow any picketing if they are quiet and orderly and peaceable?"

He appeared to think me feeble-minded, as he sneeringly replied, "Not a damned one; not if we see 'em!"

While I realize that under present conditions it would be impossible to permit noisy demonstrations or physical interference with those who want to work, or even the use of insulting epithets, I can not quite understand why a striker should not be permitted to stand on the street corner and present to his fellow citizen his reasons for remaining out of the factory. Neither can I understand why small groups of people who do not impede traffic nor act in a disorderly manner should be prevented from congregating on the street and even presenting in public their side of the case, so long as they are strictly cautioned against any riotous or violent demonstration. In my judgment, such restriction as the soldiers are practicing on the people is as truly a form of intimidation as could be practiced by the most violent striker. Its direct effect must be to break the courage of many and whip them into subjection to the mill interests. On the other hand, the more independent among them will be further incited to a

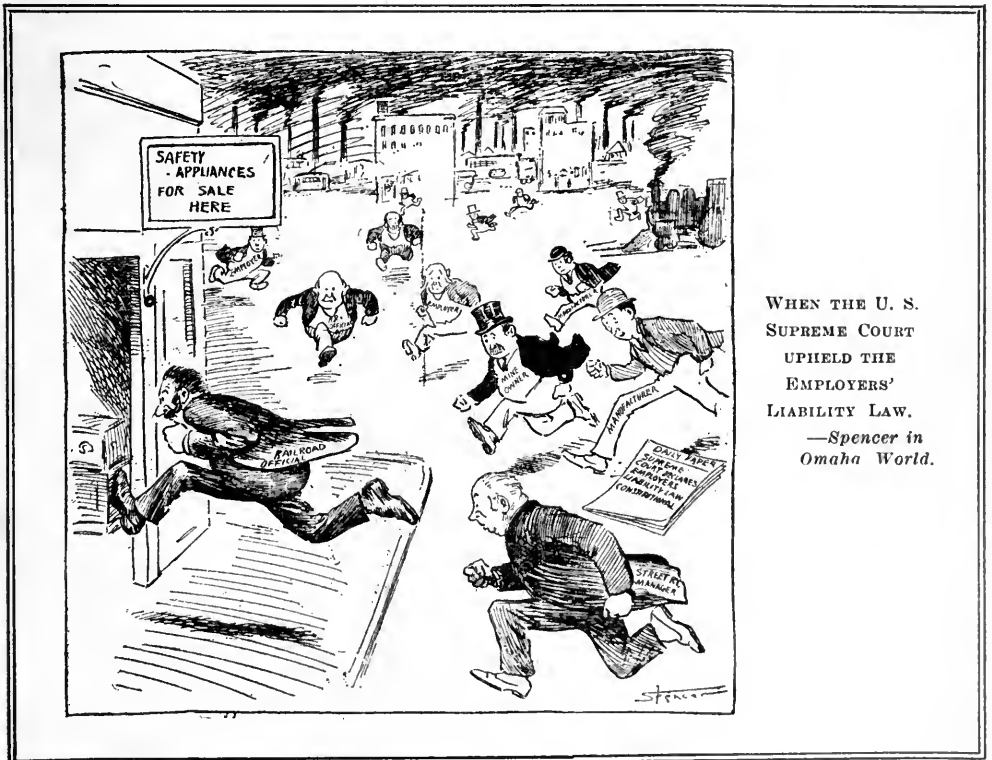
spirit of rebellion against the state's authority and can with reason make capital of such instances as I have related to prove that they are being oppressed.

THE NATIONAL OUTLOOK FOR COMPENSATION LEGISLATION

ADELBERT MOOT
Buffalo

[MR. MOOT WAS PRESIDENT OF THE NEW YORK STATE BAR ASSOCIATION IN 1910, WHEN IT CO-OPERATED WITH THE WAINWRIGHT COMMISSION IN SECURING THE WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION LAW (SINCE DECLARED UNCONSTITUTIONAL) WHICH PAVED THE WAY FOR KINDRED LEGISLATION IN TEN STATES.]

What is the legal situation of this country as to workman's compensation? It is this: so far as any decisions of the highest courts have determined the question, all states except New York are at liberty to enact workmen's compensation acts similar to that which has been declared invalid by the New York state court of appeals, and eleven states have passed such acts. These are the California, Illi-



WHEN THE U. S. SUPREME COURT UPHELD THE EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY LAW.
—Spencer in Omaha World.

nois, Kansas, Maryland, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, and Wisconsin compensation laws, and the Washington, Ohio, and Massachusetts State Insurance Laws.¹ Thus, nationally speaking, the field is open to the several states; and furthermore, as will be brought out, recent decisions of the United States Supreme Court open out a wide field for federal action hitherto unexpected.

New York, however, which in 1910 took the lead in the present movement toward abandoning the old liability principles, finds herself of all states the least advantageously placed. In New York alone it appears to be necessary that the state constitution be amended to permit the necessary legislation. It is perhaps one of the prices paid for pioneering that, while the legislatures of other commonwealths have followed the lead of Albany, their courts have not followed the early but adverse decision of the highest New York court. In this, they have been in harmony with the general trend of legal opinion throughout the country, as it has found expression at the various stages in the New York experience.

To understand the situation, we must consider the bench and bar of New York not as if they were isolated from the bench and bar of the rest of the world, but as being a part of a profession found in every civilized country. We must note, too, that it is a very conservative profession. It is difficult to enlist a majority of its members in favor of law reform in any country. This is difficult because the law of any country consists largely of customs and precedents of more or less antiquity, and recognized by the every-day acts of the people in that particular country. Many writers have shown how difficult it is to get semi-civilized peoples to change their law. As people become more civilized, however, they begin to legislate for this purpose.

The most common ground for change is that the existing law has become unjust, because it has been outgrown, or because changing conditions have made it unjust. In this country fundamental changes, in obedience to demands of

large majorities, are apt to be made by constitutional amendments, like the thirteenth amendment to the national constitution abolishing slavery, or the fourteenth amendment to that constitution denying state governments the power to deprive a citizen of life, liberty, or property without due process of law. This amendment applied to the states the same limitation upon the arbitrary exercise of power to which the fifth amendment to the constitution, proposed at the first session of Congress, at the instance of Jefferson, September 25, 1789, subjected the national government after its due ratification.

The fifth and fourteenth amendments embody no new principle of law; instead they merely make binding on our national and state governments the principles of law embodied in the first Magna Charta of June 15, 1215. They are the principles of law under which the Court of Appeals of New York state overthrew the Workmen's Compensation Act in the Ives case, March 24, 1911, although the highest courts of Massachusetts, Washington, Wisconsin, Ohio, and Kansas,¹ upon acts very similar in many cases, and somewhat dissimilar in some respects, have reached the conclusion that workmen's compensation acts can be upheld, notwithstanding the limitations of these constitutional amendments. The Washington case may be appealed to the United States Supreme Court, and its decision save perhaps for New York state will undoubtedly prove decisive of this question of abandoning negligence as the only basis of employer's liability to his employees.

It is a question to which the American bench and bar have been very slow in making an answer. The New York Bar Association, for example, was formed in 1876, but in all the addresses of presidents, annual addresses of jurists, and papers read before it since that time, only four have dealt with negligence in any of its phases, and three of the four, read in

¹The Montana mining law of 1909 was on the other hand declared unconstitutional, as was the truly pioneer Maryland law of 1902; the Maryland law of 1910 has not yet come before the courts. The Montana court upheld the general principle of compensation legislation but threw out the mining law on technical grounds. The Kansas and Massachusetts opinions were given in advance of legislation.

²See THE SURVEY, January 27.

1880 and 1882, were purely technical in character.

The subject of workmen's compensation was first brought forcibly before the New York Bar Association during the presidency of Francis Lynde Stetson in 1909, when a resolution was adopted, upon motion of Frederick B. Campbell of New York, carefully to consider the whole subject and report at the next meeting of the association. Mr. Campbell was made chairman of a committee of nine experienced lawyers representing each judicial district of the state, and at the meeting of 1910 that committee made a unanimous report very carefully considering the whole subject from the point of view of the state, the employer, and the employe. They concluded that there were obvious defects in the existing law, and they advised "a well considered statute embodying a conservative application of the principle of workmen's compensation . . . applicable only to dangerous trades and industries" at the "outset."

Meantime, pursuant to Chapter 518 of the Laws of 1909, Governor Hughes had joined with the legislature in appointing the Employers' Liability Commission of New York, of which Crystal Eastman¹ was a member and the secretary. This commission of legislators, lawyers, scholars, and economists made a most thorough investigation, and by invitation of the State Bar Association Miss Eastman prepared a paper for that association, for its 1910 meeting, urging a compensation act to apply to dangerous trades. This paper was very well received, and earnest discussion followed it and the report of the committee. That discussion showed that a large majority of the bar association favored workman's compensation, and the committee was instructed, in substance, to co-operate with the state commission in bringing about legislation to that end. The entire discussion clearly showed that all realized that the constitutional question was one of difficulty, and that they thought it ought to be tested by a carefully drawn act to throw the responsibility for risks of the business, if a dangerous one, upon the employer. The result in

part of the work of the commission and the Bar Association was Chapter 674 of the Laws of 1910, applicable to dangerous employments. It was under this act that the Ives case arose, in which the Court of Appeals determined that it was not due process of law to make the employer responsible for injury to the employe, where that injury was the result of the risk of the business, and in no sense of the negligence of the employer. This conclusion having been reached by the Court of Appeals in March, 1911, the subject again came before the Bar Association for discussion at the last annual meeting recently held in New York. The same subject had been before the Bar Association of New York city, and that association had determined in favor of a constitutional amendment which would authorize legislation to give compensation to workmen for injuries, whether fatal or not, arising in the course of their employment.

After a conference between the committees of the two associations, the conclusion was reached that the amendment would be so important, and should be so carefully drawn, that the association should not commit itself to any specific form of words, but that, instead, it would be better to authorize its committee to confer with the legislative committees, make all possible suggestions to help frame a proper constitutional amendment on the subject and enable the legislature to put such an amendment into the constitution in due time. There was an earnest discussion over this rather unusual suggestion, but it was apparent that the association could not very well commit itself to some particular form of amendment, and would better give a committee of ability large discretion in the matter. The association finally passed a resolution to that effect. The committee having the matter in charge consists of such well known and experienced lawyers as Francis Lynde Stetson, William B. Hornblower, and Richard L. Hand, who have been presidents of the Bar Association, P. T. Sherman, and others.

In the meantime, on January 15 last, in several different cases involving the constitutionality of the Federal Employ-

¹Now Mrs. Wallace Benedict of Milwaukee.

ers' Liability Act as amended April 5, 1910, to make it comply with the previous decision of the United States Supreme Court holding the original act of Congress unconstitutional, except as to interstate commerce common carriers, that high court unanimously reached the conclusion that the power to regulate interstate commerce granted to Congress by the federal constitution included within it the power to provide that interstate common carriers should be liable in damages for accidents to employes.

In so ruling, that court squarely held that:

A person has no property, no vested interest, in any rule of the common law. . . . Rights of property which have been created by the common law cannot be taken away without due process; but the rule itself, as a rule of conduct, may be changed at the will of the legislature, unless prevented by constitutional limitations.

The court, therefore, concluded that Congress could do away with the common law rule that the employer was not liable for an injury caused one employe by another, and could substitute in its place a rule "imposing upon the employer responsibility for such an injury"; that Congress could do away with the common law rule exonerating the employer from liability in case of concurring negligence by the employe, and could substitute in place therefor the rule of comparative negligence and proportional damages; that Congress could do away with the common law rule that the employe assumed the risk of injury, even of the employer's negligence, in any case where the employer violated a statute enacted for the safety of his employe; and also that Congress could give a right of action to the representative of one killed by accident while employed by an interstate common carrier in interstate commerce.

By this decision the power of Congress is made exclusive as to all interstate commerce common carriers, regard-

less of conflicting state laws. This power of Congress, however, is not restricted to interstate common carriers, but can be extended to all persons or corporations engaged in interstate commerce of any sort, while so engaged; and, therefore, Congress can legislate broadly as to all persons or corporations engaged in any sort of interstate commerce, so as to prescribe the sole rule of liability from such employers to their employes in case of injury or death. It is very likely that in the near future this field, covering, it is said, nine-tenths of the commerce and business of the country, especially big business, so-called, will be occupied by acts of Congress. The Supreme Court having held that Congress has sufficient legislative power to prescribe the rule of law on the subject, and to do away with most common law legal rules on the subject, it is easy to see that in the near future Congress may be asked to exercise this power, and thereby to prescribe a uniform rule of liability for the entire country which will render unnecessary and useless the legislation of any state, so far as employers and employes engaged in interstate commerce are concerned. At the present time a committee of Congress is considering a revised draft of an Employer's Liability and Workmen's Compensation Act submitted by the commission which has given that draft long and careful consideration.¹

If the act drawn up by this Federal Liability Commission is passed by Congress, it will cover the relations of nearly a million and a half of railway employes to their employers. If such an act were extended to cover many great industrial corporations, like the United States Steel Corporation, the federal government would protect the rights of millions of employes and their families, and would modify and simplify our law and adapt it to present industrial conditions.

¹See THE SURVEY, January 27.

BOOKS

LILIAN BRANDT, Contributing Editor

THE AMERICAN PEOPLE: VOLUME II THE HARVESTING OF A NATION

By A. MAURICE LOW. Houghton Mifflin Company. 608 pp. \$2.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.40.

The first part of Mr. Low's study in American psychology was reviewed in THE SURVEY of January 28, 1911. In this volume he goes on trying to show, from our development since the beginning of the Revolution, "that the Americans—as the result of environment, political and social institutions, and their own philosophy—are not diluted Englishmen any more than they are imitation Germans or transplanted Spaniards, but that they are new in the sense that they have evolved a distinct American type with mental and physical characteristics foreign to those of other people, or races." His discussion of the effect of immigration on the psychology of the American is naturally an important part, and to us the most interesting part, of this volume. His conclusions are simply that it has no effect. "The American has an extraordinary and only partially explained power of absorbing alien people into his social and political system, and yet remaining uninfluenced by them. Germans become 'German-Americans' and then Americans, but the millions of Germans who have poured into the country have not succeeded in making a single American an 'American-German.' It is this power of the American to assimilate and not to be assimilated, to influence but to remain uninfluenced, to stamp his individuality upon the alien and not to lose his own individuality, that has incorporated the immigrant into the American without affecting the fundamental ideas of America or its political principles; and has so insensibly affected the mind or philosophy, morals or point of view, artistic development or literary taste of the American." Mr. Low has derived some legitimate amusement from the reluctance of Americans, as revealed by criticisms of his first volume, to admit that they have a distinguishing psychology. Resentment, or modest deprecation, has met his imputation that we possess that "which every nation has claimed as one of the elements without which there can be no vigorous nationality."

AMERICA IN THE MAKING

By LYMAN ABBOTT. Yale University Press. 233 pp. \$1.15; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.25.

In the Yale Lectures on the Responsibilities of Citizenship for 1911 Dr. Abbott discusses "the American problem" from his deeply religious point of view. He points out the obligations resting upon the young men of to-day (and all the rest of us) to transform "democratic America into the Kingdom of God." This is done under the headings

Political Responsibilities, Industrial Responsibilities, Responsibilities to Dependent People (including all "those to whom we owe protection") and Religious Responsibilities, with an introductory chapter pointing out the advantages of our "laboratory method in politics and sociology." Probably Dr. Abbott would have some sympathy with the critics of Mr. Low's thesis, to whom reference is made above, for he says there is no typical American. "There is a typical American capitalist, a typical American mechanic, a typical American farmer, a typical American miner, a typical American cowboy, a typical New Englander, a typical Southerner, but the American is a composite made up of many types."

THE IMMIGRATION PROBLEM

By JEREMIAH W. JENKS, PH.D., LL.D., and W. JETT LAUCK, A.B. Funk and Wagnalls Company. 496 pp. \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.89.

This book may be taken as a digest of the forty-two volume report of the immigration commission, from the point of view of a distinguished member of the commission, and the expert in charge of industrial investigations. The familiar fact is re-stated, necessarily, that the year 1883 was a turning point in immigration; and that now, instead of people similar in race and characteristics to the original settlers in America, 90 per cent of the newcomers are of races whose customs and manner of thought are radically different from our own. This is tending to complicate the problem of assimilation. The principal motive of present-day immigration is economic—not escape from persecution, religious or political. The fact that money wages are much higher in this country than in Europe is a strong attractive force, and, while there is less discrepancy in real wages, it is not true that the European wage will afford as good living conditions as can be secured in this country. The distinctly social effects of immigration are not as important as have been sometimes thought. Crime has not increased more than could be expected with the increase in population. American institutions have not suffered. The danger of immigration is, like the cause of it, economic. The newer immigration is tending to imperil the standards of living of American workmen. They are willing to underbid the American. They are largely single men, shifting, unstable, willing to live under conditions impossible to the maintenance of American families, and they constitute a menace to the American worker's pocketbook. So far this is chiefly a tendency, but it is a steadily growing one. Wages have not been reduced because of the entrance of European labor, but

they have not been advanced when they otherwise undoubtedly would have been. And this tendency is the more dangerous because the immigrant workmen do not readily enter the unions; they can be and are frequently used as strike-breakers; and they are often sought by employers because of their tractability. The only way this menace can be removed is by a considerable restriction of immigration. These are among the most important conclusions of the authors. Not all of them are stated explicitly. Some are between the lines, but the conclusion that immigration is an economic phenomenon and that it is to be feared for economic reasons, is clear-cut and frequently reiterated. There is much valuable discussion of conditions of living among immigrant, of immigrant communities, of immigrants in various industries, of labor conditions arising out of immigrant conditions, and of special characteristics of certain types of immigrants.

THE RUSSIAN PEOPLE

By MAURICE BARING. George H. Doran Company. 366 pp. \$3.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.63.

This recognized authority on Russian affairs has written a book for "the average reader" who wants to know the chief characteristics of the country and its people and the chief landmarks of their history. He takes no knowledge for granted but tells the story from the beginning and from the bottom in an easy and simple manner, with many illustrations from his own experience. Those of us who have not time for the whole book, most of which is historical, will at any rate want to read the chapters on What Russia Looks Like, The Russian Character, Some Manners and Customs Peculiar to Russia, and the closing chapters on the revolutionary movement and religion. In view of our growing immigration of pure Russians, we must welcome a sympathetic account of them by one who has had long acquaintance with them at home and who says "I not only believe in their qualities but in their future." The Jewish element in the population of Russia is not discussed at all.

EARLY STORIES AND SONGS

By MARY CLARK BARNES. Fleming H. Revell Company. 145 pp. 60 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 66 cents.

These are stories from the Old and the New Testaments, arranged "for new students of English." After each story are some verb forms, and some of the sentences are reproduced in script. Suggestions are given at the end of the book as to ways in which teachers of immigrants may supplement these stories and use them for instruction in the English terms most needed in every-day life in America.

MY NEIGHBOR

By J. S. WOODSWORTH. The Missionary Society of the Methodist Church. Toronto. 341 pp. This is "Text Book No. 7" for the Young People's Forward Movement Department of the Methodist Church in Canada. It gives a

fair summary of present day social problems, and will undoubtedly help to awaken among young Canadians a realization that they must be alert to safeguard their urban growth. Interspersed with general quotations from the works of authorities on these subjects both here and in England are some facts about Canadian conditions and needs. The book would have been strengthened if these occupied a more generous portion of the text. One regrets for instance that in the chapter on labor problems, while there are extensive quotations from Rauschenbusch, Hunter, Ely, John Graham Brooks, and others, the Canadian arbitration plan is dismissed with the words: "Of special interest to us is the working out of our own Industrial Disputes Act, but into these fields we cannot enter." To us in "the States" there is interest in the hints of the speed with which that new country is feeling the tide of immigration and its attendant problems. Already 40 per cent of its population is living in towns of 8,000 and over. Text and pictures alike show that there is already need for intelligent city planning and housing legislation. The descriptions of Slavic wedding customs in the chapter on Social Life, coupled with an analysis of the nationalities in one public school in Winnipeg, show what a variety of immigrants is seeking homes in Canada. Out of 590 children in this school only forty-five are described as Canadian. The rest are: English sixty-one; Irish nine; Scotch fourteen; Swedish sixteen; "American" ten; Norwegian thirteen; German 135; Austrian seven; Russian twenty-three; Polish forty-three; Galician nine; Bohemian seven; Jewish (Russian) ninety-five; other Jewish 102; and one native of Iceland.

THE BROKEN WALL

By EDWARD A. STEINER. Fleming H. Revell Company. 219 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.09.

Professor Steiner believes that race feeling is growing in the United States, "where a tint is equivalent to a taint, a crooked nose to a crooked character, and where a peculiar slant of the eyes is taken as unmistakable evidence that the race so marked cannot see straight." He tells of an old man who said, quite without bitterness, that he was "a three-fold exile—a Jew, a revolutionist, and a consumptive." There are three main reasons for the growth of race consciousness, Professor Steiner finds, expressed in the feeling against the Jew: "First, the Jew is unlike the American physically; he is an Oriental still. Second, his mental attitude is different from that of the American. He is all emotion, he is aggressive, he carries his heart on his sleeve; while the American is cool and reserved and likes to keep at arm's length from his neighbor. Third, he is a keen business man and presses the Yankee close in nearly all avenues of trade." But the main purpose of this book of well-told stories is not discussion of the race wall by Professor Edward A. Steiner, sociologist. It is to

show some breaks in the wall (hence the title) by incidents from the heaped-up experience of Edward A. Steiner, immigrant, Jew, and minister to many congregations of men who sailed in the steerage. Nothing could be more readable than the story of the Irish widow who married the Polish widower to bring up his flock of little Sobieskis with her own small Patricks, and to add to their numbers others of such mixed bloods that they must be Americans in fact as well as by law. And all of this, mind you, with the blessing of Father O'Shanahan who, to tell the whole truth, made the match. There is the even stranger story of Mike, the brakeman, who called in a neighborly Protestant minister to marry him to Rebekah, the rag-picker's daughter. It was in the face of both the saints and the prophets, to say nothing of their devoted and vociferous adherents in the two families. But Rebekah lived in the next flat, and Mike loved her and she was willing, and that settled it. It proved a happy household, and a year later this same minister, who was neither priest nor rabbi, was called in to baptize a little boy who had red hair and an Irish nose but large dark eyes with the peculiar Semitic luster. The family strife as to whether the name should be Patrick or Moses, the happy inspiration of the minister to take one syllable from each and call it Pat-mos, and the christening sermon he preached them about the Jew named John who "was in the isle which is called Patmos," are among the best touches in a book which all the way through is close to real lives. These breaks in the wall are near the bottom. They are among the lowly, the mingling folk whose lives must be lived out close together. And that is the promising part of it, for that is where breaks are most likely to injure a wall. There are only scattering instances of such fellowship and neighborliness, but they are among the common people of our day, and there, we are coming to understand, democracy and justice and understanding, one of another, must have firm roots if they are to endure. All through *The Broken Wall* are clear glimpses of the author, a strong, serious man, going about this very business of showing that "the wall has been broken here and there by the love of God, which asks nothing and gives everything," and of contributing "to the enlargement of human sympathies and to the elimination of ethnic fears and prejudices."

SOCIAL PATHOLOGY

By SAMUEL GEORGE SMITH, PH.D., LL.D. The Macmillan Company. 280 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.13.

Dr. Smith's theory is that progress is the resultant of purposeful action and that failure to succeed is therefore due to personal responsibility. While he does not entirely disregard social influences, still it is evident that he has no sympathy with the so-called positive school of criminology, and he rests his analysis of the causes of poverty pretty firmly on the ground of the individual respon-

sibility of the unfortunate for his own condition. "Social Therapeutics" would have been a title more closely descriptive of the contents of the book. It has too little analysis of conditions and their significance to be called "Pathology," and of social prophylaxis there is practically none. One would have expected a stronger, more interesting and more definite book from the founder and president of the Associated Charities of St. Paul, a professor in the department of Sociology and Anthropology in the University of Minnesota, a member of the Minnesota Board of Charities and Correction, and an ex-president of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. Treatment and point of view are continually vacillating and no clear appraisal is presented either of the amount of social wreckage or of the value of the different plans for salvage. In his review of social agencies there are conspicuous omissions, which we refrain from specifying lest we incur the charge of provincialism.

BACKWARD AND FEEBLE-MINDED CHILDREN

By EDMUND BURKE HUEY. Warwick and York, Inc. 221 pp. \$1.40; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.48.

Dr. Huey is now lecturer in Johns Hopkins University and assistant in psychiatry in Phipps Clinic of Johns Hopkins Hospital. The work upon which the book is based was done while he was in charge of diagnoses and classification in the Illinois State School and Colony for Feeble-Minded. It consists of case studies of thirty-five selected and grouped children and includes a syllabus for the clinical examination and testing of children. The book is a forerunner of a type of work likely to become more common and now greatly needed. It should be in the hands of all those who deal with children. According to Dr. Fernald there are at least 200,000 distinctly feeble-minded persons in the United States. Dr. Huey believes that all of these except the extremely defective are to be found at some time in the public school, whither they are sent with the hope that they may prove to be only slow and eventually wake up from their stupidity. During their attendance such children should be—must be if we are ever to meet the situation—carefully examined by trained investigators. "There is here the possibility of studying *in advance* the main sources of social danger and individual misfit and shipwreck and of forestalling many of these ills and taking away the sting and smart from many an unhappy life." He advocates the employment of competent clinicians in all large school systems. Psychology, medicine, sociology, and education must combine to minister to the unfortunate child.

PAY DAY

By C. HANFORD HENDERSON. Houghton Mifflin Company. 339 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

Pay-day is not a novel, as the title might suggest, but a serious and eloquent arraignment of Industry-for-Profit, with its carelessness of persons, and of the separation of Ed-

ucation and Industry, which is one of the mischievous results of the substitution of Industry-for-Profit in the place of Industry-for-Use. They are to be brought together again, in Mr. Henderson's opinion, not by the current schemes which seek to make education minister to industrial efficiency, but by eliminating the element of profit entirely from our industrial system and centering industry, like education, in persons rather than things. He does not distinguish between legitimate profit and exploitation; he does not admit that there is such a thing as legitimate profit, but considers it all a violation of the commandment, "Thou shalt not steal," which he prints as a device on his title-page. (Notwithstanding his unorthodox theory of profit, he considers it "a hopeful sign that in the conduct of affairs we are more and more turning to trained economists for guidance.") Fallacies in economic reasoning, however, we can afford to overlook for the sake of the mercileless picture of an industrial system founded on exploitation, and the vision of "the Earthly Paradise" which "the lovers of America desire," in which the daily life of the whole people shall have become "decent, rational, and progressive" through "the renovation of Industry and the renovation of Education."

MY LARGER EDUCATION

By BOOKER T. WASHINGTON. Doubleday, Page and Company. 313 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.65.

Mr. Washington is probably one of the best-known men in America. Those who know him best and those who have only a vague notion of what his name stands for will alike welcome this addition to his autobiographical writings, in which he tells us how and what he has learned from men and from things (plants, animals, soil, metals, and woods) and from circumstances. He says that the pig is his favorite animal, adding, "I do not know how this will strike the taste of my readers, but it is true." With the same frankness and friendly intimacy he tells how he "began deliberately to try to learn from men"; how he "learned something from big men and something from little men, from the man with prejudice and the man without prejudice"; and how he "began to like men better," in consequence, and did not lose his temper with men who treated him badly after he had discovered that he could learn something from them. What he has learned from reporters and editors is one of the most interesting parts of the book: he discovered that "reporters usually ask just the questions that the average man in the community would ask if he had the courage to do so," and he has "found it both interesting and important to know what sort of questions the average man in the community was asking." If every one had this attitude toward gentlemen of the press and treated them on the terms of frankness and sympathy which it involves, there might be a marked improvement in the quality of our newspapers. In the chapter A Commencement Oration on Cabbages Mr.

Washington shows how he has applied at Tuskegee the principle on which he based his own "larger education" and has developed out of it an educational system.

GRANTS IN AID

By SIDNEY WEBB. Longmans, Green and Company. 1911. 135 pp. \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.83.

A "grant in aid" is "a subvention payable from the exchequer of the United Kingdom to a local governing authority, in order to assist that authority in execution of some or all of its statutory duties." It was an invention of the central government, says Mr. Webb, for securing the national supervision and control which the general interests required, "without offending the susceptibilities of local autonomy, and without losing the very real advantage of local initiative and local freedom to experiment." The whole development of these grants in aid has taken place since 1832 and most of it since 1874. In the year 1912-13 they amount to about £30,000,000, which is 18 per cent of the government revenue. Grants in aid thus differ from the subsidies with which we are familiar in several American states in that they are made to local authorities, not to private, charitable organizations; and are primarily a device for securing a degree of control rather than for getting the local authorities to do what is recognized to be a function of the central government. There are similarities between the two, however, which make this study of the English system of interest to students of our subsidy systems, and it has a special bearing on our current discussion of federal aid to education in the South. Mr. Webb describes his book as "a criticism and a proposal." Nearly a third of it is devoted to a discussion of "the lines of reform." An elaborate bibliography fills eighteen pages.

UNEMPLOYMENT: A SOCIAL STUDY

By B. S. ROWNTREE and BRUNO LASKER. The Macmillan Company. 317 pp. \$1.60; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.74.

York has again been the subject of investigation by Mr. Rowntree, this time from the point of view of unemployment. On June 7, 1910, a census was taken of the entire "working-class" population of the city. One thousand two hundred and seventy-eight persons were found who were "unemployed," according to the definition adopted, namely, that "a person is unemployed who is seeking work for wages, but unable to find any suited to his capacities and under conditions which are reasonable, judged by local standards." This figure represents about 5.5 per cent of the occupied men and about 2 per cent of the occupied women in the population of the classes investigated, who happened to be out of work on that particular day. A careful investigation was made next of each person reported as unemployed, to get data for studying the nature and causes of the unemployment which existed, and a detailed description (with budgets) was obtained from a few families whose chief wage-earner was out of work as to how

their standard of living was affected. The problem of unemployment in this particular city is carefully analyzed into its constituent parts, and an appropriate solution is sought for each element, not a general panacea for the "vast, confused, and entangled whole." The suggestions which the authors make are (1) a larger measure of oversight for all lads up to the age of, say, nineteen, with compulsory training for them during periods of unemployment; (2) the regulation of work given out by public bodies so as largely to neutralize the cyclical and seasonal fluctuations in the demand for labor; (3) a national scheme of afforestation, which could of course be used as a regulator of the labor market; (4) the "decasualization" of labor, by concentrating all casual work on a smaller body of selected men; (5) insurance, in so far as it can be made to mitigate the evil consequences of unemployment, its limitations being strongly emphasized; and (6) the decentralization of town populations, by giving facilities to town workers to reside in the country near by and thus have an alternative to industry in a small plot of land which they could cultivate when their trade failed them..

BOOKS RECEIVED IN FEBRUARY

- DEMOCRATIC ENGLAND. By Percy Alden, M.P. The Macmillan Company. 271 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.
- OTHER SHEEP. By Harold Begbie. George H. Doran Company. 355 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.
- SALESWOMEN IN MERCANTILE STORES. By Elizabeth Beardsley Butler. Charities Publication Committee for the Russell Sage Foundation. 217 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08. Paper 75 cents post-paid.
- THE ESSENTIALS OF SOCIALISM. By Ira B. Cross, Ph.D. The Macmillan Company. 152 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.
- THE PROBLEM OF RACE REGENERATION. By Havlock Ellis. Moffat, Yard and Company. 67 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 54 cents.
- THE COMING GENERATION. By William Byron Forbush, Ph.D., Litt.D. D. Appleton and Company. 402 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.
- THE REVOLUTIONARY FUNCTION OF THE MODERN CHURCH. By John Haynes Holmes. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 264 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.
- IBRAHIM PASHA: Grand Vizier of Suleiman the Magnificent. By Hester Donaldson Jenkins. Columbia University. 123 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.05.
- THE RICARDIAN SOCIALISTS. By Esther Lowenthal. Columbia University. 103 pp. 75 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 79 cents.
- SOCIAL SERVICE DIRECTORY OF NEWARK, N. J. Compiled by A. W. MacDougall. Published privately. 220 pp. To be obtained of the Bureau of Associated Charities of Newark.
- THE DECLINING BIRTH RATE. By Arthur News- holme, M.D., F.R.S.P. Moffat, Yard and Company. 60 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 54 cents.
- GERMAN FOR DAILY USE. By E. P. Prentys. William R. Jenkins Company. 173 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 55 cents.
- THE METHOD OF RACE REGENERATION. By C. W. Saleeby, M.D., F.R.S.E. Moffat, Yard and Company. 64 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 54 cents.

- SOCIALISM AND CHARACTER. By VIDA D. SCODDER. Houghton Mifflin Co. 431 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.
- HADJI MURAD. By Leo Tolstoy. Translated by Aylmer Maude. Dodd, Mead and Company. 290 pp. \$1.20; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.32.
- THE NEW DEMOCRACY. By Walter E. Weyl, Ph.D. The Macmillan Company. 370 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.12.
- A PEASANT SAGE OF JAPAN. Translated by Tadasi Yoshimoto. Longmans, Green and Company. 254 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.53.
- TO M. L. G. OR HE WHO PASSED. Anonymous. Frederick A. Stokes Company. 338 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.38.
- A WOMAN ALONE. Anonymous. D. Appleton and Company. 377 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.40.

THE TREND OF THINGS

Walter Weyl, in the *Outlook*, describes William D. Haywood, the man who with Ettor has been the commanding figure among the Lawrence strikers. The description includes a remarkable analysis of the fundamental antagonism between industrialism and the policies of the American Federation of Labor that deserves quoting in full. Mr. Weyl, whose book, the *New Democracy*, is attracting widespread attention, was closely associated with John Mitchell throughout the anthracite strike of 1905 and speaks from long insight into labor conditions and organizations. It is probably fair to say that his sympathies are with the older unionism, so that his interpretation of the insurgent Western leader and his ideas ar all the more striking:

"Haywood, who is a big man physically and emotionally, contains within him all the explosive elements of a thoroughgoing idealist. He is one of the founders of the organization which to-day is in control of this strike, the Industrial Workers of the World. He is also a leading member of the Socialist party, but in his fundamental philosophy he is far removed from the hope of that gradual conquest of the state which the political Socialist desires, and he seems to me to approach more nearly the ideal of the revolutionary syndicalists of France and Italy. Haywood has little faith in the state and in political and legal machinery, and he aspires to revolutionize society on industrial lines. To do this he must build up unions not by trades but by industries. Haywood does not want unions of weavers, unions of spinners, unions of loom-fixers, unions of wool-sorters, but he wants one comprehensive union of all textile workers, which in time will take over the textile factories as the steel workers will take over the steel mills and the railway workers the railways. Haywood interprets the class conflict literally as a war which is always on, which becomes daily more bitter and uncompromising, which can end only with the conquest of a capitalistic society by proletarians or wage-workers, organized industry by industry.

"Because he is essentially a syndicalist, Haywood has even less sympathy with the ordinary



trade-union leader than with the ordinary political Socialist. Between the American Federation of Labor and the Industrial Workers of the World there is an antagonism more irreconcilable than that between mill-owners and textile workers. Haywood places no trust in trade agreements, which, according to his theory, lead merely to social peace and put the workers to sleep. Let the employer lock out his men when he pleases, and let the workmen strike when they please. He is opposed to arbitration, conciliation, compromise; to sliding scales, profit-sharing, welfare work; to everything in short which may weaken the revolutionary force of the workers. He does not ask for the closed shop or the official recognition of the union, for he has no intention of recognizing the employer. What he desires is not a treaty of industrial peace between the two high contracting parties, but merely the creation of a proletarian impulse which will eventually revolutionize society. Haywood is a man who believes in men, not as you and I believe in them, but fervently, uncompromisingly, with an obstinate faith in the universal good-will and constancy of the workers worthy of a great religious leader. That is what makes him supremely dangerous. There is no dynamite in the world so utterly destructive as the blind faith which seeks to remove mountains.

"I have rarely seen anything more sensa-

tional and dramatic than a certain quiet intellectual collision which I witnessed in the mayor's office at Lawrence between Haywood and a few strikers and an investigating committee of the state legislature. It was a war of philosophies à outrance, compared to which a bloody affray between militia and strikers would have seemed puerile and insignificant. The committee, composed of men of exceptional intellectual attainments, were thrown upon the defensive. 'What can your state do?' asked the strikers, almost in so many words. 'If you find one party wrong, can your state force it to do right? Can you legislators be impartial as arbitrators, when you have not lived the bitter life of the workers? Would you arbitrate a question of life and death, and are the worst wages paid in these mills anything short of death? Do you investigate because conditions are bad, or because the workers broke loose and struck? Why did you not come *before the strike*? Can you weave cloth with the bayonets of your militia, or spin with the clubs of your policemen? What can your state of Massachusetts do to make wrong right for the workingmen who form the bulk of your citizens?'"

A correspondent of the *New York Evening Post* gives another character sketch—that of obscure, hum-drum mill workers, forced by circumstances into leadership. Says one of these, a man who up to a few weeks ago had never spoken in public: "I abhor this preaching a sabotage—until this thing started I was a more than ordinarily peaceful citizen. I would have been as much shocked at anybody else's doing such things as others are at us. But when every argument and plea has failed, and hunger begins to pinch, and the law is against you, you begin to see things differently."

* * *

More than one caustic observer of American social conditions has lit on the glaring contrast between the diet of fresh milk and eggs set by the tuberculosis experts and the chance ordinary working people in the cities have of being able to afford them. A recent consular report tells of a similar round hole into which British fingers have been attempting to fit square pegs. It says: "The London County Council teaches domestic economy, but in the syllabus of instruction issued by that body the lowest budget is 28 shillings (\$6.81). The *Yorkshire Observer* states that as, according to a Labor member of Parliament, there are about 100,000 railway employes, many of them in Yorkshire, working for less than 20 shillings (\$4.87) per week, it is well that the daughters of working men should be taught how to make ends meet on the sums many of them are likely to be called upon to handle as wives and mothers."

The South Shields Education Committee have, it appears, already recut their coat according to their cloth, for by a recent decision they have instructed their teachers to teach on a basis of an income not higher than 21 shillings (\$5.11) a week.

Wallace R. Harris, retiring president of the American Society of Engineering Contractors, registers his disapproval of accident legislation which exempts some classes of employers. He cites a law, recently passed by the Saskatchewan Parliament, establishing automatic compensation for injuries for all workmen except farm laborers. Mr. Harris feels that this is class legislation of the worst kind, because the farmer, who employs the larger part of his force only a short time each year, is not affected, while the manufacturers and the contractor are liable.

Furthermore, Mr. Harris holds that compensation laws often fall unequally on two employers in the same industry.

The man who is responsible and who, therefore, is able to obtain liability insurance, must pay the higher premiums caused by this act, and, necessarily must include such cost in his bid. On the other hand, the contractor who, because he is not financially responsible, or for some other reason, does not secure such insurance would not have to figure on such an additional expense and is thereby able to reduce his bid accordingly.

The remedy he believes to lie in an organization like the American Society of Engineering Contractors which, when necessary, will "oppose reckless legislation and insure that, if general compensation statutes of this kind are deemed necessary, each man who employs labor shall be affected equally."

* * *

The following resolution was unanimously adopted at a recent meeting of the Maine Federation of Women's Clubs: "No man or group of men has the moral right to endorse, regulate, or license an evil, even by legislation." The evil referred to in this case is prostitution, and the president of the federation, Mrs. George F. French, has this to say on this subject:

"I am not ready to believe that there are any considerable number of people in this state who are so thoroughly devilish as to be willing to gain their living by debasing Maine's best crop—her beautiful daughters. If you have truthful knowledge of any such person or persons, and will confer with this department, we will find existing state law enough to make their business unprofitable, and at the same time secure employment for them in a state institution where they need have no fear of losing their job.

"Legislation will not change a moral degenerate into a good citizen. At most it will simply throw wholesome restraints around him and possibly fear of punishment may help him maintain an appearance of decency.

"The awful curse of moral leprosy in this or any other country will never be stamped out so long as the social order continues to maintain a double standard of morals, one for men and another for women. If the people are in earnest and intend to prevent this sacrifice of American girlhood, let them at once apply social formaldehyde to their own thinking, and see if, when the fumes have cleared away,

they agree with us, that a prostitute man is just as bad as a prostitute woman, and there are many more prostitute men than women. Their influence is more subtle and dangerous, because they still boldly frequent decent society. A man prostitute is more likely to burden society with blind, feeble-minded, and syphilitic offspring than is a prostitute woman. This statement is given on the authority of medical and sanitary experts, who have devoted years of study to the ravages of the great black plague. If the white slave traffic exists in America to-day it is managed by men, exists for men, and is supported by men. The only sane way to combat this evil is for men to get busy and teach, preach, and live in accordance with the moral standards which are required of woman."

* * *

THE SOCIALIST AND THE SUFFRAGIST.

Charlotte Perkins Gillman in the *Forerunner*.

Said the Socialist to the Suffragist:

"My cause is greater than yours!
You only work for a Special Class,
We for the gain of the General Mass,
Which every good ensures!"

Said the Suffragist to the Socialist:

"You underrate my Cause!
While women remain a Subject Class,
You never can move the General Mass,
With your Economic Laws!"

Said the Socialist to the Suffragist:

"You misinterpret facts!
There is no room for doubt or schism
In Economic Determinism—
It governs all our acts!"

Said the Suffragist to the Socialist:

"You men will always find
That this old world will never move
More swiftly in its ancient groove
While women stay behind!"

"A lifted world lifts women up,"

The Socialist explained,
"You cannot lift the world at all
While half of it is kept so small,"
The Suffragist maintained.

The world awoke, and tartly spoke:

"Your work is all the same;
Work together or work apart,
Work, each of you, with all your heart—
Just get into the game!"

* * *

How to Start a Woman's Lodging House, by Mary Higgs, is a pamphlet of sixteen pages, issued under the auspices of the Maternal Association for Women's Lodging Houses, giving very practical directions, many of them applicable to American conditions. The instructions are based upon practical experience, and cover structure, equipment, management, and monthly supplies.

* * *

The *Artisan* is a new monthly periodical published by the workers of the Connecticut State Trade School at Bridgeport in the interest of their trades, the printing being done by the printing students. Each issue is to contain at least one signed article by an authority on some phase of industrial training, together with the news of developments in industrial training throughout the country.

TENEMENT HOUSE DECISION OF NEW YORK STATE COURT OF APPEALS

FEB. 13, 1912

OTTO GRIMMER, appellant v. THE TENEMENT HOUSE
DEPARTMENT OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK and
EDMOND J. BUTLER, as tenement house com-
missioner, respondents.

HISCOCK, J.—The plaintiff is seeking to prevent the defendants from enforcing the provisions of the Tenement House Act applicable to the city of New York against his building. He urges that the latter is an apartment house or apartment hotel subject to the provisions of the Building Code, and not a tenement house subject to the provisions of said first mentioned act. If his contention in this respect is wrong, then concededly his building violates the law and this action cannot be maintained.

Thus we have presented the important and difficult question whether for purposes of supervision and regulation in the city of New York a class of modern residential buildings popularly and somewhat indefinitely known as apartment houses, and perhaps fairly typified by plaintiff's building, may be and have been distinguished from the buildings covered by the much older term and designation of tenement houses. The importance of the question is found, if nowhere else, in the more detailed, rigorous, and primitive nature of the provisions which by the Tenement House Act are made applicable to whatever buildings are to be classified as tenement houses. Its perplexity is evidenced somewhat at least by the circumstance that in this case in elaborate and most carefully considered opinions the learned referee and Appellate Division have reached diametrically opposing conclusions.

The disposition of the question whether plaintiff's building is a tenement house involves an examination of legislation and legislative definitions.

So early as 1867 the necessity of compelling greedy and indifferent landlords, especially in New York city, to observe reasonable regulations of safety, health, and decency for the benefit of tenants, who were frequently too dependent or ignorant themselves to exact such conditions, led to the passage of "An act for the regulation of tenement and lodging houses in the cities of New York and Brooklyn" (chap. 908).

Chapter 334 of the Laws of 1901, known as an act in relation to tenement houses in the cities of the first class, extended and perfected theretofore existing enactments for the supervision of such tenement houses in the interest of public welfare. It substantially continued the definition of a tenement house as first employed in the act of 1867, providing (sec. 2 subdv. 1): "A tenement house is any house or building, or portion thereof, which is rented, leased, let, or hired out to be occupied or is occupied as the home or residence of three families or more living independently of each other and doing their cooking upon the premises, or by more than two families upon any floor, so living and cooking, but having a common right in the halls, stairways, yards, water closets or privies, or some of them." Section 95 of said act further provided: "In every tenement house hereafter erected there shall be a separate water closet in a separate compartment within each apartment, provided that where there are apartments consisting of but one or two rooms, there shall be at least one water closet for every three rooms."

Section 647 of the Revised Charter of the city of New York (Laws of 1897, chap. 378) authorized the municipal assembly of that city "to establish and from time to time to amend a code of ordinances, to be known as the Building Code, providing for all matters concerning, affecting, or relating to the construction, alteration, or removal of buildings or structures erected or to be erected in the city of New York." Pursuant to such power in 1899 the municipal assembly did adopt an ordinance known as the

Building Code. In the meantime there had come into common existence and use in the city of New York what was widely and popularly known as the apartment house, intended, like the tenement house, to accommodate many unrelated tenants. It may be admitted that the older term tenement house in its broadest and most generic meaning as a dwelling or place of habitation would include this newer class of buildings, and that at times a very narrow margin or perhaps no margin at all would separate what was labelled an apartment house from one which was marked by the other designation. Nevertheless, dealing with types, both in popular conception and by judicial decision, the two classes of buildings were distinguished and differentiated. Without going too much into detail it may be stated that the typical modern apartment house was regarded as possessing more pretentious architectural finish, more expensive and elaborate construction and conveniences than were possessed by the average tenement house. And it may be added as a proper sequence to this view that naturally they would be inhabited by a class of tenants who would be more independent and better able to exact proper living conditions without the help of such drastic provisions as are found in the Tenement House Act (*Kitching v. Brown*, 180 N. Y., 414).

Influenced, as it may be assumed, by these views, when the municipal assembly framed the Building Code above provided for it left the supervision and regulation of apartment houses with the building department rather than the tenement house department, and to this end it gave a specific definition to such buildings, which ran as follows: "An apartment house shall be taken to mean and include every building which shall be intended or designated for or used as the home of three or more families or households, living independently of each other, and in which every such family or household shall have provided for it a kitchen, set bath-tub, and water closet, separate and apart from each other. Any such building hereafter erected shall not cover any greater percentage of a lot than is lawful to be covered by a tenement house, and the requirements for light and ventilation for a tenement house shall also apply to an apartment house."

Considering simply the indispensable requisites in the definitions, we perceive that an apartment house differs from a tenement house in three important particulars. It must have a separate water closet and bath-tub, and the latter not being at all required in the tenement house and the former only in certain cases. It also must have a separate room or "kitchen," presumably for preparing and cooking food, whereas in the case of the tenement house these operations may be conducted in a room also used for sleeping, living, or any other purpose.

These seem to be distinguishing features of substance. The description of plaintiff's building shows how far the apartment house is liable to be developed beyond the essential requirements specified in this definition.

Chapter 466 of the Laws of 1901 (sec. 407) provided: "The Building Code which shall be in force in the city of New York on the first day of January, 1902, and all then existing provisions of law fixing the penalties for violation of said code, and all then existing laws affecting or relating to the construction of buildings within the city of New York are hereby declared to be binding and in force except," etc. Therefore, if the provision of the Building Code already quoted defining an apartment house was "in force in the city of New York on the first day of January, 1902," then the statute in question had the effect of expressly ratifying and adopting and continuing a definition of an

apartment house which differentiated it from a tenement house as the latter was defined and regulated by the Tenement House Act, and placed it outside the operation of said act.

It is urged, however, that the definition of an apartment house in the Building Code was not thus continued by this act for the reason that it was not "in force" when said act was passed, but had been repealed by the Tenement House Act of 1901, which took effect a few days before the statute last quoted from and which provided: "All statutes of the state and ordinances of the city so far as inconsistent with the provisions of this act are hereby repealed," etc.

I think that this contention is not well founded. In the first place, I doubt that we could say that the differences between the tenement house as defined by the Tenement House Act and the apartment house as defined by the Building Code and which have been pointed out are so unsubstantial and shadowy that the former act should be regarded as repealing by implication for inconsistency the provisions of the code on the theory that the latter attempted to define as an apartment house what was defined in the statute as a tenement house. There is no express repeal and it is familiar law that even under ordinary circumstances repeals by implication are not favored and will not be declared on the ground of inconsistency or repugnancy unless the same is plain and unavoidable (*People ex rel. Woods v. Crissey*, 91 N. Y., 616; *Mark v. State of N. Y.*, 97 id., 572).

But in this case the rule against repeal by implication is even stronger than the ordinary one, since the Tenement House Act was a general one whereas the Building Code was in effect a special act, applicable only to New York city. The rule in such case is that a particular class of cases is not repealed by a subsequent statute general in its terms, provisions, and application, unless the intent to repeal it is manifest, although the terms of the general act are broad enough to include the cases embraced in the special law (*City of N. Y. v. Trus. Sailors' Snug Harbor*, 85 App. Div., 355; *aff'd* on opinion below, 180 N. Y., 527).

But even if this view is incorrect, I further believe that when the act of 1901 provided that the Building Code, which should "be in force on the first day of January, 1902," should "continue to be so binding and in force" that it was intended to include and reaffirm the code as it had been written, adopted, and continued in force by the municipal assembly which had been especially intrusted with the duty of framing it; that while it may be assumed, so far as this case is concerned, that such legislative reaffirmation would have been subject to any direct and clear modification by the legislature of the Building Code, it reasonably could not have been intended to be subject to such indirect, implied, and obscure modification as might be spelled out of some general statute. This principle seems to have been applied in *People ex rel. Lieberman v. Vandecarr* (175 N. Y., 440). The court there had before it for consideration a provision of the Sanitary Code of New York city. Authority to enact such a code was given to the Board of Health of the city of New York by chapter 335, Laws of 1873. The power was continued by the Consolidation Act, which provided that no alteration or amendment of the code should take effect or be binding until the same should have been published in a given manner. This limitation on the power of revision, alteration, or amendment was continued in section 1172 of the Greater New York Charter. The ordinance relied on in the case in question had been adopted by the Board of Health in 1896, but it had never been published as above provided. Under these conditions section 1172 of the Greater New York Charter provided in substance that the Sanitary Code adopted in 1873, "as amended in accordance with law," should continue to be binding and in force in the new city. Notwithstanding the dissenting opinion of Judge Cullen that "since the section under discussion was not valid nor in force at the time of the enactment of these two statutes, neither statute assumed to

render it legal or give it validity," the contrary view prevailed that the section in question was "recognized and adopted" by section 1172 as just quoted.

Thus, we reach the conclusion that the definition of an apartment house originally found in the Building Code has been preserved, and that a building coming within that definition is not subject to the supervision of the tenement house department.

In reaching such conclusions we do not overlook the fact that the tenement house commission, by their report to the legislature called to our attention by the learned Appellate Division, seemed to favor putting all buildings, whether known as tenement houses or as apartment houses, under the jurisdiction of the tenement house department, and of course we do not overlook the fact that a landlord who so desires may by a comparatively short and easy course avoid the Tenement House Act and bring himself and his building within the jurisdiction of the building department.

Aside from the fact that proper principles of construction fairly compel us to adopt these conclusions, they have the practical advantage of recognizing a definite test by which to decide whether a building does or does not come under the Tenement House Act. As was said in the *Kitching v. Brown* case, and as must be practically conceded, very many of the provisions of that act are inapplicable or unnecessary in the case of the average apartment house. Under the power given to the municipal assembly to enact and amend a Building Code there is no reason why apartment houses should not be subjected to the most complete and unyielding supervision and regulation which public welfare can possibly require, even though they are not covered by the Tenement House Act. Furthermore, if the definition which we have held to be controlling in determining whether a building is or is not a tenement house is unsatisfactory, it lies with the legislature to prescribe some new and more satisfactory test.

So far as the particular building involved in this action is concerned, it is clear that under the views which we have expressed, it is not a tenement house and not within the jurisdiction of the tenement house department, and that, therefore, the order of the Appellate Division holding to the contrary should be reversed and the judgment on the report of the referee affirmed, with costs in both courts.

CULLEN, CH.J.; GRAY, HAIGHT, VANN, WERNER, and COLLIN, JJ., concur.
Order reversed, etc.

COMMUNICATIONS

CHURCH NEEDS CHANGED HOLIDAYS

To THE EDITOR:

Mr. Wevill's suggestion¹ is a valuable one. Such a redistribution of these holidays would not only be of great economic advantage but would afford the church a valuable opportunity to align religious teaching with the significant personalities and events to memorialize which these holidays are set apart. I believe that religious teachers and the church at large will welcome such a calendar and work to carry out its provisions. There is a growing desire for opportunities to associate historic and social events with ethical and religious precepts.

ALEXANDER G. CUMMINS.

[Rector Christ Church.]
Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

¹See THE SURVEY, February 17, pp. 1756, 1788.

TWO CORRECTIONS

TWELVE-YEAR STATES

TO THE EDITOR:

I am quoted in THE SURVEY of February 10¹ as having said in my recent pamphlet on Child Labor in Virginia that "Virginia, Georgia, and Arkansas are now the only states which permit children as young as twelve years to work in manufacturing plants."

Unfortunately, this is not true, and what I said in the pamphlet was this: "Among Southern states, Virginia, Georgia, and Arkansas are now the only ones which allow such an exemption, most of the states which have tried it having given it up." That is what is known as the poverty exemption clause in the child labor law. We count Virginia and Arkansas among the fourteen-year states. The states having the twelve year age-limit, excluding one or two that have such an age-limit only during the short school vacation, are Maryland, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, and Mississippi.

A. J. MCKELWAY.

Washington.

SALE OF SEALS IN CLEVELAND

TO THE EDITOR:

Will you permit me to correct some statements that appeared in a report in THE SURVEY² of the annual meeting of the National Consumers' League in New Haven?

The article in question states that in Cleveland Red Cross Seals had become an obstacle to early closing, because the local committee for the sale of Red Cross seals had acquiesced in the argument of the merchants that the longer the stores could be open the more seals could be sold and that our "shop early" campaigns were, therefore, a failure.

While it is true that in previous years the seals have been on sale until ten and half-past ten o'clock in the "open evenings" stores, this year, at a meeting held December 8, the Cleveland committee for the sale of seals unanimously agreed that the sale should be discontinued in all the stores at six o'clock. Chairmen who had the placing of seals in the stores were instructed to this effect and asked to notify storekeepers that this action was taken because the committee felt that the conditions which exist in the stores where girls work more than ten hours a day are the very conditions which tend to produce, in no small degree, the disease which the sale of seals is helping to combat.

I should consider it untrue to say that the sale of seals had ever been an obstacle to early closing or that the failure of our "shop-early" campaigns had ever hinged upon the evening sale of Red Cross Seals. The reasons for that failure form quite another story.

¹See THE SURVEY, February 10, page 1724.²See THE SURVEY, February 10, page 1727. The report was incorrect also with respect to the Red Cross seal campaign in Portland, Ore., according to a telegram received from Mrs. Willis R. Trumbull.

The continued cooperation of the Association for the Prevention and Study of Tuberculosis and of the committee in charge of the sale of seals, in the effort to secure better hours, would undoubtedly have great influence. Only the aroused public sentiment of a whole community, however, can make a success of an early shopping campaign and secure its object, which is early closing.

MYRTA L. JONES.

[President Ohio Consumers' League.]
Cleveland.

JOTTINGS

FIRST PUBLIC MEETING ON EFFICIENCY

On March 18 and 19 the Society for Promoting Efficiency, whose membership has passed the 600 mark, will hold its first public meeting in New York city. The permanent program is not yet ready, but the five sessions will cover the discussion not only of the general principles of efficiency and its relation to employer, employee, and public, but detailed study of individual manufacturing establishments, groups of establishments, and whole industries; efficiency in government works from various points of view; efficiency in management, including financing an enterprise, and efficiency in various departments of a single establishment, covering the departments of advertising, purchasing, production, record, and cost, as well as consideration of the human element and industrial education. Fuller information can be obtained from the secretary, H. F. J. Porter, Metropolitan Building, New York.

PROBATION CONFERENCES

Nine public meetings on probation work are to be held under the auspices of the state probation commission in the City Hall, New York, on Thursday and Friday evenings from March 7 to April 4, inclusive. The meetings will follow the general lines of the New York conferences so successfully conducted by the commission last spring. Each meeting will be addressed by three or four speakers, after which it will be thrown open for informal questioning and discussion.

The speakers at the opening session will be Homer Folks, president of the State Probation Commission, Julius M. Mayer, a member of the Criminal Courts Committee of the Charity Organization Society and formerly counsel for the Page Commission, and Chief Magistrate William McAdoo. The subjects of the meetings, given in order, will be as follows: the history, purposes, and spirit of probation; the legal aspects of probation; investigation of adult defendants; investigation of children; looking after and aiding adult probationers; looking after and aiding children; special problems in adult probation work; special problems in juvenile probation work; co-operation of probation officers with other agencies.

THE COMMON WELFARE

NATIONAL MENTAL HYGIENE STUDY

A recent gift of \$50,000 by a donor who desires his name withheld for the present has made it possible for the National Committee for Mental Hygiene to inaugurate a movement likely to prove of vast utility. It is also announced that the same donor will give an additional \$50,000 toward a permanent endowment fund as soon as \$200,000 more has been secured. Plans for a movement such as this gift makes possible have been carefully prepared during the last four years and it has been determined to take stock of the nation's facilities for the commitment and care of the insane; to study the needs of the insane, both before commitment and afterward, carefully and at close range; to determine if possible how far local conditions must affect standards of care; to examine and compare different methods of care and treatment; and to encourage the formation in a number of states of allied but independent societies with similar aims to those of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene.

A special sub-committee, of which Dr. William L. Russell, superintendent of Bloomingdale Hospital, is chairman, has been formed to begin the work outlined and an office has been opened in the Germania Life Building, 50 Union Square, New York city. Dr. Thomas W. Salmon of the United States Public Health and Marine-Hospital Service, who has been granted leave of absence by the government to undertake this work, has been engaged to conduct the studies.

The insane are reliably estimated to outnumber all other sick persons cared for in hospitals at public expense. Every year sees a great increase of cases of insanity coming under treatment and an increase in the enormous sums expended for their care; yet practically no efforts are being made by state authorities to control the preventable causes of insanity or even to make adequate

inquiries into the conditions which influence the prevalence of mental disorders.

Moreover, although standards for the care of other sick people do not vary in different localities, a wide variation in standards for the care of the insane is seen to exist. Tuberculous patients are cared for in substantially the same way at Saranac, at Denver, at Asheville, and in Europe; but, in this country standards for the care of the insane vary from jury trial and confinement with criminals and those suspected of crime, in one state, to emergency commitment and hospital care in another. Cumbersome methods of commitment and almost incredible indifference on the part of the public permit large numbers of the insane to remain in their homes until they "do something," and then it is largely a matter of chance or of the prevailing sentiment in a given community that determines whether they shall be treated as criminals or as sick people for whom hospital care has been deferred much too long. Where defects in the methods of care have been recognized efforts at reform have often been inaugurated without full information regarding what has already been attempted; and plans are often given a trial in one state without ascertaining whether they have failed in another. On the other hand, methods of the greatest value are in successful operation in some hospitals and yet are quite unknown in others.

The inauguration, therefore, of such a movement on behalf of the insane is a national event and one, which will undoubtedly receive general cooperation. The newly elected officers are:

President, Dr. Llewellyn F. Barker of Johns Hopkins University;

Vice-presidents, Dr. William H. Welch of Johns Hopkins Medical School; Dr. Charles P. Bancroft, superintendent of the New Hampshire State Hospital, Concord, N. H.;

Treasurer, Otto T. Bannard, president of the New York Trust Company;

Chairman of the executive committee, Dr. George Blumer, dean of the Yale Medical School;

Chairman of the finance committee, Prof. Russell H. Chittenden, director of Sheffield Scientific School of Yale University; Secretary, Clifford W. Beers, organizer of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene.

THE NEW YORK FACTORY¹ INVESTIGATING COMMISSION

On March 6, Governor Dix signed the bill extending the life of the New York Factory Investigating Commission and appropriating \$60,000 for the continuance of its inquiry into conditions affecting life and health in the factories of the state. While the legislation was pending the commission made its preliminary report, based on the inquiries which it has carried forward in the brief period since its appointment and organization in the early fall. It inquired into twenty lines of manufacture (out of 248 in the state), 1,836 industrial establishments being visited by its inspectors. All but two hundred of these plants were in the city of New York, the remainder, for the most part, being in Rochester, Syracuse, Utica, Schenectady, and Troy.

In cities of the first and second class, according to statistics from the census report of 1910, 856,196 persons were employed in manufactures, and it is in behalf of these, as well as of the 147,785 factory workers in the smaller towns of the state, that the report says:

The state not only possesses the power and the right, but it is charged with the sacred duty, of seeing that the worker is properly safeguarded in case of fire; that he is protected from accidents caused by neglect or indifference; that proper precautions are taken to prevent poisoning by the materials and processes of his industry; and that he works under conditions conducive to good health, and not such as breed disease.

Six specific matters are included in the view of the commission, making it in scope perhaps the broadest governmental inquiry into industry which we have had in America:

¹ The members of the commission are Robert F. Wagner, chairman, Democratic leader in the state senate; Senator Charles M. Hamilton, Assemblymen Alfred E. Smith, Edward D. Jackson, and Cyrus W. Phillips; and the governor's appointees, Simon Brentano, merchant and student of fire hazards, Robert E. Dowling, architect, Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor, and Mary E. Dreier, president of the New York Women's Trade Union League. Abram I. Elkus has acted as chief counsel to the commission and Bernard L. Shlenting as his assistant.

Hazard to life because of fire: covering fire prevention, inadequate fire-escapes and exits, number of persons employed in factories and lofts, arrangement of machinery, fire drills, etc.

Danger to life and health because of unsanitary conditions: ventilation, lighting and heating arrangement, hours of labor, etc.

Occupational diseases: industrial consumption, lead poisoning, bone diseases, etc.

Proper and adequate inspection of factories and manufacturing establishments.

Manufacturing in tenement houses.

The present statutes and ordinances that deal with or relate to the foregoing matters, and the extent to which the present laws are enforced.

With this range of exacting problems before it, spread out over industrial establishments so numerous as never to have been listed by the public authorities, with less than half a year in which to carry forward its field work, the extent to which the commission could delve into underlying conditions was obviously very circumscribed. This was especially illustrated in its up-state tour, where its handful of investigators and brief hearings may have given a jolt to various local authorities in the cities visited, but scarcely got beneath the surface. In the early winter the opinion was expressed in a number of quarters that a more effective employment of the commission's meagre time and funds (\$10,000, which was stretched to \$20,000 by incurring indebtednesses that must be met out of the new appropriation) would have been to center along one or two lines, such as factory fire prevention (the Asch fire was the immediate cause of the commission's appointment). The policy actually adopted was to broach the whole range of problems, to appeal for greater funds and time for a more thorough inquiry into the needs thus disclosed, and to make immediate recommendations on points where convincing data is already in hand. For while, in covering its wide range of interests, the commission's hearings left a haphazard impression, it was fortunate in enlisting the service of two experts, who applied standards based on experience to special fields of inquiry, and fortunate in enlisting the cooperation of private agencies.

In pursuing its inquiry into these mat-

ters, the commissioners held fourteen public hearings and fifteen executive sessions. Their investigations into sanitary conditions under the direction of Dr. George W. Price covered the following industries:

Printing, tobacco, chemicals, bread, candy, ice-cream, pickles, spices and drugs, sugar refineries, mineral waters, meat packing, artificial flowers, paper boxes, clothing, corks, rags, textiles, human hair, cleaning and dyeing.

This general work on sanitation was supplemented by special investigations of bakeries and of trades employing a large proportion of women; by an investigation of tenement work by the National Child Labor Committee; and by the voluntary investigations of Pauline Goldmark of the Bureau of Social Research into sanitary conditions in manufacturing establishments in a selected area in New York city, and of E. E. Pratt into lead poisoning.

REGISTRATION OF FACTORIES

Considering first the present labor laws and factory inspection, the commission finds that both are inadequate, and advocates the compulsory registration of all factories as a first step toward better control of working conditions by the Department of Labor. At the present time, says the report, "factory inspectors testify that they have no way of locating factories except by chance."

Under the present laws certain goods made in tenement factories and home work where conditions are unsanitary may be tagged "unclean" by the state inspectors. The commission would extend the use of the "unclean" tag from the articles at present specified to all articles made in such factories or homes.

On the general subject of sanitation, covering as it does cleanliness, toilet and washing facilities, ventilation, heating, lighting, and the disposal of dust and fumes, the only recommendation at present given is that proper hoods and pipes connected with an exhaust fan shall be provided and kept in use to free work-rooms from steam, gas vapors, dust, or other impurities.

As a first step in preventing occupa-

tional poisoning, amendments are urged to Section 88 of the labor law, providing for ample washing facilities with hot water and individual towels and prohibiting eating in the work-room.

To meet the special problem of unsanitary bakeries, three laws are urged: for licensing food factories by the Departments of Labor and Health jointly; for regulating and inspecting such establishments by the local Board of Health or Commissioner of Public Safety; and for prohibiting for the future the location of food factories in cellars.

The report gives special attention to women's labor, and recommends the prohibition of employment for four weeks after child-birth. It would amend Section 17 of the labor law providing seats in factories, specifying the kind of seat and extending the provision to seats during work, where the process is adaptable to a sitting posture.

In regard to child labor the commission notes with approval a growing tendency on the part of the New York city Board of Health to refuse work-certificates on account of physical deficiency, and urges legislation providing that no certificates be issued without a thorough examination and approval of each candidate by the local Board of Health, the record of the examination to be filed with the Commissioner of Labor.

A series of special provisions suggested by the Molders' Union are urged for the prevention of accidents and occupational diseases in foundries.

FACTORIES AND FIRES

The recommendations for legislation in regard to factory fire conditions are based primarily on the report of the commission's expert, H. F. J. Porter, and on the advice of officials in building and fire departments. They cover such simple precautions for fire prevention as fire-proof receptacles for rubbish, the screening of gas-jets, and the prohibition of smoking; for rapid exit, the plain marking of exits, the arrangement of operatives and machinery so as to allow free passage, and the compulsory installing of fire drills where more than twenty-five persons are employed above

the first floor; for checking the spread of fire, the requiring of wired glass in windows and doors leading to outside fire-escapes and of automatic sprinklers in buildings over seven stories high in which wooden floors or trim are used and more than two hundred persons are employed above the seventh floor.

Further requirements involving in some cases minor structural changes are also urged. These set the minimum width of exits at three feet, where more than twenty-five persons are employed on a floor, provide free access to fire-escapes by steps to the window-sill where the height from the floor exceeds two and a half feet, and call for doors that either slide or open outward, and for the enclosure of all wooden stairways in buildings where more than fifty persons are employed above the first floor.

While placing little dependence on outside fire-escapes, the commission makes recommendations tending to make existing fire-escapes more useful. These are the placing of goose-neck ladders from top-floor balconies to roofs; the replacing of the present drop-ladders to the ground by balanced ladders; and the provision of an unobstructed passage from the bottom of the escapes to the street. It urges that these changes should be installed within six months after appropriate legislation. For the making of more serious structural changes the commission would allow a year.

For the most part, the major structural recommendations represent a well-defined effort to make occupancy the basis of fire standards with respect to floor-space, number and size of exits, and the provision of automatic means of extinguishment. The recommendations covering these matters are briefly:

There shall be thirty-six feet of floor space for each individual on a floor in non-fireproof factory buildings, thirty-two in fireproof buildings. On the basis of exit facilities, fourteen persons may be allowed for every eighteen inches width of stairway, and where landing places are separated by fire-proof partitions from lofts or manufacturing places additional persons may be allowed. So, too, where fire-walls with door or outside balconies leading to other buildings are provided, further persons may be allowed in proportion to the size

of the openings in the fire-wall. Double the number of persons proportioned to stair space may be permitted where an approved automatic sprinkler is installed on every floor, but in no case is the number on any floor to exceed the number that can be accommodated with the minimum of thirty-two feet of floor space per person in a fire-proof, thirty-six in a non-fireproof, building.

All buildings hereafter to be constructed for manufacturing purposes, the commission feels, should be fireproof if more than two stories in height and to be occupied by more than twenty-five persons. Social workers generally regard this fire program put out by the Factory Investigating Commission as a great step forward. To their minds not the least instrumental factor in bringing it about has been the presence on the commission of Mary E. Dreier, president of the New York Women's Trade Union League, which led in arousing public opinion to the fire hazards of the women workers of Manhattan, following the Triangle holocaust of a year ago. The work of the Committee of Safety has been directed toward the same ends.

In regard to both fire and sanitary conditions the commission suggests lines along which it hopes to recommend more drastic legislation at the end of its second term, following more complete inquiries. The full report containing the text of all special reports and of the proposed laws will be issued shortly.

THE CUTTING LECTURES ON CHURCH AND SOCIETY

The Church and Society was the timely subject for this year's Kennedy Lectures at the New York School of Philanthropy, and R. Fulton Cutting's six lectures¹ on this subject have attracted more than usual interest. They have been given during the Lenten season, but, in a larger sense than that, they have been timely in the sense that they have been delivered at a juncture when, in a hundred ways, the churches are prompted to social service. The lecturer laid hold of his subject from a rare coign

¹ Following the usual custom in the case of the Kennedy Lectures, these lectures will appear shortly in book form and will contain some additional material in further elaboration of concrete illustrations of church activities in social work which Mr. Cutting was unable to embody in the lectures proper.

of vantage: as vestryman of St. George's (the church which Dr. Rainsford long ago made a social force in New York), as president of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, as former president of the Citizens' Union, and as one of the founders of the Bureau of Municipal Research, to mention but four fields of activity—church, philanthropy, militant political reform, and the movement for governmental efficiency—in which Mr. Cutting has conspicuously led.

Beginning with the Church and Civilization, which was the topic of the first lecture, and ending with the closing lecture last Friday, on the Church and Public Opinion, Mr. Cutting has treated his subject as a representative churchman and yet as an unbiased critic who, by reason of his large experience in public affairs and private philanthropy, has proved a more severe critic than some of the avowed enemies of the church. For this reason, it is probable that his lectures will serve to stimulate the vast army of more or less loosely organized philanthropic and potentially social individuals embraced in church membership throughout the country to make church social work more efficient.

For over a year Mr. Cutting has been collecting concrete instances of what the churches are doing throughout the country in their relation to four different groups of social needs and activities: the public school, the police, public health, and child-helping agencies. Each of these furnished the topic for a single lecture.

Mr. Cutting emphasized the possibility of the cooperation of the church in the work of the public school, not through direct institutional participation, but through personal relations with teachers and supplementary efforts to make public education an institution for the cultivation of moral individuality as well as of intellectual development. There are few professions the followers of which may be expected to be more responsive to friendly cooperation than that of teaching. By friendliness, sympathy, encouragement, and cooperation, the church may help the teacher sow seeds of idealism in youth and impress upon the plas-

tic clay of childhood the mould of moral symmetry.

The policeman, to Mr. Cutting's mind, no less than the teacher, demands from the church an attitude of stronger personal cooperation. The chief of police in Toledo answered a question as to whether he had received any help from the local clergy by saying: "No help, only complaints." In the definite work of social regulation, especially in cities with their new problems, more than the policeman's club is needed; and back of the individual policeman more than the organization of a city police force is needed. Churches might form a network of effective cooperation of the most intimate kind with the police in the suppression of crime and in the regulation of a host of matters in the borderland of crime.

CHURCH COMMITTEES ON POLICE WORK

Speaking of the ideal relation between the church and the police—assuming that the former is sufficiently intelligent not to demand a revolution, and the latter amenable to reason—the Christian people of a community, said Mr. Cutting, should have a committee on policing, its members on terms of social intimacy with both the superior and subordinate officers of the force, the various churches establishing such a relationship with the representatives of the force detailed to their immediate neighborhood. This committee would be organized with an experienced social worker as its executive officer, and would be large enough to provide for sub-committees on the law, places of amusement, gambling, the social evil, juvenile delinquents, the saloon, the jail, relief. It would have big brothers and big sisters. The head of the force would make frequent reports to the mayor for publication, tabulated so as to make the statistics illuminating, enabling the committee and public to gauge the value of the methods employed to promote virtue and to repress vice.

The triumphs of preventive medicine on the one hand and the missionary character of organized effort to reduce the death rate on the other make Mr. Cutting think that a health campaign

is an essential part of Christianity, and that the church needs to supplement its efforts to ameliorate suffering, through the hospital and the nurse that it now recognizes as a part of its duty to supply, and the burying of the victims of disease, by a campaign for the extermination of disease. Such a campaign is a logical outcome of the historical position taken by the church.

In dealing with children and the problems of childhood, Mr. Cutting emphasized particularly the handicaps of city life and the exploitation of children through child labor. He laid great emphasis upon the need for organized protest, backed by the church, taking form in legislation on these points. He pointed also to the opportunity of the church to provide directly for larger opportunities for recreation.

Throughout the treatment of all of these topics, the underlying and connecting thought of the course has been that the churches of all denominations represent the physical organization of a moral force in the community that must be socialized and directed to meet the social needs of the community. In order to do this, more information is needed; systematic investigation and study of the social changes taking place is a necessary first step and one which it is possible for the church to take at once without inaugurating any revolutionary changes in their policy of administration.

MUNICIPAL HOSPITAL FOR CAPITAL CITY

The national capital is going through its annual throes over the appropriation bill for the District of Columbia, and this year the storm center pivots around the hospitals.

Washington's city hospital is an inadequate, inaccessible institution which has long been familiarly known as the "jail" hospital because of its close proximity to the jail and because it has cared for sick prisoners. Of the four institutions which were grouped at the eastern extreme of the city, the work-house, the almshouse, the jail, and the city hospital, the first two have been recently moved to appropriate sites and adequate quarters;

and last summer the jail was transferred from the jurisdiction of the Department of Justice to that of the District commissioners. At the same time the hospital was officially combined with the jail. Because of the very natural prejudice which deters most people from entering a penal institution, the result has been that the over-taxed old-fashioned buildings have not been serving and do not now serve many of the sick poor who need hospital treatment. The Board of Charities of the District of Columbia therefore advocates building a new municipal hospital to contain only free wards and to be situated north of the city, adjacent to the Municipal Tuberculosis Hospital, at 14th and Upshur streets. For this purpose the board has asked for \$60,000 as a start on the total of \$300,000 estimated to be required for the new building. At the same time, two private institutions, one an emergency, the other a woman's hospital, have come requesting large sums from the District for rebuilding. To the requests of the private hospitals the Board of Charities is strongly opposed.

The emergency hospital stands on ground originally given to it by the District. Recently, when the structure was found to interfere with the city's new park plan, the building and ground were condemned; and the latter was bought back by the District at a greatly increased price. Opponents of the appropriation to the private hospital believe that within the year the building will be torn down, and that its directors wish the new District money to rebuild elsewhere. Similarly, these opponents state that the Columbia Hospital building is so old that repair would be a waste of time and money, and that the directors want District funds to enable them to erect new quarters.

Advocates of the appropriations, on the other hand, argue that failure to receive public money means the possible dissolution of two old established institutions. It is perhaps not unnatural, therefore, that the doctors of Washington, the Board of Trade, Lady Visitors, hundreds of ex-patients, and dozens of women's clubs should speak for the pri-

vate institutions. And in their appeals they seem to have the sentiment of the community back of them, their cause being the more popular because of its continued reiteration in the public prints, from the platform, and from the pulpit, while the Board of Charities reserves all expression of opinion on the matter for congressional hearings.

Enemies of the board protest that the private institutions all have free wards into which they receive the sick poor on a pro rata basis of payment from the city. It is answered, however, that they overlook the many cases of a character that private hospitals are loath to take and for which properly equipped cities provide in a municipal institution. The board's critics also plead the need of isolation of maternity and gynecological cases, but it is answered again that Garfield and Georgetown are prepared to take this class of patients into isolated wards or separate buildings. Again they protest that the emergency service is necessary to the city, and the answer is ready that two other hospitals are doing emergency work and a third is equipped and willing to add an ambulance as soon as the city is ready to send them this class of cases.

Many minor aspects of the discussion only complicate the issue, but out of them all seem to emerge certain facts: that the need of a municipal hospital is of paramount importance; that Washington has many small private hospitals, a situation which usually implies a wasteful duplication of separate wards and of facilities for specialists; and that the city has fallen into the habit of giving too much support to private institutions—a system which is recognized by students of the subject all over the country as bad.

The Board of Charities, with a membership of five representative citizens including Jew and Gentile, Catholic and Protestant, physician and layman, was organized twelve years ago, after an era of politics be-ridden administration of public institutions. Its recommendations are the result of a careful study of the subject in Washington and other cities. The critics of the board do not lay claim

to a like dispassionate, extended study of the situation. Moreover, it is interesting to note that while the news columns of the papers have been full of the hospital subject, with one exception, they have ignored it editorially, indicating possibly a real sympathy, after all, with the unpopular recommendations of the Board of Charities.

FOR A JUST INDUSTRIAL PEACE

ALLEN T. BURNS

Washington Representative Committee
on Industrial Relations

A just industrial peace was the keynote of all the three days' sessions of the twelfth annual meeting of the National Civic Federation at Washington, March 5-7. Industrial peace by way of justice to public, employer, and employe shot through every feature of this gathering of business, labor, political, and professional leaders of the nation. By way of interesting association, the meeting fittingly opened in the building of the Pan-American Union, the cap stones of whose four corners carry the legend "Peace"; and, while the conference was in session, the United States Senate was considering the epoch-making peace treaties with England and France. Cardinal Gibbons, as presiding officer of the first session, sounded a prophetic and patriarchal call to promote the benedictions of good-will in the wage world. The meeting fittingly closed with the challenge by President Seth Low to corporations to conduct business on the principle of service to the common weal.

No diletante, sentimental justice was that urged as the only sure foundation for industrial peace. A few philanthropic frills added to the leisure hours of manual toilers was never advocated or even mentioned as solution of the recognizedly most acute of modern problems, industrial relations. Justice must be human, vital, comprehending every relation of employer and employe, in order to incarnate the newer dream of those whose older dream of international peace is becoming a corporeal verity.

The most promising step toward this goal was suggested by Judge Martin A.

Knapp, president-judge of the Court of Commerce. He advocated that, whatever the way found for the nation to regulate corporations doing an interstate business, it should include a provision that industrial disputes in these companies be subject to such mediation and arbitration provisions as the Erdman Act now extends to interstate railroads. The successful operation of this act in the last five years was the sign of brightest portent that a practical method of industrial peace in the large corporations can be devised. Friendly mediation rather than arbitration, compulsory or voluntary, seemed to give the greatest promise, on the basis of this new American triumph in social statesmanship.¹

This one field of inquiry was presented so compellingly as alone to justify the proposed Federal Commission on Industrial Relations. So when the added argument of a three days' continuous consideration of the industrial problem emphasized the insistent character of the labor situation, the federation readily and unanimously voted its endorsement of the Hughes-Borah Bill to establish such an inquiry.

It is hardly possible to convey the conviction permeating the whole meeting that the industrial problem has reached a crisis demanding instant treatment. President Low's entire annual address was given over to the subject, in spite of the varied fields of the federation's many departments. He reviewed the year's development in the industrial struggle. The course of events, he held, had brought the nation face to face with the inevitable alternative of the constructive conserving labor leadership which promotes trade agreements between combinations of capitalists and combinations of wage workers, and the destructive, revolutionary, almost leaderless mass movement of unreason and violence.

The McNamara case, the Lawrence strike, and the unsuccessful attempt to put the American Federation of Labor on record in favor of a class struggle were the features he cited in this critical

¹This address of Judge Knapp was so full of stimulating matter for thought that it will be reviewed by Mr. Burns, together with the report of the Federal Bureau of Labor on the same subject, in the April magazine number of THE SURVEY.

year. The Atlanta convention of the American Federation of Labor voted almost two to one against the "class-conscious" resolution. But the burning question, he held, is whether the employing corporations will drive labor to this extreme position by denying to labor the same rights and advantages for securing its welfare as every stockholder of every corporation claims and enjoys. This crucial point is labor's right to combine. Unsparingly Mr. Low arraigned the inconsistency and unreasonableness of the capitalists who combine to secure the advantages and power of corporate organizations, and who deny the same right to employes. Provision for effective organization and collective bargaining of workers was urged as the only way of escape from an industrial revolution.

Samuel Gompers was praised as the able leader of American workmen, who stands as the bulwark against the destructive forces and maintains that the interests of capital and labor are neither identical nor mutually exclusive but reconcilable. His responsibility for such enormities as the McNamara dynamiting was pointed out as no more than that of the president of the United States for a local lynching or a perfidious act of a state legislature.

The closed-shop demand was explained as a natural reaction from a so-called open shop, which actually means a shop closed against union men. Full recognition of the right to organize will create an equal recognition of men's right to work outside the union's ranks.

A practical demonstration of the trade agreement as the basis for industrial peace logically followed the presidential address. William E. Fitzgerald, vice-president of the International Association of Amalgamated Street Railway Employes, told the story of the satisfactory relations almost universal where street railway companies follow the policy of dealing with the union organization.

Similar testimony from the employer's side was borne by H. M. Kellogg, chairman of the labor committee of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association, and C. G. Norman, chairman of the board of governors of the New York Building Trades Employers' Association.

Each detailed arrangements for settling disputes which had worked for a decade or more.

Next in importance to the subject of industrial relations was the discussion of industrial accident compensation. This was led by Senator George Sutherland, chairman of the federal commission which has recently reported to Congress the compulsory compensation bill for employers of interstate railroads.¹ H. M. Wills, legislative representative of the railroad brotherhoods, discussed the measure, stating that he had visited England and Germany to study the workings of compulsory compensation and found the pending bill to embrace, to his mind, all the good features and to have eliminated all the impracticable features of the systems in those countries. Paul E. Page and C. A. Pratt of the Washington Commission on Compensation explained the satisfactory operation of their new state law.

There was unanimous advocacy of the compulsory principle as the only method to secure justice for accident victims. And the deprecation of the decision of the New York Court of Appeals against the New York law was just as united. Such a law was urged as an absolute necessity for convincing workers that the government insists on justice for them—as a monument that working relations must be based on complete justice to the exclusion of alleviative charity.

A fitting supplement to this discussion was the graphic presentation of the modern movement for safety. Hugh Faulkner described the methods of the Remington Typewriter Company, and Lucian W. Cheney of the Bureau of Labor the advances of the United States Steel Corporation. Both speakers emphasized the greater importance of generating the "safety sense" among officers and men than of relying on mechanical devices, and exhibited schemes of remarkable ingenuity in this direction.

Such a thorough canvass of the field of industrial accidents led naturally to the federation's endorsement of the Sutherland bill.

A conference on industrial justice,

meeting at the national capital, would have been almost a mockery had not the relation of the government to its employes been given ample consideration. This was up at two sessions, one on civil service pensions and the other on methods of securing redress of grievances.

The question of pensions was warmly debated. Congressman Frederick H. Gillett advocated a system of forced contribution by all employes of the entire amount necessary to retire them at the age of seventy on three-fourths pay. He has embodied his ideas in a bill now pending. Andrew W. McKee, president of the United States Civil Service Retirement Association, vigorously opposed the system. He contended that railroads, industrial concerns, and foreign governments all recognized the principle of employers' liability for partial provision for old age. His organization stands unitedly for a system of equal contributions by government and employes. The federation took no action but referred the question to committee.

The stormiest session was devoted to the discussion of redress of government employes' grievances. This became largely a discussion of the executive orders of Presidents Roosevelt and Taft against political activity, freedom of association, and right of petition to Congress of civil service employes. These orders were ably defended by Second Assistant Postmaster General Joseph Stewart. But the attacks of Congressman James T. Lloyd and Samuel Gompers against this invasion of constitutional rights were convincing and received with approval by the audience. Both sides agreed that a government strike was intolerable. The effect of their argument was immensely strengthened by the report of the House Committee on Post Office the previous day, recommending a law to repeal this "gag" order.¹

Thus is the justice for which our forefathers sought this continent gaining tardy recognition, in life relations which have sprung up faster than the social conscience has broadened to demand prosperity for all and special privilege for none.

¹See THE SURVEY, March 2, 1912.

¹See THE SURVEY, August 5, 1911.

TAKING STOCK IN NEW YORK'S FACTORIES

LILLIAN D. WALD
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Members Joint Board of Sanitary Control of
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The preliminary report of the State Factory Investigation Commission is a creditable beginning of a work which will fortunately be continued during the coming year.

The limited appropriation and the short time allotted the commission to present its preliminary report prevented it from making an adequate study of many important phases of factory conditions in the state. Only the fringes of the subject could be touched, but the commission assembled suggestive data not only through the able assistance of its own experts, Dr. George M. Price and H. F. J. Porter, but also through the generous cooperation of expert social workers who are proving themselves more and more to be the industrial statesmen of the day.

The commission's treatment of fire hazards in factory buildings and its remedial suggestions for the safety of the workers represent a distinct contribution to the subject. What is most significant and worthy of notice in these recommendations is the attempt to gauge the number of exits and means of egress in a factory by the number of workers employed there, and to make permission to increase the number of people at work in the factory dependent upon prevailing conditions of safety. That the commission has faced this central and radical solution of the safety problem is gratifying even though it could not as yet elaborate the details. If the Asch fire will do for factory construction what the Iroquois theater fire accomplished for theater construction—make an unsafe factory impossible by compelling the architects to provide exit facilities and means of escape proportionate to the number of people employed—then the Washington Place fire victims did not die in vain. Why delay the enactment of these recommendations into law? There is time during this session to secure legislative relief.

The recommendation of the commission that all new factories over two stories in height in which more than twenty-five persons are employed should be fire-proof will meet with general approval. The state Building Code promised in the commission's final report will contribute materially to the safety of the workers outside of New York city, in cities where conditions are even more hazardous than in New York.

The investigation into sanitary conditions of factories was more inclusive than intensive. An exception was made with the bakeries. The medical examination of 800 bakers revealed such uncanny facts concerning their physical condition that no one will dispute the necessity for licensing every factory where food is prepared for public consumption. Though existing cellar bakeries can not be reached, retroactively, it is hoped that through a strict enforcement of sanitary standards by the Department of Health they will soon become a nightmare of the past.

The registration of existing and new factories is imperative, for the prime requisite for effective factory regulation is a system of effective registration.

Under its new lease of life, the public expects from the commission, among other things, a study of home industry, scientific and authoritative, which can be used as a basis for remedial legislation. Though the commission's reference to the work of the labor department is meager, the report displays some insight into the difficulties of factory regulation under the present organization of the State Bureau of Labor, with its small appropriation, its inadequate equipment of inspectors, its incomplete machinery, and the comparatively narrow limitation of its functions.

The commission can render no more effective service to the cause of factory regulation than by making a thorough study of the organization of the state labor bureau and the scope of its activities. With this study as a basis, it would be in position to suggest a comprehensive policy of labor legislation enforcement and administration which would probably culminate in a re-codification of the present labor laws. With such

a comprehensive plan of organization for the Department of Labor, it ought not to be difficult to secure the acquiescence of the public in a liberal appropriation for this department commensurate with the importance of its activities and responsibilities.

The recommendation that women should be prohibited from employment within four weeks after childbirth should be supplemented by an inquiry looking to the protection of women workers during pregnancy. The motherhood insurance clauses in the Lloyd George Bill contain some effective provisions which the commission can consider with profit.

The preliminary report is a creditable beginning. It is a promise of a fulfillment which is eagerly awaited.

With a liberal appropriation, with a host of social workers equipped with training and experience ready to give generous cooperation, the commission is facing a big responsibility and an opportunity to submit an epoch-making report of national influence. This is possible if rigid standards of efficiency in the investigation are projected.

THE CLOD STIRS

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Both the flash on the surface of the Lawrence situation and its real essence have a national significance. A population situation has been created, as the foil of one of the three or four chief and in all respects most typical American industries, which inevitably became a tinder-box inviting the spark of anarchy. The immediate reaction of the community against the flash was weakened and distorted by the fact that the local population problem had come to mean an almost paralyzed city government. In the effort to get to the underlying facts and chances of solution, many responsible citizens of Massachusetts as well as the officers of the state have found themselves inexpressibly baffled by the lack of coherence in the whole human side of Lawrence industrialism, including the rift among the officials of the different companies.

The recent and rapid building up of a

new group of great textile factories has led to the incoming of a larger proportion of immigrants from Southern and Southeastern Europe and Asia Minor than are found in other New England factory cities. The anomaly of protection for commerce and free trade for labor has at this point reached its height. While some effort has been made to provide suitable housing accommodations for this new labor force, on the whole it has simply taken what it could find. Overcrowding has even reached the point where four families will each have a room on a floor, using a fifth room as a common kitchen. The highest average of weekly wages that has been quoted is \$9.25, including all grades of skill in the mill. The average wage of the unskilled operatives is probably not over \$7.25.

It is the truth that the people have been living on these wages and putting money by. The chief exception to this statement would be a small proportion of English families who have come over during the recent period of expansion, and who testify that it has been more difficult to maintain their way of life under Lawrence wages than it was with what they received in Lancashire. The fundamentally serious aspect of the situation is that the lowest scale of European and even Asiatic living has been actually getting itself established on a going basis in New England, becoming inwrought into the very texture of the eastern Massachusetts community. It is said, of course, that other immigrant nationalities have begun on a low basis and risen to American levels in the second generation. But this has been where the American leaven has had every chance to work; not where tens of thousands were fixing and crystallizing their to us impossible standards in compact and congested immigrant masses, far away from anything like adequate recuperative forces.

The situation is clearly one that is not helped by mutual recrimination among those who are responsible; and it is clearly a case where all sorts of resourceful people are responsible. The officials who direct the policy of the mills, bringing every last touch of attention and ingenuity into the administrative and technical phases of their work, have

thought of the building up of domestic and community well-being as apart from their problem. The stockholders in the mills, many of whom are among the most genuinely public-spirited people in the communities where they live, have not intellectually penetrated to the problem of those who are really in such close economic bonds with them. The trade unionists say that for years every beginning that they have made in the Lawrence mills has been instantly stamped upon by the mill superintendents and their subordinates. The higher officials of the companies say that their attitude has been one of neutrality in this matter. Probably it was another case of the chief not knowing all that his lieutenants were doing. In any case, it is true that the English-speaking labor men have not been urged by such a missionary zeal toward the recent immigrants as should have been theirs, on human grounds no more than on the basis of sound association among the whole labor force. So far as specific social work is concerned, while Lawrence is quite well equipped for relief service, the city is in other ways surely ten years behind present obvious needs. It ought to be said in fairness, however, that there has been under way during the past year a social survey of Lawrence, undertaken by the trustees of a local fund, with the purpose of leading to progressive measures of betterment.

The strike began in an almost casual way, though it is said that one of the strike leaders now in jail was in Lawrence last summer planning for a strike when the fifty-four hour law should go into effect in January. When it was finally clear from the pay envelopes that the week's income was to be reduced in proportion to the reduction in working time from fifty-six to fifty-four hours, a small number of men undertook impulsively to strike. The contagion spread from group to group, and from one nationality to another. The Industrial Workers of the World, representing the "direct action" or revolutionary wing of the Socialists, had a membership of a few hundred. They sent for Joseph Ettor, one of their national leaders.

Ettor is a young Italian of peculiar magnetism who was able soon to secure the adherence of something like 20,000

employees of the mills. The capacity of this great host of recent immigrants, representing a number of supposedly alienated nationalities, for continuous, effective solidarity is one of the revelations of the present strike which may have a most serious meaning in other great industrial centers. And in speaking of the first manifestation in the eastern states of thorough-going industrial socialism as a superficial flash, I do not ignore the necessity of anticipating a possible widespread conflagration from this source.

Before the strike had fully disclosed its strength Ettor was arrested and held without bail on the ground that inflammatory utterances of his had made him accessory to the death of a woman who was shot. The serious doubt as to the validity of the legal process under which Ettor was held, the belief that the militia at one or two points has acted arbitrarily, and the disapproval of the attitude of the police authorities in forbidding the sending away of some of the children have all been quite generally felt. Yet the community in general is strongly inclined to the conviction that Ettor's successor, Haywood—whose record the developments at Los Angeles have left more dubious than before—ought to have been restrained from inciting to riot and revolution; that the militia has on the whole fulfilled its difficult duty with great credit; and that the whole weight of public sentiment should have gone against the needless, demoralizing, and financially wasteful exploitation of the children by making them a national spectacle. That the children were necessarily sent away in order that they might be provided for was a flimsy pretext.

After seven weeks of agitation, inspection of the situation by a varied host of social workers and journalists, and negotiations through voluntary intermediaries and a legislative commission, the employers have made an offer which has been accepted by the skilled men led by the textile union and by a considerable fraction of the unskilled. This offer provides an increase of not less than 5 per cent over the present weekly income under the fifty-four hour law, and most of the mills promise increases running up to 12 per cent for those who are earning the lower wages. Those who are

clinging to the Industrial Workers of the World leadership have not yet accepted this offer, partly on account of the unreconcilable attitude of their leaders, who seek general unrest and not specific success, and partly because, by one of the many strange psychological upshots of the situation, the full meaning of the offer has not been made sufficiently explicit to them by the employers. There is, however, good reason to believe that the great majority of the operatives will accept this offer by the time the pay envelopes on the new basis have had time to be seen.

The mill owners, supported very generally by the public, have felt that they could not in any case negotiate with crude disturbers of law and order. They have conferred with groups of their own employes, and they have shown a new appreciation of the value of responsible trade unionism. The Industrial Workers of the World, here as elsewhere, show as much hostility toward orderly and patient trade unionism as toward the employers themselves.

Some of the results that are hoped for and likely are: more thorough organization under constructive trade union leadership, but with missionary devotion among the unskilled; new and ample resources for the improvement of home and community conditions provided by the stockholders of the mills; a systematic scheme of publicity—to be distinguished from sudden exposure at a crisis—as to the financial condition of the mills year after year, so that their average wage-paying capacity for a term of years may be more clearly understood, at least by responsible public authorities; and in general a serious and downright recognition on the part of the people of eastern Massachusetts that the central market called the city of Boston, and the suburbs where the merchants and clerks live, are only the nucleus of a single great city center including the belt of factory towns within a radius of forty miles from Boston Common.

This strike, probably beyond any previous one in this country, contains what is as yet an inextricable complication of old and new forces and issues—the almost spontaneous rising of thousands of

apparently helpless and certainly most vaguely understood Italians, Poles, Belgians, Russian Jews, Syrians, Armenians, living an almost wholly foreign life; the projection of a group of local men into the subordinate leadership who, though in many ways worthy men in themselves, called in a group of syndicalist Socialists committed to the precipitous mob action of all the workmen in every grade of an industry, and this only as the merest incident to national and international industrial and political overthrow; the trade unionists having been beset from before by the mill superintendents, now beset from behind by foes of their own household, yet comforted that the whirligig of time was bringing them around as bulwarks of conservatism, even in the eyes of the employers; the protean engineering through which a few men, eagerly sustained by a few thousands, direct all the influence, intimidation, and coercion in every shade and degree up to bloodshed, by which the lives of 50,000 are dictated continuously for a period of two months; the sick and poverty-stricken municipal administration: the state administration preserving order at a cost of \$4,000 per day, but chagrined as one after another of its efforts toward peace came to naught; the seeming over-riding of law by authority, and the involving of protestants at this in the very swirls of strike agitation; the great new "woolen trust" particularly dependent upon the recent immigrants, therefore hard hit, and finally moved to announce advances in wages paid at all the plants in different states, lest the strike might spread to them; the old-line companies not so deeply involved, yet fearful that their great and not respected rival might maneuver to their disadvantage; the specter of a state or national investigation, and the clenched hand through the cloud marked "Schedule K"; the new possibility in the minds of the strangely unprepared eastern Massachusetts community, of a long-continued deadlock between companies with great surpluses, egged on by many other manufacturing and financial interests, and a labor force which on a wage below the living wage can still live and have many millions in

the savings banks, with the constantly growing financial resources of organized social unrest throughout the country subject to call.

One cannot but feel that behind all this in the feeling of the inarticulate and not ill-meaning mass is the religious force of a world-wide awakening. We hope that it may emerge through all the integral groups in this unassorted list coming to learn better to be of one heart and one mind. If those who, in their different ways, are now in power do not in tangible measure bring forth fruits meet for repentance, the present story shows once more that the mighty stirrings of a new order can break forth at the touch of brotherhood out of what may seem the very clod of humanity.

BROAD-SILK WEAVERS OF PATERSON

MARY BROWN SUMNER

With the public attention centered on Lawrence, the news of another strike on a considerable scale now being carried on in Paterson, N. J., in the same industry, and by one branch¹ of the Industrial Workers of the World, has been given small space even in the New York newspapers. Nevertheless, since Washington's birthday the looms of the "Silk City"—where formerly, it is said, 90 per cent of the silk of the United States was manufactured—have been running slower and slower.

It is a strike without the ordinary slogans and methods known here in America.

There has been no violence.

There has been no picketing.

There has been no demand for a closed shop, nor for recognition of the union. Yet in the course of three weeks at least 5,000 of the less than 7,000 weavers employed in the making of broad-silk—that is, silk for garments in contra-distinction to ribbon silk—have joined forces in a demand for a wage increase. Of this number, over 4,000 had last week made satisfactory settlements with their employers. Very few of the strikers have gone back to work as strike-breakers

after once leaving, though in a minority of the mills on strike a certain proportion of the weavers have from the beginning refused to come out. Somewhere between eighty and 100 mills, the strikers and the newspapers say, have been affected, out of perhaps 125.¹

In many ways the Paterson strike presents an interesting contrast to that at Lawrence. The Lawrence strike was a sudden unorganized protest against a reduction in wages already far below a living standard. Organization had to be effected under strike conditions and, during the early period of imperfect organization, there were spontaneous outbreaks of violence. In Paterson three months' patient organization preceded the strike, which was not in any sense

A CALL TO ALL SILK WORKERS.

By LOCAL 25, I. W. W.

Men and Women wage workers of Paterson:

With dignity raise your lowly bodies from the earth and assert your rights as human beings and producers of wealth. March out of the shops like men who comprehend their might. Workers, you are the only necessary class in society. Society could very well get along without the other class, but without you society would go under. You produce all wealth, from which the government is maintained. You create and perpetuate civilization; you must be, you can be, and you will be the masters of future society.

Now is the most practical time for you to concentrate your might by way of joining the union, which earnestly means to improve the conditions of the working class.

"This is addressed to ALL weavers, winders, quillers, pickers, twistors, warpers, and other workers in the silk mills.

Warning.

Workers: Give no one the slightest pretext to call you disorderly; practice no physical force whatever upon your opponents. We have now issued demands that deserve the respect of public opinion.

N. B. You are requested to make no individual settlements of any kind. All settlements must be made with the Strike Executive Committee, through whose efforts the standard wage scale was presented to the manufacturers.

By order of the Executive Committee,
Local 25, I. W. W.

Yiddish handbills distributed at the mills the first day of the Paterson strike. Three strikers were arrested for passing them out, charged with violating a city ordinance concerning nuisances (throwing handbills in and upon the streets). They pleaded guilty and sentence was suspended. Later speakers at the strike meetings charged, using this case as their text, that the institutions of government are "controlled by the master class." There has since been no picketing.

¹The majority, though by no means all, of the Paterson mills belong to the broad-silk manufacturers' association, and, as the official representative of this body is instructed not to give out information, it is necessary to depend on strikers' or newspaper statements for these facts and figures.

¹See page 1944.

an outbreak, but simply a perfectly peaceful stoppage of work by the skilled workers on the vast majority of Paterson's broad-silk looms. The unskilled workers, such as make up the Lawrence majority, are not out. The object, again, was not defensive, as in Lawrence, but aggressive, a demand for a general raise over wages which the Federal reports¹ show averaged \$12.38 for men and \$11 for women.

While an increase in wages was the specific demand of the weavers, the Paterson strike was in its origin sympathetic. The incident which gave it this character goes back as far as the beginning of November, and the events which led up to that incident go back in their turn for more than a year. At that time the weavers in a few mills were organized in the United Textile Workers' Union of America, of which John Golden is president. In one of these organized mills the so-called "four-loom" system was installed for one class of weavers about a year ago. In September it was extended to other classes, and the weavers struck. Comparatively few mills in America use the four-loom system, the ordinary practice being for one weaver to tend two looms. The strikers claimed that four looms meant the dispossessing of a certain number of men and, for those who were left, intenser and more exhausting work, and that in this case, at any rate, it meant little or no increase of pay, because the work on the two extra looms was paid at a rate 30 per cent lower than the others, and because the tending of four looms operated for other reasons to keep down the earnings per loom.

Shortly after the beginning of the September strike the United Textile Workers of America brought their machinery of arbitration to bear, and the men went back to work pending negotiations. By November no satisfactory adjustment had been made and the weavers, before arbitration proceedings were finished, came out on strike again on November 10, thus putting their union in bad standing with the organization to

which it belonged. The strikers in this mill assert that the United Textile Workers of America delayed a settlement because they hesitated to oppose the four-loom system. Some of the grounds which have been urged in defense of this position have been that the four-loom system is in accordance with the scientific development of machinery in industry; that these machines turn out a cheap grade of goods which Paterson mills have not been able to manufacture up to this time; and that the large demand for silk of that grade would in the end make it an object to manufacturers to put in more looms and thus provide for the surplus of men; and, finally, that the simple looms which turn out this grade of work require little tending and that therefore four looms would not immoderately increase the weavers' work. The weavers felt that a settlement along these lines would, nevertheless, turn off men and overwork and underpay those who were kept. Their repudiation of arbitration proceedings put them in a mood to join the Industrial Workers of the World, which stands avowedly opposed to arbitration or permanent compromise with employers.

Up to this time the Industrial Workers of the World had had in Paterson only a "mixed local," a local, that is, made up of members of various industries. With this new nucleus of 100 or so of weavers, it started out in November on the patient organization of the broad-silk weavers in all the Paterson mills, the vast majority of whom had up to this time belonged to no organization.

Probably an underlying fear that, if successful in one mill, the four-loom system with its immediate disadvantages for the workers would spread eventually to many other mills predisposed the weavers in favor of strengthening themselves by organization. At any rate, an invitation by hand-bill to a conference late in February, to discuss organization and conditions in the mills, was enthusiastically responded to, and it was found that enough were interested to represent the weavers in a large majority of the mills. Committees of each shop were elected and an increase in wages accord-

¹THE SILK INDUSTRY. Report on Condition of Women and Child Wage-Earners in the United States, in 19 volumes. Vol. IV. About one-third of the total number of weavers in Paterson are women.

ing to a schedule then drawn up was decided on as the common demand for all shops. This schedule, representing increases in the rate of pay in the various shops of from 5 to 30 per cent, has been the only demand in the general strike.¹

On the morning of February 23 the weavers reported for work. Within an hour the schedule had been presented by the shop committee, and on its rejection a walkout took place immediately in almost a hundred mills, quietly and in order. Some firms settled within the day. Many who refused at first on the ground that the schedule, being thrown together hastily, was unscientific and could not be adapted to conditions in their mills made settlements not based on the schedule. This use of the wage schedule simply as it were as basis for discussion has been one of the distinctive peculiarities of the Paterson strike. Some of the largest mills have consented by a verbal agreement to grant a general raise on the different kinds of piecework of from $\frac{1}{2}$ cent to 1 cent, instead of following the elaborate provisions of the schedule. Such an offer from the employer was put by the shop committee before the whole group of strikers in that particular mill. If the majority voted to accept, they returned to work with the understanding that if the verbal agreement was broken, or if the shop desired further concessions, it would strike at a moment's notice. Those shops which did insist on the employer's signature to their scale were left equally free to strike, as the employer's was the only signature on the paper.

In some cases the central organization held the signed schedule as a matter of convenience, not at all in sign that the union was "recognized." No recognition of the union by the employer was required. For its stability this union depends on no central organization. For the closed shop it depends on the recognition by the body of workers of the importance of hanging together within their shop in order to retain the concessions already obtained or to gain others. "We do

not," says Rudolf Katz, organizer of the strike, "want recognition by the employer; we want only recognition by the weavers."

Success in their first demand and alertness to perceive and resent aggressions or to demand new rights is the principle on which the organization depends for success. Workers so organized the employer finds it easy to settle with at any given time, since they do not stand out for any of the demands usually associated with unionism, such as the closed shop or the interference of an outside delegate. In the long run, however, they lack the safeguards of the older unionism. They have no time agreements; even a signed schedule specifies no period of time during which it is to hold good. So that in appearing to waive every established safeguard of unionism this new unionism gives itself added freedom and thereby, if it can hold the workers in the trade intact, added strength to strike, whenever the time is ripe, for more and more. The ultimate goal set by the Industrial Workers of the World is the "appropriation by the workers of the full product of their labor."

It has been a half-recognition of this working program, probably more than the wage demands which have been satisfied in many cases by very slight concessions, which has kept the majority of the Paterson silk manufacturers from yielding to the strikers. As one of their representatives expressed it, "the strike is political." By this, I take it, he had caught the idea that the underlying purpose of the organizers is to teach the workers practically and simply that as Socialism, by the vote, aims at the expropriation of the capitalist, so cohesion in the shop can be made the means for striving to gain the same end, step by step, and strike by strike. This is the Industrial Workers of the World philosophy. The universality with which the weavers, Italians, Jews, Armenians, and others, have understood and responded to the first lesson in this teaching may well give the mill owners alarm.

Equally distinctive and equally disarming is the perfect peacefulness of the

¹The original strikers of November added this demand to that for the abolition of the four-loom system.

Paterson strikers. On the first day the police arrested, and the court fined, three men for distributing handbills inviting weavers to join the strike. This distribution was immediately discontinued and after a few hours the police were withdrawn and have not been called on since. Violence cannot be used as an excuse to break the strike by counter-violence, as the distinctive peculiarity of this organization in control at Paterson is the literal preaching of the workers' "folding hands," waiting passively until the need for their labor tells on the employer. No pickets have been sent out and no persuasion used except the advertising of mass meetings. Yet, every day for three weeks, of their own accord, new shops have come out.

THE ENGLISH COAL STRIKE

HARRY PHILLIPS

[MR. PHILLIPS IS FIRST TRUSTEE OF THE DOCK-WORKERS' UNION OF GREAT BRITAIN, AND WAS ONE OF THE CONCILIATION COMMITTEE TO BRING ABOUT THE SETTLEMENT OF THE DOCKERS' STRIKE WHICH HAD BLOCKED THE INLETS OF LONDON'S FOOD SUPPLY. HE IS ON A LECTURE TOUR IN THE UNITED STATES AND WAS ASKED BY THE SURVEY TO GIVE HIS VIEWS OF THE COAL STRIKE.]

"Things are pretty bad in your country just now, Mr. Phillips."

Again and again during the last few days some American has said that to me.

I ask him, "What things?"

One answer is:

"Well, your present coal strike. That is pretty bad, I guess."

No, sir, not at all. I think the coal strike in England is not bad. It had to be. It was the "Only Way." It is the birth-pain of a new and finer era in the industrial life of England. Suffering? Yes, I know. But it's nature's law that there is no birth, no new life without its pain and suffering.

Out of this suffering there will come a great industrial peace. Think of the evolution in dignity of this strike and the old bitter sectional strikes of twenty years ago. This strike will be settled during the next fourteen days. The old strike lasted three and six months, with hunger and want and riot and death, and ruin to the local trade.

Now, there is quite good feeling today. Masters meet men and they smile back, and the men say:

"You're beaten, sir. Minimum wage must carry."

The settlement will bring harmony and industrial concord into the mining industry for some long time to come. And that is good, not bad.

Oh, for half a dozen aeroplanes to send your Lawrence strike labor leaders and governor and mayor and mill owners over to my England, to show these men on both sides how to manage and settle a strike peaceably!

Think of it! Nearly half a million men on strike in England, and not an extra policeman needed nor a soldier called out. You will forgive me for being proud of my friends among the English miners. They are so dignified in their law-abiding self-control. If the "votes for women" campaign had only been conducted with the same strength and dignity it would have been as assured in England as the minimum wage.

The minimum wage? Are you not stunned and surprised at the moderation of the demands of these 500,000 men who have the country in their hands? It is because of their moderation that the whole country is on their side. They are not out for motor-cars and automobiles and opera-boxes, Riverside houses, and gorgeous gowns for their wives and daughters. They are simply out for a minimum living wage—a wage that shall never be less than sufficient for living out the full-orbed all-around life of man and woman and child, which God Almighty and the true greatness of a nation demand that they shall live.

A minimum wage does not mean a wage just above the starvation line. It means a wage that shall keep a man free from worry and care for next week's rent and food. A wage upon which a man may enter into, and live out, all the attributes of his manhood. That is the principle the coal miners of England are out for, and that is the principle every man and woman of every creed and faith must support and which every real patriot must give his verdict for. Why? Because you can never have a great nation

while 50 per cent of its population are half vitalized and under-developed.

That—and I speak as one who knows every coal field in my country—is the principle at the back of this English coal strike. Also there is the new fine dignity of the whole business—no longer a small local state or district strike, but one splendidly organized, both from the standpoint of capital and of labor: two magnificent dignified armies so powerful that the people of England say to their government:

“You must control this, and not permit long drawn out war. You are the government. We elected you to *govern* us. Either govern or quit.”

And the English government will settle it. We have one of the finest cabinets of Englishmen we have had for a long while. They will say to the mine owner:

“You must accede the principle of this minimum wage. The actual amount, and the local details, we are not concerned with. But the principle itself is basically just, and ethically and economically sound. Settle it, or we must step in and settle it for you. You are not confronted with a cheap or foreign competition for the same article. Coal is a monopoly—nature’s monopoly which you own—and for the producers of this article you must accept a minimum wage standpoint. You have no defense to make against it. We the government represent the whole nation, poor as well as rich. And you own and control one of the essentials of the daily life of the people: coal—heat, warmth, driving force. So long as you do not unduly control or monopolize it we do not interfere. But if either of you attempt to tie up the daily need of the people’s life, then we must take it out of your hands and nationalize it, because it is a nation’s need.”

This and this only is the attitude and ultimate decision of the English government. So effectively has industry organized itself.

There are five forces which are absolutely essential to the daily life of a nation: coal, water, light, corn (wheat), locomotion.

No capitalist will ever again in England be allowed to corner and control

these essentials of daily life. All the years of education and development have told. And today the poorest man in England will tell his government:

“You must see that these forces are always within my reach. They are imperative essentials to my daily life. And my daily life is essential to the nation.”

That is the great human demand at the back of the coal strike. On that question of a minimum wage for those who every hour risk life and limb underground to bring forth one of the essential daily needs of a nation’s life—on that principle there can be no discussion, no debate. And it will be settled within the next fourteen days—and settled not only because of its divine justice, but because the whole English nation realizes by terrible and sad experience of mine and colliery explosion, and dear dead men lying hundreds of feet beneath the ground, and weeping women and sobbing children at the pit’s mouth above—because all England realizes that the demand for a minimum wage for the miner and coal-pit worker, above all other toilers, is just and moderate. So it will be granted.

And another plane in the evolution of the workman’s life towards equal co-partnership and cooperation in the wealth he is producing will have been reached.

STATE INTERVENTION IN STRIKES

PAUL KENNADAY

Two months and a half after the beginning of the laundry strike in New York, more than a month and a half after the closing of testimony, the State Board of Mediation and Arbitration publishes its summary of conditions disclosed. This deliberate sort of publicity of course can be of no possible benefit to those who were strikers in the rough-dry laundries—who like the rest of us must have food to eat, and who long since have been forced back to their wretched pay and long hours. But the procedure, fairly typical as it is of American ways, may at least point a moral.

Of the merits of the laundry strike itself, suffice it to say that there was abundant, if not legal, evidence of excessive hours, of illegal employment of minors and women, of wages below even the customary low wage of women factory workers, and of a brazen disregard of the labor law. But it is well to inquire why, to the board's categorical findings in favor of the laundry workers and to its recommendation for conference between workers and proprietors, the public accepted from the Laundrymen's Association a reply similar in tone to that made upon a certain memorable occasion by the late lamented Commodore Vanderbilt. As the public lost sight of the industrial conditions at Packingtown in its concern over what the Jungle showed was going into its own stomach, so such public interest as the laundry strike momentarily aroused has not been in the intolerable conditions of the workers and in the unenforcement of the labor law, but in the danger to the public health in the dirty and more or less infected linen more or less cleaned in "nets."

Little wonder that such reaction leaves the workingman contemptuous of the public's interest in labor disputes and more than skeptical of the public's grasp of labor's aims.

True, there is something to be said for a state intervention which will drive home the lesson of class solidarity and of the futility of labor's surrendering the power it has acquired to hit hard and quick, although it is somewhat doubtful if the labor movement in general is to be aided much by such interpretation of arbitration statutes. Certainly it is of little consolation to the individual striker who loses his strike, and perhaps his job, that the cause in which he has been sacrificed has gone on triumphantly. There are not many of us who feel much beholden to posterity, the beaten striker least of all. The man who strikes or wants to strike wants relief for himself. In a very real sense he asks for bread and will hardly be thankful to mediators and arbitrators who give him a stone, even though, hoping to help other workers of the future, he

may use that stone to the damage of property close at hand.

Are we to take the New York Bureau of Mediation and Arbitration, fairly typical as it is of general American methods, as the best or even as a reasonably satisfactory agency for dealing with industrial disputes? The activities of that bureau are four-fold:

(1) It may formally intervene "whenever a strike or lockout occurs or is seriously threatened";

(2) "Examinations or investigations" by the board may be held at any time or place within the state;

(3) A dispute between an employer and his employes may be submitted in writing to the bureau as a Board of Mediation and Arbitration, provided such submission is accompanied by a written agreement to abide by the determination of the board and to continue in business or at work during the investigation;

(4) Local arbitrators may be selected by the parties to a dispute and such arbitrators within ten days after the close of hearings held "shall render a written decision signed by them."

Such are the means provided for the settlement and prevention of industrial disputes in New York. Out of a total of 215 strikes and lockouts last year, the state board settled fourteen by arbitration; intervention or the offer of its services, occurring in eighty cases, was unsuccessful in fifty-nine cases, and was made before strikes in eight cases; one dispute (not a strike) was settled by arbitration; and no case of public intervention occurred. It is a well worn comment of the chief mediator that

the more consideration given to avoiding strikes, the more likely those finally undertaken are to be successful.

There is room, however, for a different conclusion from that which he draws, that

where strikes occur without exhausting every effort to prevent them or for insufficient cause, the evils they bring are to be blamed upon the workmen or employers who are responsible for the hasty action or the ill-advised decision.

If blame is to be fixed for not exhausting every effort to prevent strikes, perhaps it should come somewhat nearer home than this.

To quote again from the same report:

The chief power of the bureau is seldom exercised but is available at any time when, in a threatened or existing strike or lockout, the Commissioner of Labor deems it advisable that the Board of Mediation and Arbitration be convened. The board when so convened has large powers of inquiry and should be able to direct public sentiment, on which the success or failure of strikes so largely depends.

The assumption seems purely gratuitous that the legislature in conferring its power of formal inquiry and intervention did not intend to have it exercised "except in extraordinary cases where the public interests are seriously affected." No such interpretation of the legislature's will is to be found from the reading of the statute itself, nor may such interpretation be fairly drawn as it is drawn from the fact that the legislature has failed to make provision for the cost of more than the two or three public, formal interventions carried through during the past ten years and more. The legislature did not make appropriation even for those interventions, and it no more makes appropriation for the work of the Bureau of Mediation than for the work of the factory bureau, unless recommendations are submitted and insistently urged by the Department of Labor.

The case for compulsory intervention is put in its proper aspect in the report of the Commissioner of Labor for the year 1906, where it is said:

In fact we believe good results would follow the adoption of the principle of public investigation in all important labor disputes, for the reason that many disputes become either strikes or lockouts on account of the unreasonable attitude of one or the other (possibly both) of the contending forces, and, if it were an established practice to make such an investigation, the disposition to enter into such disputes would be discouraged.

The excuse pleaded then—and not now applicable—for not practicing this policy of formal intervention was that

two of the three members of the board are so completely engrossed in the work of the Bureau of Factory Inspection that they are not available for other departmental duties.

But the same report makes the excellent recommendation

that provision be made for a board of investigation, to consist of the official in charge of the bureau, together with two citizens to be designated by such official, as members of a board of investigation, the two citizens so designated to have, for the purposes of investigating, co-ordinate powers with the official who appoints them and to serve only during the investigation of the particular dispute for which they were appointed.

Here we have a firm grasp of the true aim and inevitable limitations of outside interference with labor disputes. Labor for all our conferences, resolutions, pleadings, laws, and ordinances will not surrender its right to strike. In certain exceptional cases where it is unorganized or weak it may be compelled by sheer force of public demand to accept certain limitations upon that right, as in the case of public or quasi-public enterprises. Our American statutes for the prevention of strikes will remain, as they so largely are in New York, unexecuted moral aspirations, so long as the public does not accept, with the best grace possible, this fundamental fact in the labor movement.

Publicity is the one preventive and cure which the state can administer. Let the public know the facts through an impartial, a speedy, and an efficient investigation, and one-half these strikes and lockouts would be avoided altogether or settled with small loss to either side. But the publicity must be secured through report made within a few days, and not after weeks have lengthened out to months, as in the laundry strike. The investigation must be impartial, by men holding the scales evenly between labor and capital. And it must be conducted, not by subordinate officials of a labor department, but by such men as Sir George Askwith in England or Professor Adam Shortt in Canada. It is not three or four \$3000 men who can fittingly "exercise the powers of the people of the state of New York (or of any other state, for that matter) which relate to industrial disputes." It would be far better to lump all these salaries in one and so, if need be, to secure for the performance of exceptional duties one man of recognized exceptional talents.

A state mediator of such caliber might well be given such authority as is con-

ferred in New Zealand upon the Commissioner of Conciliation, who upon application made to him by employer or employed sets up a council of conciliation composed of delegates from both parties. The confidence which the community there places in the Commissioner of Conciliation and the technical knowledge of the matters in dispute possessed by the members of the councils gives to such groups of citizens a tremendous power to influence public opinion. To flout the findings of those whom the sovereign people have deputed to sit upon a trade conflict does not lie within the power of any laundrymen's association in that "country without strikes."

Let us have formal public intervention often, as we may under present statutes in New York; let us have publicity and intelligent public opinion, as we might with councils of conciliation fashioned somewhat more broadly than their prototypes in New Zealand. Then we shall have less of street-cleaners "tried" in secret and dismissed for "mutiny"; of woolen companies summarily reducing wages of ragged employes; of laundrymen refusing point blank to arbitrate; of state boards publishing their reports so long after the event that their recommendations fall flat.

NEW CHINA AND THE FAMINE

EARL H. CRESSY
SHANGHAI

[METHODS OF SCIENTIFIC CHARITY, MR. CRESSY POINTS OUT, ARE BEING APPLIED TO THE RELIEF OF THE GREAT FAMINE WHICH IS SCOURGING CHINA IN THE MIDST OF ITS REVOLUTION; AND HE QUOTES SUN YAT SEN AS SAYING THAT THE REPUBLICAN GOVERNMENT WILL TAKE THE NECESSARY STEPS TO PREVENT FAMINES IN THE FUTURE.

MEANWHILE, FOUR MONTHS FROM HARVEST, WHOLE PROVINCES ARE STRICKEN, AND THE CENTRAL CHINA FAMINE RELIEF COMMITTEE HAS APPEALED TO CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE IN 350 AMERICAN CITIES, AND HAS WRITTEN TO NEARLY 4,000 INDIVIDUALS AND 700 NEWSPAPERS. MR. CRESSY HAS BEEN IN CLOSE TOUCH WITH THE WORK OF THIS RELIEF COMMITTEE FOR SOME TIME, AND RECENTLY MADE A TRIP TO THE FAMINE DISTRICT.

"I AM VERY ANXIOUS THAT THE FAMINE SITUATION OUT HERE AND THE METHODS WHICH WE ARE USING IN DEALING WITH IT," WRITES SECRETARY E. C. LOBENSTINE, "MAY BE BROUGHT BEFORE THOSE AT HOME WHO ARE MOST FITTED TO JUDGE AS TO THEIR VALUE."

Two great changes for the better in the attitude in China toward famine conditions have taken place which, in the



A HOME IN THE FAMINE DISTRICT.
Roof sold for food. Child ill with small-pox inside.

midst of the rapid progress which China is making in other ways, are in danger of being overlooked. The first of these is the growth of the conviction that the time is past for pouring rice into the rat-hole of famine, and the other is the action of the new government in undertaking the responsibility for the relief of the present and the prevention of future famines.

Such conditions as those which exist at present have had much to do in bringing about the present revolution; and the men of the New China clearly realize that the permanent prosperity and peace of their country depends in large measure upon the economic welfare of the people.

The present famine is a greater calamity than any that China has faced for scores of years. The estimates of a month ago, according to which two and a half million people were facing starvation, are now out of date. Appeals from new districts are coming in almost daily to the office of the Central China Famine Relief Committee. Already in many districts the death rate is high, and children are being sold in order to purchase food. In a district personally visited by the writer during the last week in January, fifty-five homes in a number of country villages in North Kiangsu were thoroughly examined. In only one home

in eight was there any rice, and nowhere more than a peck of it. The food everywhere found in preparation consisted of sweet potato leaves and carrot tops, while one family in three was eating elm bark. In these fifty-five homes four dead were found, and many others who could live only a few days at most. In this district at least two out of three are certain of death unless there is help from outside—and there are still four months before harvest. These conditions are typical of the whole North Kiangsu famine area, where missionaries who for many years have been thoroughly familiar with conditions estimate that 1,000,000 people are facing starvation.

The Central China Famine Relief Committee is using four distinctive methods in dealing with the present famine situation. Whenever there is any question as to the reality of famine conditions, test works are inaugurated along lines developed by the British government in India. The idea is to offer work at such a low wage that only those who are in great need will apply. This plan has been used in two places, and the great numbers who have come and remained at work indicate the severity of the conditions. As a general thing there is in China no possibility of question concerning the desperate need of the people in the famine districts.

To the sick and those incapacitated for work, relief is, of course, given outright. The committee aims to conserve the self-respect of those able to work by giving help only in return for labor, and at the same time to build dykes and dig ditches which will prevent future famines, provide an object lesson in reclamation to the Chinese land-owners and officials, and give the people some hope of the future.

The fourth method, and that which renders the present Famine Relief Committee unique, is the attempt to secure the adoption of a policy of conservation by the Chinese government and thus to become the last foreign famine relief committee in China. C. D. Jameson, an engineer sent out by the American Red Cross Society, has reported that the reclamation of the whole famine dis-

trict in North Kiangsu is possible, being merely a matter of time and money; and the secretary of the Famine Relief Committee has devoted much effort to the attempt to interest the Chinese government in the immediate relief of famine conditions and the adoption of a comprehensive policy for the future.

From the beginning he has had in this the co-operation of a number of influential Chinese, such as Their Excellencies Wu Ting Fang and Chang Chien, minister of Agriculture and Industry in the cabinet of President Sun Yat Sen. On January 17 the latter communicated officially the intention of the government to do its work along lines of scientific charity advocated by the Famine Relief Committee, and backed this declaration by a grant of \$80,000 with which to begin work. On January 25 President Sun Yat Sen in an interview stated to the secretary of the committee that as soon as the republican form of government was firmly established it would take the necessary steps to prevent the recurrence of these frequent famines.

As this is being written, there is every probability that a few days will see the consummation of a foreign loan of \$1,000,000 for famine relief. H. E. Yuan Shih Kai has telegraphed his approval and President Sun Yat Sen has sent a personal representative to express his willingness to co-operate. This means that the New China has taken the first steps toward the assumption of complete responsibility for the relief and prevention of famine conditions.

It must not be thought, however, that this will render help from abroad unnecessary this year. It is conservatively estimated that \$5,000,000 will be necessary to deal in any way adequately with this famine. There is still urgent need for every cent that America can give.

Contributions may be sent to the Red Cross Society, to any foreign mission board, or may be forwarded through any bank to the International Banking Corporation, New York or San Francisco, which will cable them to the secretary of the Central China Famine Relief Committee in Shanghai.

THE TREND OF THINGS

"There are, it is true, insolent school masters, Mr. School Commissioner, and there are submissive schoolmasters—of both more than enough; I am striving to increase, by one, the number of self-respecting schoolmasters." This quotation from the German represents one purpose of the *American Teacher*, a new publication set on foot by public school teachers in New York. Another object is to bring to official notice the teachers' "usable experience" and knowledge of school conditions, with the object of improving them and the work of schools. The first issue contains, of signed articles, one on Teachers' Movements Abroad, by R. R. Radosavejevich, of New York University; on Efficiency in Education, by Benjamin C. Gruenberg, of the Commercial High School, Brooklyn; and on Teaching Social Science through the Newspapers, by Mark Hoffman.

* * *

Life and Labor, the organ of the National Women's Trade Union League, will hereafter have a department of judicial decisions bearing on questions affecting labor. This Diary of Judicial Decisions will be edited by Irene Osgood Andrews, assistant secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation.

* * *

Discussing the prospects of Anglo-Saxon democracy in the *March Atlantic*, L. T. Hobhouse maintains that the way of progress toward equal opportunity for all lies through such social legislation as the Liberal-Labor alliance is now putting through in England. More direct non-political methods for taking "labor's share" he believes will endanger this cordial alliance between labor and liberalism, and will fail to gain permanent improvements. The general strike such as has recently gained something for the railroad workers of England, for instance, depends in his opinion too much for its immediate success on conditions of trade prosperity and for its permanent success on organizing a class of workers who are hard to hold together after the first enthusiasm has died down.

* * *

In the *Westminster Review* (London) H. J. Darnton Fraser does not take so optimistic a view of England's present attempts at social legislation. Mr. Fraser's own program would approach present problems not by a general leveling up of physical well-being, as the Social Insurance Bill would to a degree do, but by breaking up the city slum as a first step. Some of the means he suggests to accomplish that end are the revival of agriculture and village industries, the creation of an afforestation industry, housing and sanitary measures, temperance legislation, and the providing of healthy amusements, the reform of the criminal and police systems, and a more thorough knowledge and application of the principles of eugenics.

* * *

Eugenics is the subject also of an article by A. J. Nock in the *American* which reviews the work of Karl Pearson's Laboratory of Eugenics and tells the results claimed for laboratory work applied to two-

observed phenomena—the decrease in the British birth-rate and, less easily demonstrable, the mental and physical decline in the human stock of the British Isles. The laboratory experiments attempt to trace these two declines in all industrial sections of the country to a cause which has provoked wide-spread discussion and which has by no means found unanimous acceptance—the child labor legislation and the passing of compulsory education laws. These, it is claimed, have acted to keep the size of families down by taking away the economic value of a child. This lowered birth rate, in its turn, it is maintained by the eugenics observers, has tended to lower the quality of the stock on the premise that physical and mental defects predominate in the earlier children of a marriage, leaving the younger brothers and sisters a better inheritance.

Mr. Nock, who seems to accept these generalizations as conclusive, offers as solution of these unanticipated results of reform legislation the endowment of motherhood. "This,"

WHAT'S EVERYBODY'S BUSINESS IS ~~NOBODY'S~~ BUSINESS

OF

The Social Center Association of America



Some of the inventiveness which used to be bred in the little red school-houses has gone into the letter-head of the Social Center Association of America. In the original, the bar surcharged over "nobody's" is in red, and so are "the" and "of." The revised saw puts its up to all good neighbors to give moral and financial support to the official representative of effective neighborliness.

* * *

The Slaver with the Sword is the twenty-third instalment, in *Leslie's* for February 22, of Reginald Wright Kauffman's *Girl that Goes Wrong*. There are eight stories still to come, under the titles: *Wolves in the Fold*; *The Man That Was a Cad*; *The Girl Without a Mother*; *The Man That Was Kind*; *The Man That Had Traveled*; *The Woman With Nothing to Do*; "Only a Nigger"; "When Sinners Entice Thee." A concluding instalment will discuss White Slavery, Cause and Cure.

he says, "might be effected in various ways: by differential wages, perhaps by a scheme of national insurance with provisions—a kind of bounty—for motherhood and for each child as it comes along. Best of all, probably, it might be effected by the state's power of applying differential taxation."

* * *

In Legislating for Labor, Richard Barry in this month's *Hampton's* outlines the new compensation laws of fourteen states and tells something of the annual loss by accident in this country which these laws hope to mitigate, at least on the economic side.

* * *

"A conservative," says *LaFollette's*, "is a man who will not look at the new moon, out of respect for that ancient institution, the old one."

* * *

The February issue of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* contains a thorough and painstaking history and analysis of the British Insurance Act by Robert F. Foerster of Harvard.

* * *

The first number of the *Journal of the American Public Health Association* for the new year comes from the press under a new name and under new management. Because of changes in his personal plans, B. R. Richards, the former managing editor, resigned his office at the annual meeting of the American Public Health Association held in Havana in December. The Committee on Journal of the association was immediately given power to make necessary arrangements for filling the vacancy; and its deliberations resulted in important decisions affecting the editorial policy and management of the periodical. As more precisely indicative of its field, its name was changed to the *American Journal of Public Health*. The scope of the magazine, according to the editorial announcement, is to be widened to keep its readers abreast of developments in the growing public health movement, and in order to make the issues of indispensable value not only to the 12,000 or 15,000 public health officers and others professionally concerned, but to laymen interested in the campaign against preventable disease.

The new staff includes: Dr. Livingston Farrand, executive secretary of the

National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, as editor; Selskar M. Gunn, assistant professor of public health in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, as managing editor; and Philip P. Jacobs as business manager. The publication office will be in New York. The new editor states that "the journal will continue to publish as formerly the principal papers presented at the annual meetings of the association, and will aim to represent in an authoritative way the five sections now officially recognized in the organization. Especial emphasis will be laid on notes and news concerning the various phases of public health activity."

* * *

The *New York Call* (Socialist) published some Washington's Birthday verses by Capt. W. E. P. French, U. S. A. He pictures the Great Shade wishing to return to his birth-land and hearing "the laughter of the affluent and muttered protest of the multitude." Perhaps his criticism of things as they are is best epitomized in the second stanza:

Upon his wishes' wings the spirit hurled
Himself through midnight space to where a star
Shined by its golden glint it was our world—
For yellow leprosy of gold shows far—
He paused above a rich and mighty state,
Fecund, broad-bosomed, dowered with vast store
Of Nature's bounty, part inviolate.
Part reft, and part greed-cankered at the core—
A land of plenty and of needless want,
Of lordly eagle and of cormorant.



COMMUNICATIONS

FIRST SETTLEMENT FOR BLIND

TO THE EDITOR:

IN THE SURVEY of the week of January 20, 1912,¹ appears the following: "The first settlement house for the blind in the world is being erected at No. 111 East 59 street, New York city."

Permit me to say that that statement is incorrect. "Woolson House," 277 Harvard street, Cambridge, Mass., is a settlement house for the blind, and has been established as such since the spring of 1910.

MRS. GEORGE H. NEWCOMB.

Boston, Mass.

A MISCONCEPTION

TO THE EDITOR:

I write to call attention to a mistake very general in collecting money for philanthropic objects. To my mind it is a fundamental form of error, particularly directed against the very system your publication seems to promote.

If I conclude to spend \$1,000 a year in various charities, and, for my own convenience, distribute these sums through the year in proportionate weekly amounts, one charity out of ten will wait until the date of the previous payment has passed before reminding me. One out of ten will write to me a few days before the proper date. Four more will write to me on January 1, regardless of the particular date, and the balance will write three or four importunate letters through the year.

In many cases a *contribution* is treated as a regular annual *subscription*, and it is unpleasant to be told that "your subscription is due" under such circumstances, especially if, treating it as a subscription, it would be claimed sixty days in advance.

I hear very frequent complaints from my friends that the mails are burdened with solicitations for charity. A correction of the error which I have pointed out would probably reduce this complaint about 50 per cent, to the advantage of all concerned.

ARTEMAS WARD.

New York.

MONTANA COMPENSATION LAW

TO THE EDITOR:

Your article entitled Montana Court on Compensation Laws² seems to the lay reader rather ambiguous and leaves him in doubt as to the present status of the Montana coal miners' accident insurance act of March 4, 1909. You state that the court, in a relatively short summary, pronounced "the clause allowing choice between compensation and suit to one party and not to another . . . unconstitutional," etc., but that "it devoted

a relatively major part of the decision . . . to upholding the constitutionality of state accident insurance in general." Inasmuch as many statutes are furnished with clauses providing that failure of single sections shall not swamp the balance of the law, your article hardly carries a clear idea as to whether the act in question is or is not to continue in operation. As a matter of fact, the Montana statute contained no such saving clause. The words of consolatory balm handed down to the state auditor mean nothing, and have no more judicial or binding force than any other temporary expression of present opinion. The decision has transferred the Montana coal miners' accident insurance law as effectually to the rapidly populating limbo of "busted" American compensation acts as did former decisions officiating at the *exitus* of the Maryland Insurance Act of 1902, the New York Compulsory Compensation Act of 1910, and the first Federal Employers' Liability Act of 1906.

C. M. McCoy, state auditor and commissioner of insurance of Montana, advises me that the "decision necessitated throwing out the whole law" and that "all moneys received in compliance with the provisions of the law were therefore returned to the operators, and applicants for benefits under the law were notified of the decision. . . . Hence all matters remained the same now as before the law went into effect."

It is interesting to note, however, that the Montana court has gratuitously registered an opinion directly contrary to that emitted by a Maryland court when puncturing that state's insurance act of 1902. The Maryland court held it unconstitutional that the act should give judicial powers to the state auditor; the Montana court holds that the collection and disbursement of an insurance tax is a perfectly lawful administrative function, not encroaching on either judicial toes or dignity. Is this judicial evolution womanly-mindedness, or "just to be contrary"?

W. H. ALLPORT.

Chicago, Ill.

JOE ETTOR'S SOCIALISM

TO THE EDITOR:

In the article on the Lawrence Strike in THE SURVEY for February 3, Mr. Palmer says: "Joseph B. Etor of New York, a member of the Executive Council of the Industrial Workers of the World, took the leadership. Etor is . . . a Socialist." And again, he says: "The preamble to the constitution of the Industrial Workers of the World shows the Socialistic character of the organization . . ."

Socialists and anarchists are rather frequently confused by the people at large. Both aim at the same thing, *viz.*, a radical change in the industrial system, but the principles underlying the methods of achieving the results are radically different. The Industrial

¹See THE SURVEY, January 20, p. 1629.

²See THE SURVEY for January 6, page 1444.

³See THE SURVEY, February 3, page 1690.

Workers of the World are an official part of the anarchist party, and it is unfair to both socialism and anarchy that the responsibility in this widely heralded Lawrence strike should be loaded on Socialism.

H. A. MILLER.

[Professor of Philosophy and Sociology, Olivet College, Mich.]

[Professor Miller's first point is well taken, Ettor is an anarchist and not a member of the Socialist Party. The membership of the Industrial Workers of the World is about equally divided between anarchists and socialists. Among the anarchists are some whose anarchism is based on theoretical ground; others who from their failure to become naturalized or from the migratory character of their work are deprived of the vote and therefore look to industrial rather than political action as the way to secure their ends—mass strikes and ultimately revolution, rather than the ballot and state socialism. Haywood, on the other hand, is a member of the Socialist Party and at the last annual election won his way into the executive committee of the party against the vehement opposition of Morris Hillquit, John Spargo, and others of the old-line leaders who stand out against direct action and who maintain that in a democracy the ballot is the tool to work with.

With respect to the second point, however, the constitution of the I. W. W. quoted by Mr. Palmer was drawn up under strong Socialist influences. In 1908 the I. W. W. divided. The basis of cleavage between the two branches is that the one organization (the Detroit, Mich., I. W. W.) clings to the declaration of principles of the original body in 1905 which declared that workers must "come together on the political as well as the industrial field and take and hold that which they produce by their labor." This stand the Detroit body still adheres to, the majority of its organizers being members of the Socialist Labor Party, of which Daniel DeLeon, one of the most consistent Marxists of the country, is chief spokesman. The Paterson strikers are members of this branch. The Chicago branch, however, in 1908 struck out the clause calling for political action and has since become more anarchistic in temper. Ettor is of this group.

The majority of the members of the Socialist Party—the major party organization of the socialist movement in America—stand for industrial organization, as opposed to craft organization. Yet Socialists of the Berger type are members of labor unions and form an insurgent group in the A. F. of L., which has been endeavoring to swing it ir'o the political propaganda of the Socialist Party. On the other hand Haywood stands in the Socialist Party as a leader of an insurgent faction which is urging that it should link economic action with political. Professor Miller's point as to Ettor personally is

therefore well taken; but, while the clash between the philosophies of Socialism and anarchy is as fundamental as he states, both wings of radical social protestantism are to be found in such a working organization as the I. W. W.—Ed.]

THE PERMANENT CENSUS BOARD

TO THE EDITOR:

I have read with interest the article of Howard Nudd in THE SURVEY,¹ in which he describes and evaluates the work of the permanent census board of this city. I wish, however, to correct what I consider to be an incorrect point of view. Mr. Nudd says: ". . . the permanent census board is not rendering as efficient service as it should. For example, it has consumed two years in taking the initial census. This is due partly to difficulties naturally involved in developing a new organization, partly to a lack of well-directed co-operation between the board and other agencies connected with or contributing information to it, and partly to defects in the law itself."

While, in a sense, this view is correct, it entirely overlooks the main cause for the time consumed in making this initial canvass, due to the fact that only fifty-six policemen could be spared by the police commissioner to do the work, and to the further fact that after the borough of Manhattan had been partially covered the commissioner of education required every district in which the initial canvass had been completed to be amended and kept up to date, thus constantly reducing and not increasing the number of men available for the initial canvass. This continued until March, 1911, the original canvass having been begun in January, 1910.

Had it been possible to obtain a sufficiently large number of enumerators—these were detailed from the regular police force—the work could have been accomplished in much less time, despite the many difficulties with which the census board was confronted. For a time, of course, it was not possible to estimate the number required, but 200 men engaged only in the making of the initial canvass would have completed the work in a few months.

GEORGE H. CHATFIELD.

[Secretary Permanent Census Board, New York.]

JOTTINGS

FROM SOAP-BOX TO SCHOOL

Seattle recently took another step forward in utilization of the school buildings for community purposes. The Board of Directors has begun to grant permits for political meetings. In the recent city elections the various candidates appeared in the school-buildings—the Socialist candidates as well as others. With the school-buildings open, the Socialist will have less need of reverting to the "soap-box."

¹See THE SURVEY, February 17, page 1777.

With Los Angeles utilizing the school-buildings as voting places, with these buildings fast becoming social centers for all that pertains to the community's welfare, it would appear that not much is lacking, in some of the Pacific coast cities, for a complete utilization of the school-buildings.

COMMITTEE ON ADULT PROBATION

The National Probation Association, which in the past has confined itself principally to juvenile probation, has recently organized a strong committee on adult probation with Frank E. Wade, vice-president of the New York State Probation Commission, as chairman. The committee will make a report at the next meeting of the association, to be held in Cleveland in June. It hopes to publish educational literature and to do propagandist work. The other members of the committee are:

Demarchus C. Brown, Indianapolis, state librarian, member of the Indiana Board of State Charities; Edwin J. Cooley, Buffalo, county probation officer; Charles A. DeCourcy, Boston, Justice of the Massachusetts Supreme Court, vice-president of the American Institute on Criminal Law and Criminology, former president of the Massachusetts Commission on Probation; John J. Gascoyne, Newark, N. J., chief probation officer; Alice L. Higgins, Boston, secretary of Associated Charities; Joseph Lee, Boston, member of the Massachusetts Commission on Probation, president of the Massachusetts Civic League; James A. Leonard, Mansfield, Ohio, superintendent of the Ohio State Reformatory, formerly president of the American Prison Association; Rev. Thomas J. Lynch, New York city, supervisor of Catholic correctional work in the archdiocese of New York, secretary of the Catholic Protective Society; Tracy W. McGregor, Detroit, superintendent of the McGregor Institute, formerly member of the Michigan State Commission on Minor Offenses; Howard P. Nash, Brooklyn, city magistrate; Harry Olsen, Chicago, chief justice of the Municipal Court; Albert J. Sargent, Boston, chief probation officer of the Municipal Court; H. H. Shirer, Columbus, secretary Ohio Board of State Charities, financial secretary of American Prison Association; James B. Vinling, Cleveland, secretary in the Municipal Department of Charities and Correction; Edward F. Wait, Minneapolis, judge of the District and Juvenile Courts, president of the Minnesota Branch of the Society for the Friendless.

CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS READY

The Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction for 1911 (Alexander Johnson, Angola, Ind., secretary), is issued as a volume of almost six hundred pages. The majority of the addresses and reports of committees are printed in full and include some vigorous contributions to the current discussion of social problems. Some of these are having a wide distribution as reprints; and the volume as a whole should be on the shelves of every social worker.

Another volume of proceedings which is now available is Uniform Child Labor Laws, the addresses and reports of the last annual conference on child labor. This can be obtained for \$1 of the National Child Labor Committee, 105 E. 22 street, New York city.

IN SOUTHERN LUMBER CAMPS

Delegates to the convention of the Yellow Pine Manufacturers' Association which met recently in New Orleans made a voluntary contribution of \$2,900 to further the plans of the Young Men's Christian Association for the workers in southern lumber camps. The money, it is announced, will be used to pay the salary of a travelling secretary of the industrial department of the Young Men's Christian Association. This secretary will take charge of the association's campaign for the establishment of clubs and promotive work in the territory in which the yellow pine manufacturers operate.

CITY PLANNING EXHIBIT

The library of the New York School of Philanthropy is holding an exhibit of books and material on city planning with special reference to its social aspect, namely, improved housing. It is primarily an exhibit of books, to show the resources of the library, and to encourage further reading and study on this subject. Of the pictures, particular attention is called to those illustrating the proposed development of Blackwell's Island, general layout for the New York Farm Colony, of which two pictures are to be seen, pictures of the proposed Brooklyn Plaza, with library, plans, and pictures of Forest Hills Gardens, and many photographs to illustrate improved housing conditions. It is hoped that an examination of these pictures and maps may prove suggestive. This exhibit opened in the librarian's room on Monday, March 4, and will continue through the month, closing on March 30. It is open daily from nine o'clock in the morning to five in the evening.

\$60,000 FOR NURSES' PENSIONS

The superintendent of Mount Sinai Hospital, New York, announces that subscriptions received complete an initial pension fund of \$60,000 for the relief of nurses who, after graduation from the Mount Sinai Hospital Training School, have supported themselves at least in part by nursing the sick for a period of twenty years. The fund is to be administered by a committee of the Mount Sinai Alumnae Association. In exceptional circumstances, relief may be given to nurses who become incapacitated before the expiration of twenty years of active work.

FEDERATION OF JEWISH CHARITIES

During the past month, the Jewish societies of Pittsburgh have banded together into a Federation of Jewish Philanthropies, with the following officers in charge: Aaron Cohen, president; A. Leo Weil and Charles Dreifus, vice-presidents; Leon Falk, treasurer; Irvin F. Lehman, temporary secretary. Already \$65,000 has been pledged and \$10,000 more is expected, over against \$55,000 raised last year by means of dues, balls, picnics, etc. A paid secretary will shortly be engaged.

WOMEN'S INDUSTRIAL EXHIBIT

With the object of earning a working fund for their respective interests, ten New York philanthropies are holding a Women's Industrial Exhibit and Sale at the New Grand Central Palace, March 14 to 23. The ten co-operating charities are the George Washington Memorial Association, the Woman's Municipal League, the Association of New York City Day Nurseries, the George Junior Republic, the New York Association for the Blind, the Little Mothers' Association, the Free Industrial School and Country Home for Crippled Children, the Widowed Mothers' Fund Association, the Wilson Industrial School for Girls, and the Stony Wold Sanatorium Association. Mrs. John A. Dix is honorary president of the exhibit, Mrs. Henry F. Dimock president, and Mrs. Nelson Herrick Henry director. Among other exhibitors besides the ten cooperators are the Consumers' League and the National Child Labor Committee. The exhibit of the latter is especially interesting. It is devoted entirely to tenement house work and shows among other things how such work, even when carried on strictly within the terms of the sanitary law by which it is at present regulated, defeats the objects of both child labor and compulsory education laws.

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

MARCH CONFERENCES.

- 24-26—*Charities and Correction*, New Jersey State Conference of: Orange. Sec'y., Dr. David Weeks, Skillman.
- 20-24—*Child Welfare*, Sixteenth—Convention of the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations: St. Louis, Mo. Mrs. David O. Mears, The Coolidge, Brookline, Mass.
- 28-30—*School Hygiene Association*, American: Boston, Mass. Sec'y., Walter A. Storey, College of the City of New York, N. Y.

LATER MEETINGS.

International

- Sept. 4-13—*Chemistry*—Congress on Applied: Wash., September 4, and New York, September 6-13. Sec'y., Bernard C. Hesse, M. D., 25 Broad street, New York.
- Sept. 23-28—*Hygiene and Demography*, Fifteenth Congress on: Wash., D. C. Sec'y., Dr. John S. Fulton, Army Medical Museum, Wash., D. C.
- April 30-May 3—*Kindergarten*, Internat'l—Union: Des Moines, Ia. Corres. Sec'y., Luella A. Palmer, 235 East 18 street, New York.
- Sept. *Labor Legislation*, Association for: Zurich, Switzerland. Sec'y., Stephen Bauer, Basel, Switzerland.
- 1915 —*Prison Congress*, Quinquennial: London, Eng. Sec'y., F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.
- 1915 —*Relief*, Committee on Public and Private: London, Eng. Sec'y., Charles S. Loch, Charity Organization Society, London.
- April 14-20—*Tuberculosis*, International Congress on: Rome, Italy. Sec'y. Prof. Vittorio Ascoli, via rn Lucina 36, Rome.
- 1913 —*Fight Against Unemployment*, International Association for: Ghent, Belgium. American corres. officer, J. B. Andrews, 1 Madison ave., New York.

National

- May 9-12—*Arts*, American Federation of: Wash., D. C. Sec'y., F. D. Millet, 1741 New York Ave., Wash., D. C.
- Sept. 22-26—*Charities*, National Conference of Catholic: Wash., D. C. Sec'y., Rev. Dr. William J. Kerby, Catholic University, Wash.
- June 9-12—*Charities*, National Conference of Jewish: Cleveland, O. Sec'y., Rose Sommerfeld, 225 E. 63 St., New York.
- June 12-19—*Charities and Correction*, National Conference of: Cleveland, O. Gen. Sec'y., Alexander Johnson, Angola, Ind.
- April 28-30—*Colored People*, National Association for Advancement of: Chicago, Ill. Sec'y.-treas., T. W. Allison, 701 W. 14 Place, Chicago.
- June 3—*Epilepsy*, National Assoc. for Study of ——— and Care and Treatment of Epileptics: Vineland, N. J. Sec'y., J. F. Munson, Sonyea, N. Y.
- Oct. 2-5—*Infant Mortality*, American Assoc. for Study and Prevention of: Cleveland, O. Exec. Sec'y., Gertrude B. Knupp, Medical and Chirurgical Faculty Bldg., 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.
- April 3-4—*Medicine*, American Academy of: Lehigh University, South Bethlehem, Pa. Sec'y., Charles McIntire, M.D., Easton, Pa.
- June 3-6—*Nurses*, American Society of Superintendents of Training Schools for: Chicago, Ill. Sec'y., Jessie E. Cotton, Springfield Hospital, Springfield, Mass.
- June 11-19—*Probation*, Nat'l. ——— Assoc.: Cleveland, O. Sec'y., Arthur W. Towne, The Capitol, Albany, N. Y.
- May 22-23—*Tuberculosis*, Canadian Assoc. for Prevention of: Toronto, Ont. Sec'y., Dr. George D. Porter, 162 Crescent Road, Toronto.
- June 25-July 8—*Women's Clubs*, General Federation of: San Francisco, Cal. Corres. Sec'y., Mrs. Frank Shiek, Wheatland, Wyo.

Sectional

- May' 11—*Child-Helping*, Lehigh Valley ——— Conference: Mauch Chunk, Penn.
- April 3-6—*Education*, Fifteenth Conference for ——— in the South: Nashville, Tenn. Exec. Sec'y., P. P. Claxton, Wash., D. C.
- May 7-10—*Sociological Congress*, Southern: Nashville, Tenn. Sec'y. temporary exec. com., J. E. McCulloch, Nashville.

State and Local

- April 16—*Charities and Correction*, Connecticut State Conference of: Waterbury. Sec'y., Chas. P. Kellogg, Waterbury.
- Autumn—*Charities and Correction*, Massachusetts State Conference of: place not chosen. Sec'y., Parker B. Field, 229 Tremont street, Boston.
- April 30—*Charities and Correction*, New Hampshire State Conference of: Laconia. Sec'y., Mrs. James W. Remick, 80 School St., Concord.
- May 7-9—*Charities and Correction*, Third New York City Conference of: New York. Sec'y., John B. Prest, 287 Fourth ave., New York.
- April 14-16—*Charities and Correction*, Texas State Conference of: Waco. C. S. Potts, Austin.
- April 29—*Child Labor*, West Virginia Committee on: Wheeling. Sec'y., Nola McKinley, Fairmont.
- Nov. 18-23—*Child Welfare*, Kentucky ——— Conference and Exhibit: Louisville. Sec'y., Miss Zachert, Free Public Library, Louisville.
- Oct. 29—*No-License League*, Massachusetts: Boston. Sec'y., Robert H. Magwood, 310 Equitable Bldg., Boston.
- May 10-11—*Women's Clubs*, New Jersey State Federation of: Montclair. Corres. officer, Mrs. Howard C. Warren, Princeton.

THE COMMON WELFARE

NATIONAL SCRUTINY OF FEDERAL JAILS

Two weeks ago Representative Clayton, chairman of the Committee on the Judiciary, introduced into the national House of Representatives a bill "to appoint a commission to consider and report upon the general subject of the treatment of juvenile and first offenders, together with the best system of detention of federal prisoners." This language closely follows that of a recommendation made by Attorney General Wickersham in his last annual report. Mr. Wickersham declared that many jails and places of detention in which federal prisoners are confined while awaiting trial and to which they are committed under sentences of less than one year are "wholly unsuitable for the detention of any human beings and are shocking breeding places of crime." The principal sufferers from them, he declared, are juvenile offenders. Citing the good work done by the commission appointed by President Roosevelt in 1908 to investigate the jail of the District of Columbia, he recommended

that Congress authorize the appointment of a similar commission to consider and report upon the general subject of the treatment of juvenile and first offenders, and, in that connection, to inquire into the conditions of jails and places of detention throughout the United States in which offenders against federal statutes are confined, either before or after sentence, and to report to Congress its recommendations with respect to the best method of dealing with juvenile and first offenders, and the best system of the detention of federal prisoners while awaiting trial.

Representative Clayton's bill, which contains about 200 words, appropriates \$20,000 for the use of a commission of three persons, to be appointed by the president, one of whom may be nominated by the attorney general. It enacts further that the commission

shall consider and report upon the general subject of the treatment of juvenile and first

offenders, and in connection with the investigation the commissioners, under the direction of the attorney general, may inquire into the conditions of jails and places of detention throughout the United States in which offenders against Federal statutes are confined, either before or after sentence, and then shall report to Congress at its next session its recommendations with respect to the best system of dealing with juvenile and first offenders, and the best system of the detention of federal prisoners while waiting trial, and such other recommendations upon the subject as may seem to them expedient.

SIXTEEN STATES IN SOUTHERN CONFERENCE

When Gov. Ben W. Hooper, of Tennessee, spent two nights behind prison bars to learn how the state compels its law-breakers to live, he threw a pebble into Southern complacency. The ripples thus started have swelled into a section-wide movement for definite grappling with Southern problems. This act and his efforts to secure the Juvenile Court, to build a reformatory, to provide a parole system, and to establish a school and library in the state prison revealed him to many people as a solitary figure—a governor one of whose first interests is the improvement of social conditions. No time was lost in enlisting that interest in a specific project. A commissioner of charities and correction in a Southern state immediately suggested in a letter to Governor Hooper that he call a Southern conference for the study of social problems. At the governor's initiative the idea received informal discussion among prominent lawyers, business men, and social workers, with the result that the call has just been issued—two months after the first suggestion. It is addressed to the governors of the following fifteen states, which, with Tennessee, make sixteen included in the conference:

Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia.

The conference will be held May 7-10, 1912, at Nashville, Tenn. Each governor is asked to appoint not fewer than 100 delegates and to attend in person.¹ The urgency of holding a Southern conference at the present time is thus stated by Governor Hooper in his call:

For thirty-six years annual meetings of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections have been held, the benefits of which have largely gone to the Northern states, for the reason that these conferences have usually been held in the North, have been attended principally by Northern people, and have been devoted to the discussion of questions from a Northern viewpoint.

For a long period subsequent to the civil war the South was engaged in a struggle to recover from the shock of war and regain her feet. When this period of recovery had passed, the South entered upon the present wonderful era of material development, the zenith of which will not be reached for many years. Neither this condition of poverty and depression nor the sweeping material advancement now in progress have been conducive to the maintenance of the South's high ideals of government and society. Nevertheless, every state in the South has been bravely grappling with her sociological problems, which are admittedly more difficult than those in other sections of the nation.

While the South's financial, industrial, and agricultural development is now being emphasized by her great leaders in those lines in the Southern commercial congress, questions of humanity must not be forgotten, if our development is to be symmetrical.

THE MAY PROGRAM

It is intended to hold annual meetings hereafter. To this end J. E. McCulloch, general secretary of the American Interchurch College, and secretary of the executive committee² of this first conference, is now on a mission to

the governors of the Southern states, asking each to appoint two delegates who will meet with the executive committee at Nashville on the opening day of the congress to discuss policies for the coming year and to perfect plans for a permanent organization. It is expected that a board of control and a general secretary for the conference will be elected at that time. Governors Joseph M. Brown, of Georgia, William W. Kitchin of North Carolina, and William Hodges Mann of Virginia have already agreed to appoint such delegates.

Meantime the program has been largely arranged and the speakers secured for the May gathering. Among the latter are many men of national reputation. In this and other administrative matters an advisory committee of thirty is cooperating with the executive committee. The conference will devote itself mainly to the following three subjects:

Child Welfare
Prison Life and Reform
Public Health

General industrial relations and conditions of adult labor are noticeably absent from the program. Child welfare will be taken up with especial reference to dependent and delinquent children, mental defectives, compulsory education, child labor, and the relative value of institutional and placing-out systems. Under prison reform discussion will be given to the purposes of imprisonment, prison conditions in the South with especial reference to lease and contract systems, the indeterminate sentence, and adult probation. On the side of public health

¹The following institutions and organizations are also asked to send one or more delegates: penal institutions, state and county; reformatories and juvenile courts; child-helping institutions, such as orphanages, day nurseries, and child-helping societies; asylums for the insane, feeble-minded, deaf and dumb, blind, poor, and aged; hospitals and schools for nurses; medical associations, state and county; boards of health, state and local; anti-tuberculosis leagues and other health organizations; vice commissions; housing organizations; public libraries; colleges and universities; bar associations, state and county; women's clubs, state and local; fraternal orders and other societies, lodges, and associations which engage in benevolent work; temperance organizations; social settlements and institutional churches; newspapers and magazines.

²This committee was early appointed by Governor Hooper from names submitted to him, and consists

of the following residents of Nashville: Mrs. S. S. Crockett, chairman of the Committee on Program, chairman Public Health Department of the General Federation of Women's Clubs. Gov. Ben W. Hooper, president; Prof. G. W. Dyer, vice-chairman, professor of sociology, Vanderbilt University; J. E. McCulloch, secretary, general secretary of the American Interchurch college; W. R. Cole, treasurer, prominent business man; J. D. Strain, office secretary, secretary of the Anti-tuberculosis League of Tennessee; John Early, chairman of Committee on Finance, prominent business man; Rev. G. Detwiler, chairman of Committee on Arrangement, Methodist minister; Rev. Mercer P. Logan, chairman of the Committee on Entertainment, Episcopal ministers; A. P. Foster, chairman of the Committee on Publicity, secretary of the Industrial Bureaus; John H. De Witt, chairman, prominent lawyer and social worker; Joseph Frank, chairman of the Committee on Transportation, president of the Board of Trade.

attention will be given to tuberculosis, the county unit in the development of public health, the care and control of degenerates, and to the relation of the Negro to public health.

6 DAYS SHALT THOU LABOR

Last week a bill was introduced at Albany by Assemblyman Jackson and Senator Roosevelt that would protect the workers in the continuous industries. The meat of it is in a single sentence: no employer

may require or permit any employe to work on Sunday in his employ, except at farm labor or domestic service, unless within the next succeeding six days during a period of twenty-four consecutive hours he shall neither require nor permit such employe to work in his employ.

Over 35,000 members of trade unions in New York state are working seven days a week. Nobody knows how many more wage-earners are working on that sort of schedule. The union secretaries reported their plight to the state Department of Labor, but the hotel and restaurant employes, the workers in heat, light and power plants, the blast furnace workers, and the rest of the seven-day contingent have no representatives to state their cases.

Elementary as this bill is in providing the right to leisure in continuous employments, it will be violently opposed. Labor unions and church and civic bodies are back of a movement to arouse public interest in the measure.

THE LAWRENCE SETTLEMENT

On the afternoon of March 14, 10,000 men, women, boys, and girls—strikers and children of strikers—stood in the mud of the Lawrence Common and with many-tongued cheers and shouts brought the nine weeks' textile strike practically to an end. Two days before, the Strikers' Committee had voted to recommend to the operatives that the final terms offered by the American Woolen Company be accepted. The meeting on the common was called to get a general vote of all the strikers. From the band stand where Ettor had addressed the first mass

meeting of the striking employes early in January, Haywood and other leaders put the question of the vote to the assemblage. First by *ayes* and *nays* and then by a show of hands the strikers voted to call off the strike against the three local plants of the American Woolen Company—the Wood, Ayer, and Washington Mills—and against the Kunhardt and the Atlantic Mills. The three American Woolen Company mills employ about 10,000 people and the Kunhardt and Atlantic Mills about 1,000 each.

It was voted to continue the strike against the Arlington, Pacific, Pemberton, Everett, Lawrence Duck, and Uswoco Mills, which have not adopted the American Woolen Company schedule. Of the mills still holding out, the Pacific and the Arlington, which are the largest, have been working almost to capacity. The Everett Mill is closed indefinitely, the Uswoco has been handicapped but little by the strike, and the other plants have not figured seriously in the trouble. The terms which brought the strike to an end are:

Time and one-fourth for over-time.

Bi-weekly payment on the premium system, which will overcome an old abuse.

All employes formerly receiving less than 9½ cents per hour have an increase of 2 cents an hour.

All employes formerly receiving between 9½ cents and less than 10 cents an hour have an increase of 1¾ cents per hour.

All employes formerly receiving between 10 cents and less than 11 cents an hour have an increase of 1½ cents an hour.

All employes formerly receiving between 11 and 12 cents an hour have an increase of 1¼ cents an hour.

All employes formerly receiving between 12 and less than 20 cents per hour have an increase of 1 cent an hour.

All employes on job work have an advance of 5 per cent flat.

While the concessions granted do not entirely meet the original demands of the Industrial Workers of the World for a 15 per cent increase for everybody, the abolishment of the premium system, and double pay for over-time, the strike committee seems satisfied with the concessions, and Haywood says "it is the greatest victory ever won by labor in this country."

The striking fact about it is that the lowest paid workers are those who bene-

fit most. A boy getting 8 cents an hour will have a 25 per cent increase. Here we have a characteristic of industrial unionism—of the mass strike which makes its appeal to the rank and file of the semi-skilled and unskilled.

The announcement of the American Woolen Company's terms followed a series of conferences between the legislative conciliation committee, the strikers, and the mill operators. Early in the month the mill owners granted a minimum increase of 5 per cent, which the strikers' committee rejected.

The owners claim that they have made no additional concessions since their first offer of settlement, and that the later conferences were merely to explain their proposition more in detail. No mention was made in the original terms, however, either of the premium system or of extra pay for over-time work.

It was only a month ago that the operators were saying that it was out of the question to grant any increases at present, that as soon as conditions warranted higher wages they would be paid.

During the past month mills in other sections of New England have announced increases, and various estimates place the total number of textile operatives who will benefit in this way at 175,000 before April 1. The leaders of the Lawrence strike claim with many apparent reasons to justify it that these advances have hinged on the Lawrence struggle.

NEW YORK AID FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED

The space which newspapers and periodicals are devoting to feeble-mindedness and its social burdens is evidence of the wide-spread interest in this problem, to which *THE SURVEY* devoted the greater part of its issue of March 2. One of the contributions to this symposium was the story of what has been done at Letchworth Village, Thiells, N. Y., the newest and still unfinished state institution for the feeble-minded and epileptic, told by its superintendent, Charles S. Little.¹ At Albany, Chairman Whitney of the Ways and Means Committee of the Assembly has introduced a bill

(A 1272, Int. 1106) carrying an appropriation of a million and a quarter dollars for continuing the construction of this village. The appropriation will provide for the central administrative group of buildings, and also for the construction of two of the six main groups for patients into which the village will be divided. By the enactment of this law 1,000 beds will be at once provided. In the days when this institution was still a plan there was dispatch in moving from stage to stage in its development. The chairman of the commission appointed by Governor Hughes to select a site for Letchworth Village was William R. Stewart, president of the New York State Board of Charities. The commission completed its work within two years, whereupon its recommendations were adopted by the legislature. Frank A. Vanderlip, president of the National City Bank, is president of the Board of Managers, and upon him devolves the responsibility of the development of the village.

The State Board of Charities has for years urged the prompt completion of new institutions, and if the legislature of 1913 continues and that of 1914 provides for the completion of Letchworth Village, 1915 may be expected to see work begun on the new Custodial Asylum for Feeble-Minded Male Delinquents which is so much needed. For this Mr. Whitney has also made provision through the introduction of a bill authorizing the appointment of a commission to select a site (A 1127, Int. 1018). Miss Davis's¹ and Dr. Schlapp's² articles in *THE SURVEY* of March 2 told graphically the appalling and undeniably results of treating defective offenders as criminals. Public opinion is solidly in favor of both these measures.

Senator McClelland and Assemblyman Bush have introduced in their respective chambers a bill adding four new sections to the Public Health Law creating a board of examiners, consisting of three members to be appointed by the governor, one to be a surgeon, one a neurologist, and one a practitioner of medicine. Each must have at least ten

¹See *THE SURVEY*, March 2, page 1869.

²See *THE SURVEY*, March 2, page 1849.

³*Ibid.*, page 1846.

years' experience. The purpose of the commission is to examine feeble-minded, epileptics, criminals, and other defective inmates in state hospitals for the insane, state prisons, reformatories, and charitable and penal institutions, and to perform operations to prevent procreation by such persons when in the board's judgment their offspring would inherit a tendency to crime, insanity, etc. Persons so examined and operated upon may be represented by counsel (S. 816, A. 1137).

As the governor of Indiana has recently suspended the operation of the sterilization law in that state, pending the determination of its constitutionality, as a committee of the American Breeders' Association is now making an exhaustive inquiry into this whole subject, and as students of heredity are not a unit in their conclusions as to the practical value of such procedure, the subject commends itself to many persons at this time as one rather for study than for legislative action. But as to the necessity for the segregation of defectives there is no disagreement among experts.

IMMIGRANTS AND THE NORTHWEST

Only the span of a man's life—the biblical three score years and ten—has passed since Marcus Whitman, Indian missionary, took his famous horseback ride across the Rocky Mountains to tell the East about Oregon.

It is a commentary on what can happen in seventy years in a new continent that last month a convention was held in Tacoma, Wash., to consider ways of meeting the immigration problem. It was called the Immigration Convention of the Pacific Northwest, but there were delegates representing not only the entire Pacific coast, including British Columbia, but Idaho and North Dakota also.

The digging of the Panama Canal and the resulting immigration to the Pacific coast that is to be foreseen was one of the reasons for calling the convention. In nearly every speech reference was made to the probability that the opening of the canal will make the Pacific coast,

as one man expressed it, "the front door instead of the back door to the country." It was pointed out that it will cost a European immigrant only \$10 more to land in San Francisco, after the canal is completed, than it costs him now to land in New York; and the spirit of the convention was that the Pacific coast, by intelligent action at this time, may be able

to solve the immigrant problem before it becomes too acute to tackle, too burdensome to carry, too intricate to unsnarl.

Credit for the calling of the convention and the beginning of the movement is given by the Tacoma papers to C. W. Blanpied, industrial secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association. The aims of the convention were three-fold: first, to discuss ways and means for encouraging the right sort of immigration; second, to discuss methods of educating the immigrants; third, to discuss the best method of locating newcomers on the soil and protecting them against exploitation. The discussion, which was participated in by civic leaders, fruit-growers of the Northwest, Young Men's Christian Association men, political leaders, and labor leaders, was directed along the lines indicated above.

One of the most important suggestions with regard to the locating of immigrants on the soil was made by State Senator W. H. Paulhamus, of Washington, who advocated the clearing of logged-off lands by convicts and the opening up of these lands to immigrants, allowing them "ten, twenty, and even forty years" to pay for the cost of the work. The convention adopted a series of resolutions that indicated a seriousness of purpose and an earnest desire to meet the immigration problem with intelligence. Among them were recommendations for the establishment of state bureaus of immigration and industry; for the compilation of the immigration laws of states on the Atlantic seaboard in order to determine their adaptability to Pacific coast conditions; the establishment of immigration and quarantine stations on the Pacific coast and the establishment in coast cities of branches of the North American Civic League for Immigrants. The important

educational recommendations were the establishment of schools for educating immigrants in the English language; the providing of special courses for immigrants in industrial and agricultural schools; the establishment of citizenship schools; the supplying of educational facilities in logging camps and mill centers; and the requirement of six months' attendance at some accredited school prior to admitting an alien to full citizenship. The suggestion of Senator Faulhamus regarding the clearing of logged-off lands was also adopted by the convention.

At the close it was decided to form an Immigration Study League to act as a clearing house of information, and a permanent committee was appointed consisting of Dana Bartlett of Los Angeles, chairman, W. M. Mitchell of Victoria, B. C., first vice-chairman, D. O. Lively of Portland, Ore., second vice-chairman, and C. W. Blanpied of Tacoma, secretary.

HEALTH DAY BY PROCLAMATION

If Christmas, Thanksgiving, and fifty Sundays be set apart for religious and moral instruction and rest; if February 12 and 22, May 30, and July 4 be given to patriotic utterances and commemorating great citizenship; and if the first

Monday in September be designated for considering the Labor cause; why not a "Health Day"—why not a day given entirely to spreading information and to focusing thought upon such an important element in both happiness and efficiency as public health? So thought Dr. Ellen A. Wallace, state superintendent of the Department of Health and Heredity of the New Hampshire Women's Christian Temperance Union, who initiated a "Health Day" movement in New Hampshire; so thought the Health-Education League, Boston, which co-operated by urging the observance of Health Day in the schools; so thought Gov. Robert P. Bass, who gave his official approval in the following Health Day proclamation:

TO THE PEOPLE OF NEW HAMPSHIRE:

The governor and council have been asked by the Woman's Christian Temperance Union to designate a certain day as Health Day for the state of New Hampshire.

Believing that great benefit will be derived from the proper observance of such a day, we do suggest February 9, 1912, as "Health Day."

To interest every individual in the community in improved sanitary and hygienic conditions is the purpose of this movement. In short, to emphasize right methods of living whereby the health of the community may be permanently improved.

In our schools, a program, short and interesting, given by a number of children, may be one means employed. Suggestions for the program include instructions, short and specific, relative to preventable diseases, particu-

Second Section **THE MANCHESTER UNION.** Pages 9 to 16

MANCHESTER, N. H., FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 9 1912.

Health Day Suggestions for Everybody

PURE MILK AS HEALTH FACTOR

Why It Should Be Demanded by Public.

HOW IT CAN BE OBTAINED

Dr. G. W. Hale, of the United States Commission on Milk, says: "Pure milk is the most important and profitable of our products."

Most people are ignorant of the fact that pure milk is not sold in this country.

TUBERCULOSIS PREVENTABLE

It is "Caught" Like Many Other Diseases

AND MAY BE Warded OFF

Dr. Edward C. Ott of Boston tells how there is much to be done to prevent the spread of the most virulent plague, whether a victim or not.

It is not long since that tuberculosis was considered an incurable disease.

KILL THE FLIES AND SAVE LIVES

One of Most Dangerous Spreaders of Disease.

LESSON OF CONSUMAUCIA

Dr. W. H. Henshaw, Health Officer, Indianapolis, against the House Fly, says that the House Fly, which is the most common pest, is one of the most dangerous of all insects.

It is not long since that tuberculosis was considered an incurable disease.

INSANITY MAY BE PREVENTED

A Definite Disease, Due to Neglected Causes.

DR. C. P. BARCROFT'S TESTS

A study of the cases of 10 Per Cent of Insanity—Barcroft's Study of Insanity and Personality.

Public attention is being attracted to the study of insanity and personality.

TO MAKE NEW HAMPSHIRE THE MOST HEALTHFUL STATE.

The newspapers co-operated in the state Health Day program by printing special articles written by national authorities.

larly those of the winter season, and brief statements of the cost annually of the more common maladies to the individual, the state, and the nation.

The Grange can be of much assistance by having lectures given on the best method of preserving the health of the farming communities, at the meeting nearest the date.

The boards of health, boards of trade, women's clubs, the clergy, and the Young Men's Christian Association can materially assist in ways which may occur to them.

The newspapers may be interested to publish brief articles on topics pertinent to local conditions and interesting statements on water, air, and sunshine in relation to health.

The co-operation of all citizens interested in public welfare is sought in the effort to have Health Day observed so as to be most beneficial to the individual and the state as a whole.

ROBERT P. BASS,
Governor.

Concord, January 16, 1912.

The Health Day plan met with quick and favorable response. Besides the general co-operation of local temperance unions throughout the state, the Red Cross Society, American Medical Association Educational Committee, the Grange, state Board of Health, the public schools, the churches, and the newspaper press worked for its success. In Manchester and Concord the superintendents of schools directed all teachers to observe the day, and the newspapers of these and other cities, which have a very wide circulation in New Hampshire, gave editorial backing and liberal space to health articles written by able physicians and sanitarians. It was a day spent in popularizing, through many agencies of publicity, primary principles in personal health and hygiene, the importance of cleanliness, of good food and drink, of plenty of fresh air, exercise, and play in warding off sickness and disease. Results, so far as they can be seen, have convinced the Health Day leaders of the value of setting aside such a day again.

THE LAWRENCE STRIKE HEARINGS

CONSTANCE D. LEUPP

Nothing short of a careful investigation would show where the truth lies among the conflicting statements of the

strongly partisan witnesses at the hearing given by the Rules Committee of the House of Representatives into the Lawrence strike. But bits of testimony gave interesting glimpses into the housekeeping which goes on in an industry protected by a prohibitive tariff.

One little girl told of catching her hair in the machinery and having her scalp torn and of how she got no damages because her family was too poor to sue. The cashier of the mill where the accident happened promptly explained this tale away. He testified that she was illegally employed, under age, on a forged certificate. Then he described how the accident had happened, the circumstances themselves showing that the child was plainly too young to be employed at all in a room with unguarded machinery.

"And so," said the witness, as he sat back, "there were no damages because no lawyer would take the case."

A weaver who made one of the best witnesses for the strikers admitted he got as high as \$9 or \$10 a week on an average. He explained that he paid \$2.50 a week in rent for the four rooms in which he lived with his wife and four children. He was not a citizen, he said, although he had been in this country eight or nine years.

"I got out my first papers four years ago," he said simply, "but I have not the \$4 for the rest. I must buy shoes for my little ones."

The city missionary of Lawrence gave some unconsciously interesting evidence when he described the home conditions of the operatives and their families, the popularity of the penny school lunches of bread and molasses, and remarked in passing that a child must be kept occupied and that playing ball, going fishing, or working in a mill were equally valuable educationally.

"I deal so much with the very poor," he explained, "that when I find a family that can pay rent and pay for their groceries they seem well off to me."

He spoke of hard times and prosperous times, and he identified the latter as the times when the whole family works in the mill.

One twenty-year-old Polish girl who stands a bare five-feet-two testified about her encounter with a militiaman who had used his bayonet against her when she struck at him with her muff. Her most interesting testimony was not given on the stand, however, but at the noon recess when she told a little of her life since she left Poland. She is the oldest of six children, and has worked in the mills ever since she was a child, pausing only to take care of the babies when her mother went back into the mill six months after each child was born.

One of the labor leaders charged the manufacturers with encouraging immigration from southern Europe and he told of picture postal cards brought over from the old country by the operatives, depicting Lawrence in pleasant colors. No answer was made to these charges.

The attention of the audience wandered a good deal from the immediate issue of the rights of the police to interfere with the departure of the children, and the question of whether the police with their billies or the girls with their muffs, the militia with their bayonets or the boys with their tin horns and snow balls, had been guilty of more violence. Attention fastened on the thin face of Lipson, the young Russian Jewish weaver with his wife and four children at home, his \$10 a week, and his deliberate neglect of citizenship; it fastened on the group of pale, stunted children among the strikers, and it wandered in conjecture to that other vastly larger group of children employed in the other highly protected industry of cotton manufacture. And then it jumped

to England at the close of the Boer war, when the scared empire took stock of its depleted citizenship and fastened the blame where it belonged—on the textile mills of Lancashire.

UNDER THE SHADOW OF THE COAL STRIKE

WALTER E. WEYL

[MR. WEYL, AUTHOR OF THE NEW DEMOCRACY, WENT THROUGH THE ANTHRACITE COAL STRIKE OF 1902, AS A VOLUNTEER ASSOCIATED WITH JOHN MITCHELL, AND COLLABORATED WITH THE LATTER IN HIS BOOK ON TRADE UNIONISM.

MR. WEYL THEREFORE SPEAKS FROM AN INTIMATE KNOWLEDGE OF THE LAST GREAT LABOR STRUGGLE IN THE ANTHRACITE FIELDS, OUTLINING THE ISSUES WHICH HAVE BEEN THE SUBJECT OF NEGOTIATIONS THROUGHOUT THE PAST MONTH AND WHICH MAY LEAD TO ANOTHER AND EVEN MORE FARE-REACHING STRIKE ON APRIL 1.]

At the beginning of a strike it is difficult to see the issues because of the grievances. Both sides protest overmuch. Wrong appears superlatively wrong, and justification becomes glorification. Grievances which have lain dormant in the consciousness of the workers suddenly revive, and as men come under the shadow of the strike they are astounded at their past forbearance.

After the preliminary negotiations, the issues become a little clearer. Each of



"ON STRIKE."

—Cleveland Leader.

the two high conflicting parties, having asked more than it was willing to accept or offered less than it was willing to grant, gradually adopts a more conciliatory attitude. The more extreme demands on both sides are silently eliminated. The issues narrow.

Even then one cannot surely predict the real issues, since all industrial conflicts are dynamic, and alter as they progress. The issue changes. A strike against an unpopular foreman may convert itself into a strike for shorter hours, while a fight for higher wages may become in effect a struggle for the recognition of the union.

What we have now to deal with in this impending anthracite coal strike, therefore, is not the final issue but a schedule of grievances, an industrial platform which serves as a basis of negotiation and contention, a platform not unlike the platforms of political parties. We are not now to judge, for judgment in the final resort will be passed by the god of industrial battles. We are here simply to understand.

The situation in its rough outlines is this. On the one side are seven or eight great coal-carrying railroads directly or indirectly operating almost all the mines in the anthracite regions. On the other side are about 180,000 men and boys, most of them of foreign birth, at work in and about the mines. The present labor constitution of the industry is based upon the award of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission of 1903 which was appointed by President Roosevelt after the famous strike of 1902. Under this award wages were raised 10 per cent above those obtaining before the strike, and a sliding scale was adopted by which 1 per cent was added to the mine-workers' wages for every 5 cents increase in the price (of domestic sizes of anthracite coal at tide-water) above \$4.50 a ton. The union of the miners was not officially recognized, but machinery was provided for the settlement of grievances, in the shape of a conciliation board composed of three representatives of the miners and three of the operators, and of an umpire in the event of a failure to agree.

The award of the Anthracite Coal

Strike Commission was for three years, but it was renewed in 1906 (after a few weeks' cessation of work) and again in 1909. The agreement lapses again on March 31 of this year.

As the forces marshal for this collective bargaining which may end in a nation-wide strike, or may be settled amicably, each side presents its program. The miners demand the acceptance of each of nine separate proposals. The operators reject each of these nine separate proposals.

Here are the nine demands of the men:

We demand that the next contract be for a period of one year, commencing April 1, 1912, and ending March 31, 1913.

We demand a work-day of not more than eight hours for all inside and outside day labor, with no reduction of wages.

We demand recognition of the United Mine Workers of districts Nos. 1, 7, and 9 as a party to negotiate a wage contract and the right to produce a method for the collection of revenue for the organization.

We demand a more convenient and uniform system of adjusting local grievances within a reasonable time limit.

We demand an advance of 20 per cent on the rates of wages for all employes over and above the rates awarded in 1903.

We demand a minimum rate of \$3.50 a day for miners and \$2.75 for laborers, for consideration work.

We demand that the system whereby a contract miner has more than one working place or employs more than two laborers shall be abolished.

We demand that the rights of the check-weighman and check-docking bosses shall be recognized, and that they shall not be interfered with in the proper performance of their work.

We demand that all coal shall be mined and paid for by the ton of 2,240 pounds wherever practicable.

It is impossible in the course of this brief statement to give the grounds advanced by both sides for the acceptance or rejection of each of these nine demands. Any adequate consideration of the subject would require a thorough and exhaustive study of an extremely complex and involved industrial situation. We can give here only the large surface indications. The nine demands divide themselves generally into three; higher wages, shorter hours, and a better strategic position for the miners.

The demand for higher wages is justified by the men on the ground that since 1903 prices have steadily risen. If the coal strike commissioners believed that wages were fair in 1903, then it would follow axiomatically that the same wages would be unfair and inadequate in 1912. The men have profited, it is true, by the sliding scale, the total amount of the premium averaging about \$4,000,000 a year or about \$2 per month per employe. They have not profited, however, in a larger degree in 1911 than in 1903, and not in a larger measure than was anticipated by the award, which was presumably based upon the cost of living prevailing at the earlier period.

Against this claim of the men it will probably be contended by the operators that the men are already being paid wages commensurate with, or higher than, the wages paid for a like grade of skill in other employments, and that the industry cannot afford to pay the higher wages demanded. It is also claimed by the operators that a real increase in wages has been effected through an increase in the number of working days. About these points the main conflict of opinion will rage. It will be contended by the men that a higher rate of remuneration should be paid to mine workers than to workmen in certain other industries, because of the enormous risks to life and limb assumed by those who work in the mines. It will also probably be contended that the men have no assurance that the increase in the number of working days per year will be maintained. In interpreting the scale of daily wages earned by miners and laborers, the men will lay emphasis upon the comparatively small number of days (about 210) during which the miner is employed in the year. The demand for an eight instead of a nine-hour day involves neither increase nor decrease in the day's wages, but means an increase of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent in the hourly wages.

The remaining demands of the miners are chiefly intended to strengthen the strategic position of the men in any future negotiations. The third demand would enable the mine workers' union to act as a direct party to all agreements

with the operators, and would permit the organization to collect its dues automatically by means of the check-off system. Under this system, in vogue in a number of the bituminous districts, the union miner signs a paper authorizing the operator to pay his dues to the union and deduct them from his wages. This system enormously increases the strategic position of the union and keeps the members in the union.

A somewhat similar object is aimed at by the first demand, which attempts to substitute a one-year for a three-year agreement as at present. Under a three-year agreement, the union spirit goes to sleep and is reawakened only once in three years. Miners, feeling that the union has nothing to offer them for three years, become lax about paying dues, and men who are conscientious are discouraged by the example of those who are not. Under a three-year agreement, moreover, the anthracite miners are bound at a time when they might be inclined to strike in sympathy with bituminous miners, while under a one-year agreement there would be a far greater latitude of cooperation with the miners in the soft-coal fields.

This latter fact is one of the outstanding phases of the present situation. Not only does the present anthracite agreement terminate in a presidential year, but it also synchronizes with that of the soft-coal miners. The present strike, if a strike is called, may extend far beyond the mines of eastern Pennsylvania. Nor can the outcome of such a strike be easily predicted. It is true that the anthracite miners have not large reserves of money; but in strikes of this enormous magnitude, where it costs the anthracite miners over a million dollars a week to live, even the largest war-chest is but a secondary element in the situation. It is quite possible that both the operators and the miners will be able to hold out longer than will the public; and in 1912 as in 1902 it is not impossible that the settlement of the strike, if there be a strike, will be ordered and compelled by the interference of a third party to the dispute.

Into all these vague possibilities, however, we need not now enter.

WAGES IN COTTON MILLS AT HOME AND ABROAD

EARLE CLARK
Statistician Russell Sage Foundation

The textile mill employes at Lawrence, Mass., are striking to prevent a decrease in their wages. In discussions of the issues involved in the strike it is almost universally assumed that the compensation of textile mill operatives is at present much higher in Massachusetts than in England or in other foreign countries. The manufacturers assert that the workers in their mills are far better paid than the workers in foreign mills. It is stated that the wages paid in Massachusetts cannot be advanced because of the low wages paid in England. Even among those persons who sympathize in general with the striking workmen the opinion seems to prevail that, while conditions at Lawrence are sufficiently bad, conditions in foreign countries are certainly worse; that the gravest danger to be apprehended is that conditions at home may sink to the low level of conditions abroad.

In the case of one branch, at least, of the textile manufacturing industry, this assumption is not justified by the facts. Of the 24,000 or 25,000 operatives employed in textile manufacturing at Lawrence, a considerable number are cotton mill operatives. It appears from the official statistics of England and of the state of Massachusetts that the adult males among these cotton mill workers are scarcely as well paid as the adult males employed in English cotton mills. In other words, the class of operatives who, under normal social conditions, are heads of families and bread-winners of families receive at least as much for their labor in England as in Massachusetts.

In terms of money the earnings of men employed in cotton manufacturing are considerably higher in Massachusetts than in England. It appears from the figures presented in a report issued by the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics that the average weekly wages of the men employed in the cotton mills of Massachusetts in 1908 were about \$10.22. The report of the British Board of Trade on earnings in the textile trades shows that in 1906 the average weekly earnings of all men employed in the cotton manu-

facturing industry of England were 29s. 4d., or, in American money, \$7.14. While the figures for England are not for the same year as the figures for Massachusetts, the data are nevertheless comparable. Since 1906 and 1908 the changes in cotton mill wages in England and in Massachusetts, respectively, have been small. Both in Massachusetts and in England there appear to have been slight advances, but these advances have not materially affected the relative position of the two localities. The difference between money wages in Massachusetts and money wages in England as indicated by the figures cited is expressed briefly in the statement that for every dollar earned by the average Massachusetts operative the average English operative earns only about 69.9 cents.

Money wages are, however, but a single element in the compensation of labor. The sum of money in an operative's weekly pay envelope is worth to him only what it will purchase in the way of necessities and comforts. As the exchange value of a given sum may vary widely in different countries, a comparison of money wages in England with money wages in Massachusetts may well be seriously misleading. In order to obtain a comparison representing the true returns of labor in England and in Massachusetts, it is necessary to consider differences in money wages in connection with differences in the purchasing power of money.

The fact is well known that the cost of living is materially higher in this country than in England. Data showing the difference as between England and the United States in the purchasing power of money are presented in a report issued in 1911 by the British Board of Trade, entitled the Cost of Living in American Towns. This report deals with that very considerable proportion of the total expenditure of workmen which is represented by rents and retail food prices. An examination of the material shows that the figures published apply fairly as between cotton mill operatives in England and cotton mill operatives in Massachusetts.

It appears from the figures of the report that for every dollar that an English workingman pays for rent an American

workingman must pay about \$2.07; and that of the food consumed by the typical American workingman's family as much can be purchased in England for \$1 as can be purchased in the United States for \$1.25. Stated in terms of both the housing and the food required by the typical American workingman's standard of living, \$1 is worth about as much in England as is \$1.45½ in the United States.

As has been stated, the relative figures presented above have been determined on the basis of differences in rents and retail food prices. No account has been taken of differences in the cost of clothing, furniture, and other commodities required by workingmen's families both in the United States and in England. That the prices of most kinds of clothing are lower in England than in the United States is a matter of common knowledge, but no exact data on the subject are available. It is evident, moreover, that payments for rent and food necessarily constitute the principal elements in the expenditure of cotton mill employes, and that the sums spent for other purposes must be correspondingly small. For this reason, the relative figures presented may be accepted as indicating with substantial accuracy differences in the cost of living.

With the differences in wages and in the purchasing power of money already known, differences in the purchasing power of wages may readily be determined by a simple computation. The results of such a computation and the figures on which it is based are shown in the following table:

The Lawrence mill owners claim that they cannot increase the compensation of their operatives without being driven out of business by English competition. With the validity of this contention the present article does not deal. The figures presented do serve to show that, contrary to current opinion and assertion, the wages paid in the Massachusetts cotton mills do not enable the men employed to maintain a standard of living higher than that which the men employed in English mills can maintain upon English wages.

THE LAWRENCE STRIKE

WILBUR E. ROWELL

[A FORTNIGHT OR SO AGO THE SURVEY RECEIVED A LETTER OF PROTEST FROM JUDGE ROWELL TO THE EFFECT THAT IN ITS INTERPRETATION OF THE LAWRENCE STRIKE IT "IN A MODERATE DEGREE, AND MANY OTHER PERIODICALS IN WORSE DEGREE, OVERLOOKED CERTAIN IMPORTANT ELEMENTS IN THE INDUSTRIAL SITUATION." WE PROMPTLY ASKED JUDGE ROWELL TO SET FORTH TO THE READERS OF THE SURVEY WHAT THE MANUFACTURERS AND CITIZENS OF LAWRENCE HAVE FACED IN THE PRESENT STRIKE, THE POSITIONS THEY HAVE TAKEN, THE ASSAULTS THEY HAVE UNDERGONE. HE HAS AS PROMPTLY COMPLIED WITH THE REQUEST.

IT WAS BEFORE JUDGE ROWELL THAT THE CASES OF STRIKERS' CHILDREN WERE FIRST BROUGHT.

IN A LETTER FROM THE SECRETARY OF THE LAWRENCE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION, JUDGE ROWELL IS DESCRIBED AS A "KEEN STUDENT OF SOCIAL CONDITIONS IN THIS CITY AND HEAD OF THE LOCAL SURVEY JUST COMPLETED ON HOUSING CONDITIONS, MILK, SANITATION, AND OTHER LINES; INTERESTED IN FIRST-HAND WORK AMONG FOREIGNERS AND BROADLY SYMPATHETIC IN ALL REFORM WORK AND A HIGHER WAGE."]]

The strike in Lawrence has impressed upon the mind of the writer some considerations which in all the multitude of things that have been said seem not to have found a place. I have lived in the city twenty-seven years; I am not a

RELATIVE PURCHASING POWER OF WEEKLY EARNINGS OF ADULT MALE COTTON MILL OPERATIVES IN MASSACHUSETTS AND IN ENGLAND.

LOCALITY	WEEKLY EARNINGS		RELATIVE PURCHASING POWER OF MONEY	RELATIVE PURCHASING POWER OF WEEKLY EARNINGS
	Actual	Relative		
Massachusetts	\$10.22	100.0	100.0	100.0
England	7.14	69.9	145.5	101.7

It is obvious that \$7.14 will buy more with the purchasing power of money at 145.5, as in England, than will \$10.22 with the purchasing power of money at 100.0, as in the United States. The difference between the purchasing power of the English wage and that of the Massachusetts wage is expressed by the ratio 101.7 to 100.0.

manufacturer; and I have had rather more than the usual opportunities to know the city.

In the first place, very few of the numerous accounts sent from here have truthfully presented the situation. By this I do not mean that many, perhaps most, of the incidents, conversations, and facts related have not been literally true, al-

though plenty of plain falsehoods have been found useful in the preparation of picturesque and salable copy. But the picture of Lawrence as drawn by the various special correspondents has not been a true one. However mistaken some of us may be in thinking well of the city, we know it is not the place that has been described. It is a typical New England industrial city, with all the equipment and resources that are found in such a city for generous and noble life, and for the sympathetic relief of weakness and suffering. There are public schools of the Massachusetts standards, including an evening high school of some eight hundred members; churches not only for the English-speaking, but for every foreign race represented here by a few hundred people; a Young Men's Christian Association occupying a building just erected at a cost of \$150,000; a Young Women's Christian Association in its own building; a large general hospital supported by voluntary gifts and endowment; a tuberculosis hospital; a well organized institution which does under another name the work of associated charities; a hundred other institutions of charitable and social aims. Why attempt to enumerate them? Anyone who knows a New England city knows what they are; and one who knows them ought to know that it is foolish to think of people, working people and foreigners though they be, living among such resources, and having neither opportunity for their ambition nor comfort for their affliction.

It happens, by the way, that many of the Lawrence factories are newly built and that all, new and old, are constructed and maintained at a very high standard as regards the health and comfort of employes. Of course all are under the rigid factory inspection of Massachusetts. The textile industry has no occupational diseases; it does not involve extremes either of hard labor or of hazard; under ordinary circumstances it affords steady employment. In view of a recent study of the housing conditions made by expert investigators, I can assert that the working people are well housed in comparison with conditions elsewhere. The foreign people are depositors in the savings banks in great numbers and in large amounts. They readily acquire real

estate; for instance, real estate to the value of \$801,000 is assessed to Italians, and of \$222,800 to Syrians. Another evidence of the prosperity of the foreign people is that they are frequent litigants in the courts. That seems to be a luxury of which they are very fond, probably because it is one to which they have not been accustomed.

I shall make an assertion that I realize will meet with the scorn of all the gentlemen and ladies from abroad who have so kindly interested themselves in our affairs of late, namely, that the foreign working people in Lawrence have been before this strike, and will be after it is over, decidedly prosperous, happy, though perhaps not quite contented, and standing before a door of opportunity, wide open to them, such as is to be found nowhere else in the world but in American cities of which Lawrence is a good example.

In the second place, it seems pertinent to say that the managers of the Lawrence mills are men like the rest of us. Some of the visiting sociologists must have been disappointed to note the absence of visible horns and tails to match the characters which those critics were so quick to invent for the mill men.

Let the reader put himself in the place of one of these managers, with some thousands of shareholders on the one hand and other thousands of operatives on the other, all looking to him for the conduct of their affairs, and all rightfully demanding not only intelligence and fidelity but wisdom and a successful issue. The qualities of this manufacturer, this *entrepreneur*, to use the economist's technical term, make the difference between prosperity and adversity. Imagine some one of his critics filling his place and guess how long the mill would run. He may come down at nine in the morning instead of quarter before seven, but no bell ever rings to release him from the burden of his work; it is with him all night, on Sunday and on his holiday. Every day his success is in the balance and his dearest hopes are at peril. If he goes down his working people go with him. Lawrence has known what this means.

Is it natural to suppose that these men care nothing for the welfare of their employes? Should they not be credited

with enough enlightenment to know that a body of working people prosperous in all good senses is one of the very best resources of a manufacturer? The truth is that these employers are men of high character, of strong impulses to generosity, of great patience under provocation. Let it be granted that they are subject to the prejudices of their class; it is common to all of us. They were here before special correspondents came and they will be "on the job" after the last one has gone. They have more at stake here than anyone else. Their desire for the good of their employes is a thousand times deeper than that of either social students or strike leaders who are here to-day and (we sincerely hope) will be gone to-morrow.

Thirdly and lastly, the writer and some of his fellow citizens of Lawrence are amazed at the attitude which the professional sociologists have taken toward violence. This strike has not been characterized by great violence, but there has been enough of it. Why is it that the sense of righteousness so often fades out in the discussion of labor troubles? Partly I think because of the false analogy so often asserted between labor disputes and war. It is no more war than when a man has a quarrel with his neighbor about a boundary fence. If the latter gets a gun and kills, it is murder; and if a striker kills a policeman or a "scab," that is murder; it is wicked to call it anything else. War implies two combatants; and whoever heard of an employer under any provocation whatever adopting the methods of warfare toward his striking employes? Militiamen and policemen are on guard for defence only; they cannot "put down the strike"; they do not attack the strikers; they do prevent the infraction of elemental laws of society. The hatred directed toward them is the hatred of those who are thwarted in the wish to destroy property and beat and kill other men and women. It is everywhere and always wicked to knock a woman into the gutter and kick her because she is going to work. It would hardly seem necessary to say this, were not such conduct so often excused, merely passed over as a trifling incident. But for such terrorism how often would a strike fall flat within the first week?

Suppose the employers were to turn upon the strikers with the same malice and hatred which they receive. Has anybody ever imagined an employer mean-spirited enough for that? Selfish they may be, determined upon victory, and arrogant if it comes; but who has ever known an employer to go out to deal to his workman in his home, on the street, wherever he may find him, whatever worst blow he can, merely to satisfy his hate?

It is the accession of anger and hate among the workers toward their employers which weighs most heavily upon me and my fellow citizens. We had thought we were living on pleasant terms with the strangers. We told ourselves and others that they were in a way our guests and that we owed them the duty of hospitality. America meant to them the promised land. An Italian girl told an American woman, who was doing volunteer work here in a milk station, that she had named her baby America because she loved the country. We had hoped that the dream might at least partly come true. Then came these revolutionary leaders, first to gather and teach schools of discontent—aiming at an industrial system impracticable always, impossible now, to give them credit for something beyond merely selfish ends. Suddenly was kindled a very conflagration of rage and hate. No negotiations took place, no demands were made. Anger and malice were cultivated as the chief part of the program. If any gain comes to the strikers—and there has been an increase of wages—it has come at an unconscionable cost.

I hope that I speak for many of my fellow citizens in saying that we mean to keep on in the attitude of friendliness and helpfulness toward our foreign neighbors. They have been here but a short time to learn all that is needed to make them good Americans. We must exercise some patience about their regeneration. Meanwhile, we are not moved with any very great sense of gratitude toward a good many people who give themselves great airs of superiority in matters sociological; and we can spare their friends and associates, certain strike leaders, without a sense of loss.



A CITY OF HOMES.
What San Francisco was before the earthquake.

CIVICS

FIGHTING FOR BETTER HOMES IN SAN FRANCISCO

JOHN IHLDER

FIELD SECRETARY NATIONAL HOUSING ASSOCIATION

Six years ago, when the news of San Francisco's great disaster was flashed across the continent, one of her expatriates, under the spell of strong emotion, wrote a "story" of the City That Was which gripped every reader by the power of its love and loyalty. For there have been and are men and women in San Francisco whose affection for their city is as pure and patriotic as that of the men and women who made great the names of the famous cities of the past. "Under the blue skies of California," they declare, "we will create a new Greece."

And yet the news which comes from San Francisco has little of glory or even of aspiration in it. The old Greece achieved because it produced strong men, men whose strength of mind and character was based upon, or at least coincident with, soundness of body. The Athenians believed that the foundation upon which their glory rested was the health and the strength of their people. The would-be creators of the new Athens apparently have no such belief. At least this must be the conclusion of one who reads the first report of the San Francisco Housing Association.¹

Before the disaster San Francisco was, in

¹First report, 1911, San Francisco Housing Association, 409 Schroth Building, San Francisco.

large measure, a city of homes. Its people lived in small houses with ground about them, with windows which opened to the much-lauded blue sky and let in air and the California sunlight. Since the disaster San Francisco has been transformed into a city of tenements, packed together so closely that every foot of ground is covered; with windows that open on four-foot courts or even upon hallways; with rooms that often have no windows at all—mere black caverns.

This transformation attracted the attention of those who were interested in social welfare; and on April 14, 1910, they organized the San Francisco Housing Association, following in their constitution the declaration of purposes adopted by the National Housing Association. These are to study housing conditions, to improve them in every practicable way, to bring home to the community the importance of right housing conditions and the consequences of bad ones, to aid in the enactment and enforcement of legislation designed to secure fit types of dwellings, and to aid in defending such legislation.

Already, only four years after the fire, the need for such an association was acute. San Francisco had had housing laws on the statute books for years. The first lesson the new association learned was the old lesson that

laws do not enforce themselves. Its Committee on Investigation and Statistics found that tenements were being erected with no apparent consideration for the law. "It is with regret," says President Langley Porter, "that I have to call your attention to the fact that the laxity of its administration in San Francisco has in the past practically nullified the law." And this was said a year and a half after the association had begun to call the attention of the authorities to their laxness in no indefinite or uncertain terms, as is shown by the correspondence between the secretary of the association and the health officer and chief building inspector of the city.

The correspondence with the health officer is brief and, in one sense, satisfactory. It consisted of two letters, the first asking a question, the second answering it to the following effect:

SAN FRANCISCO, May 20, 1910.

Miss Alice S. Griffith, Secretary San Francisco Housing Association, 2608 Webster Street, San Francisco:

Dear Madam: I have your letter of the 12th inst., and in reply to same wish to say that that part of Section 7 of the Building Laws which requires that building permits shall only be granted after plans for plumbing, lighting, ventilation, and other sanitary features have been approved by the Board of Health is not enforced by the Board of Public Works.

The correspondence with the Chief Building Inspector, who is attached to the Board of Public Works, was longer and less satisfactory. It began on October 5, 1911, with a question regarding a particular house, then in course of erection, which obviously violated several important provisions of the law. Eleven letters were exchanged during the following two months, and an officer of the board called on Miss Griffith to explain verbally; but every definite question was dodged more or less skilfully and the erection of the building continued. The last letter was almost in ultimatum form.

The Executive Committee requests that no (occupancy) permit be issued until the building has been made in every particular to comply with the law.

Then, evidently, the report went to press and we are left to imagine the effect upon the Chief Building Inspector.

The house which caused all this letter writing was but one of many, and apparently not the worst. President Porter asks:

Can any one justify placing six three-room apartments on a plot twenty-five by forty-five feet—which is what has been done on a Powell street lot? Can any one be surprised if from such buildings come a constant stream of sick and dying? . . . Can any one approve the block bounded by Kearny, Union, and Green streets, with the little streets, Lafayette and Sonora, intersecting? There lot after lot nineteen or twenty by fifty-two feet carries two flats in each story of a three-story building. Nowhere is any provision made for light or ventilation for inside rooms. Investigation will reveal many other blocks that differ but little from this.

And investigation does. Out of 219 lots for which percentages are given, on thirty-nine every inch is occupied by the buildings, on more than half 90 per cent or over is occupied by buildings. The blue skies of California look down on tenements more solidly packed together than those of the worst parts of New York; but the light from those blue skies does not get into the living rooms of the people.

But the San Francisco Housing Association has not confined all its efforts to seeking the enforcement of existing laws which in themselves are unsatisfactory. It has, through its legislative and revision committees, drafted and secured the enactment of a new law which—though itself far from satisfactory—is a considerable improvement on its predecessors. The city officials of San Francisco will find it no more difficult to enforce the new law than they would to enforce the old ones; instead they will find it easier, for the new law is better drawn and its provisions are clearer. What they need is a new attitude toward their work, and such a change is hastened rather than retarded by an improvement in the rules under which their work is to be done.

For that reason there is encouragement in the words of R. C. Porter, chairman of the Revision Committee. The new law as passed was weaker than the draft which the Housing Association sent to the legislature. And the draft was weaker than it would have been had San Francisco been fully aroused to the evil which is menacing her, or had conditions not stimulated the growth of that evil almost over-night. The committee, says Mr. Porter,

regards the work toward securing an adequate housing law as well inaugurated. Its draft of the tenement house bill introduced by Senator Burnett was consistently more

conservative in its requirements than the demand for good housing conditions dictates. This bill was further modified by amendment in the legislature, in spite of Senator Burnett's interest and effort. Opposition to an adequate housing law is the result of a failure to perceive that proper living conditions in a community represent good business theory. The value of the holdings of each property owner is increased by his neighbor's higher standard of living. The housing association will doubtless secure further recognition of this fact before the next session of the legislature.

With this prophecy, mildly worded as it is, we may look forward with some confidence to the day when San Francisco will have an adequate housing law, when the city by the Golden Gate will begin in earnest the task of creating a new Greece under the blue skies of California by seeing to it that its people, and its people's children, shall have a fair chance to be well and strong.

A SUCCESSFUL EXPERIMENT

New York city has recently conducted an experiment in the democratization of its public schools. The New York Public Education Association has for the past year been holding neighborhood gatherings in a school located on East Fourth street between Avenue A and First avenue. The residents of this section are about 90 per cent Russian and Hungarian Jews and 10 per cent German, the latter still clinging to what a few years ago was an almost entirely German neighborhood.

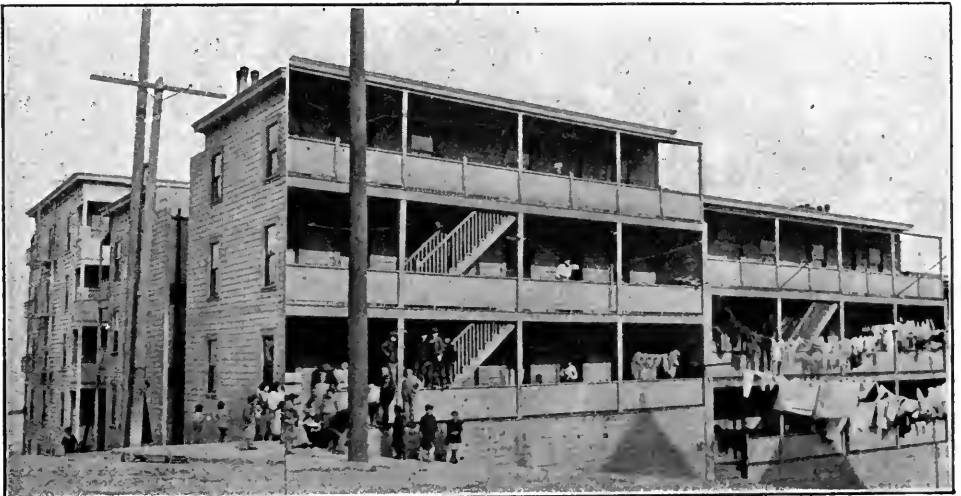
Annie C. Patterson, who initiated the ex-

periment and who, at the desire of the people who came to the meetings, managed them, writes thus of her work:

The plan contained nothing sensational with which to draw the curious and it was necessary, in order to get the neighbors to come, to work up among them a desire for the meetings. We did this by making personal calls on nearby families whose names were secured from local kindergartens. We found that the kindergarten teachers were in closer touch with the families of the neighborhood than any other set of people. We called also upon many business men and women of the neighborhood and upon the doctors. When one of the latter vigorously deplored the unpleasant and unsightly condition of the street, we tried to drive home a realization of the practical value of such meetings as we proposed by pointing out that, after all, the only hope of securing permanently better neighborhood conditions lies in arousing the interest and activity of the people who live there. This argument, repeated with such variations as fact suggested, appealed to many who came and were held by their wish to improve conditions, particularly for their children.

This personal work resulted in the assembling of a little group with whom we planned the meetings. And through this group cards of invitation, simple but effective, furnished us by a nearby settlement, were distributed in the neighborhood. On the first night we had an attendance of forty-five, comfortably filling the cosy kindergarten room of the school.

The meetings are held every Wednesday evening. Besides the regular business, the program consists of entertainment and a twenty-minute address, followed by a general discussion of the topic of the evening.



IN "GOD'S COUNTRY"—CALIFORNIA.

The entertainment is furnished by local and volunteer talent; it consists of recitations, vocal and instrumental music, folk and fancy dancing by girls from the recreation center, and folk and home songs. The latter are sung at the close of each meeting when all gather about the piano and "join in." This singing appears to be one of the most enjoyable features of the meetings, enthusiasm running so high that homely lines of local interest are set to familiar airs. The following stanza from a song entitled *New York Town*, sung to the tune of *Annie Laurie*, shows the spirit that prevails:

"Maxwilton's braes are bonnie,
And England's fields are fair,
Ireland's hills are green and sunny,
But, old New York's most dear.
But, old New York's most dear,
For she's all the world to me,
And to help her and to save her,
I'd lay me down and dee."

Another song entitled *The School House On Our Street* contains this stanza:

"The children on our street do play, street do play;
But horses, cars, and trucks are all in the way;
So here no childish sports and joys,
For all is danger, dirt, and noise."

Men and women are secured as speakers who are most available for topics in which those attending the meetings have already displayed interest. We try thus to follow rather than to lead. The most vital interest shown—in fact the one interest—even by the unmarried men and women who come is in the bettering of surroundings and conditions for children.

The talks led to action. An effort to have a playground in No. 63 failed, but the effort to secure a better distribution of the clothing of the little children at the end of the school sessions in three nearby schools was successful. So much was the spirit of cooperation awakened between the schools and the gatherers that an assistant principal visited one of our meetings, where we freely talked over the matter; and cordial letters were received from the principals of the other two schools. Other results of the meetings were efforts for better police protection at the school crossings, investigation of the moving-picture shows in the vicinity, and cooperation with a nearby settlement in a street cleaning campaign. The speakers were men and women proficient in their specialties who discussed such topics as *Boys and How to Deal with Them*, *Forestry as a Profession for Boys*, *Care of Children's Teeth*, *Improvement of the Comic Supplement*, *Anti-congestion Bills*, *Why Women Should Have the Vote*, *Historic East Side*, *Big Brother Movement*, *School Lunches*, and *What the Kindergarten Does for the Child*. Other speakers have been city officials, who have told of the work of their respective departments; viz, *Why the*

City Collects Garbage at Night, *How the Bureau of Licenses is Run*, and *How the Bureau of Weights and Measures Protects Citizens*. As a result of the forestry talk, we attended a public school lecture on *Parks* and made a Sunday afternoon trip to one of the city parks. A cordial and friendly spirit has grown up among all who come regularly to the meetings and no barrier of race or religious or political difference ever intervenes.

The meetings, though intended only for the men and women of the neighborhood, have proved so attractive to the boys and girls that efforts are now under way to form these young people into a *City History Club*. And the gatherings have themselves taken form as the *Wednesday Neighborhood Club of Public School No. 63, Manhattan*, with duly elected officers and a constitution.

To sum up, we feel that we can say from our experience in a very little corner of a very big city that the spirit of our fathers who laid the foundations of democracy still lives through all the disturbing changes of the years. And we are convinced that this spirit can be made articulate even in our great cities, if encouraged and given a chance to function. This means that every public school in this great city and in every city and town in the country must again become in spirit and in essence "the little red school-house on the hill."

A CITY PLAN FOR BROOKLYN

The Rev. Newell Dwight Hillis, successor to the pulpit occupied by Henry Ward Beecher and Lyman Abbott, returned last fall from a summer trip to Europe, fired with enthusiasm for the splendid physical plans of Paris and Berlin. He suggested that Brooklyn make a thorough plan for its physical betterment.

With almost western enthusiasm and swiftness the idea was taken up by public-spirited and prominent Brooklyn citizens, including the borough president and Frederic B. Pratt, head of Pratt Institute. Within a month a strong committee of one hundred men, with Mr. Pratt as chairman, engaged the services of Edward H. Bennett, of Chicago, to make plans for a "beautiful Brooklyn." Brooklyn is well situated and has the beginning of a boulevard and park system, which, if carried out, would make it a most beautiful city.

The money for the plans has been subscribed by citizens, but naturally, as improvement calls for many millions, the work will have to be accomplished through city appropriation. The first object of attack is to be the plaza of the Brooklyn bridge, for which Commissioner of Bridges O'Keefe has planned in detail improvements and arrangements for the transportation facilities, which are now extremely ugly. The request for this money is now before the proper city body. The committee in charge of the general city plan are considering also the removal in the slums of some of the most unsightly and unsanitary conditions.



SCOLLEY SQUARE, BOSTON.
From the subway station, February 1912.

CIVIC IMPROVEMENT

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON, Contributing Editor

COURAGEOUS CRITICISM

Two photographs showing a street corner in Seattle were re-printed by courtesy of *Park and Cemetery* in the issue of January 20. In one, the small triangle formed by the intersection of three streets was covered with billboards; in the other, taken three days later, the boards had been removed and the ground leveled off and sodded. There was no comment; only a date line appeared under each picture. A Boston landscape architect writes a very interesting letter about the pictures:

"Frankly, I think the *Before* effect is better than the *After*. No one could be more interested than I in cleaning the hideous billboards off the face of the open country and of the residential quarters of the towns, for they constitute in such places insistent blotches of ugliness that put whole square miles out of joint. But in the thickly built districts, where the gaunt shapeless hulks of factories or business blocks, or even such uninteresting tenements as are displayed in the Seattle picture, fill the view with their hard lines, ill-proportioned masses, and dismal, dingy color, it seems to me that there is nothing that helps so much as to cover square rods with gay, silly, jolly sheets of advertisements. Even in the picture (where color plays no part) the billboards lend a certain picturesqueness of pattern and outline, and must add tremendously to the color of the corner; while at the same time they disguise the

awkwardness that is naked in the *After*. For surely there is no beauty in the crude combination of geometrical curves and straight lines in the foreground nor in the somber, uninteresting masses in the background of the second picture.

"I suppose that I approach the borders of heresy to the profession in saying all this. But there is such a charm in picturesqueness that I regret anything, even a supposed improvement, that deprives us of the little we have without giving us in return a formality that is charming. Tomorrow I am going down for some pictures of Scollay Square, where there is many a sign that is a fright in itself, but which helps to make up one of the liveliest, merriest, most picturesque jumbles of streets, buildings, color, and life that I know. Although you remember it well, no doubt, perhaps you will let me send prints to you."

A few days later, a package of prints arrived, of which perhaps the best is reproduced above.

PHILIPPINE SCHOOL GARDENS

"The people of the Philippines," writes an American teacher, "are getting the garden habit." The Bureau of Education, realizing the importance in an agricultural country of studying gardening, has recently made instruction in this subject obligatory in all elementary schools in the Philippines, and has published a manual telling teachers how to

organize the new course. The teacher quoted says that in Union Province more than a thousand home gardens have been set out. The children secured their plants from the school.

STATION GARDEN POLICY

The news that the officials of the Boston and Maine have felt obliged to economize by abolishing the prizes, amounting to \$2,000 a year, which they have long awarded to the station masters maintaining the best gardens, is not really as bad as it sounds—except to the station masters. The railroad company proposes now to develop the station grounds itself. To that end, it has employed a landscape architect, so the papers say; and he is preparing to substitute hardy shrubs for the annuals which have been an incongruous feature of the Boston and Maine railroad gardens. Under the direction of local agents the results were very often inharmonious and bizarre to a degree. The company deserves great credit for its pioneer work in this direction; but the step now reported, though credited to economy, is one of advancement rather than of retrogression.

THE CITY PROBLEM

The papers read at the First International Municipal Congress and Exposition, which was held in Chicago last September, have been issued in pamphlet form. It was said at the time that they deserved very much larger audiences than gathered to hear them, and a more favorable setting than the noisy room in which they were delivered. Their publication is, therefore, to be welcomed. As published, they offer a comprehensive discussion, by men whose word is entitled to carry weight, of the various aspects of the municipal problem. Under each of the following topics two to five papers are given: Public Utilities, City Charters, Municipal Accounting and Efficiency, Business End of a City Government, City Planning, Woman and the Municipality, Paving, Taxation, the City for the People, Cost of Health Departments, Control of a Milk Supply, Public Schools, Reduction of Fire Waste, and Parks and Playgrounds. In addition, the pamphlet contains discussions on Contagion and School Inspection, Water Protection and Sewage Disposal, Yard Sewage, Stables and Slaughter Houses, and Garbage Disposal. It includes, also, single papers on Law in Relation to Health Work, and Municipalities in Germany.

A CIVIC PROGRAM

What the best citizens of St. Louis want their city to have—this would accurately describe the scope of the Report on Civic Work issued by the Central Council of Civic Organizations in St. Louis. It is a good idea to make such a study and send it out, so that persons, especially young people, who want

to serve their city may have concretely put before them various lines of wise endeavor and may be told what to do and how to do it. With the topics limited to those dealing with the progress of the city as a whole, and with the problems of commerce and charity excluded, the opportunities are arranged under the following heads: Municipal Government; Public Improvements including Streets, Boulevards, Parks and Playgrounds, Recreation, Sewers, and Street Lighting; Public Utilities; Water Supply; Franchises and Permits; Housing and Health including Garbage and Refuse Disposal, Milk Supply, Smoke Abatement, Public Comfort Stations, City Planning, and Fire Protection; Municipal Institutions including Hospitals, etc., Jail and Workhouse, and Industrial School; Public Morals; and Courts. Under each heading is told in a few words what things have been done, what things are objects of effort at this time, and what organization has the matter especially in charge.

SMOKE ABATEMENT

A singularly interesting little pamphlet on the abatement of the smoke nuisance has been issued by the Smoke Abatement Committee of the Rochester Chamber of Commerce. It opens with words which gain a new significance when it is realized that they are those of associated manufacturers and business men rather than of the members of a woman's club:

"Economy, civic pride, and common sense all call for the abatement of the smoke nuisance that is destroying over a million dollars' worth of merchandise and property in Rochester every year. The health of our citizens is impaired and many beautiful buildings rendered unsightly by this nuisance. Some years ago it was the custom to point with pride to the 'smoking chimneys of prosperity,' when, as a matter of fact, the chimneys were smoking, not with prosperity, but because they were wasting so much burnable fuel. . . . A smoking kerosene lamp would not be tolerated by anyone, because the individual using the lamp would be the one directly affected by it. The condition is reversed with the smoking chimney; the individual causing the smoke is the only one not directly affected. The smoke goes over his head and is deposited on the property of his neighbor."

With this belief in their hearts, the committee sent out a letter briefly stating the arguments for and against black smoke, and asked manufacturers to express themselves as to how the problem could best be handled. Some of the answers, from such well known firms as the Eastman Kodak Company, the Yawman and Erbe Manufacturing Company, the Pfaudler Company, the Hayden Company, etc., are printed in the pamphlet. Basing its opinion on the answers, the committee says that black smoke in Rochester can be stopped by laws and ordinances, if there is a sufficient public opinion to insist upon the enforcement of the laws.

HEALTH

A HOME HOSPITAL

AN EXPERIMENT IN HOME TREATMENT OF TUBERCULOSIS

JOHN A. KINGSBURY

GENERAL AGENT NEW YORK ASSOCIATION FOR IMPROVING THE CONDITION OF THE POOR

About a year ago the Rev. F. Tirasinni referred to the relief department of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor a family whom we will call the Bocora family, consisting of the father and mother, both suffering from tuberculosis, and seven children. Two of the children, aged ten and two, were afflicted with the same disease. Two others, aged four and five respectively, were suffering from serious eye trouble and running ears, and the twin babies, scarcely two months old, were ill with bronchitis. Frank, the remaining child, eight years old, though not pronounced tuberculous, was pale and anaemic. The visitor found the family absolutely destitute, and, naturally, the home in a state of disorder and "neglect." The mother, although tuberculous, was nursing the twin babies. Within a few days the babies developed "pneumonia" and after a brief illness died. Investigation showed that the family had been self-respecting and self-supporting until they found themselves in the grip of the white plague. Mr. Bocora, a carpenter, had a reputation for honesty. He enjoyed the confidence of his landlord and had received credit at a grocery store in his neighborhood.

Consultation as to the best treatment for this family resulted in Homer Folk's making the suggestion that the Bocora family itself would fill a small hospital. "Why not put a nurse in there and have the doctor call every day," said Mr. Folk, "and in fact turn the home into a hospital?" Inquiry revealed that among our 284 families in which there were one or more cases of tuberculosis there were fifteen similar to the Bocora family. Further discussion with experts, including Dr. Livingston Farrand and Dr. Linsly R. Williams, resulted in the plan for a Home Hospital.

The Home Hospital is a new experiment

in the home treatment of combined poverty and tuberculosis which our New York association is inaugurating. Its purpose is, first, to give adequate and wise relief to a number of needy families in which there is tuberculosis, and, second, in so doing, to find out whether it is possible—in a sanitary tenement, under wise medical direction and constant nursing oversight, with adequate relief and freedom from undue worry, ample fresh air and sunshine, and room for reasonable segregation—to prevent the spread of tuberculosis from the sick to the well members of the family, and particularly to protect the children from infection, to cure some of those in the early stages of the disease, and to afford considerable improvement to patients whose cases are only moderately advanced.

To meet the first requirement of the experiment, namely, sanitary housing, the association has leased for three years—which will be the term of the experiment—an entire section of the East River Homes, 78th street and John Jay Park, more familiarly known as the "Vanderbilt tenements." This section consists of twenty-four apartments with a south-eastern exposure. The trustees of the East River Homes have given the association entire control of the open stairway leading to these apartments, and free access and partial control of the admirable roof.

The families participating in the experiment will in the main be those now in the care of our relief department who are dependent because of tuberculosis. We shall endeavor to make perfectly clear to members of the families what their part in the experiment is. Able-bodied members of the families will be required to work and to contribute their earnings to the family's support. Continued participation in the experiment will be conditioned upon their willingness to



EAST RIVER HOMES.

Located on East 77th and 78th streets and John Jay Park, New York city.

do this. On the other hand, we shall make our part equally clear, thus relieving the family from the worry of uncertainty.

So far as it is necessary and humanly possible, a hospital and sanatorium régime will be instituted in each family. Everything affecting the life not only of the patient but of other members of the family will be carefully supervised, both on the social and on the medical side. The treatment of tuberculosis is now so well understood that it is hardly necessary to go into the details of the plan; but we propose to bear in mind that no preventive measure is so valuable as the proper protection against the sources of infection. Patients will work only on the advice of the physician in charge and as their strength permits. Every member of the household will be examined regularly, whether sick or well. By this means many cases will be discovered in the very early stages, and cure in such cases will be much more

nearly certain. Families will not be dismissed from the home hospital until their patients have practically recovered full strength, and not until they are able to work full time. Moreover, when families leave we shall see that they are moved into suitable homes, and we shall continue our supervision over them until we are assured that the cure is complete and the family actually self-supporting.

The children who have tuberculosis and those who are predisposed to the disease will be taken care of throughout the entire day, on the roof of the East River Homes, in an open-air school. Children of

school age in good health will attend the regular public school, and others will work. It is expected that the school will be equipped and the teacher provided by the Board of Education, as in the case of the other open-air schools in New York city.

In addition to the regular members of the staff of the Relief Department of the As-



ROOF GARDEN, PLAYGROUND, AND LOCATION OF OPEN-AIR SCHOOL.

sociation for Improving the Condition of the Poor who will have to do with the experiment, a small salaried staff will devote full time to it. There will be a visiting housewife, with a helper, whose duty it will be to assist the resident housewives with their heavier housework, such as laundering, especially in those homes where the housewife herself is ill with tuberculosis. The association's dietitian will spend a part of her time in individual and group instruction in food economics and food values.

The cost of the experiment will include not merely the maintenance of the patients and the medical oversight incident to the care of the sick, which alone would be necessary in a hospital or sanatorium, but it will also include the relief of the family. When it becomes necessary for the chief bread-winner in the average workingman's family, for instance, to submit to the prolonged treatment of tuberculosis in a sanatorium, his care is but a small part of the total expense involved. Someone must provide for his family, but often, in considering the cost of tuberculosis, this large item is entirely overlooked. In estimating the cost to the association of conducting this experiment, which amounts to \$23,480, we have taken the entire cost of maintaining the families and have deducted therefrom the earnings of the able-bodied members of each family; and to the result was added the cost of treating the patients who are ill with tuberculosis and the cost of providing proper supervision over them in order to prevent the spread of the disease within the family.

We desire to emphasize that this experiment is not to demonstrate something to take the place of hospital segregation or sanatorium treatment, but to learn whether, even in a crowded city, given proper housing, sufficient food, and sanitary supervision, it is not possible to check the spread of tuberculosis. The experiment is planned as a supplement to, not as a substitute for, the hospital and sanatorium.

It is to try the possibilities of home relief under the most favorable circumstances, as a factor in meeting the situation which Homer Folks pointed out in his address as president of the National Conference of Charities and Correction last June. Comparing the actual number of beds becoming available for tuberculosis in hospitals, sanatoria, and day camps in the United States with the

total number of beds needed, 300,000, Mr. Folks showed that the annual increment is less than 1 per cent of the total need. The total population, he continued,

is increasing rather more than 2 per cent per annum. Comparing growth of hospital provision with growth of population, we are apparently still losing ground, the need increasing twice as fast as the supply. . . .

We do not therefore propose home treatment in preference to the sanatorium, but, for hundreds now on waiting lists and for thousands now spreading contagion in dark, dirty tenements, it is home treatment or



—Journal American Medical Association.
PHYSICIANS IN PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE.

The broad campaign for public health which is being promoted by the American Medical Association is personified by the growing number of medical specialists and general practitioners who are accepting salaried positions in the field of public health. *American Medicine*, in February, enumerates some of the types of service being taken up by physicians who are substituting public for private practice. The list includes: investigators, teachers, pathologists, laboratory clinicians, hospital employees, life insurance directors, public health officers, military and naval officers, physicians to the poor, medical journalists, medical writers, advisors and investigators for pharmaceutical and chemical manufacturers, "physicians to beneficial associations, missionaries, and, says the editor of *American Medicine*, "we wish we could add public lecturers to teach hygiene and sanitation to laymen."



nothing—at least for years to come. Nevertheless, we believe that the success of this experiment would encourage the community vigorously to combat tuberculosis in the city tenements at once; it would convince the community that it is unnecessary to wait years, until sufficient hospital and sanatorium facilities are provided, before attempting in a large way to eliminate tuberculosis; and it should lead toward treating tuberculosis patients in suitable cases without breaking up homes or depriving those who are able of the opportunity to work, and thereby contributing as much as possible to the family support.

JOTTINGS

HALF MILLION DOLLARS LOST

That a money loss of \$500,023 in wages and institutional care was sustained together by the city of Boston and 500 male consumptives studied by Dr. Edwin A. Locke and Dr. Cleaveland Floyd of the Out-Patient Department of the Boston Consumptives Hospital is one of the conclusions presented by these physicians in an article in the March *Journal of the Outdoor Life*.

To ascertain the actual economic loss from tuberculosis, Drs. Locke and Floyd selected at random 500 male cases—men who had visited the dispensary during the last five years. Two hundred and forty-four of the cases represented fatalities before the investigation was begun and 256 were living cases. Over 41 per cent of the men were between the ages of twenty and thirty-nine.

It was found on May 1, 1911, the date of the investigation, that the 244 dead men had lost an average of 58.03 weeks of work from the onset of their disease until death. The average weekly rate of their wages was \$11.89, and their total loss in wages amounted to \$170,965. The 256 living cases lost an average of 89.3 weeks of work at an average wage of \$11.38, or a total loss of \$255,074, making \$426,039 lost in wages alone by both groups. In addition to this, it cost the city of Boston \$73,984 to care for these 500 men in public hospitals and other institutions. The final total therefore represented a loss of \$500,023; and this is exclusive of large sums spent by private organizations on 406 out of the 500 cases.

If to these losses were added the "capitalized value of the earnings cut off by death," Drs. Locke and Floyd estimate that the loss of the 244 dead cases alone would bring the total up to nearly \$2,000,000. And if to these 500 cases studied were added the 15,000 living cases in Boston, they estimate the loss to the individuals and the city would amount to many millions of dollars.

These figures of the economic loss caused by tuberculosis, they conclude, present enough justification for the money Boston has spent in tuberculosis work, and show why other communities should not hesitate for fear of expense to attack the tuberculosis problem.

HOSPITAL OPEN-AIR SCHOOL

An official report received by the United States Bureau of Education states that a school for tubercular children run in connection with a hospital has recently been established in Detroit. "It is true that open-air schools for anaemic children, and pupils with a tendency to consumption, are rapidly increasing," said William R. Hood, of the Education Bureau's Division of School Administration, recently, "but these open-air schools are always connected strictly with the regular school system. Detroit is the first city in America, so far as my knowledge goes, to establish a school for children actually suffering from tuberculosis in direct connection with a hospital, so that the children can be treated and taught at the same time."

The founding of the school for tubercular children is the result of efforts inaugurated by the Detroit Society for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, and the present co-operation of the Detroit Board of Education. The school goes to Grace Hospital.

SOCIAL SERVICE THROUGH HEALTH EDUCATION

At the opening of the Boston Dispensary Hospital for children, in February, Dr. Abraham Jacobi, president of the American Medical Association, stated some interesting relations between medical and social work. Among other things he said:

"The principal social work of the institution will consist in making the women nurse their own babies. More than 90 per cent are fully able to do so, but they do not; it is rarely the breast-fed babies that suffer from the influence of summer heat. The poor women, however,

with whom you have to deal in your humanitarian practice are not tempted by balls, and teas, and bridge-parties to believe their fashionable and accommodating doctors who tell them that, after all, a tuberculin-tested and pasteurized cow's milk is as good as, or even superior to, woman's milk.

"There is one additional point you will not forget, however. A woman who gets up three or four days after confinement to do washing and scrubbing, and after six weeks returns to factory labor, will nineteen times out of twenty be an invalid for life; will suffer from chronic inflammations and miscarriages, and more inflammations, and still more from the physicians, and will pay endless visits to your dispensaries and hospitals, and consume all the means of the public which should have been spent on plain nursing in or out of convalescent beds."

The new Dispensary Hospital for children, which opened with accommodations for thirty patients besides a small isolation ward, is an outgrowth of the small Hospital for Infants and Children which had previously been conducted by the dispensary in two houses belonging to the Boston Day Nursery. During the latter part of 1911 the nursery turned over its property to the dispensary, with the sole restriction that it be used in one form or another to help children. After selling this property the dispensary closed the old hospital and started the construction of the new building in connection with its own plant in Bennett street.

FOR BETTER VILLAGE HEALTH

At the last meeting of the New York state sanitary association, five health officers were made a committee to study the laws governing the powers of health officers and make recommendations for their general over-hauling. At present village and town boards of health have no right to incur any expense through the destruction of property by health officers in enforcing the sanitary and quarantine laws. The effect of the laws is therefore reduced to a minimum. Other defects in health legislation were instanced at the meeting, pointing to the need of a comprehensive revision. The committee will work in close co-operation with the state Department of Health, and it is estimated



—*Medical Review of Reviews*.
PNEUMONIA AND POVERTY.

that they have a three years' task before them.

PNEUMONIA AND POVERTY

Above is the second of a series of cartoons running in the *Medical Review of Reviews* under the general title the Doctor's Dilemma, and appears in the March number.

In similar vein, Dr. Beverl y Robinson drew a vivid word picture of pneumonia (the disease which annually claims nearly as many victims as tuberculosis) among the poor, in an early February issue of the *New York Medical Journal*. In part, he writes as follows:

Pneumonia with the poor and pneumonia with the rich are two different stories: with the former, bad and insufficient air, food, and light; little or no intelligent care fr quently, and, when sought, not always the best medical advice. Alas, the pity of it! With the well-to-do, good air, good food, plenty of light, good nursing, and competent medical attention, when required. So far then, well.

With the poor, pneumonia is usually evident when the physician makes his first call. Immediately, he knows the situation. What can he, what should he do? Simply his duty as he may: *alone*, acting the triple r le for hours, or days, of doctor, nurse, and best of friends. True, to-day, happily, he may often seek instructed help from a nearby settlement, and soon, it may be, an experienced head and hand are with him, efficiently seconding his well directed efforts. Can those of doctor, or nurse, change then and there wretched home conditions? Evidently not. In mental vision the hospital ward looms up; shall the patient be taken there? Think what it means! Great nervous shock to the patient, mental at first,



DR. WILEY IN THE ASCENDENCY.

physical soon. Tears and lamentations from most beloved ones, to withstand which calls for the greatest control from an ill brain and a body prey to previous overwork, privations, self sacrifice for those dependent on him.

In estimating what is best to do, here, as always, *character* must govern doctor and nurse. By character I mean self sacrifice, altruistic service for another's need. When self is predominant, the best neither can nor ever will be accomplished. To character, however, must be added common sense, experience, practical knowledge.

These are found as often among relatively unknown practitioners as among those who are famous. When one seeks aid, especially in pneumonia, beware trusting mere science rather than skill, the fruit of the wisest empiricism. Such wisdom comes solely from lifelong service to others. In it is the highest expression of our noble art.

APRIL 28 TUBERCULOSIS DAY

Last year, out of 200,000 churches in the United States, according to a report recently made by the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 50,000 observed Tuberculosis Day, a million church-goers thus being told about the disease from the pulpit. This year Tuberculosis Day will be observed for the third time. The date designated by the national association is Sunday, April 28. Through the 600 anti-tuberculosis associations allied with the general organization and through the boards of health, women's clubs, and other organizations the churches will be reached and information distributed. Data upon the anti-tuberculosis campaign may also be had from the New York office of the national association.

OPENING FOR PHYSICIAN STATISTICIAN

At the request of the Department of Health the Municipal Civil Service Commission of New York city, at a meeting held on January 31, directed that an open competitive examination be held for the position of Assistant Registrar of Records in the Department of Health. The position commands a salary of \$3,000 per annum and requires that the incumbent be not only a duly qualified physician but that he should have training and experience in statistical work. The time and place of the examination is soon to be announced by the Municipal Civil Service Commission, 299 Broadway.

PEOPLE'S BATHS AND SCHOOL BATHS

An international conference on people's baths and school baths will be held at Scheveningen (The Hague) during the last week in August. The preliminary circular states that the chief purpose of the meeting is to promote public interest in bathing, to compare notes on the best manner of arranging and operating public and school baths, and to learn hygienic results already obtained. Four sessions are proposed, embracing the following:

Reading of essays, reports, and papers regarding people's baths, school baths, factory baths, military baths, river and sea baths.

Discussion of technical questions relating to the water supply, the planning and general arrangement, the operation and the cost of maintenance.

Consideration of the attitude of the state, the province or county, and the municipal community toward this social problem.

Relation between public baths and public health.

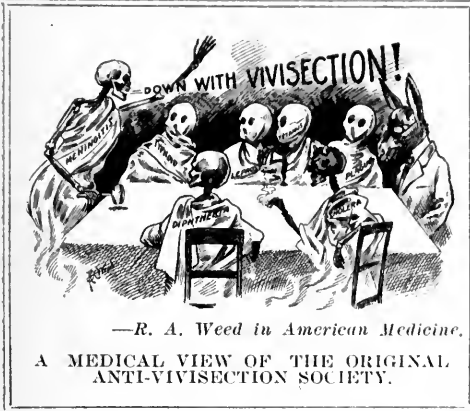
Municipal authorities and civic improvement societies in all civilized countries will be invited to send delegates.

Miss A. M. Douwes Dekker, The Hague, is general secretary of the conference, and Dr. Wm. P. Gerhard, 39 Strong Place, Brooklyn, N. Y., is the member for the United States of the General International Committee.

EXPERTS ON SCHOOL HYGIENE

The fifth annual meeting of the American School Hygiene Association will be held in Boston, March 28-30. The program, so far as it has been given out, includes the following: demonstrations of ventilating systems, school nursing, medical inspection, out-of-door schools, and school furnishings in certain public and private schools of Boston; reports of committees on ventilation and on standardization of school books, and papers relating to many sides of school hygiene. The list of speakers, with their subjects, as far as they have been announced, is as follows:

Dr. Ernest B. Hoag, lecturer on hygiene, University of California; Willard S. Small,



principal Eastern High School, Washington, D. C.; Henry H. Goddard, director of research in the Training School for Backward and Feeble-Minded Children, Vineland, N. J.; Guy Montrose Whipple, Cornell School of Education; Dr. G. S. C. Badger, Boston, Mass.; David Snedden, Massachusetts commissioner of education; Dr. Thomas D. Wood, Teachers College, New York city; L. N. Hines, superintendent of schools, Crawfordsville, Ind.; William H. Burnham, professor of pedagogy and school hygiene, Clark University; Dr. Leonard P. Ayres, Russell Sage Foundation; David Spence Hill, Tulane University; Alice L. Griffith, San Francisco; Dr. C. Ward Crampton, director of physical training, public schools of New York city; Hygiene of Swimming Pools in Schools and Universities, Dr. M. P. Ravenel, director Wisconsin state hygiene laboratory; the Deaf Child, Dr. Helen MacMurchy, Toronto; Contagious Skin Diseases in Relation to Schools, Dr. C. J. White, Boston; Defects in the School Curriculum in Physical Training Shown by the Disabilities of College Students, Dr. Dudley A. Sargent, Harvard University; Health Problems Encountered in Home Visits to School Children, Dr. A. E. Shipley, Brooklyn; the Mentally Defective Child, Dr. Isabel Thompson Smart, New York city; Recent Tests of Heating and Ventilating Apparatus in Public Schools, Frank I. Cooper, Boston; the Hygiene of the Ear, Dr. C. J. Blake, Harvard Medical School; Ventilation, Dr. Luther H. Gulick, director Department of Child Hygiene, Russell Sage Foundation; the Hygiene of the Nose and Throat, Dr. E. A. Crockett, Boston; the Importance of School Hygiene From the School Committee Standpoint, Joseph Lee, president Playground Association of America; Applications of Hygiene in a Preparatory School for Boys, Dr. Elias G. Brown, director Mountain School for Boys, Allaben, N. Y.; Scoliosis in Relation to School Life, Dr. Robert W. Lovett, Harvard Medical School; Venereal Contagious Diseases in Children as Affecting School Conditions, Dr. W. P. Lucas, Harvard Medical School; Sewage Disposal in Rural Schools, Dr. J. N.

Hurty, state commissioner of health, Indiana; School-Room Air and Its Relation to Disease, Dr. M. J. Rosenau, Harvard Medical School; and Oral Hygiene, by Dr. W. H. Potter, Harvard Dental School.

The local arrangements for this meeting are in the hands of a committee under the chairmanship of Dr. Arthur T. Cabot, and the program is being organized by the executive committee of the association, under the chairmanship of Dr. David L. Edsall.

TUBERCULOSIS IN RURAL DISTRICTS

Two excellent articles on tuberculosis in a rural district appeared in a recent number of *Tuberculosis* (Berlin).

One of these, by Dr. Buchting of Limburg, the Campaign Against Tuberculosis in Rural Districts, asserts that tuberculosis is just as prevalent in the agricultural districts as it is in the towns and industrial centers. Because of the sparseness of the population, it is, however, more difficult to combat.

The second, on Tuberculosis and the Hygienic Defects of the Country Districts, by Dr. P. Jacob, of the University of Berlin, gives the author's conclusions from an extensive investigation in a rural district of Prussia, following out the plan originally outlined by the late Dr. Koch.

The present Prussian system for securing information in regard to tuberculosis cases in his opinion fails in rural districts. What is most needed, he says, is careful home visitation, and examination of every household by physicians. As to hygienic conditions, Dr. Jacob finds the worst conditions prevailing with respect to housing, over-crowding and filthy conditions being frequent. He found the schools below the city standard in every respect, and attributes much of the disease to this cause. Tuberculosis of the glands in rural children was present in about the same per cent (40 per cent) as in the cities.

In his last chapter, on recommendations, Dr. Jacob says that the exodus of the rural population to the towns and cities is due very largely to the bad hygienic conditions prevailing. He makes numerous recommendations for better housing, public instruction, medical inspection, and for the proper care of consumptives.

PROHIBITION OF WOOD ALCOHOL

Following its declaration that the internal and external use of wood alcohol has been repeatedly shown to have caused sickness, partial or total blindness, and even death, the New York city Board of Health adopted, the latter part of January, a new section of the sanitary code prohibiting its sale or use in any food or drink or in any preparation or mixture intended for internal or external use by man. The action of the board is directed not only against the use of wood alcohol in any food or drink but also against its use by barbers and others in hair tonics, face lotions, and other external application.

INDUSTRY

LABOR LEGISLATION

JOHN B. ANDREWS

Secretary American Association for Labor Legislation

INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE CONFERENCE

The Second National Conference on Industrial Diseases to be held at Atlantic City, N. J., June 3-5, is announced by the American Association for Labor Legislation. The American Medical Association meets at Atlantic City during the same week and two joint sessions will be held with the group of physicians especially interested in preventive medicine and public health. The sessions on June 3 and 4, moreover, will be of peculiar interest to those who are concerned with medical inspection of factories and the study and prevention of occupational diseases. Since the annual meeting of the International Association of Factory Inspectors will convene in Washington later in the same week, leading experts from all parts of the United States and Canada will find it convenient to participate in this second national conference.

There have been many important developments in the study of industrial diseases since the first conference was held in Chicago in June, 1910. A special feature of the Atlantic City conference will be an industrial hygiene exhibit, for which medical men and inspectors of industrial establishments are bringing together the most illuminating illustrations of industrial processes dangerous to health, as well as samples of dangerous substances and photographs and chart; showing the effects of those peculiar work hazards now known as diseases of occupation. It is expected that this gathering of experts will give a new impetus to the nation-wide campaign for the promotion of industrial hygiene, and at the same time serve as a convenient rallying point for those who are anxious to have America furnish a satisfactory scientific exhibit three months later at the International Congress on Hygiene and Demography.

STANDARD SCHEDULES

The standard schedule for uniform accident reports first drafted at a Chicago conference last September, and improved at several subsequent conferences of experts, was put into final form in December at a joint session of the American Statistical Association and the American Association for Labor Legislation. Several thousand copies of this schedule have already been distributed, with an explanatory report written by the chairman of the committee, Leonard W. Hatch, of the New York State Department of Labor. The immediate adoption of this standard schedule by several industrial communities is most encouraging, and it is believed that its general use by the various state bureaus of labor and factory inspection will mark a very great step forward in American accident statis-

tics. The same committee, composed largely of public officials who have had long experience in the administration of accident reporting laws, is now charged with the work of drafting a standard schedule for the uniform reporting of occupational diseases, six states having recently enacted laws on the subject.

NEW JERSEY LAWS

The first two bills introduced in the New Jersey senate this year were labor measures. Senator Edge introduced them; the legislature passed them; and Governor Wilson signed them February 27. The first requires dust blowers to be installed in factories; the second requires the installation of safety appliances.

INDUSTRIAL POISONS LIST

The famous List of Industrial Poisons prepared by the committee of medical experts for the International Association for Labor Legislation in 1910 has been enlarged and revised during the past two years and the parallel columns of information concerning substances, occupations, and diseases are now printed in a convenient pamphlet of thirty pages.

COMPENSATION COMMISSIONS

In addition to the eleven state commissions on employers' liability and workmen's compensation previously appointed in 1909 and 1910, the legislation of 1911 provided for the creation of similar commissions in ten states. Some of these commissions have already reported, but others will continue their investigations until the opening of the legislative sessions in January, 1913.

The Michigan commission appointed last June by Governor Osborn has completed its labors, and its elective plan for compensation is being considered at the special session of the legislature which convened February 26.

Governor Crowthers's commission in Maryland recently reported one of the nine workmen's compensation bills now before that legislature. Seven of these are elective schemes; one is a compulsory compensation plan, and the other is a copy of the Washington state insurance law.

Under a Pennsylvania law which went into effect June 14, 1911, Governor Tener recently appointed the Industrial Accidents Commission of seven members to study causes of accidents, means of prevention, and methods of compensation for injuries. The secretary, Francis H. Bohlen of Philadelphia, is to receive under the law a salary of \$4,800 a year, and \$15,000 is appropriated for use by the

commission. A report with recommendations is to be made to the legislature of 1913.

The Colorado commission has held several meetings and, although its work is hampered by lack of funds, a report will be submitted to the legislature in January, 1913.

The North Dakota commission of three unsalaried members has accomplished little as yet, but a report is required on the first day of the session of 1913.

The committee appointed by the Missouri state senate to investigate employers' liability legislation has practically abandoned its work. The committee was appointed and money was appropriated, but the attorney general of the state held that the funds out of which this appropriation was made could not be used for the purpose.

The Iowa employers' liability commission expects during the coming month to conclude its work of gathering statistics, with the help of a number of students of the State University under the direction of Professor Pierce. John O. Staly, one of the labor members, has been giving his entire time to special investigations. Welker Given, the secretary of the commission, began in January a personal investigation of the operation of the New Jersey law. This was followed by similar inquiry in Ohio and Wisconsin, the object being to bring the contrasted systems of these three states into a close comparative study. The commission will shortly hold open sessions in the principal cities of the state, at which both employers and employes will be heard.

The West Virginia commission recently met in Charleston and discussed the preliminary report of the secretary. Several public hearings will be held in the manufacturing centers of the state before November 1.

Three meetings have been held by the Nebraska commission, but it has not yet come to any agreement about the type or scope of the law to be recommended to the legislature. The applicability of workmen's compensation to agricultural labor has given rise to much discussion in Nebraska, and advocates of this legislation fear that such a requirement would endanger the passage of any measure proposed. Debates on a bill introduced at the last session of the legislature indicated unwillingness to accept any plan to compensate for this class of accidents.

The failure of the Minnesota legislature to enact a workmen's compensation law in 1911 has led to the continuation of the work of the State Bar Association Committee, with H. V. Mercer, a prominent Minneapolis attorney, as chairman. It is expected that a carefully drafted bill will be reported to the Minnesota legislature in 1913.

The Texas commission was expected to report to the same session of the legislature which created it, but the governor did not make the appointments until one week before adjournment, and it was then too late to accomplish anything.

The Delaware commission will report in 1913.

In Connecticut the commission held its first public meeting Monday, March 18, at New Haven. This commission was created to report on the practicability of establishing some form of state insurance as a means of providing compensation for industrial accidents. Additional hearings will be held later in Hartford and Bridgeport.

The federal commission bill, providing a plan for compulsory compensation for employes of common carriers by railroads engaged in inter-state or foreign commerce and in the District of Columbia, was introduced in the United States Senate by Mr. Sutherland on February 20.

LABOR NEWS LETTER

[Excerpts from recent news bulletins sent out by the American Federation of Labor.]

—An important declaration in view of future possibilities is that of the adjustment committee of the Atlanta convention to the effect that there shall be "one craft, one union"; that is, that seceding and dual organizations in a craft will hereafter be permanently denied recognition by the federation.

—The A. F. of L. is considering the possibility of forming a Wearing Apparel Trades Department made up of representatives of all unions in this line of work.

—The report of the Building Trades Department shows a membership for 1911 of 294,345 in the twenty unions in these trades.

—A local (Washington) collector of customs has within the last few weeks arrested twenty-five captains of oyster dredges for furnishing insufficient food and bad accommodations for their crews.

—The Journeymen Stone Cutters' Association reports progress during the year, both in membership, the number of branches being increased by twenty-four, and in wages, the aggregate increase being \$250,000, the individual increases in various sections running from 10 cents to \$1 a day.

—The Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway Employes reports some success in its efforts to organize street railways in New York state. The association has this year adopted a new constitution which provides graduated death or disability benefits with a maximum of \$800 to be paid after eight years' membership. An old-age payment of the lump sum of \$800 may also be paid to a member of sixty-five or over who has been in the organization for twenty years.

—The Brotherhood of Railway Carmen reports the organizing of ten new lodges in widely scattered parts of the United States. It has also recently renewed its yearly agreements with three southern railway lines on the basis of increased pay and, in one case, of a nine-hour day.

—From England the report comes of a device, recently invented, designed to make it impossible for trains to run past danger signals. This invention is said to be perfectly auto-

matic and to replace the human element, which plays so vital a part in present railway safety devices.

—Twenty-seven of the 5,527 employes of the Federal Bureau of Lighthouses are women. They are employed, like the men, as lighthouse keepers, and receive salaries running from \$510 to \$800 a year, with a per diem of 30 cents for rations. Laborers' wages in this department run from as low as \$96 to \$250 a year.

—A long-standing controversy between the plate-printers' union and the Senate printing committee, the latter desiring to replace hand by power presses, has been adjusted. Hereafter certain classes of government paper will be printed by the power process, but the total number of power presses shall not exceed one-fifth of the total number of hand-presses.

—About one hundred plater girls employed at Holyoke, Mass., by the American Writing Paper Company have just carried a six-weeks' strike to a successful conclusion. The occasion of the strike was the installation of a new system of work which increased each girls' output, without a corresponding increase of pay. The strike was settled by a wage increase.

GRINDSTONES AND INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS

The *Iron Trade Review* and the *Iron Age* describe the practical welfare work of the Norton Company of Worcester, Mass., manufacturers of carborundum grinding products. One feature of this work is a factory fire department so well trained as to compare favorably with the municipal departments. The building is well equipped with high-pressure water service and automatic sprinklers. Picked men among the employes are trained for fire-fighting with the hand apparatus, and are on call Sundays and holidays. The rank and file of the employes do not appear to be drilled for rapid exit. A health department, organized with the object of establishing and maintaining a physical standard that would make for maximum efficiency of the workers, started its work last May. In order to establish this standard the department undertakes to make a complete physical examination of all employes, to give immediate attention to all defects found by this examination and frequent re-examination, and to treat all sick or injured employes, with the object of getting them into normal condition in the shortest possible time. The medical department also maintains a dispensary and a hospital, and the physician in charge, Dr. Irving Clark, gives periodical thirty-minute talks to the foremen of departments, who act in co-operation with him. The ultimate objects which Dr. Clark has set himself to accomplish are:

Immediate elimination of those absolutely unfit for work.

An increase in the capacity of the partially unfit by slight changes in work, medicine, mode of life, etc.

An exact knowledge of those who may be-

come partially or wholly unfit, and a continued effort to keep this from occurring.

A prevention of sickness by advice given to well employes and by immediate attention to slight ailments.

A reduced time of recovery from accidents. Wounds and injuries properly treated at once heal very much more quickly than if treatment is delayed.

The elimination of so-called blood poisoning, by proper treatment of wounds.

The elimination of active tuberculosis, syphilis, or any condition dangerous to other employes.

JOTTINGS

CHARGES AGAINST THE TAILOR SHOPS

The *Weekly Bulletin* of the Garment Trades translates a statement by union organizers, originally published in the daily *Vorwärts*, in regard to conditions prevailing in New York tailors' and cap-makers' shops—shops which, at the present time, are likely to be the storm center of another big New York strike.

"The sweating system has never bloomed like today. The larger the shop, the larger are the miseries of the workers.

"The subcontractors divide the work between themselves. There is a presser boss, an operator boss, a finisher boss, a collar-sewing-in boss. Every device is used to squeeze out more and more work for less wages. And between these bosses the workers are ground very fine. They sort out the healthier ones, throw aside the weaker, to starve like dogs.

"Should, however, this not be enough, the bosses and the sub-bosses drive their slaves into societies created by themselves. These societies are created to blind the workers so that they won't be able to find their way to the union, and in order to make it easier to frighten and spy upon them.

"The tailors' condition is, however, so extremely bitter that it cannot last long. Their patience must give out. They are being driven into organizing. It was so with the cloak-makers, who were pressed to earth before they organized. It is the same with the cap-makers."

These charges have to do with "inside" shops, which are generally recognized as offering better work conditions than "outside" shops run by contractors.

N. Y. METROPOLITAN LABOR ORGANIZATION

About a dozen local central labor bodies are represented by five delegates each in the federated central body recently formed, representing, it is said, the interests of almost half a million trade unionists in or near New York city. It is organized along inter-city and inter-state lines. Among the organizations which make up the membership, all of which are in cities and towns not far from New York, are the Central Federated Union of New York, the Central Labor Union of Brooklyn, the Essex Trades Council of Newark, N. J., the Hudson County Central Labor

Union, and the Central Bodies of Yonkers and of White Plains, N. Y.

The object of the federation, in the words of its representatives, is "to favor united action on the economic field, assist morally in all struggles against employers, and further the interests generally of the organized workers in the building and miscellaneous trades."

PRISON LABOR AND THE WHITE LIST

A new Special Committee on Manufacture in Prisons and Reformatories was created at the recent annual meeting of the National Consumers' League. The chairman is Julian Leavitt, author of a series of studies of prison labor now appearing in the *American* magazine.

There has been, for a number of years, much complaint by manufacturers who use the label of the Consumers' League (particularly makers of silk petticoats) that they suffer under the cut-throat competition of contractors who use the labor of men, women, girls, and boys detained in prisons and reformatories, whose labor is sold to the contractors at a price with which free labor cannot compete. Manufacturers cooperating with the Consumers' League point out that men and boys who are trained for the needle trades in these institutions find no employment when they are set at large, except in the case of a trivial number of cutters, and that the reformatory aim in their imprisonment is thus wholly defeated. It is the object of the new special committee to obtain and make public information upon the relation of the prisons and reformatories primarily to the trades in which the label of the Consumers' League is used.

VICTORIAN MINIMUM WAGE

The Victoria Minimum Wage Law is thus outlined in the report of the Minimum Wage Commission of Massachusetts: "In Victoria, at the instance of either employers or employes or of the Minister of Labor, the legislature may authorize the creation of a special board which is empowered to fix a minimum wage for a given trade. Employers and employes are equally represented upon such a board and a non-partisan chairman is selected by the two parties at interest, or, if they fail to agree, is then appointed by the Minister of Labor. The chairman has a casting vote. Determinations, as the decisions of the special boards are called, if accepted by the Minister of Labor, are published in the government *Gazette* and become law for that trade. But if the Minister of Labor considers that a determination may cause injury to the trade, he may suspend it for a period of six months and then send it back to the board for reconsideration. There is also the Court of Industrial Appeals to which determinations may be referred, and this court has the power to amend or annul a determination. The decision of the court is final, but it may review

its own decisions. Moreover, the Court of Appeals is specifically instructed to consider whether a determination has been or may be injurious to a trade or may limit employment, and if of opinion that it has had or may have such effect the court shall make such alterations as in its opinion may be necessary to remove or prevent such effect and at the same time secure a living wage to ployes' (Factory and Shops Act, 1905, No. 1975). The law ignores the possibility of cases in which the maintenance of the trade and the payment of a living wage to the employes may be incompatible. These special boards, although authorized to secure a 'living wage,' in practice have served rather to formulate common rules for a trade, to bring suitable machinery to bear for the readjustment of wages and other matters to changing economic conditions. Few appeals have been taken from their decisions to the Industrial Court of Appeals. The claim that the system is not considered antagonistic by propertied interests is borne out by a great weight of testimony."

MILK AND STEEL

At a meeting of the American Iron and Steel Institute Dr. Thomas Darlington, secretary of the Welfare Committee, told of the effort of the Maryland Steel Company to cope with infant mortality in the families of steel workers. This company has a fine herd of cows and it conducts a dairy whose aim is to supply good milk for a reasonable price. Plans are being made further to improve the quality of the milk by providing a model sanitary stable for the cattle.

AMERICAN LABOR LEGISLATION

Volume I, Number 3, of the *American Labor Legislation Review* is a review of labor legislation for 1911. Part I is an analysis of legislation by subjects and states. Part II, a topical index by states, gives a bird's-eye view by titles of the nature of the legislation passed. Number 4 of the same review covers the subject of Accident Prevention and Reporting and is made up of the papers presented at the conference of the association in September, 1911.

The third annual report of the association is made up of the papers presented at the joint meeting of this association and the Academy of Political Science in November, 1911.

THE CELLAR BAKERY

The cellar bakery, according to the report of the New York Factory Investigating Commission, is not peculiar to New York city, as this "condition prevails also in Berlin, Paris, Chicago, Philadelphia, and Pittsburgh, and in London up to five or six years ago, when the future use of cellars was prohibited." A few years later than this Chicago undertook the gradual abolition of cellar bakeries and has already accomplished excellent results.

PERSONALS

Eugene T. Lies this month resigned his position as secretary of the Associated Charities of Minneapolis and accepted the superintendency of the United Charities of Chicago, the change to become effective April 15. In going to Chicago to take the place of Sherman C. Kingsley, he reenters a city and field of work with which he is familiar from former service. Graduating from Cornell University with the degree of B.S., in 1900, Mr. Lies entered the work of the Charity Organization Society of Buffalo as a district agent. After less than a year in this capacity, he was called to the Associated Charities Society of Chicago, where distinction soon came to him. As district superintendent, as special agent of the general office, as department superintendent, and as general secretary with supervision over the ten districts of that city, he familiarized himself with the social and economic conditions of Chicago's cauldron of races. In 1907 he took the position in Minneapolis which he now leaves. The growth of the work under his administration is evidenced by the increase in the society's budget from \$14,000 in 1907 to \$55,000 in 1912. At the same time he was active in general social movements throughout city and state. In securing a municipal lodging-house, in framing and passing lodging-house ordinances, in establishing medical inspection in the public schools, in the work of the Minneapolis Child Labor Committee, in the organization of a remedial loan association, as state representative of the National Red Cross Society (which placed him in charge of the relief work in two forest fires and at the Black River Falls disaster in Wisconsin), and as lecturer on social economics at the University of Minnesota, Mr. Lies has shown versatility, efficiency, and vigor, and has won for himself the title recently conferred of the foremost social worker in the state. Notable among his activities was the secretaryship of the Minneapolis Vice Commission. Mr. Lies is but thirty-five years of age.

In welcoming him to Chicago, the *Record-Herald* of that city declares that Mr. Lies has had "real training for the work in which he is engaged. He is a man of ideas and of practical judgment. . . . His staff will be well-organized and well-established. He will inspire confidence."

The Stockholders' Committee appointed by Judge Gary of the United States Steel Corporation last fall to look into labor conditions has commissioned William H. Matthews, for seven years headworker of Kingsley House, Pittsburgh, to make a tour of plants and mill towns. Stuyvesant Fish is chairman of this committee, which includes several practical steel men. Mr. Matthews brings intimate acquaintance with social and sanitary conditions in the hill district of Pittsburgh to this study

of mill towns and, eventually, of mining camps.

William I. Nichols, for sixteen years general secretary of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, has presented his resignation to the Board of Directors, to take effect after the close of the fiscal year of the society on April 30 next.

The record of those years may well be epitomized in two pictures: of the society at the beginning of the period and at its ending. Mr. Nichols's staunch advocacy of industrial agencies as factors in relief work may have led some to believe that in some ways the Brooklyn development in this direction is traceable to him. On the contrary he found the whole system there when he took office. Whether it was the province of a charity organization society or not to maintain agencies for providing temporary employment and instruction, and incidentally further the intimate contact of the volunteers with families, was not for him to settle; the policy had been mapped out, and the two buildings which the society occupied were particularly adapted to industrial agencies and nothing else.

So he took his society as he found it and in the fields in which it had fitted itself. He found a badly disjointed, decentralized administration of these agencies and many abuses in them, a lack of recognition of social principles in dealing with families, and too great a tendency to consider the work above all else. He fought for many weary years to make the industrial agencies really a creditable and useful part of treatment. He may have over-emphasized their usefulness and sometimes have believed they could play a larger part in rehabilitation than was inherently possible. If he did, he has simply shown that he is no different than the rest of us in social work, for every mother's son and daughter of us over-emphasizes one thing or another. Mr. Nichols needs no apologia, needs no defender of his ideas; he has done a large task well.

Nor has this been his only task. During these sixteen years on the side of straight family rehabilitation work, the society has steadily progressed. More and better workers have been gradually added to its staff. He has represented the bureau and Brooklyn in many campaigns for both legislative and administrative reforms and in co-operative efforts among the hard-pressed social agencies of this neglected borough. Modestly and quietly he has done this; there is no written record of it all, but those who have known him best and longest appreciate the service which he has rendered.

In many ways his influence will be felt by those who have really known him. He has had high standards of conduct. Sometimes he has been accused of expecting too great a degree of approximation to those standards on the part of the weaker. Perhaps so. But we need those who insist that individual responsibility and character-building are some-

thing real in this world and that we are not merely the foam-crests of the billows of circumstance, mere puppets. There is some verity in standards of conduct, and Mr. Nichols's influence upon the social field has been distinctly fine and tonic in holding steadfastly to this principle.

No more loyal, disinterested, devoted, and strenuous service has ever been rendered by any general secretary in the country than by him. His life has been entirely centered in his work, and his reward has been in seeing steady, slow progress against seemingly overwhelming handicaps.

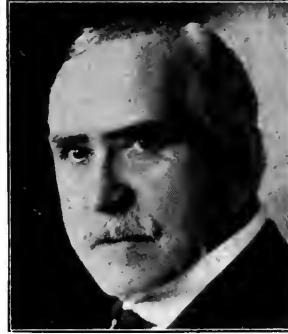
He is leaving now to go into some less strenuous field because he believes the battle in Brooklyn should be taken up by a fresh and younger man. The New York problem is more and more becoming the Brooklyn problem, with the incredibly rapid immigration from Manhattan across the river. Greater expansion of the district work, a campaign to enlist the support of New York men in the Brooklyn field—these are the tasks which must be taken up, and the struggle will be a long one. He leaves the society in excellent shape, so far as increased efficiency is concerned, and ready to take on newer responsibilities from year to year as the field enlarges.

FRANCIS H. MCLEAN.

William H. McClain, for eleven years general manager of the St. Louis Provident Association, died December 7, 1911, in his sixtieth year, after an illness that had kept him from his office since last June. Throughout the preparations for the Thirty-seventh National Conference of Charities and Correction in St. Louis, Mr. McClain gave himself unsparingly to the undertaking. At the same time he was supervising the erection of the new building for the Provident Association and the plans for moving into it. In an autobiography prepared before he died Mr. McClain declared that these responsibilities and excessive work seriously impaired his health. Last spring he was granted a six month's leave of absence. Bright's disease hastened his death.

Although Mr. McClain gave his earlier years to teaching and to business he was most widely known as a social worker. A conspicuous member of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, of which for a number of years he acted as assistant secretary, and later as a member of the executive committee, he was also active in the affairs of the National Benevolent Association, the Missouri Conference of Charities and Correction, and a number of other societies. The great field of his labor was St. Louis. His ideas were advanced, their realization lagging behind only so far as physical equipment, financial support, and the traditions of a conservative city and section of the country handicapped him. In its new building the Provident Association is perhaps as well housed as any similar charitable society in the country. So far as it was possible in St. Louis and in the time he had, Mr. McClain brought the various lines of work of

a general charitable society to a high degree of efficiency. Only a few weeks before his death, he described his plans for the future of the Provident Association. These included among other things the pensioning of



WILLIAM H. MCCLAIN.

certain types of families and the organization of districts. In cooperation with the assistant manager, at that time, Mr. McClain saw the latter accomplished.

But the Provident Association is not a greater monument to his services than is the group of societies and forces that Mr. McClain initiated and promoted. The St. Louis Pure Milk Commission, the St. Louis Visiting Nurse Association, the St. Louis School of Social Economy, as well as many other organizations, were created largely through his efforts. He often acted as their secretary.

In his earlier charitable work in St. Louis Mr. McClain worked almost alone, so far as men were concerned, among the Protestant charities. But at length he enlisted in the field of social service a goodly number of young men, who are with him chiefly responsible for the awakening in that field in St. Louis.

Governor Dix has reappointed Homer Folks for another term of four years as a member of the New York State Probation Commission. Mr. Folks has been president of the commission since its establishment. The appointment indicates a continuation of the past policies of the commission. The present commission—the first of its kind—was created largely as the result of investigations made by an earlier temporary commission named by Governor Higgins in 1905. Mr. Folks, as chairman of this temporary commission, took an important part in exposing certain weaknesses and abuses in the probation system, particularly in New York city, and in proposing legislation and other remedial measures. The duties of the present commission, which was established in 1907 during the administration of Governor Hughes, are chiefly to inspect and advise. The commission has contributed much toward extending the operations of the probation system, standardizing methods, and making probationary oversight something substantial and truly reformatory.

M. Edith Campbell, recently elected as one of two members at large of the Board of Education, is the first woman ever elected to an official position in Cincinnati.

After receiving the Degrees of Bachelor



M. EDITH CAMPBELL.

and Master of Arts from the University of Cincinnati, Miss Campbell was an instructor in economics in that institution for a short time. She is now the director of a fund established to aid in educating self-supporting young women, in connection with which she has recently established a vocation department and an employment bureau. In 1909, with one other social worker, she took charge of the issuing of work certificates to school children, using this as a basis for scientific research into the effect of work upon children, a piece of study considered by the National Society for Industrial Education, as marking a striking advance in recent years in practical sociology.

Miss Campbell's election was largely a personal victory. It was not the result of party influence, and, as a matter of fact, she has the distinction of being the first independent candidate ever elected to the Cincinnati Board of Education. President Taft's open endorsement of her probably brought her many votes, but she was strictly an independent candidate, even going so far as to request one independent party to withdraw her name from their ticket.

Nor can her vote be considered as a complimentary vote to a woman, for there were two other women candidates at large for the school board, neither of whom received one-third as many votes. Although her candidacy was the result of the combined request of three organizations of women, she refused in this instance to be allied with the suffragist movement, and the fact that she received 23,268 votes, when only 3030 women registered, shows that her election came from the men.

The new board member is a woman of keen perception, deeply alive to educational needs. She is especially fair-minded, and has been called upon by both employer and em-

ploye to arbitrate labor differences. These characteristics, with a consequent wide acquaintance among all classes, gained for her a large following, although she made no personal canvass or campaign speeches. She is probably the only woman in Cincinnati who could have been elected. Her past record indicates that she will bring to her new work a trained mind and a purpose to advocate the most efficient means of bettering economic conditions in the public schools of Cincinnati.

The very name of Charles Pickering Putnam, containing that of his distinguished ancestor, Pickering, prompts expectations of something worthy in the man. All the way down the family has produced public-spirited men and women and, what is better, the next generation promises to keep up the record.

Dr. Putnam was recently selected for special honor because he had more than completed two-score years of wise philanthropic and scientific work, and his fellow citizens of Boston could not wait any longer to pay him their respect. Few charities worthy the name but had received his aid during this time. Indeed, he was one of the organizers of the associated charities, the diet kitchen, the infant asylum, the school for training nurses, the nurses' registry, and many more. For years he was an unpaid member of the committee having charge of the city's juvenile waifs and strays, converting the very un-reform school into an educational industrial institution bearing the name of the Suffolk School.

One of the chief reasons of Dr. Putnam's preëminent success in every place where he applied his hand was his attention to details. Take it in so homely a thing as dressing and clothing a baby. At the infant asylum, with which he has been connected forty years, he had little dressing-boards, covered with quilting, on which the nurse could dress the baby, without having it immured in her lap in an uncomfortable heap, inhaling her breath, good or bad. He even invented special garments for the babies to wear, easily put off and on, and protecting them properly. One of his other clever notions was to spread a strong fish net over a frame work under the apple trees, and it was a pretty sight to see a baby in each depression of this communistic hammock as on a summer's day they lay there blinking at the sunlight through the sheltering trees.

The Boston *Evening Transcript* well said that the speakers at the banquet in his honor—and they were such men as Robert A. Woods, President Lowell of Harvard, and Moorfield Storey—"put into strong language and definite phraseology what thousands and tens of thousands of our people have felt and still continue to feel."

If only more cities would pause long enough to honor men while they still live, there would be added incentives to younger social workers to live such lives of devotion to the best good of the community.

I. C. B.

The Rev. Hubert W. Wells, rector of St. Andrews' Episcopal Church, Wilmington, Del., and the new executive secretary of Philadelphia's City Club, has outlined plans for bringing the club to the front rank among the social and civic organizations of the city. The City Club was compelled to give up its house at 1418 Walnut street some time ago, and now has temporary quarters in the Real Estate Trust Building. Another location is being sought and it is in connection with this quest and the forming of a civic center, as well as of increasing the membership and influence of the club, that Dr. Wells's services have been sought. Dr. Wells brings to his new position unusual executive and administrative experience, having formerly been president of the Ministerial Union of Wilmington; chairman of the Diocesan Social Service Committee; chairman of the Ministerial Union Committee for the survey of neighborhoods in Wilmington; chairman of the Delaware Child Labor Committee; member of the executive committee of the Juvenile Court Association; member of the Advisory Board of the Consumers' League; member of the Delaware Society for Social and Moral Hygiene; president of the Social Service Club of Wilmington. In fact, Mr. Wells's activities for the past seven years have been largely given to the work of these social organizations as well as to the religious work within his own church.

THE TREND OF THINGS

Two representatives of industry have recently expressed their fear of agitation and the general unrest noticeable throughout the country. To John Kirby, president of the National Association of Manufacturers, it is time for "sober, even-minded" men in the country to unite against the attacks of reform.

"Of the 'isms' of the day," says Mr. Kirby, "the initiative, the referendum, and the recall are the particular phantoms which are most alluring, and to which some people are flocking like sheep. They are the pet hobbies of socialism, are as old as the hills, and have long been advocated by the Socialists and labor-unions.

"We are by no means suffering for want of the initiative and referendum nor for the recall. They are full of dangerous consequences. They are advocated by disgruntled politicians and professional malcontents whose minds run to fantastic experiments already discredited in the eyes of the enlightened nations. The highways of civilization are strewn with the wrecks of such haphazard political ventures. To adopt them, or either of them, as a general proposition would be to usher into our system of government the beginning of the disruption of the institutions which have made this nation the envy of the world."

Judge Gary sees a great danger in the pos-

sible dissolution of large industrial corporations. To him, the attacks on corporations are part of a sinister feeling of unrest throughout the world."

"This feeling," he says, "is not confined to the United States. It exists in every country in Europe. In my opinion, it is due to two causes: first, the fact that means of communication are increasing rapidly and news can be carried to widely separated points in a short time; and, second, the unjust agitation promoted by labor leaders, demagogues with personal ambitions to serve, so-called statesmen whom I should term politicians, and newspaper publishers who are disposed to appeal to the prejudice and passions of what they variously term the 'masses,' the 'working class,' or the 'people,' to incite the latter against the 'capitalist' and educated classes. They excuse this by saying that they are giving their readers what they want.

"I say to you that things are being said and printed similar to the incendiary speeches which aroused the peasants of France and caused the French Revolution. Unless something is done the spark will burst into a flame."

Judge Gary's address was made at a dinner to Charles M. Schwab of the Bethlehem Steel Company, and some of the newspapers quoted Mr. Gary as saying in the course of it:

It is now fashionable to appeal to the so-called working people, sometimes called the poorer people, in order to excite them to a bitter antagonism against the classes variously called capitalists, educated ones, or corporations.

The phrase "so-called working people" was seized upon by an editorial writer of the *Chicago Tribune*, who pits it against the reference a few days earlier, by the counsel for the American Sugar Refining Company, to the "so-called sugar frauds." This clever bit of satire follows:

"Mr. Gary has flashed upon our imagination a striking picture. We can see the so-called workman getting out of the so-called bed of repose and faring joyously forth to his so-called work in the so-called steel mills. We can see him stripped to his so-called skin, feeding ore into a blast furnace full of so-called air heated to a temperature of 1,000 so-called degrees, or we see him handling bars of so-called molten metal, dodging so-called cranes, so-called rollers, so-called apparatus of various bewildering variety. We see him returning at night, if all goes well, to his so-called home, his so-called wife, his so-called children, filled with the happy consciousness that if he doesn't lose his job he can and will work seven so-called days in the so-called week for his so-called wage of so-called dollars. We can see him occasionally tripping and falling into a so-called vat of so-called metal, being returned to his so-called family in the form of a cinder, or we can see him crushing his so-called arm in a so-called cog and later signing with the remaining hand a so-called agreement releasing the so-called corporation from liability for his so-called mishap.



—Minor in *St. Louis Post-Dispatch*.

HIRE.

"And while we are gazing upon this picture of the so-called working people we may be thinking of the so-called capitalists, among them Mr. Gary and Mr. Schwab, and their dividends from the so-called earnings upon the so-called capitalization and so-called properties of the so-called steel corporation.

"Mr. Gary is afraid the 'so-called working people', the 'so-called poorer people', will repeat the so-called French revolution. We do not share this fear. But if they do it will be because of the 'so-called' state of mind among so-called capitalists, so-called corporations, and the so-called statesmen whose so-called acts and consciences they invest in and control."

* * *

Holland's magazine (Texas) is offering a novel prize competition. "To stimulate the observance of wholesome sanitary laws and thereby promote good health in Texas," *Holland's* offers \$1,000 in cash to be divided among the three towns (not cities) having the best record for cleanliness according to rules laid down for the contest.

The towns entering the contest will be inspected and scored in accordance with the rules to be prescribed, and in judging consideration will be given to such things as:

- Condition of streets, parks, and alleys;
- Water supply;
- Garbage disposal;
- Condition of vacant lots;
- General appearance of homes;
- Ventilation and care of public buildings;
- Public conveniences, especially those for schools;
- Stagnant water;
- Presence of flies and mosquitoes;

And to such other things as may directly affect the health or cleanliness of the towns.

"From time to time," the announcement

continues, "*Holland's* will contain articles on municipal sanitation, methods of ridding towns of flies and mosquitoes, and other things which will aid in bringing about more healthful conditions in this and other states. In this we are assured of the aid and co-operation of some of the leading health and sanitary authorities of the country."

* * *

The sixth instalment of William Hard's interesting series in the *Delineator*, on laws concerning women, outlines a program for legislation designed to give mothers equal rights with fathers over their children. The *Delineator* announces its purpose to put these laws on the statute books and expresses its thanks to those "who in many states have worked for joint guardianship laws and have helped in drawing up its Declaration of Principles." The declaration reads as follows:

SECTION ONE.—The husband and wife living together are joint guardians of their unmarried minor children with equal powers, rights, and duties in respect of the custody and control and of the services and earnings and of the management of the property of their said unmarried minor children; and neither the husband nor the wife has any right paramount to that of the other in respect of the custody and control or of the services and earnings or of the management of the property of their said unmarried minor children, any provision of law whatever, written or unwritten, to the contrary, in any wise notwithstanding.

SECTION TWO.—The husband and wife living apart are entitled to the adjudication of the court as to their powers, rights, and duties in respect of the custody and control of the services and earnings and of the management of the property of their unmarried minor children without any preference as between the said husband and wife, and neither the husband nor the wife has any right paramount to that of the other in respect of the custody and control or of the services and earnings or of the management of the property of their said unmarried minor children, any provision of law whatever, written or unwritten, to the contrary in any wise notwithstanding; and pending such adjudication the husband or wife who actually has the custody and control of their said unmarried minor children shall have the sole right to the custody and control and to the services and earnings and to the management of the property of their said unmarried minor children.

SECTION THREE.—In the case of the death of either the husband or wife the survivor, whether or not he or she remain unmarried, shall succeed to all the powers, rights, and duties of the deceased in respect of the custody and control and of the services and earnings and of the management of the property of their unmarried minor children. The said surviving husband or wife may by duly executed will transfer any or all of his or her powers, rights, and duties in respect of the custody and control or of the management of the property, but not of the services and earnings, of their unmarried minor children to any fit person or persons.

SECTION FOUR.—The support of their unmarried minor children is chargeable jointly and severally upon the property of the husband and the property of the wife, and in relation thereto they may be sued either jointly or severally.

SECTION FIVE.—The marriage of a minor terminates the guardianship in respect of the custody and control and of the services and earnings, but not of the management of the property, of the said minor.

SECTION SIX.—In respect of the guardianship of their unmarried minor children, the disabilities of a minor husband, if any, shall in no case be greater than those of a minor wife, and the disabilities of a minor wife, if any, shall in no case be greater than those of a minor husband, any provision of law whatever, written or unwritten, to the contrary in any wise notwithstanding.

COMMUNICATIONS

THE TENEMENT HOUSE DECISION

TO THE EDITOR:

I have read with much interest the editorial article appearing in *THE SURVEY* of March 9,¹ entitled *Another Bad Decision*. I am especially interested in it, because it seems to me typical of much of the criticism of our courts appearing in current newspapers and magazines. Nevertheless, I am frank to say that, appearing in *THE SURVEY*, its tone surprises and shocks me, and not any the less so because I am inclined to the opinion, after a brief examination of the statutes involved, that the correctness of the decision of the court is open to some doubt. Any lawyer, however, on reading the opinion, however thorough his "understanding of social and economic questions," would at once understand that the question involved was purely one of statutory construction, which could be correctly and properly answered by the application of principles which the trained lawyer is capable of ascertaining and applying. Criticism of the method by which the court ascertained the principles in the tenement house case and of its application of them is not only permissible, but from my point of view desirable, since it tends to the proper development of the law and an accurate understanding of those principles which should govern judicial decisions. I, in common with the other readers of your paper, would have welcomed a criticism of the decision of the court of this character. Your criticism, however, so far as it is not a more or less direct reflection upon the motives and intelligence of the members of the court, would, I think, quite clearly convey to the lay mind the opinion, first, that the "undemocratic, arbitrary, and useless" distinction between the tenement house and the apartment house is a creation by the Court of Appeals rather than of the written law of the state of New York, adopted by legislative sanction; and, second, that the decision is wrong, because it is contrary to social justice and because by it "social advance" is "stupidly and unnecessarily blocked." A reading of the opinion and of the statutes referred to in it will at once disclose the fact that the distinction between the tenement house and the apartment house was not invented by the court, but was one which existed in the fundamental law of the state by legislative fiat. The building code of New York city, which defined the term apartment house as a building used by three or more families, etc., "in which every such family or household shall have provided for it a kitchen, set bath-tub, and water-closet apart and separate from each other," was adopted by the municipal assembly by the express authority of the legislature of the state of New York, and was as much the law of the state as though

it had been enacted by the legislature of the state of New York as a part of Section 647 of the Revised Charter of 1897. Your statement, therefore, that this ordinance "never has had any vitality or significance" artistically begs one of the two main questions which the court had to decide, and in any event it can scarcely be said to be dignified with that accuracy which should characterize criticism of a judicial opinion. The court, therefore, did not create the distinction, but the legislative power of the state created it, and it was for the court, by reading the building code and the then-existing tenement house law together, to give each its proper effect in order that the expressed intention of the legislature might be carried out.

A second question for the court to determine was whether the statute law thus interpreted was modified by the tenement house law of 1901. It clearly did not, as your article intimates, expressly repeal the provisions of the building code, or any of them. This likewise was a question of statutory construction, which cannot be said to be free from grave doubt. It is to these questions of pure construction that criticisms of the decision, if any are to be made, should be directed, for I take it that you would agree that the court should not override the popular will, as expressed by the legislature. If at fault at all, the court has erred in misinterpreting the written language embodied in a series of complicated statutes of doubtful meaning. If it has misinterpreted the legislative language or if the legislature has not by such language expressed its real intention, the remedy is simple, and will doubtless be speedily applied by the performance of those functions which under constitutional government are assigned to the legislature and not to the courts. That any serious public calamity is involved in such action by the court, even though erroneous, must be based on the assumption that constitutional government is a failure and that the only method of registering the public will is by the process of influencing the court by public clamor to which you euphemistically refer as "the education of the judges."

The view that it is possible to base judicial decisions upon some vague notion of social justice finds frequent expression in these days of hasty and ill-considered criticism. Social justice may mean anything, and therefore, as a basis of judicial decision, means nothing. My own observation is that it is usually used as a term descriptive of the particular remedy which the critic of the courts desires very much, but is unable to obtain from the courts by the application of his particular theories of judicial legislation. Abstract justice, or social justice, cannot exist under a system administered by mere man, apart from that approximate justice which is administered by our courts, according to a system of rules and principles. Not abstract justice, not social justice, therefore, should be

¹ See *THE SURVEY*, March 9, page 1891.

our quest, but justice according to law; and, in order that justice according to law may approximate abstract justice, let us direct our criticism of the courts toward the rules and principles of decisions, not toward the intelligence or motives of the judges, and let us value the correctness of their decisions by the skill and accuracy with which they apply those rules and principles.

Particularly startling is your suggestion that the court would, and doubtless should, have rendered a different decision in the Workmen's Compensation Act case had it foreseen just what a reception the opinion was to have. Such a suggestion can only be founded either upon the theory that justice reposes in the bosoms of those who can shout the loudest, or that the judges of the Court of Appeals would violate their oaths of office for the sake of satisfying popular clamor. If the former is the correct theory of the function of the courts, what is to become of the rights of the humble and the insignificant, assuming, of course, that the owner of the apartment house with bath-tub attachment has no rights which the courts are bound to respect?

The School of Law, in which I have the honor to be a teacher, is much engaged in the criticism of judicial opinions. Neither teachers nor students consider that in so doing they are guilty of any disrespect to the courts, or that they act in contempt of the institution which is vital to the perpetuation of a free government. In the discussion of judicial opinions, however, the following canons are carefully observed:

1. That all criticisms should be intelligently directed toward the rules and principles which must necessarily govern judicial decisions.
2. That such criticism should be fair and made with respect for the courts, as the best instrumentality for the administration of justice which humankind has as yet devised.
3. That abstract or social justice as a test for the correctness of judicial decisions, apart from legal rules and principles, is absolutely without value.
4. That the fact that one or many members of the community who very much desire the establishment of a legal principle are actuated by good motives does not establish that the principle is sound, or will, in the generality of cases, promote justice.

The inalienable right of the unsuccessful litigant to retire to the tavern and damn the court may afford some consolation to his wounded sensibilities, but it does not contribute to social or any other kind of progress.

Do you not think, Mr. Editor, that THE SURVEY might properly and wisely adopt these canons of criticism?

HARLAN F. STONE.

[School of Law, Columbia University.]

TO THE EDITOR:

Respecting the criticism of THE SURVEY on two recent decisions of our New York Court of Appeals, will you not permit me as a lawyer to suggest that the interest of THE SUR-

VEY in the accomplishment of undoubtedly laudable ends seems to have made it somewhat indifferent to the means by which such ends are to be reached?

The New York Court of Appeals in its sphere is the place of last appeal, and that it is unwilling to arrogate to itself rights which do not in reality belong to it should be a matter of congratulation to all of us.

Its only function in the case of the Tenement House Law was the interpretation of the law. The legislature was in session and could and did perform its legitimate function in making the necessary alterations in the act, whereby the hitherto undiscovered flaw was corrected.

It is true you printed the opinion in full, but there is not one person in a hundred of your readers who would be able to take in the reasoning of the court nor to see just why the court felt itself bound to come to such conclusion as it did.

Take, for example, the statement of the opinion that "the rule in such case is that a particular class of cases is not repealed by a subsequent statute, general in its terms, provisions, and applications, unless the intent to repeal it is manifest, although the terms of the general act are broad enough to include the cases embraced in the special law."

In this, as in most other cases decided, there are general rules covering the court, the infraction of which, or the twisting of which, would ultimately become a much more serious matter than any single evil like the damage done to the tenement house bill.

In much the same way, your criticism of the decision respecting employers' liability seems to be open to objection.

I think the court is highly to be commended for keeping inside the terms of our state constitution and insisting that, in the case of a radical departure from preceding practice, the citizens composing the state should proceed to amend the constitution in an orderly manner, as prescribed in the constitution, and not to look to the Supreme Court to do the work for them.

There has been of late great outcry against judicial legislation, much more in fact than there was any reasonable ground for. But judicial legislation is itself insignificant as compared with tampering with the constitution. Our political institutions are far from perfection. We expect continuous improvement in them. But the only way that it can come to stay is the orderly way already prescribed. The more far-reaching and fundamental the alteration, the more difficult it should be to make it, and the more permanent it will be when it has struggled into existence, and the more respect we shall have for ourselves and our courts if we have not insisted and they have not yielded to popular clamor.

For example, the lottery business was as bad before it was declared illegal as it was afterward. But the Supreme Court of the United States would only hold it to be bad when it was declared by law to be so. The

corner liquor store of today is unquestionably a nuisance *per se*, but it is not a nuisance in law, and, heartily as I am opposed to its continued existence, I do not advocate its extirpation by a judicial decision. The thing is there in all its hideousness and the people can sweep it away at any time when their intelligence and their conscience is sufficiently aroused.

There is a matter more important than the employer's liability and infinitely more important than the temporary damage to the Tenement House Act, and that is the respect and honor in which our highest judicial bodies are held. They are deserving of such honor and respect, and it seems to me a most hurtful thing that their decisions should be subjected to such criticism as has recently appeared in THE SURVEY.

It goes without saying that the sensational newspapers have done their best to undermine the faith of the people in the courts. The only charitable judgment one can pass upon the editors is that they do not realize the seriousness of the injury which they are inflicting.

CHARLES E. MANIERRE.

[The points raised in these communications will be discussed editorially in a later issue.—Ed.]
New York.

MONDAY HOLIDAYS

TO THE EDITOR:

Mr. Wevill's¹ idea of changing the calendar so that the observance of all holidays shall fall on Monday is a most sensible suggestion in the interest of industry, along practical lines, and in my opinion will meet with general favor among workmen and employers. Outside of purely sentimental reasons there is no reason why all the changes suggested by Mr. Wevill for observing the holidays we now have should not be made. There are many very good reasons in favor of making the change. Mr. Wevill has probably enumerated all that it is necessary to mention. Personally I should not favor increasing the number by adding a holiday on the first Monday in August, as in my judgment we now have as many holidays as we need, and more than those who are paid by the day can afford.

F. S. TOMLIN.

[Secretary-treasurer Labor Legislative Conference, Greater New York.]

CHANGE UNHISTORIC DAYS FIRST

TO THE EDITOR:

The propositions of Mr. Wevill with regard to the holiday calendar are certainly very interesting.¹ The calendar, as at present arranged, is a general nuisance. We have, from time to time, in fits of emotional insanity, selected certain days to celebrate, making them holidays by act of national or state legislatures. In doing this we have never stopped to consider whether they would conflict with other days, whether they were

at seasons suitable for celebration, or the like. Mr. Wevill also notices another and very serious evil of our calendar: the fact that, as our civilization, at least in the cities, is now organized, the falling of these days at odd times in the week is a source of great annoyance and material injury to business interests, both of employers and employed.

His two general propositions are correct, I believe. In the recognition of the weekly rather than the monthly date in fixing the time of the holiday, so that the holidays should fall on Mondays, I think that he is quite right. This, with the least possible disturbance of business, would afford the greatest possible opportunity of recreation, a point of much importance, both to employer and employed. It would also, I think, from the church point of view afford a better opportunity for laying moral emphasis on those things for which the holidays stand.

When it comes to details, I am not prepared to follow altogether Mr. Wevill's suggestions. That is a matter which should be worked out with considerable care. I fancy that it would be very hard to persuade people to abandon the Fourth of July, because of the actual historical event connected therewith. The same will be true of Washington's birthday anniversary, and, to a less extent, of Lincoln's, because of the more recent observance of the latter. As a practical line of approach, we had better commence with Thanksgiving Day, Memorial Day, Labor Day, and the like, where the monthly date is unimportant, and then work back from those, if it seems practicable, to the other days which celebrate actual historical events.

JOHN P. PETERS.

[Rector St. Michael's Church, New York.]

INVESTIGATE LIBRARY SALARIES

TO THE EDITOR:

Several men in my classes have been pointing out to me the exceedingly low salaries paid to librarians and librarians' assistants, this notwithstanding the fact that a high standard of educational requirement is in force. I quote, too, from a recent letter to the *Times*: "When it is considered that none but high school or college graduates are accepted for the position, and then only after they have given up a full year to their preparation for the work in a library school, it seems that a salary of \$480 a year is not an adequate one. Furthermore, when it is found that 95 per cent of the librarians, many of whom have been in the service from ten to twenty years, are earning less than \$720 a year, we may conclude that our library work has either been intrusted to a number of incompetent persons or else that they are miserably underpaid."

May we not hope for a careful investigation of this matter? Certainly our self-supporting women of refinement and education need protection.

H. A. OVERSTREET.

[Department of Philosophy, College of the City of New York.]

¹See THE SURVEY, February 17, pp. 1756, 1788.

JOTTINGS

SEATTLE REJECTS AMENDMENTS

At a general election on March 5 the citizens of Seattle, Wash., rejected a proposed amendment to their city's charter which would have established a Board of Public Welfare. As described recently in the Survey,¹ this board would have been in the nature of a Department of Charities and Correction, with power to supervise and control exclusively city asylums, work-houses, reformatories, and other places of detention (unless temporary) for defectives and delinquents, whether juvenile or otherwise, and other corrective institutions or agencies. At the same election Seattle turned down a charter amendment to inaugurate the single tax.

CONFERENCE ON COLORED PEOPLE

The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People will hold its fourth annual conference in Chicago, beginning April 28. Previous conferences have been held in New York and Boston; this is the first to be held in the Middle West. At the Sunday services preceding the conference, it is planned to ask many of the ministers throughout the city to speak from their pulpits against the prevalence of lynching throughout the country, which is especially applied to the Negro.

The local committee in charge includes Jane Addams, F. L. Barnett, Ida Wells Barnett, S. P. Breckenridge, Judge E. O. Brown, W. E. Furness, Dr. C. E. Bentley, D. T. Harris, Jenkin Lloyd Jones, Rev. J. T. Jenifer, Robert McMurdy, Louis F. Post, Julius Rosenwald, W. E. Walling, Dr. A. W. Williams, Celia Parker Woolley. Miss Addams is the honorary chairman and T. W. Allinson secretary-treasurer.

TACOMA'S SOCIAL SERVICE BOARD

A Social Service Board has been created by ordinance in Tacoma, Wash. It consists of twelve members, six of whom are by the provisions of the ordinance to be women and six men.²

The duties of the board are thus described:

"It shall be the duty of the board to inspect and investigate all places of public amusement and to take all necessary steps to prevent the carrying on of any amusement which has a tendency to impair or destroy good morals in the community; or the running of any place of amusement where the health, comfort, and safety of the patrons and employes of such place are not properly protected.

¹See THE SURVEY for February 17, page 1754.

²The members of the board are: Mrs. J. Q. Mason, Mrs. James A. Hays, Mrs. Leonard Crassweller, Mrs. John Gilchrist, Mrs. S. S. Healey, Ada B. Hillman, W. W. Parker, C. W. Blanple, Wm. Hannon, Rev. C. J. Jenkins, F. H. Pettit, and W. W. Seymour.

"It shall at all times render such assistance to, and co-operate with, any organization, board, or committee organized or existing for accomplishing like purposes as is within its powers.

"It shall study and investigate moral and social conditions in all places, especially where young persons are concerned, and shall consider in connection therewith the health, comfort, and well-being of such persons.

"It shall at all times render all assistance and co-operation within its powers to any board, officer, or court where juvenile persons are concerned, and shall at all times prevent, when possible, the publication of the name or offense of any juvenile offender, or any reference thereto in such manner that the name of such offender would be known to the public."

It is stated that the "chasing around nights on the street of boys and girls has practically stopped since this board began work. Boys of foreign parentage have been much helped by the board to understand our laws and ways and conform thereto. Moving pictures are being thoroughly censored." The board is now planning to take up specific problems in connection with the field and gradually work out a consistent program of action. This would include probably the establishment of social centers, the first one possibly on the new municipal dock. The relation of the board to the juvenile court is generally to provide volunteer workers to work with the individual boys and girls who are on probation.

HONESTY OF SMALL BORROWERS

Nineteen thousand, nine hundred and forty-nine people borrowed \$560,025 during the past year from the Hebrew Free Loan Association of New York, which exists to "help self-respecting persons, without regard to race or creed, to help themselves, by lending them from \$5 to \$200 without interest or expenses, to be re-paid in weekly installments." During the last five years the association has loaned \$2,438,041 to 91,566 persons. Of the amount loaned last year all but \$3,535.25 has been collected, the losses constituting therefore a little over 5 per cent. The association estimates that fully 97 per cent of its losses are re-paid by the borrowers, and only 2 per cent by the endorsers, and that half of the 2 per cent is ultimately returned to the endorser through it or through the borrower himself.

HANDLING PRISONERS

The director of public safety of Philadelphia, Geo. D. Parker, endorses some suggestions which have recently been made by Thos. W. MacFarland, a city magistrate. The first suggestion is that only the prisoner who is to be heard should be present in the room. As things are now arranged "they are indiscriminately huddled together like so many animals in a 'cage.'"

The suggestion that no witness should tes-

tify in the hearing of another is as old as when Susannah and the judges appeared in court. That it should take thousands of years fairly to inaugurate such a system shows how slowly prison reform advances. Another suggestion is that where a prisoner desires he should have a chance for a further hearing, except in clear and urgent cases. This is to give an opportunity to consult friends and counsel.

The employment of a stenographer for the central police station is strongly advised. Of course his notes only need be filed, transcriptions to be furnished if needed.

Waiting rooms for women prisoners, with matrons to attend them, are so absolutely necessary that the wonder is that Philadelphia is yet waiting to supply them. Yet the magistrate, who must know, says that such provision should be made, and adds: "While it is necessary to apprehend these people, it contributes to no common good to parade their condition or to reveal their identity to a curious and vulgar public. . . . I would give them every reasonable opportunity to communicate with friends and obtain counsel and surround them with an atmosphere of aid and service rather than of cruelty and condemnation."

His final suggestion is flatly to do away with "the human buzzards known as 'runners,' who hang about the police stations and magistrates' offices like birds of prey about carrion."

LAZY FATHERS

California has a law which enables a county to try a lazy father for failing to provide for his family. Upon conviction he may be put to work on the public roads at \$1.50 a day, and his earnings are turned over to the neglected family.

DENTISTS FAVOR SCHOOL INSPECTION

The working of the department of education and the department of public health hand in hand, to be attained by providing dental inspectors in the schools, by dental clinics, and by teaching children the importance of clean teeth, was advocated at the early winter joint meeting in Buffalo of the seventh and eighth district dental societies. Dr. F. E. Franczak, health commissioner of Buffalo, pointed out that dental education was too necessary to be ignored in the teaching of general hygiene. Neglect brings in its train indigestion, dyspepsia, catarrh of the stomach, pale and anaemic, weak, puny children. He further stated that the district medical inspectors in Buffalo had discovered in the public schools of this city 60 per cent, or 60,000 children, whose teeth were diseased. He advocated not only dental inspectors, but a public dispensary to take care of the teeth of children

whose parents are unable to care for them. Other speakers were Dr. H. L. Wheeler, New York city; Dr. W. A. Howe, Phelps, N. Y.; Dr. W. W. Belcher, Rochester; Dr. J. O. McCall, Buffalo; Supt. H. P. Emerson, Buffalo; and Dr. W. A. White, New York city.

THE WAR ON WHITE SLAVERY

The extreme penalty in the state of New York for any one convicted of the charge of "white slavery" is now a term of twenty years in the state prison and a fine of \$5,000. During the last year fourteen indictments were found and three defendants received prison sentences ranging from ten to twenty years. Two were acquitted and five allowed to plead guilty to lesser degrees of crime. It is believed that the evil is gradually being stamped out, but eternal vigilance will be required to prevent it from springing into life again. Like "devil grass" it has a hundred subterranean roots ready to creep up into the sun unless constantly scotched.

I. C. B.

PROBATION RULES PUBLISHED

With the aid of the State Probation Commission of New York, the city court of Buffalo has prepared and published in a twenty-nine page booklet a set of probation rules which have been called the "most comprehensive ever adopted by any court." The rules refer to every subject from matters of court record to supervision of probationers. Rule two declares that "all salaried probation officers shall devote their entire time to probation work and shall engage in no other business or profession." Another rule is that "no defendant unless well known by the judge or probation officer shall be placed on probation until after a preliminary investigation by a probation officer." Every probation officer is required to visit each probationer under his care at least once a month, and to exact a report in person from each one at least weekly. An effort to reduce newspaper publicity harmful to the reputation of young offenders is made by commanding each probation officer to "avoid divulging any information concerning his investigations or work which will tend to jeopardize the welfare of any defendant." The privilege of making statements to newspaper representatives on any subject relating to the work of the court is limited to the chief probation officer.

SOCIAL WORKERS' SCHOOL IN ST. PAUL

Annie M. Palier, formerly with the United Hebrew Charities of New York, and now superintendent of the Jewish Charities of St. Paul, has started a small training school for social workers in that city.

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Classified Advertisements

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C. L. STONAKER, formerly Secretary Colorado State Board of Charities, and more recently Superintendent of an orphanage, will consider engagement as executive or superintendent of charitable society or institution. Address C. L. S., care THE SURVEY.

EXPERT Bookkeeper, 15 years' experience in foreign and American offices, and formerly a Teacher of Commercial Branches in a well-known Business College in Europe, wants position. Full particulars at interview. Highest credentials and references. Geo. M. Hessels, 57 W. 125th St., New York City.

AN experienced visiting nurse. Address 1701 Maple Ave., Houston, Texas.

EXPERIENCED woman social worker of College and professional training, wants position in Chicago, as executive secretary, welfare worker or social investigator. Address Chicago, SURVEY.

WELL educated man, 27, seeks executive position in Boys' Home. Experienced as working Superintendent of Home for Boys. Best of references. Address, Worker, SURVEY.

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YOUNG woman is wanted as general assistant in a New York Settlement non-resident. Must have the ability to interest young working girls and able to play for dancing, etc. Duties would necessitate working four evenings a week. Address ASSISTANT, SURVEY.

EXPERIENCED trained visitors for relief work in New York City. Address Visitor, SURVEY.

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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

A CASE FOR THE RECALL

Do not be alarmed, sensitive reader, it is not a judge, but a local administrative official who furnishes our text; and it must be admitted that our hero has taken an infinite lot of trouble for the purpose, having gone a long way out of the path of his prescribed routine administrative duties, as if determined to supply reformers with a conspicuous illustration of the ways in which the powers of such an office may be misinterpreted and abused. If there is anywhere in modern municipal administration a fit case for the application of the recall, it would seem to be that of the Honorable Peter Bartzén, president of the Board of Commissioners of Cook County, Illinois. And yet it is not entirely certain that if the recall were in operation in Cook County it would be successfully invoked in this instance. Such a political, journalistic, and ecclesiastical combination as is described in the article which we publish in this number under the title Probation and Politics is not easily beaten by the righteous civic forces of the community even when they have abundant material for their campaign.

We have therefore thought it to be a duty to contribute to the higher education of county commissioners, as on other occasions we have taken a reluctant part in what we have called the education of judges. Without discussing the merits or demerits of the recall as applied to judges, to judicial decisions, or to administrative officials, we modestly confess that we have increasing confidence in the efficacy of our own remedy. Some of our readers have misunderstood it—a fate which all such new fangled ideas are likely to encounter—and have inferred that the individual judge whose decision is criticized, in the light of social justice, or the administrative official whose actions are reviewed and analyzed, is expected to take a seat instantly on the stool of repentance, and that if this does not happen, our method has failed. Not at all. The individual official may be truculent and spurn instruction. He may even get the teacher thrashed or dismissed—but the educational process goes on. A public opinion is slowly created in the atmosphere of which the decisions which subvert social justice and the administrative abuses simply cannot survive. This is what we mean in this connection by the education of judges and of public officials. Its one indispensable element is public understanding and fair-minded but frank criticism of such decisions and public acts as affect the public welfare.

“Rampaging Peter,” the county official whose career is under consideration at the moment, has achieved the distinction of having done more and more different kinds of harm a year than it is ordinarily given to a newcomer in public office to accomplish. He has well nigh destroyed the substantial progress of ten years in the charitable institutions of Cook County. He has made a great flourish of uncovering abuses where none existed and has dealt with the problem of economy by creating new and unnecessary positions, thus needlessly increasing annual expenditures. He has wastefully mismanaged nearly all branches of

the county service. He has twice abused his power to control the Civil Service Commission by summarily dismissing members who refused to follow his dictation. On the second occasion, by the drastic expedient of reconstituting the commission while a trial on charges was in progress and was about to be decided, he secured the dismissal of a competent and faithful chief probation officer after the case against him, on its merits, had completely collapsed.

In reality not Mr. Witter but the Cook County Commissioners, and their allies in the attempt to get control of the juvenile court and the probation system and to secure exemption for institutions from efficient public inspection and supervision, are the ones who are on trial. We cannot pretend to understand the motives of the newspaper which has contributed most to this unwarranted and for the moment successful attack on court officers who were doing their duty with intelligence and fidelity and without fear or favor. The adherence of representatives of certain children's institutions is more intelligible, although certainly not creditable. The same abhorrence of efficient, authoritative inspection which has been exhibited elsewhere has taken, in Chicago, the form of a flat refusal by two schools to which children are sent from the juvenile court to permit the accountants of the Hotchkiss Committee to examine their records. This refusal was based in later correspondence on the ground that the law prohibits the disclosure of the names and addresses of children placed in foster homes! One superintendent who seems to have had good reason for objecting to the examination of the records accounted for the disappearance of a phenomenally large number of children from the institution by naively explaining that when an undesirable boy escaped or disappeared no effort was made to find him. The investigation proceeded far enough to reveal that in eight months of 1909 nineteen boys thus disappeared from one school and were not returned.

The two institutions which refused to allow their records to be inspected and which have thrown their influence in favor of Mr. Bartzén's onslaught on the merit, probation, and juvenile court system as administered by their friends, are Catholic institutions. The alleged "abuses" which were relied upon to create public prejudice against Mr. Witter, though he had in reality nothing whatever to do with their management, were charged against non-Catholic institutions. We sincerely regret these facts, for we have no desire to criticize or attack Catholic institutions, or to defend Protestant institutions, as such. We do not believe that the resistance which these two schools have shown to legitimate public supervision and inspection can possibly represent the deliberate policy of that great communion. Rev. Father C. J. Quille, a Catholic priest, as well as Rev. Augustus Schlechte, a Lutheran clergyman, were members of the Hotchkiss Committee whose auditors were refused admission to the two institutions. Having no quarrel with the Catholic Church and having always been ready to recognize its great contributions to philanthropy and to social welfare, we prefer to regard the position of Father Quille as a truer indication of its real spirit and permanent policy, rather than that of the superintendents and boards of managers of private institutions which are in receipt of public funds, but are unwilling to submit to efficient, public inspection of their accounts and records.

THE COMMON WELFARE

NATIONAL MERGER TO FIGHT WHITE SLAVERY

"To save the crusade against white slavery from falling into the hands of visionists and sensationalists, who have already begun to exploit the cause selfishly or along fanatical lines" is one reason given for the organization recently of the American Vigilance Association, with David Starr Jordan as president and Jane Addams as a member of the Executive Board. The new body is a merger of the National Vigilance Committee, the American Purity Alliance and various state and city committees and societies formed to fight the white slave traffic. It is seeking a charter of incorporation from the federal government and has already opened general headquarters at 105 West Monroe street, Chicago, Ill. The eastern offices and library are at 156 Fifth avenue, New York, and the legislative office is in Washington. A western office will be opened in San Francisco, Cal.

Besides those mentioned the officers are as follows:

Cardinal Gibbons and Very Rev. Dean Walter T. Sumner, vice-presidents.

Charles L. Hutchinson, treasurer.

Clifford G. Roe, executive secretary and general counsel.

Among the members of the Executive Board thus far chosen are:

Clifford W. Barnes, chairman; John G. Shedd, Julius Rosenwald, Henry P. Crowell, A. C. Bartlett and Jane Addams, of Chicago; James Bronson Reynolds and Grace H. Dodge of New York; Dr. O. Edward Janney of Baltimore; Wallace Simmons of St. Louis; Charles Bentley of San Francisco; and Henry J. Dannenbaum of Houston, Texas.

State committees, advisory boards, and the like are still to be organized.

The new association is of course carrying on a work already well under way in many localities. Its aim is to cooperate with all similar organizations doing practical work along the same line. Besides endeavoring to prevent overlapping and misdirection of effort it will act as a sort of clearing house for so-

cieties and committees directing their energies against the traffic in girls and women. The plan of operation shows the following departments:

- Organization and Promotion.
- Legislation and Law Enforcement.
- International Co-operation.
- Investigation.
- Library and Editorial.
- Literature.
- Education.
- Rescue and Protection.

As the new organization is an amalgamation, there is already in active service a trained staff of lawyers, investigators and educators. Clifford G. Roe, who as an assistant states attorney began the prosecution of procurers of girls in Illinois in 1906, will have general charge of all departments. Mr. Roe describes himself as one who "believes in dealing in facts and not theories." When report had it that he was on a lecture tour during the past year, he was in fact making a secret study of white slave conditions in America and gathering practical evidence for the campaign he is now to lead.

George J. Kneeland is engaged as the director of investigation. He served in a similar capacity for the Research Committee of the Committee of Fourteen in New York, and for the Vice Commission of Chicago. Under his direction, the work of aiding vice commissions, committees, and organizations in various cities will be conducted.

SCOPE OF OPERATION

In outlining the scope and opportunity of the new association Mr. Roe said:

As soon as a town or city desires to join the campaign against commercialized vice, the American Vigilance Association will be prepared to assist it. The association recommends first, a careful survey and study of vice conditions similar to that made by the Vice Commission of Chicago; then, based upon a convincing and reliable report, a campaign to arouse the public conscience to its moral and civic duty; third, the securing of convictions, with the aid of public opinion and by lawyers

skilled in conducting this particular class of prosecutions; and lastly, so far as is practicable, an educational campaign for the betterment of public and private morals.

A field investigation showing present conditions should reveal, among other things, the location and extent of this evil within the limits of the city. It will point out the number and character of resorts where immoral and dissolute persons congregate; the number of professional women, both madames and inmates; the method of conducting the business of public prostitution; the connection of the liquor traffic with vice; the profits from the illegal use of property; the sale of liquor and the exploitation of women; the white slave traffic; and the relation of the police and politicians to these resorts. Such an investigation should also include a comprehensive study of the evil from the standpoint of the inmates in the parlor houses, the women connected with assignation places, the saloons and other vicious resorts, and those soliciting for immoral purposes on the streets. This study will suggest at just what points the evil may be most effectively attacked.

The data from this study should be compiled in detail and be the basis of an analysis of the lives of these unfortunate women. This analysis should sum up conditions surrounding their early life, such as education, occupation, wages, reasons for entering an immoral life for money. It should also show the present conditions of these women in professional life, such as services required, profits to them, venereal disease, medical inspection, use of drugs, their connection with cadets, etc.

The American Vigilance Association desires to interest a larger number of substantial and influential people in its cause and to correlate, so far as possible, the work of philanthropists, educators and reformers. It will do this through its department of organization and promotion. Whenever expedient, a group of interested and leading citizens will be organized into an affiliated committee. In time, it is planned to have city, state and foreign powers so effectually aroused to the situation, and co-operating so heartily, that the white slaver will be completely exterminated.

THE WORK OF THE LIBRARY

Sanity is necessary in most things, but in work for the suppression of traffic in women, a peculiar balance of mind is needed. Accuracy of statement is necessary as a basis for the study of causes, methods of prevention, and law enforcement. It is for a truthful, unexaggerated presentation of conditions, and a normal attitude toward the problem as a whole, that the Library Department is working. Says Mr. Roc:

The first work of this department under the direction of Marion E. Dodd, will be the collection of all available material in the form of books, pamphlets, periodicals, reports, papers, and clippings on prostitution, white slave traffic, segregation, state regulation, and education with reference to sex. In our study of the traffic in women, it has been made perfectly clear that no one cause is responsible for this degradation of thousands of women, and a still greater number of men. It has been learned among other things that recreation, economics, housing, immigration, the liquor question, the courts, the police, marriage and divorce, illegitimacy and disease are vitally connected with the white slave traffic, and that, in order to make the reference material adequate to meet the needs of social workers and others who are pursuing serious study in this direction, the library must cover a wide field.

One of the chief means of prevention of the white slave traffic lies in education with reference to sex. A special effort will be made to have on our shelves books that will cover the rapidly increasing demand for good material along these lines. Biology, the science of life and eugenics, the science dealing with all the influences that improve the inborn qualities of a race, will therefore have a large space reserved for them, in so far as they are related to sex hygiene. This will enable teachers to follow a complete course of work here. It will be the business of the library to sift and prepare lists of books and to loan to responsible persons, books and pamphlets of which there are duplicates.

Acting as a bureau of information, this association will, at any time, look up various points at issue, and verify statements in regard to laws and ordinances. Thus, through its various departments, the association will centralize and systematize the efforts now being directed against the traffic in girls. By its active participation in the campaign, it will also enlighten the public as to actual conditions, aid the police in their work, prepare cases for trial, and assist when possible the municipal, state, and federal authorities and courts in the apprehension and prosecution of offenders.

CLOSING STRIDES IN MEN AND RELIGION MOVEMENT

The Men and Religion Movement will in a sense come to a climax in an address by a woman on the responsibility of men for vice, an address by Jane Addams of Chicago at the Christian Conservation Congress which will call to New York 2,500 delegates representing the 70 cities

in which the movement has held local campaigns since it opened in Minneapolis last October.

The dates are April 19-24, the convention center Carnegie Hall, and the executive secretary from whom programs and information may be obtained, the Rev. Roy B. Guild, 124 East 28th street, New York.

Miss Addams is the only woman speaker. The men include Secretary of the Interior Fisher, representing President Taft, John Mitchell, William Jennings Bryan, John Wanamaker, William T. Stead of London, and such an array of prominent preachers and bishops as even the International Committee of the Y. M. C. A., which is famous for famous men, has seldom brought together.

The object, as officially announced, is

to sum up the experience of the year's work and give a final message and plan for continuing the Men and Religion work; to place responsibility for continuing it on existing organizations, both denominational and inter-church; to reveal the unsolved problems of a World Christian Brotherhood, through the reports of eight commissions and addresses on actual conditions of Christian progress among various groups of men—rural, industrial, student, Negro, immigrant and those in the non-Christian world; to bring into intimate and harmonious relations the various church organizations which are doing special work for men and boys; to definitely outline forms of Christian service; to give an adequate demonstration of the masculine power of Christianity; to vitalize Conservation Day, April 28; and to produce a permanent literature on the varied activities of the church.

The local surveys of more than seventy cities will be collected and explained by lantern slides and moving pictures.

It is expected that the congress will, more than anything else, prove a strong factor in the growing tendency toward inter-church action, especially in things social and civic. Washington Gladden has said that the movement sounded a new note, one which he "never expected to live long enough to hear on a platform on which Presbyterians, Methodists, Baptists, Lutherans and Congregationalists were standing together."

The Conservation Congress immediately follows the local campaign for New

York (Manhattan and Bronx). The latter, April 14-19, is going at the stirring of New York's five million souls in a way unmatched since Dowie's unsuccessful attempt to evangelize Gotham. Electric signs on Broadway, columns of newspaper "write-up," paid advertisements in all of the leading newspapers and a preliminary campaign of several days' duration have proved effective in getting the attention of the city.

RAYMOND ROBINS IN HIPPODROME

The campaign will open at 4 o'clock Sunday afternoon, April 14, when Raymond Robins is to give the chief of his social service sermons in the Hippodrome, which seats 5,600 people besides its stage big enough for a circus. All of the sessions will be for men and boys, except a monster mothers' meeting which Miss Addams has been asked to address.

Of prime interest is the social service part of the campaign, in charge of a committee of forty-five men, representing leading social agencies and churches. The chairman is William Jay Schieffelin and the secretary Orrin G. Cocks, of the Laity League. Every Protestant church in the two boroughs has been invited to send a "key man" to report on the social work of his church and the social needs of its neighborhood. To date 250 have accepted.

The committee is preparing a general social study of New York, using all existing material, along ten lines: municipal agencies; social agencies; recreation and amusement; industries and industrial welfare, including unemployment and fire protection; health and sex education, including the social evil; education; justice, including courts and probation; housing and transportation; immigration and the foreign-born; and a special committee on the police.

A series of special and practical recommendations to the men of the churches will be drawn up from the study. The immigration section is expected to prove particularly new and interesting as Walter Laidlaw, the chairman, will use the new figures from the 1910 census, made on the block system.

Between the national and the local

campaigns of the Men and Religion Forward Movement, but not separating men from religion, the New York Academy of Political Science will hold a conference on the general topic of Organization for Social Work. It is stated that the chief object will be "to bring together social workers and leaders in religious work in order that they may definitely face the problem of the next steps in vitalizing the social work of local communities and churches." The academy, of which Samuel McCune Lindsay is president, will include not only Protestant workers, but Catholic and Jewish as well, for Rabbi Emil G. Hirsch of Chicago has agreed to speak and Cardinal Farley or his personal representative will attend, and prominent Catholics as well as Jews and Protestants are on the committee of fifty in charge. The meetings open on April 18 with two sessions, morning and afternoon, at Columbia University; and a dinner in the evening at the Astor, and close with a morning session on the 19th at Columbia University. The topics for the four sessions are: Greater New York's social needs, social surveys, religious organizations and social work, and national social needs. Social workers, including many women, from all over the country are expected to participate.

THE MOVEMENT IN BROOKLYN

As THE SURVEY goes to print, the eight-day campaign of the Men and Religion Forward Movement is taking place in Brooklyn. Brooklyn is a borough of Greater New York but to all intents and purposes so far as such a movement as this is concerned it is a separate city of 1,634,351 souls, covering 38,977 acres and has 397 Protestant churches.

For weeks earnest committees have been making a survey of the city, for a campaign of social evangelism. To vitalize 397 churches and to awaken so large a community to its social responsibility is not a small task. The office is in the center of the business section of Brooklyn. The general committee is divided into separate committees under finances, publicity, Bible study, evangelism, boys' work, social service, missions, eight days'

campaign, conservation, community extension, and auxiliary cities.

Two committees are attracting unusual attention, those on boys' work and social service. A special survey has been made of conditions for boys in the city. The work for boys in religious and social organizations, in the public schools, in connection with the libraries, the life of boys in the factories and on the street, were all investigated with a view of finding out what Brooklyn is doing for its youth, and what facilities were lacking for proper recreation and education that the churches might supply.

The Social Service Committee have tried to outline a plan that would interest in some definite task every man and boy in the church. They have also tried to outline work that would bring the church to the men and the men to the church. Their message is that three things are fundamental in the approach to a given task: one, a careful study of the field; two, the study of a scientific method of meeting the existing need through counsel of experts; three, the study of the agencies in the community endeavoring to meet the need, so as to avoid duplication.

CIVIC TOUR OF EUROPE

The International Civic Bureau, in cooperation with the Recreation Club of New York, a long established European travel agency, has completed arrangements for a European civic tour for the coming summer. It is the purpose of this tour, which will last from June 27 to September 1, with forty-nine days on the continent, to afford a first-hand study of "civic, social, industrial, and aesthetic object-lessons" in countries which faced problems of this character much earlier than America.

The organizers of the bureau, which is a private enterprise, have proceeded on the belief that there is a rapidly growing number of people in America who are interested in civic and social welfare, who want to see their cities made more efficient, more sanitary, and more attractive. Last summer the Boston Chamber of Commerce conducted a similar tour, which attempted to open up Europe to those interested in welfare

questions. It is the opinion of the International Civic Bureau that that trip, while reasonably successful, could have been vastly improved in scope, in variety of program, in choice of route, and in imagination. The coming tour purposes to visit

the garden cities of England, to study the activities of British cities, to view the great harbors of Liverpool, Hamburg, and Frankfurt, to secure a comprehensive knowledge of the new art of city planning in Düsseldorf, Frankfurt, Munich, and Dresden, the most finished cities in the world. The social and industrial legislation of Germany and Austria will be seen actually at work in the labor exchanges, industrial arbitration courts, *Herbergen* (convalescent homes), and wonderful technical schools and expositions of these countries, as well as the co-operative and labor movements and the newly developed ideas of recreation, art, and culture.

It includes too a visit to Peak district in England, to the mountains of Saxony and Switzerland, to the highlands and mountain valleys of the Tyrol and Austria. An insight into the life of the people in city and country will be gained at the sea and mountain resorts as well as at the cafés and restaurants of the cities visited.

A preliminary statement of the daily itinerary has been issued. This describes the trip as a study

in town planning, municipal ownership of land and public utilities, municipal housing, suburban development, the "city beautiful," the development of parks, co-partnership villages, co-operative schemes, the garden city movement, endowment trusts, employers' welfare work, old age pension systems, insurance schemes, taxation, sanitation, inland water ways, the development of harbors, recreation centers, people's palaces, effective methods of dealing with the slum, prevention of land speculation, etc.

Frederick C. Howe, George B. Ford, and Royal E. Miller, of the Committee on Arrangements, have secured promises from authorities in the towns to be visited that they will conduct the party in their respective localities, "opening the doors, and giving facts on the spot."

SOCIAL PROBLEMS HERE AND ABROAD

Exchange professorships have been established in order to bring New World thought and institutions more closely in touch with the old. Individual Americans have traveled and studied and

brought back the fruits of their investigations. But, save for the Boston tour of last summer, which had its limitations, no attempt has been made to take a group of American students across seas to study social problems on anything like the serious scale on which several European groups have visited us, or, for that matter, students from the far East. Therefore it is all the more interesting that not one but two enterprises are scheduled for next summer.

The second plan calls for a single group of students, probably a small group, to visit the chief European cities—London, Brussels, Berlin, Munich, Ulm, Zurich, Frankfurt, Paris—and many smaller places of interest to social students. The subjects which will occupy its main attention are city planning, housing, municipal ownership—especially of land—labor problems—especially the labor exchanges, industrial hygiene and safety, and methods of handling criminals and vagrants. The stated aim is rather

to study—perhaps a little hastily—the best solutions of her social problems that Europe has to offer, in a manner which will be stimulating and suggestive to the American student.

The program of work which has been planned out is interesting. Those contemplating the trip are supplied with special preparatory readings concerning the subjects and places to be studied later. On shipboard—for those who are able to attend—lectures will be given outlining the political and social institutions of the countries to be visited. In the cities through which the group passes conferences will be held with the leaders of the various social movements.

The advisory board is comprised of the following:

Prof. Morton A. Aldrich, Tulane University, New Orleans; Dean F. W. Blackmar, University of Kansas; Prof. J. E. Cutler, Western Reserve University; Dr. Elgin R. L. Gould, president City and Suburban Homes Company; Prof. Chas. R. Henderson, University of Chicago; Rev. John Haynes Holmes, pastor Church of the Messiah; Alexander Johnson, secretary National Conference of Charities and Corrections; Prof. Carl Kelsey, University of Pennsylvania; President Henry Churchill King, Oberlin College; Dr. Orlando F. Lewis, secretary New York Prison Association; Samuel McCune Lindsay, director New York School of Philanthropy and Professor of Social Legislation, Columbia University; Owen R. Lovejoy, secretary National Child Labor Committee; Prof. Roswell C.

McCrea, University of Pennsylvania; J. Horace McFarland, president American Civic Association; John Nolen, expert on city planning; Prof. E. A. Ross, University of Wisconsin; Flavel Shurtleff, secretary National Conference on City Planning; Robert A. Woods, South End House, Boston; Dr. David Blaustein, lecturer on Immigration, New York School of Philanthropy.

Dr. Edward Ewing Pratt, the director, has personally visited most of the route to be followed.

EDITORIAL GRIST

THE SOCIALISTS IN MILWAUKEE

GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR

Milwaukee will decide on April 2 whether Mayor Seidel and his fellow socialists, who for the first time in the history of American municipal government gained control for the Socialist Party of a city of the first class, shall continue in office for another two years. "People should understand," declares Congressman Victor Berger, who left Washington to be in the thick of the struggle, "that this has not been a socialist administration, but rather an administration by socialists." His point was that it is not reasonable to have expected a large city to be changed in two years into a fragment of the ideal socialist state. But the socialists have vigorously contended that progress has been made along the lines of the municipal platform on which Mayor Seidel stood in 1910, and they claim to have given Milwaukee "the best administration in her history."

Two years ago, a rotten city administration and an old line two-party conflict gave the socialists their chance; and backed up by a large non-socialist vote of protest, they laid hold of it. This year they are facing a very different situation; for the opposition has united in supporting former health commissioner, Dr. Gerhard Bading, for mayor. Republicans and democrats came together and decided to combine on a nominee. As health commissioner Dr. Bading gave perhaps the most efficient service in that

department the city ever had, his campaigns for pure milk and for better systems of water supply and sewage disposal being notable achievements. There is a general feeling that an administration under him as mayor would be a distinct improvement on most of the administrations of the two old parties. The administration of Mayor Seidel is attacked on the grounds of extravagance, inefficiency, and disregard of civil service in filling offices with socialists. But the "paramount issue" as stated in the platform and reiterated in campaign speeches is "Anti-socialism versus socialism." The curious spectacle was presented on primary day of two republicans seeking nomination on a democratic ticket, with no democratic aspirant, while no one at all sought a nomination on the republican ticket.¹ This unprecedented phenomenon in American politics simply shows the "solidarity" of the opposition to a working class political movement when it becomes strong. Their slogan is "Redeem Milwaukee," and as socialist administrations are in the saddle in some fifty cities, the Milwaukee contest is of national significance. The influence which the socialists have had in their two years in office upon social and civic conditions is that phase of the situation of special interest to SURVEY readers.

The administration by the socialists made one of its most important contributions to community well-being in the creation of a Bureau of Economy and Efficiency, conducting under municipal auspices work of a kind which has elsewhere been undertaken by private organizations. Under the general direction of Professor John R. Commons of the University of Wisconsin, this bureau secured as consulting experts such men as Major Charles Hine, organization ex-

¹The primaries made Dr. Bading the nominee by a vote of 26,207, who was put forward by a committee of 27—9 Republicans, 9 Democrats, and 9 representatives of various civic and business organizations who were invited in. Congressman William J. Cary, an insurgent Republican, received 14,686. In contrast with this combined vote of 40,993, Mayor Seidel polled in the Socialist primaries only 17,775. This, of course, gave the opposition jubilant confidence, as he was elected two years ago by a vote of 27,608, the combined vote against him of 31,876 being divided—20,530 for the Democratic candidate and 11,346 for the Republican. Following the primaries Congressman Cary announced that he would support Dr. Bading.

pert for the Harriman lines, Professor W. T. Sedgwick of Massachusetts Institute of Technology, on health and sanitation, and men of similar high standing in the fields of engineering, accounting, social work, and finance and taxation. It has published nearly a score of valuable bulletins dealing with various departments of the city administration or with matters closely connected with the welfare of the city. The value of this bureau has been generally recognized, though recently an alderman who is identified with the opposition has attacked the legality of its existence, and declared the payment of its cost to be an "illegal and injudicious" expenditure. The administration is charged with having "engrafted upon the city an extra department, contrary to the best interests of the city and opposed to wise and just administration."

Through a dozen or more measures, the administration has sought to extend the functions of the municipality. Little progress has been made in this direction, however, owing to limitations involved in the charter of the city and the statutes of the state. The opposition points out that the legislature passed a home rule referendum vote of the people. The reply is made that this will be done after the home rule law is tested by the proposition for a municipal ice-plant. A municipal public comfort station has been provided, work on the municipal lighting plant has been pushed forward, and an effort seems likely to be successful to secure a municipal quarry to supply crushed stone for streets and other purposes.

The Department of Public Works was re-organized, one man being placed in charge in the place of three, a reform which had been generally considered desirable. Efforts to secure a recognized expert for this post were persistently made, but none was to be had at the available salary. The temporary appointee, a socialist, has continued in office and, in the opinion of many impartial men, has done better than was to be expected in view of his inexperience. He is criticised for many of his appointments, mainly of socialists, and for what

is regarded by those who oppose it as a ruthless unionization of all city work.

The re-organization of the health department was planned but only partially carried out along lines recommended by S. M. Gunn, assistant professor of public health, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, who became a member of the staff of the Bureau of Economy and Efficiency. An official of the Federal Marine Hospital Service was secured as health commissioner, but he resigned following charges affecting his personal character. Socialists assert that he was the victim of a "frame-up" arranged by those who wished to discredit the administration, and it is significant that the Marine Hospital Service, after an investigation of the matter, gladly took him back on its staff. The present health commissioner is a socialist physician. While his standing in the medical profession is not of the highest, he is said to be efficient in the executive handling of the department. Special effort has been made to carry on a popular campaign of education on health matters, and the success of this work has led to the creation of an effective bureau of education and publicity covering all municipal activity. Ten additional sanitary inspectors have been provided, as well as four milk inspectors, and two additional food inspectors. Of especial interest is a measure whereby the commissioner of health was given power to inspect factories and recommend changes with regard to sanitation. For this work he has a special staff of four men and one woman.

Special commissions on tuberculosis and child welfare have been created. Under the latter, the campaign against infant mortality, inaugurated privately, is now wholly supported by the city. Ordinances have been passed requiring sanitary toilets in factories, abolishing the public drinking cup, further safeguarding the health of school children, and permitting the sweeping of sidewalks only during certain hours.

The office of comptroller has sought to deal fundamentally with the financial problems of the city. An experienced accountant was secured as deputy comp-

troller. A scientific budget, a careful inventory of public property, uniform systems of payment and other records were devised for all departments, and scientific study of cost units in materials and work took the place of former haphazard methods. Through a "budget exhibit," local government activities were popularly set forth.

Many other things done by the administration might be mentioned. In cooperation with other governmental authorities and the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association, a free employment bureau has been maintained. A social survey of the city, under the Bureau of Economy and Efficiency has been projected. Better conditions and pay for municipal employes, especially unskilled laborers, and many minor reforms could be instanced.

The attack on the administration, as has been pointed out, challenges its economy, efficiency, and civil service record. Taxes have been shown to be higher, though some part of the responsibility for this must be credited to the tax commissioner whose term carried over from the previous administration. The feeling against the tax policy of the administration was heightened by the effort to bring assessments up to 100 per cent, in line with a new state law. Expenditures have also risen to a degree, it is alleged, far greater than warranted by normal increase. On the other hand, it is pointed out that for the first time the city studied its revenues, and as a result an accumulated shortage of \$216,000 was found from former administrations. And it is further contended that if the cost unit system shows that the city is getting its money's worth, additional expenditure is well worth while. The socialists claim further that considerable saving has been effected through direct employment in place of the contract system, and the cost of asphalt paving has been reduced from \$2.40 to \$1.35 per square yard, through new specifications which "freed the city from the asphalt trust," though the durability of the new pavement is yet to be thoroughly demonstrated.

Much evidence has been adduced to show the administration's disregard of

civil service. Its partisanship is felt to present the serious danger of involving the schools, fire and police departments, and judiciary in greater political interference. The socialists are accused of failure to support anything they cannot control, and are said to be fighting the social center special tax, to be voted on by the people this spring, for the sole reason that this work was put under the school board, which they do not control, instead of under a commission which they wished to appoint. And it is admitted by people friendly to the Seidel administration that far too many socialists have been appointed to office without regard to their ability or technical qualifications. Criticism has also been directed at the negative votes of the socialist legislators on a county civil service bill which came up after the party had secured control of the county as well as the city administration. But a fair point against the bill was its iron-clad restrictions on removals. On the other hand socialists cite the appointment of non-socialists as deputy comptroller and as members of the city attorney's staff. No one can blink the fact that the city civil service commission is a left-over piece of the notorious Rose administration. The socialists claim that the certified lists of this commission are filled with inefficient workers and petty politicians. The vigor with which the opposition candidates announce that when they get into office "every socialist will walk the plank" does not assure a different spirit from that which they attribute to the present administration.

Various blunders are charged to Mayor Seidel and his associates. The purchase of the municipal quarry is criticised since ground already secured by the county for a correctional institution has plenty of underlying stone. A million dollar outer park project was defeated when it was shown that real estate authorities valued the property at only \$750,000. In fairness it should be stated, however, that the larger price contemplated payments over a long period. But a valid point against the socialists would seem to be their refusal to submit the

proposition to referendum vote, especially since the referendum is so characteristic a socialist desideratum.

The socialists are accused of deciding every move in a secret party caucus, and for this reason the Voters' League did not think it worth while to comment on the socialist aldermen individually after reviewing the affairs of the administration as a whole. A shrewd observer has pointed out that even if this secret caucus is a fact, which every one admits, it involved what is practically the English system of responsible party government. Trade unionism, is favored in every way by the administration, and fear of it is declared to be the real reason why manufacturers and employers have pretty solidly arrayed themselves in the effort to down the socialists.

The bitter language with which the socialists have been denounced as unpatriotic, un-American, "but little removed from anarchists," and as seeking to undermine American institutions, is quite as vituperative as any of the extreme expressions of "class hatred" for which the socialists merit most emphatic rebuke. If you had not known who was speaking, or what the reference to Brisbane Hall signified, you might have thought it was the socialist instead of the opposition candidate for mayor who referred to his opponents as "the blood suckers who meet in Brisbane Hall!"

This hall, named for Albert Brisbane, who is styled as the first American socialist agitator of prominence, a contributor to the New York *Tribune* in the days of Horace Greeley, is a four-story concrete and brick structure built by the socialists to serve as headquarters for their party organizations and the trade unions, and as a plant for the publication of their new daily paper, the *Leader*, and other organs. Whether the teaming activity of the place, which radiates into every precinct of the city, will overcome the powerful opposition, bent and determined to "redeem Milwaukee," is the question which will be decided on April 2.

The socialists cannot count on a "protest" vote such as helped to sweep them into power two years ago. But any impartial observer who comes into contact

with representative groups of people will find plenty of non-socialists who intend to vote for Mayor Seidel's reelection. As one of them put it, "These men who have fought twenty years for principle are not going to become unprincipled and corrupt in two."

Strikingly similar testimony was given by two men, republicans of unquestioned good purpose and fairness, who held responsible administrative posts during the latter part of the preceding and the first part of the socialist regime. Both expressed confidence in a sincere desire of the socialists to serve their city well and declared that every month of experience increases their ability to do so. One of them said that he was harassed by suspicion of all his acts and motives when the socialists first came in, but "after they came to know me and my purposes better I had only the most loyal co-operation and support." In spite of many criticisms of the administration, the Voters' League in its report admits that "the officials have been earnest, honest, and industrious."

It is significant that practically all of the prominent Protestant ministers are on the socialists' side, many of them outspokenly so. The pastor of St. James Episcopal Church says:

A majority of the voters of this city evidently believed at the last election that the quickest way to end the rule of darkness was to elect the Social-Democratic ticket. Many of them never read Carl Marx, but they evidently believe the Social-Democrats to be sincere, honest, trustworthy, public-spirited, and that they will give us an administration along the lines we are seeking. They represent the new spirit in our national life.

ONE DAY OF REST

WILLIAM SHEAFE CHASE

The Roosevelt-Jackson bills to forbid the employment of labor on Sunday unless an equivalent rest day is allowed which were recently introduced in the New York legislature are recommended both by the church and the labor forces in the state. They were drawn up by the Day of Rest Conference composed of representatives of church, labor, and Sunday organizations and by the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, the Lord's Day Alliance of the

United States, the Federation of Churches of New York city, the New York Association for Labor Legislation, and by the New York Society for the Prevention of Crime.

The bills do not change the Sunday laws of the state. No labor which is now forbidden on Sunday would be permitted if these bills become law. But any employe who is compelled to do any necessary labor, now permitted by law, will have to be given an equivalent rest day.

Our present Sunday laws were enacted before corporations and large combinations of capital had come into being. These existing laws forbid the individual to labor on Sunday.

But the laborer is powerless, when a vast corporation requires him to work on Sunday. The rest day bill now before the legislature will afford protection for workmen who have been obliged to work seven days a week. It will also make it possible for the orthodox Jew or other seventh day observers to keep his Sabbath and engage in necessary work on Sunday.

The movement to protect Sunday from the innumerable attempts to commercialize the day has become world-wide. Starting in France in 1902, at the instigation of the labor forces, the Parliament passed a law compelling various businesses to give their employes one day of rest in seven. Since then, Switzerland has enacted similar laws, and China and Japan have adopted a modified form of Sunday legislation. Italy and Canada have passed more stringent Sunday laws since the beginning of this century.

Idaho, which for many years had no Sunday legislation has within half a decade enacted strict Sunday laws. California has recently decided to enforce a long obsolete rest-day law. Since 1905, Massachusetts and Connecticut have adopted laws which, though somewhat defective, are intended to give a weekly rest day to any who are compelled to labor on Sunday.

During the last eighteen months the postoffices in response to popular demand have closed on Sunday in more than ninety per cent of the cities in

the United States. The last congress of the United States enacted a provision that if a postal employe worked on Sunday, he might be given an equivalent rest day. Assistant Postmaster General Grendfield has been quoted as saying that the adoption of a weekly rest day has been a large factor in putting the Postoffice Department upon a self-supporting basis for the first time since 1883. The deficit of the previous year was \$17,600,000. This was eliminated last year largely through the new energy, spirit and conscientious fidelity which the rest day gave the employe.

In New York state, the friends of a weekly rest day for the people have many times successfully exposed the commercial motives of those who in recent years have proposed bills for the weakening of the Sunday laws. Having repelled these hostile attacks, they now propose to take a progressive step in advance and ask for the enactment of two bills whose design is to make it so that every person in the state shall have one day in seven free from unnecessary labor and business.

Because of our strenuous living, the twentieth century needs the rest day more than any preceding century. The extension of the Christian spirit of the brotherhood of man makes it possible. For any man who wants a better Sunday for himself than he is willing to give to another is now considered, more generally than ever before, to be a very mean man. He cannot be called a real Christian, nor can he be called a friend of labor, if in order to increase his own happiness, he is willing to employ or permit any one to work for him on Sunday, and is unwilling to give him an equivalent rest day.

CONVICT-MADE GOODS PUT ON HEALTH BASIS

E. STAGG WHITIN

There was national significance in the moral and sanitary conditions in the Maryland House of Correction described in *THE SURVEY* of March 9.¹ The industrial conditions resulting from the

¹See *THE SURVEY*, March 9, page 1899.

contract system at present in use in this and the other penal institutions of Maryland were touched upon. The contract system is one by which the labor of the convicts is leased to individual manufacturers who hire the use of the convicts along with prison buildings and produce marketable commodities which are sold throughout the country. The contamination of the goods manufactured in prisons and shipped far and wide makes action on the part of state boards of health not only possible but desirable. It also raises the long-mooted question of restricting the transfer of convict-made goods from one state to another by interstate commerce.

The recent passage through the House of Representatives of the Booher Bill permitting the states to prohibit the bringing of convict goods across their borders, and its introduction into the Senate, has direct bearing upon the situation; for while it has often been held that the bill was not constitutional there seems little doubt now with this evidence in hand that it would be held constitutional as a health measure under the general welfare clause. The effect of the passage of this bill has been long considered by the prison contractors in Maryland and other states and protecting provisos have been inserted in the contracts. Here is a typical passage from the contract of the Atlantic Broom Company:

Should the National government pass laws against the sale of convict goods, the General Assembly of Maryland, or a majority of the following states, *viz.*, Virginia, Pennsylvania, or New York, the contract is cancelled in ninety days.

The other prison contracts at Jessup, Md., like those of a dozen other states, contain practically the same provision.

Thus the passage of the Booher Bill through the Senate and its signing by the President will completely wipe out the present contract system in this country. The fact that organized labor is determined upon this measure and that it is in agreement also with constructive remedies to meet conditions which would arise out of a reconstruction of prison industries would make it practically impossible for the President to refuse to allow the bill to become law.

Bills already pending before the Maryland legislature, providing for the introduction of the state use system which has already been installed in New York, New Jersey, Ohio, Missouri, California, and Wyoming, will ably take care of any emergency caused by the passage of the Booher Bill, while in Virginia the legislature has already anticipated such emergency by the passage of a road and state use bill. In many other states, for instance in Wisconsin and Rhode Island, the central boards of control have under development an adaptation of the state use principle. It is fortunate for the prisoner, the state official, and the community in general that as the movement for the restriction of the prison contract system increases in momentum there has developed the still stronger movement for the use of the convict on state roads, state farms, and in the manufacture of goods for consumption in the state's eleemosynary institutions and the state and city departments. This movement links up directly with commonwealth efficiency and economy. The recent revelation of \$20,000,000 worth of goods needed for state and city consumption in New York has given reassurance to hesitating reformers in this line and has made the passage of the Booher Bill welcome not only to convicts and the public at large but to prison officials who have no longer to fear that idleness and insanity will follow in its wake.

REPORT OF IMMIGRATION COMMISSIONER

KATE HOLLADAY CLAGHORN

The report of the commissioner general of immigration for the year ending June 30, 1911, shows a substantial reduction of immigration from the year before. In 1911 878,587 immigrant aliens were admitted. This was a decrease of nearly 163,000, while the net addition to the alien population—as shown by subtracting departures from arrivals—showed an even greater decrease; for in 1910 this net addition amounted to 817,619 and in 1911 to only 512,085—a drop of about 300,000, or over one-third.

Of this net increase for 1911, it is

worth notice that 200,099 were English, Irish, or Scotch, French, German, Scandinavian, or Dutch and Flemish; while 266,242 were North and South Italians, Greeks, Hebrews, Lithuanians, Poles, and Ruthenians.

This list covers all the European peoples contributing each more than 10,000 net to the population, and affords encouragement to those who mourn over the preponderance of southern and eastern European immigrants.

Immigrants of the present year show a slight improvement in literacy over 1910, 28 per cent in that year being recorded as illiterate and 24.3 per cent in 1911.

An increase in stringency in applying the immigration regulations is seen by the increase in rejections of immigrants at our ports within the past two years. In 1910 and 1911 about the same proportion of rejected to admitted immigrants is found: 2 per cent for 1910 and 2.1 per cent for 1911, while in the four previous years rejections ranged from 1 to 1.3 per cent. The great increase for the last two years is seen in the class "likely to become a public charge," of whom 15,927 were sent back in 1910 and 12,048 in 1911. And in the latter year 3,055 persons were rejected on the ground of physical and mental defects which would affect their ability to earn a living, first provided for in the law of 1907. In the three previous years since this provision went into operation, rejections ranged from 312 to 370.

It is interesting to look from the page of the report which shows a surplus of \$1,300,000 over the expenses of the immigration service, out of the total receipts from the head tax of \$3,655,513 collected during the year, to the pages in which the further needs of the service are forcibly stated.

At the Port of New York Commissioner Williams needs an adequate number of well ventilated dormitories, with space enough so that detained immigrants need not be herded, clean and dirty together, in quarters as crowded as in the poorer class of steamers they come on. He also needs adequate hospital accommodations and quarters for his statis-

tical division. One of his needs will appeal to those who have followed the hair-breadth escapes of the Ellis Island ferry boat during the last year or two: \$120,000 for a second ferry boat.

Of great importance are means to carry into effect the provision of the law excluding the feeble-minded. The commissioner points out that many of this class, whom we now recognize as a fertile source of criminality and certainly of our burden of dependence, are at present slipping through the barriers of Ellis Island simply because of lack of facilities for making a thorough examination into mental condition.

This is especially true of children. He says:

As to children under five (and a great many such alien children come here) it is probably correct to say that nothing short of an inquiry into their heredity will enable the government to determine whether or not they are feeble-minded, and since no such inquiry is now made the law as to the exclusion of young feeble-minded children is virtually a dead letter, and the Ellis Island authorities have not the means at their command to vitalize it.

The Bureau of Naturalization is greatly hampered in its work by lack of force. The Bureau of Information, in turn, is undertaking a work of primary importance in attempting to effect a better distribution of immigrants. Under present conditions, 30,000 applicants for information were attended to last year, and 5,176 were sent direct to some employment, mainly agricultural work. But this is a small proportion of the year's influx. With larger means at its disposal, this bureau could immensely increase the scope and effectiveness of its work.

Why should not the entire income from immigrants be spent in the immigration service? And this means not simply the service of the immigrants, but the service of the country as a whole, for every unfit alien admitted, every alien made unfit by the conditions he has to pass through when admitted, and every alien allowed to drift or be enticed into unfit surroundings is an element of evil in the community instead of the element of good which he ought to and might be.

PROBATION AND POLITICS

[EDITOR'S NOTE: *The juvenile court situation at Chicago is of fundamental importance from a national point of view, for it involves issues which are coming to focus all over the country.*

It has fallen to the lot of the present administration of Cook county (which includes Chicago) to discover and demonstrate that the juvenile court can be so manipulated as to furnish an unexampled means for political influence over a certain stratum of people in any community. The officials whose strongest reliance for such influence has heretofore been the charitable institutions, hospitals, and relief agencies now understand that in this court, with the almost unlimited power of its probation officers in dealing with parents of children in trouble, there is to their hand a new and powerful instrument of control.

The upheaval at Chicago has been closely watched from the beginning. After a long period of almost daily changes and developments, it reached a point at which the whole situation could be authentically stated and intelligently reviewed. The following statement of fact and comment, including a summary of the noteworthy report of the citizens' committee under the chairmanship of Prof. Willard E. Hotchkiss, was prepared by a member of the editorial staff of THE SURVEY. It represents, however, a carefully considered consensus of judgment by those who have first-hand knowledge of the Chicago situation but whose personal interests are in no wise involved so as to affect their point of view or opinions.]

The most violent attack upon the juvenile courts in their entire history has been directed during the last few months against the first and foremost one among them all—the Chicago juvenile court.

The fighting lead in this attack was taken by a Hearst newspaper—the Chicago *Examiner*—with its usual news gathering methods, in alliance with county Democratic officials who were attempting to lay hold of every branch of county service so as to strengthen their newly acquired power. The struggle centered in a trial of the chief probation officer, John H. Witter, before the civil service commission of Cook county. Its decision, resulting in Mr. Witter's removal, after a complete collapse of the charges against him, is a travesty on the spirit and letter of the merit system.

COUNTRY-WIDE DANGER

If the question were merely of Mr. Witter's competency, the interest of THE SURVEY, and of the people throughout the country who understand and appreciate the value of properly constituted and conducted juvenile courts, would be concerned only in a statement as to the "trial" of and unfair "frame-up" against an efficient chief probation officer, a condemnation of those responsible for the breakdown of the civil service administration, and a renewed emphasis on the human weal or woe at stake.

Far more important national significance attaches to the case, however, because of the manner in which the public mind was mis-

led and inflamed, the nature of the charges, the imputed and real responsibilities involved, the alignment of forces and factions, and the prevalence throughout the country of similar situations concerning the juvenile court, which have in some places broken out into virulent attacks and in others have been smoldering just beneath the surface. The nature of these attacks or insidious efforts to undermine the effectiveness of the juvenile court movement is essentially the same wherever they have arisen. An analysis of the Chicago situation as typical, therefore, will serve to show the issues and factors in what may as well be recognized and faced as the most serious reactionary attack the juvenile court movement has met, involving as well the whole system of legislation and administration affecting children. Upon a clear understanding of these issues depend the conservation of the progress thus far gained through the juvenile court and the guidance for future progress.

Far-sighted observers of social effort and institutions have for years apprehended that when the extent of the court's great powers, with reference to the home and parental responsibilities should be understood, popular antagonism would ensue, whipped on by those who resent any encroachment of public supervision over their own institutions and care of children.

Such observers, who clearly see the defects in the court and are striving to remedy them, have also been aware that many enthusiasts have almost made a fetish of the

juvenile court, thinking it a complete solvent for the whole problem of delinquent children, and failing to realize that after all it is still a corrective agency of the state, dealing with the results of conditions which should as far as possible be prevented. Such well-meaning but superficial people hold the court to an impossible standard of perfection, and are misled by criticism of its administration when among the thousands of well handled cases their attention is focused on half a dozen children who have not had the best treatment on probation or in an institution. Everything human could be discredited by such designing and unfair methods of criticism.

But such criticism is less sincere when, as in the Chicago trial, the probation department of the juvenile court is charged with responsibility for what happens to the children after they are completely beyond the jurisdiction of the court or of any of the probation officers. The malicious character of the attack on the Chicago court is still further evident from the strong indication that it emanates in part from the very sources which originally brought about such a limitation of the court's jurisdiction.

CAMPAIGN OF MISREPRESENTATION

During last summer a systematic campaign of newspaper exploitation by the *Examiner* charged that the "mistakes of the juvenile law out-Herod Herod," told of "little Jimmy, torn six years ago from his mother, who cries and prays day and night for her boy," of another "mother wandering the streets looking for her five babies wrested from her by the law," and how all the mothers of Chicago "shudder and cuddle up their little girls" as they think of what happened to one poor little girl in a home in which she had been placed after having been put on probation by the juvenile court.

These cases were carefully investigated by the court itself and by volunteer agencies. It is safe to say that every one of these "exposures" by the *Examiner* was a gross exaggeration, and that essential facts concerning most of them were distorted or suppressed.

The *Examiner* proposed to re-assemble families which had been broken up by the "barbarous law and conditions and customs" of the juvenile court. It planned numerous reforms in the juvenile law, some of them impracticable, and it deliberately ignored the fact that some of the obviously good reforms

it proposed have for years been vigorously sought by the very people this newspaper held culpable.

Among juvenile court officers and social workers generally there has been an increasing feeling during the last few years that only in the most extreme cases should children be taken from their mothers. All over the country some of the very people who had secured the enactment of juvenile court laws have been agitating for, and in Missouri, California, Illinois, and elsewhere have obtained laws which give pensions to poor mothers who are worthy to care for their children. In other places people working to the same end are providing such pensions from private funds. It has become almost a truism in social and philanthropic work, that poverty should not cause the break-up of a home. The White House Conference on Children called by President Roosevelt in January, 1909, issued a pronouncement that:

Children of parents of worthy character suffering from temporary misfortune, and children of reasonably efficient and deserving mothers who are without the support of the normal breadwinner, should, as a rule, be kept with their parents, such aid being given as may be necessary to maintain suitable homes for the rearing of the children. This aid should be given by such methods and from such sources as may be determined by the general relief policy of each community, preferably in the form of private charity rather than of public relief. Except in unusual circumstances, the home should not be broken up for reasons of poverty, but only for considerations of inefficiency or immorality.

In the movement which secured a "funds to parents" or so-called "mother's pension" law in Illinois, taking effect July 1, 1911, Judge Pinckney and Chief Probation Officer Witter of the Chicago juvenile court were leaders. Indeed, it was directly due to their suggestion that the law was framed, and to their initiative that the expert service of relief and civic organizations has been brought into play in the administration of the measure, the tentative and experimental character of which is recognized. For it is understood by all that lax or improper administration would involve dangers and abuses quite as great as the good which will result from careful and intelligent administration.

But the superficial critics upon whom this point of view of family conservation had dawned as a great new light, have failed com-

pletely to see the other side of the problem. They have hysterically discovered that the whereabouts of some children is unknown to the parents from whom they were taken by the court. They have not even looked deep enough to see that the kind of an unworthy parent from whom it is necessary to take a child, if the child's welfare is to be considered, is the very kind of parent that would be only too glad to get the child back when it reaches working age and has been trained and educated.

The *Examiner* having painted a picture of the wretchedness of mistreated children and separated families, and having charged that the court's methods were responsible for their misery, the next move was for the president of the board of commissioners of Cook county, Peter Bartzen, to appoint a committee to investigate the juvenile court law and methods, and the working of the other state laws affecting children who pass through the court. To the surprise of those who had been fomenting the "exposures" Mr. Bartzen did not appoint a committee consisting of people who shared their point of view and purpose. Instead, acting on the suggestions of social workers, but probably with the hope of getting endorsement for his views from an impartial source, he appointed Professor Willard E. Hotchkiss, dean of the Northwestern University School of Commerce, as chairman of a committee in whose fairness the public has great confidence.

From the beginning, however, Mr. Bartzen and his civil service commission tried to dictate how the Hotchkiss committee should do its work and what it should take up. This the committee resented, and the breach widened when, without consulting Professor Hotchkiss or any members of his committee, President Bartzen summarily suspended Chief Probation Officer Witter, preferring charges on which he should be tried before the county civil service commission. Public protest was at once made by Professor Hotchkiss on the ground that, as he had previously declared, pending the investigation and report of his committee, "any important change in the probation force, or the detention home staff, in the absence of serious emergencies, would be regarded as a disingenuous political move." From then on the committee conducted its work entirely independently of the county officials. Having discovered that he could not control the Hotchkiss commit-

tee, Mr. Bartzen attempted to discharge it, and, when the committee went on at its own expense, he made every effort to belittle and discredit it.

THE "TRIAL"

The trial of Mr. Witter on charges of incompetence occupied several weeks. The alleged experiences of wards of the court after they had been sent to various institutions and homes, which had been detailed in the newspaper "campaign," were again fully recited as testimony. There is doubtless foundation in fact for some of the pitiful stories told on the witness stand. The flaw in the state's system of legislation and care responsible for these evils will be pointed out and discussed later. A large part of the testimony, however, is thoroughly untrustworthy. Every student of child psychology knows that through the use of suggestion perverted and morally defective children, and even normal children, can be made to believe and testify to things which actually never happened. Persons who know intimately the history of some of the children who were witnesses are convinced that they were thus made to tell of events which actually occurred prior to their first appearance in the juvenile court as if these events had happened in the homes to which they were sent by the court or by the institutions which received them from the court. This is especially easy to believe since one of the investigators from the county attorney's office, who had charge of working up the testimony, is known to be disreputable and unscrupulous. Although he was and is admitted to be so by the county attorney, he continues, for some unexplained reason, to be employed.

Three girls who had escaped from one of the private institutions in a suburb, whose methods were being grilled, were put on the witness stand a few days later to give sensational testimony. The discovery of a voucher in the county accounts for automobile service including a trip to this institution on the day of the escape, coupled with persistent rumors as to the use made of this automobile, have given fair-minded people a strong suspicion that county officials connived at the escape, if they did not actually help carry it out, and that the girls' testimony was coached during their several days in seclusion.

Two other girls escaped at the same time

from the same institution. Of these two, one has been released to her mother, and according to reports is doing well. No trace of the other has been found. Of the three who testified, one has been released by the temporarily appointed chief probation officer to a home in which her lover lives. One has been reported by her relatives and a probation officer as being at work. The third has completely disappeared.

The carelessness as to what became of these girls after the county officials had no further use for their testimony is in marked contrast to the zeal of these same officials in pointing out the care they think Mr. Witter should have exercised over cases he had no power to follow.

This mass of testimony, even if wholly true, was shown by Judge Pinckney of the juvenile court, during his examination on the witness stand, to be entirely irrelevant to the case of Mr. Witter. Since the other charges against Mr. Witter, as to his executive handling of his duties and the probation officers under him, had been entirely disproved by competent and authoritative testimony, including that of Judge Pinckney, the whole case against him collapsed when Judge Pinckney clearly demonstrated that the evils which had been so voluminously "exposed" were beyond the legal power of the chief probation officer, or of the court itself, to control. Instead it was shown that both judge and probation officer had, for a long period of time, persistently sought means whereby the situation might be improved.

It had been the contention of the prosecution that the chief probation officer should have investigated the institutions and associations to which children were sent by the court, and should have kept track of the individual children so sent, investigating also the foster-homes in which any were placed by these institutions and associations. The citation and interpretation of the juvenile court statute by Judge Pinckney shows that the chief probation officer has no power further than that he "shall have charge and control of all other probation officers subject to the direction of the court." By law the court may send children to institutions and associations which hold charters from the state board of administration. Such institutions and associations must first be investigated by the state Department of Visitation of Dependent, Neglected, and Delinquent

Children, and after the children are received these institutions and associations must be investigated annually by the same department. Neither the juvenile court nor its chief probation officer has the authority or the duty to investigate such institutions and associations or the foster-homes in which they place children.

After this clear showing that the chief probation officer could not be held responsible for the methods employed by the accredited institutions and associations, it was moved by his counsel that the testimony as to the mistreatment of children after their reception by such institutions and associations should be stricken from the record. The civil service commission, for reasons known to itself, did not announce a definite decision upon the point, but instructed the counsel for Mr. Witter to proceed as if this evidence were stricken out as irrelevant. This attitude on the part of the commission, under the presidency of Ballard Dunn, seemed a sure indication that the only logical decision would be reached—namely, that the charges against Mr. Witter were not supported by the evidence, and that he should be reinstated as chief probation officer.

INSIDE STORY OF CONSPIRACY,

Suddenly, on the eve of the decision, County President Bartzen deposed Mr. Dunn as president of the civil service commission and appointed another member, Frederick Greer, in his place. The reorganized commission returned a verdict of guilty against Mr. Witter, and his suspension became a dismissal. The action was taken by a vote of two against one, the deposed president, Mr. Dunn, protesting that Mr. Bartzen had reorganized the commission for the sole purpose of getting Mr. Witter discharged, and that the two members constituting the majority had subserviently followed the dictation of Mr. Bartzen, the new president promising to convict Mr. Witter in return for a reappointment as a member and president of the commission. This accusation of Mr. Dunn's is given further weight by the fact that only a few months previously a similar reorganization of the civil service commission had been spectacularly made by Mr. Bartzen when his previous appointee, a man who had the confidence of the general public, was ousted from the presidency for refusing to follow Mr. Bartzen's dictation.

Although Mr. Dunn may well be criticised for some of his actions as president of the civil service commission, and especially during the time of his complete subserviency to Mr. Bartzen, his statement, which is very generally accepted as the truth, reveals in all its details the conspiracy and deal to "get" Mr. Witter. He declares that some days prior to the filing of the charges against Mr. Witter he was called to the office of Mr. Bartzen, where he was introduced to Timothy D. Hurley. Mr. Bartzen is quoted as saying that he intended to get rid of Mr. Witter and appoint Mr. Hurley as chief probation officer temporarily, assuming that after a civil service examination he could be certified for the position. Some days later Mr. Hurley presented to Mr. Dunn a draft of the charges against Mr. Witter, and was told to take them to the county attorney. A day or two later the formal charges signed by Mr. Bartzen were brought to Mr. Dunn as president of the civil service commission. They were discovered to be almost, if not entirely, identical with the charges prepared by Mr. Hurley. Mr. Dunn declares that Mr. Bartzen told him "not to get cold feet on this case" and that he must "get" Mr. Witter.

At the time Mr. Witter's counsel was told to proceed as though the evidence concerning the treatment of children by the institutions to which they were sent by the court were stricken from the record, Mr. Dunn declares that the failure to announce a definite decision thus was due to the fact that the time under the law had nearly arrived for Mr. Bartzen to appoint a successor to Commissioner Greer. Mr. Dunn reports Mr. Greer to have said that he had been given to understand that it was Mr. Witter's job or his own, and that he would like to have formal announcement of the decision as to the relevancy of the evidence in question postponed until the day after his reappointment. Shortly after this, according to Mr. Dunn, although Mr. Witter's defense had not yet been heard, Mr. Bartzen sent word to Mr. Dunn asking that the Witter case be ended at once. This, of course, Mr. Dunn declared to be impossible. Finally, on one of the last days of the trial, Mr. Bartzen reorganized the commission, as already described, putting Mr. Greer in Mr. Dunn's place as president. "I considered then," says Mr. Dunn, "that one of the main purposes of Mr. Bartzen's order was to dictate the decision in the Witter case, and my

belief was borne out by later results, and especially by the conduct of Commissioner Greer."

Charges of a similar nature are made by Joseph Meyer, recently ousted by President Bartzen from the position of county agent in charge of poor relief. His reputation for efficiency, recognized by prominent officials of charitable organizations in Chicago, gives weight to his statement that Bartzen asked him to allow the use of some of his investigators "to get something on Witter," as the jobs at the juvenile court were "wanted." He has asked Mr. Bartzen if the real reason for his dismissal was not that he "refused to do your dirty work in connection with the John H. Witter case."

It is announced that efforts will be made in the court to assert Mr. Witter's rights. But still more significant is the declaration of lawyers who advised Mr. Dunn that the conduct of Mr. Bartzen and others in the Witter case is conspiracy within the meaning of the criminal statutes of Illinois. For public welfare demands imperatively that Mr. Bartzen's erratic and outrageous administration of affairs come to an end. "Rampaging Peter," as he has been dubbed, has in one year well nigh destroyed the progress of a decade in the management of the Cook county charitable institutions, according to the estimate of the best informed authorities on public charities in the state. He has made a mockery of the merit system, for revelations have been made covering numerous specific instances other than the Witter case. Wasteful mismanagement has come into nearly all the branches of the county service. And the increased annual expenditure of the county involves flagrant pay-roll padding amounting to \$500,000 a year. Evidence submitted by Mr. Dunn and the Civil Service Reform Association and information from both as to other available evidence are in the hands of the state's attorney, who promises to take such action as is warranted.

The animus clearly shown in the Witter case has made this one man a scape-goat for all the evils which are due to the defects in the Illinois system of law and administration affecting children.

STATE CARE OF CHILDREN

Study of this system with a view to suggesting and instituting improvements will be of the greatest public importance not only in

Chicago but in every community where similar defects exist, and especially where the resultant evils are being charged up to the juvenile court. In addition to the investigation by the Hotchkiss committee, the report of which has recently been made public, another investigation has been started which is expected to occupy a much longer period of time and is likely to afford further valuable data and recommendations bearing on the subject. This investigation concerns every institution or association which receives children from the juvenile court and to which any county funds are paid. According to the law, the county judge is authorized to appoint a visitation committee of six for this purpose, and Judge John E. Owens has selected George E. Cole, long active in civic reform, as chairman. The other members are Charles H. Wacker, president of the United Charities, Minnie F. Lowe, active in Jewish charities, Daniel McCann, identified with Catholic charitable work, Rose Kiolbassa Kwasigrock, daughter of one of Chicago's pioneer Polish-American citizens and familiar with Polish philanthropies, and Dr. Mary B. White, who is interested in various charitable activities. The engaging of a capable paid secretary, Wilfred S. Reynolds, formerly connected with the Indiana Board of State Charities, indicates the thoroughness with which the committee is undertaking its work.

THE HOTCHKISS COMMITTEE REPORT

Painstaking fairness, clear insight, broad knowledge of all aspects of the problem, and definite presentation of well reasoned specific recommendations give the report of the Hotchkiss committee constructive value of the highest degree. Its unerring analysis of present difficulties is only exceeded by its discernment of the newer standard of social welfare to which present institutions and methods must measure up. The committee has rendered a public service of great worth not only in its own community but to the nation.

With Professor Hotchkiss as chairman, and Mrs. James Quan as secretary, the other members were Mrs. Henry Solomon, long identified with Jewish charities—who was afterward replaced by Saul Drucker, head of an orthodox Jewish orphanage—the

Rev. Father C. J. Quille, and the Rev. Augustus Schlechte, connected with Lutheran charities.

The committee conceived its function to be the discovery of merits and defects in the system of child care, not necessarily fixing personal blame for failure to obtain good results, but considering legal or administrative changes which might lessen failure in the future.

It points out that every one in contact with child problems in Illinois knows of conditions that need correction. But it vigorously declares "that the advance in child care represented by the work of decades would be sacrificed if the juvenile court were to become an attachment to a political machine." Readers of this article will gain something of the local significance of this statement from our foregoing recital of events. It may be added that one of the first "reforms" urged by those who sought to "get" Mr. Witter was an increase in the force of probation officers. The report shows no bitterness at the treatment accorded the committee, but indicates the firm stand which it continually had to take against dictation and the methods used by county officers and investigators. It frankly states that the "political situation has impeded but not impaired investigation."

Before proceeding with its main work the committee gave a brief hearing to the charges concerning the Illinois Industrial School for Girls, one of the institutions receiving a per capita allowance from the county for the care of dependent children committed by the juvenile court. These charges had been given a sensational newspaper airing. Some of the girls testified to various abuses and others to excellence of treatment. The indications that the evidence was secured and coached by the disreputable investigator heretofore mentioned, and the absence of corroboration, led the committee to give little consideration to it. Lax financial relations between the county and the school, however, were discovered, a former county administration having induced the school to accept a lump sum monthly payment without reference to the per capita amount, perfunctory lists of children being made in compliance with the formal requirement. Blame for this condition was laid upon both sides.

The main investigation was conducted along three lines:

1. Juvenile court law and jurisdiction and operation of the court.
2. Probation department and detention home.
3. Disposition of children, involving institutional care, child placing, and public supervision.

Many conferences were held with officials and citizens connected with the social agencies of the state, county, and city. Visits were made to institutions and schools. Expert accountants were secured to study record systems. Historical and legal studies were made of the juvenile court law and its relation to other statutes. And comparison with laws and methods in other states was gained not only through public reports but through replies to a questionnaire. The ground covered by the report, and the recommendations it proposes, are here briefly indicated under its main divisions, the language of the report being closely followed:

I. JUVENILE COURT LAW AND JURISDICTION AND OPERATION OF THE COURT.

Statement is made of the history of the law, its object to remove children from the criminal courts and the stigma thus involved, and the development of the probation system under the direction of the court. In the accomplishing of the removal from the atmosphere and jurisdiction of the criminal courts, the report commends the erection of a separate building in another part of the city for the juvenile court and detention home; it suggests also that two buildings, separate but in close proximity, would enable the court and the home to preserve their own atmospheres, and recommends especially that a playground and other cheerful surroundings be given the home. The co-operation necessary between the juvenile court and the court of domestic relations may make it desirable that these two be brought together in a place apart from other courts. Three minor administrative recommendations are that the juvenile judge should have power to reject unfit police officers assigned to probation work, that transfer of children in patrol wagons should cease, and that female escort be provided for all girls.

In pointing out the clear purpose of the law to reduce to a minimum state interference with normal relations of children in natural homes, the report describes the "funds to parents" law. It describes the formation by Judge Pinckney of an advisory committee, composed of representatives of various philanthropic and social agencies, to aid the court in the administration of the law.¹

It urges more careful dovetailing of the compulsory education and child labor laws, to

insure that every child between fourteen and sixteen is either in school or at work, with an amendment making relief from school attendance between fourteen and sixteen depend not only on employment but on the attainment of a prescribed minimum of educational fitness. In view of the fact that juvenile delinquency is essentially a problem in education, the need of co-operation between court and school is emphasized. While it recognizes constitutional and other difficulties which prevent turning over to the schools the administration of child legislation, including the juvenile court functions, the report sees in such an arrangement not merely a greater unity of child policy but a greater emphasis upon moral aspects of education.

Obstacles in the way of giving the juvenile court jurisdiction over adults who contribute to juvenile delinquency, the desirability of which is recognized, increases the need for placing the juvenile court and the court of domestic relations, or a branch of it, together. Private conferences in chambers are declared to be indispensable in some cases for the welfare of the child, the judge being the best one to decide; but an annual report of the extent and reasons for such conferences is suggested to protect the court from criticism and avoid any dangers. The time required for hearings need not be long if the preliminary investigation is thorough. This sifting would materially lessen the recognized strain of protracted attention to the aggravated situations which juvenile cases usually present. The report does not, however favor the establishment of two additional courts, since three judges equipped for the peculiar duties of the juvenile court would be more difficult to secure than one, and three courts might tend toward lack of unity in the administration of the law. Not so many objections are seen in branch courts all under one chief judge, but in spite of possible advantages the committee believes that consideration of this should be postponed until comprehensive efforts have been made to reduce the number of cases that come to court.

Perhaps the most important part of the report as it deals with the first of the three main lines of investigation is that concerning the jurisdiction of the court especially in its relations to the institutions established under the Industrial School Acts, since it is on this point that much of the difficulty thus far has arisen. The juvenile court law is shown to be clearly supplemental to and in no sense a substitute for, these acts, a special provision stating that it shall not be interpreted as repealing any portion of them. This involves such serious limitations upon the jurisdiction of the juvenile court that the committee believes the problem should be faced even though the constitutional doubts as to extending its jurisdiction, and assuring its present validity, should necessitate a constitutional amendment.

The committee's findings as to this lack of control by the court over children sent to institutions strikes the very crux of the situa-

¹Following out Judge Pinckney's suggestion, this advisory committee maintains in the juvenile court five salaried experts who form an investigating board for every pension application and report their findings to the judge.

tion revealed by the Witter trial. When a child is committed to an industrial school by the juvenile court the jurisdiction passes from the court to the school. Although these schools attempt to carry out court decrees and respect specific demands of the court, "investigation shows that there is an unfortunately large number of cases in which children have passed completely out of control of the court and have returned without its sanction into the very surroundings from which they had been taken. . . . The return of a child without court consent to an environment which the court has just found to be unfit is an humiliating travesty on judicial procedure, and is in no way necessary to uphold the autonomy of institutions. The occasion for committing a child to an institution is found in the unfitness of its environment or the inability of parents to accomplish its proper nurture or discipline. . . . If, after a child has been committed to an institution, facts are presented to the court indicating that advantages of the institution over the child's natural home have been magnified, or, in the case of unfit parents, that they have reformed, or that parents have moved from a bad environment—in short, if the situation offers expectation of proper control and care, then the court which had removed the child from its home should at all times have power to restore."

The report lays the evils due to laxity in the placing of children in foster-homes by institutions or associations to which they are committed by the juvenile court at the door of the court's inadequate jurisdiction, and of the state's inadequate visitation and supervision of such homes. "Plenary jurisdiction exercised heretofore by custodial institutions has given them authority to place children committed to their care in families, and they have been given the right to sign papers of adoption under the same conditions which have obtained with reference to regular placing organizations. The kind of equipment required for satisfactory placing is so different from that needed to conduct a custodial or educational institution that the two functions ought to be kept distinct. To this end, placing by a custodial institution should occur only with consent of the court. In the case of societies which place children in foster homes the court should at all times possess evidence of satisfactory personal, financial, and administrative equipment for investigating homes and for continued rigid supervision after children have been placed, and it should assure itself that the equipment is efficiently employed." The court "must have power to inform itself at all times of the conditions under which its decrees are being carried out. Such a power cannot exist if the jurisdiction over a child passes completely from the court with its commitment to an institution. To endow the juvenile court with adequate jurisdiction over child placing and institutional care would relieve institutions of responsibility which they are not equipped to meet and which are foreign to their fundamental pur-

poses. By conforming their activities to definite recognized standards which the court would set they would occupy a more certain position in public esteem and avoid constant danger of attack. They would thus be left entirely free to carry out their educational, moral, and religious objects." Emphasis is placed on the seriousness of permanent separation of a child from his parents, which should ensue "only when evidence is conclusive that future rehabilitation of the family is not to be contemplated." In the case of parents consenting to adoption, such consent should not be taken at a time of financial distress, but adoption should be postponed with the expectation that it can be avoided altogether through the parents' becoming better able to provide satisfactorily for their child.

2. PROBATION DEPARTMENT AND DETENTION HOME.

After discussing the function of probation work—not to place children in institutions or bring them to court, but to tone up family life so that they may still have parental care—the report points out the conditions under which tactful, sympathetic, and able probation officers may be secured. A civil service administration, honest, intelligent, and not a part of a political administration, is deemed essential. The examination, in conducting which the civil service commission should secure the co-operation of especially qualified citizens, should be open to persons between twenty-five and fifty-five years of age, after wide publicity has been given both to the examination and the conditions of work. Concrete suggestions are given whereby written, oral, and experience tests may emphasize judgment, training, and moral fitness. There should be no technical questions which presuppose an unreasonable time devoted to specific preparation. Actual or hypothetical cases such as probation officers have to handle should be submitted. The oral test should especially discover defects or abnormalities which should debar an applicant, but owing to danger of abuse it should have only a small positive credit. All appointments should be made for a trial period of six months. Temporary appointments pending examinations are regarded as vicious.

Many detailed recommendations for the improvement of record systems, clerical facilities, and administrative methods are made. The pay of regular staff probation officers is suggested at \$1200 per year. In a large force the value of special investigators and special officers supervising probationers under employment or sent to institutions is pointed out, and a general field officer to visit regularly the territory of other probation officers and to advise and assist them in their work is strongly recommended. Volunteer officers should not be generally relied upon, but the power of appointing them is recognized as extremely valuable in dealing with particular situations. A probation cabinet to consider general policies and promote handling of cases outside of

court is suggested, its membership to consist of the judge, the chief probation officer, and two supervisors of probation. An average of fifty families to each probation officer is considered reasonable, and quality of service is emphasized over number of officers, "Not only is it more important to have the right kind of officers than to have a sufficient number, but it is so important that none be appointed except on an honestly administered merit basis that judges should satisfy themselves of the conditions under which examinations are to be held before requesting additional appointments."

The detention home, although a place of temporary care, should in the estimate of the committee have adequate provision for classification and segregation, for handling infectious and other diseases, and for educational and play needs. It should not be used as a correctional institution or as a convenience, and delays in court hearings should not fall too heavily on detention home cases.

3. DISPOSITION OF CHILDREN, INVOLVING INSTITUTIONAL CARE, CHILD PLACING, AND PUBLIC SUPERVISION.

Emphasis is not placed upon facilities for public care of more children, but upon the relation of civic conditions to family breakdown. Playgrounds, social use of schools, better housing, decreased congestion, provision against industrial hazards, and regulation of public amusements are considered more important than the multiplication of institutions for children who, because of backward civic conditions, are thrown in increasing numbers upon the public care. To this end one of the farthest reaching recommendations is that a comprehensive study of civic conditions in relation to child care be undertaken by the State Charities Commission or some other body enjoying public confidence.

Better and more adequate provision for certain classes of defectives, especially epileptics and feeble-minded, is urged, however, as an immediate need. For normal children, adoption or placing in foster-homes is advocated as far superior to any institutional care. But strong emphasis is put upon the perfection of these placing agencies. The Massachusetts experience is cited, showing the success of different organizations "in evolving common records for investigations of families and subsequent supervision," demonstrating the feasibility of successful work in the field. "Financial support sufficient to provide needed personal and administrative equipment should make placing one of the most constructive activities in behalf of children." But for normal children who for any reason cannot be adopted or placed in foster-homes, boarding in families near vocational school facilities is regarded as preferable to institutional life. Institutions, which the committee considers a last resort for normal children, need efficiency standards by which their results can be estimated. It points out the inadequacy for this purpose of present

institutional record systems. So strongly is the desirability urged of keeping the institutional surroundings of the normal child as natural as possible that even the cottage system, if arranged like a university campus, is considered not so good as small houses on ordinary streets, cared for by a house-mother, the children attending the public school. The same principle should be applied as far as possible in the case of delinquents. Present methods of segregation of delinquents are not sufficient to prevent evil associations whereby innocent or less hardened children are seriously harmed. This is especially condemned in the John Worthy school, the close proximity of which to the city prison hampers the commendable efforts of the superintendent.

The committee vigorously urges more adequate state visitation and supervision of children placed in family homes or cared for in institutions. At present, under the state board of control, there are but three visitors for the whole state; thirty would be more appropriate, and a campaign for such a larger staff should, in the opinion of the committee, be started at once. These visitors should not merely ascertain that children are humanely treated, whether in institutions or in family homes, but their work should also relate to the financial and administrative equipment of particular institutions to perform the task which they are undertaking. The state board also should interest itself in establishing standards of child-care, and in suggesting records and reports by which the efficiency of institutions should be judged, but it should at all times remember that its work is not administration but supervision. To draw a parallel from business, it should do the work of bank examiner rather than of president of a bank. The responsibility of institutions for the work they undertake should not be diminished.

The committee submitted a supplementary report prepared under its direction by Price, Waterhouse and Company, accountants. This deals not only with the systems of business management and handling of funds but with the whole system of records as showing the methods and efficiency of the institution in supervising children and training them for careers of usefulness and good citizenship.

The report finds the accounting systems and payment of moneys to the institutions by the county and by parents of children to involve much looseness and carelessness, of the sort indicated in an earlier paragraph. It calls attention to the absence of published annual reports and makes strong recommendations in favor of publicity and uniformity of accounts.

The records of the court showing commitments to institutions were compared with the records of the institutions themselves, covering the period from January 1, 1909, to September 1, 1911. While only a slight discrepancy was discovered, the records of the institutions as to what becomes of children after entering and leaving the institution are very inadequate. In fact, the superintendent of one

school from which over a score of boys disappeared stated without hesitation that when a boy considered undesirable for the good of the school escapes or disappears no effort is made to find him. This may be well from the standpoint of the school; but if such an undesirable child is permitted to live in a questionable environment the good of the child, if not of the community, would seem to be disregarded. The report commends the investigation of foster-homes before children are placed in them, as carried out by the Children's Home and Aid Society. It criticizes the absence of court reports of such investigations by volunteer probation officers. It characterizes visitation of such homes after children are placed in them as inadequate. While the principle is recognized by the Glenwood School for boys and the Illinois Industrial School for girls, as well as by the Children's Home and Aid Society, the visits have not been obligatory, nor as systematic and frequent as they should be, due to lack of funds. And in the case of the visitation department of the State Board of Administration, which is charged by law with the duty of inspecting these homes, the visitors are still less regular and frequent than those on behalf of the institutions themselves. It is pointed out that the law might be amended to require the schools and institutions to make such visits, the state board to act in a supervisory capacity, or that the decree of the juvenile court in each case might require that a placed child should be visited.

Since the career of a child after leaving an institution is the best test of the efficiency of the training it received in the institution, stress is laid on following the progress of the child wherever it may be after its discharge from the institution.

The two Catholic schools, St. Mary's Training School for Boys and the Chicago Industrial School for Girls, refused to permit the accountants to proceed with an investigation of their records. A conference was held with John A. Lynch, representing the St. Mary's School, and D. F. Bremner and Timothy D. Hurley, representing the Chicago Industrial School. Their refusal was reiterated in ensuing correspondence on the ground that the law prohibits disclosing the names and addresses of children placed in foster-homes.

[This affords an interesting commentary on the prolonged newspaper lamentation over the mothers who could not learn the whereabouts of their children whom the juvenile court had taken away, and also on the blame heaped upon Chief Probation Officer Witter for not keeping track of the children sent to the institutions and thence into foster-homes. But no reasonable man can doubt the propriety and legality of giving access to these routine records to a duly authorized and constituted public body specifically charged with investigating and reporting upon this very matter, especially in view of the readiness of the other institutions to give access to their records.]

The investigation by the accountants proceeded far enough to ascertain that in eight months of 1909 nineteen boys disappeared from St. Mary's School and were not returned, and one was taken by his mother without permission. The sister who attends to the business details of the school stated that homes to which children are released are investigated by the police officers representing the school at the juvenile court, who report verbally on the results of their investigations, and that the parish priests are expected to visit and otherwise supervise the children after their release from the school. "But," say the accountants, "so far as we could ascertain by inquiry made of the sister above referred to, the priests are not notified of the releases and make no reports to the school as to visits or otherwise."

The report of the accountants closes with detailed suggestions and recommendations regarding a uniform system of forms, records, reports, and accounts for the institutions.

The value of the report of the Hotchkiss committee can hardly be overestimated. Its thoroughness and fundamental wisdom are increasingly impressive the more it is studied. It should serve for years as a land-mark and compass in the progress of child care in Illinois; for not only has it determined the precise bearings of the present situation, but it has provided invaluable steering directions for future action. The very sanity of it discredits all the more the contemptible political machinations and the newspaper hysterics which preceded it. Against these malign forces a group of public-spirited Chicago citizens has waged a courageous and determined struggle during the entire progress of the efforts to demoralize the court and its probation system. Their unremitting support of Mr. Witter, supplying generously the sinews of defense, was a genuinely patriotic service to the community. The burden, harassment, and cost of this trial cannot be measured in dollars, for it stands as a tremendous discouragement to any faithful and meritorious civil service appointee who may at any time be called upon to defend his rights. When civil service standards are so completely destroyed as they have been in the Witter case, it is essential that justice be secured through the courts rather than through the uncertain turn of the political wheel. The Witter case should be vigorously pushed to a final adjudication in the courts—a splendid fight such as has been waged thus far should not stop short of its goal.

PRESENT SITUATION

The same vigilance of public-spirited citizens must be continued. Pending the holding of a civil service examination for the office of chief probation officer, one Henry J. Lynch, for some years an employe of the county institutions at Dunning, was temporarily installed in the position. Little as to his qualifications for this work is known. It is asserted that ward politics occupied no inconsiderable part of his time during his incumbency at Dunning, and he is alleged to have boasted at one time that he could carry his precinct for Lorimer—an interesting side-light on the bipartisan politics of Illinois. It is known that he "worked up" the charges against an efficient staff physician at Dunning whom even Mr. Bartz's political civil service commission was compelled to reinstate when the charges against her were found to have no foundation.

An examination for chief probation officer was taken by Mr. Lynch, and also by various other candidates, among whom were several of indisputable fitness and experience in the care of children and in the work of the juvenile court. But when the result was announced the grades of the well-qualified candidates were low, while Mr. Lynch was placed at the head of the list.

It is significant to recall in this connection the conduct of an examination last fall for staff probation officers. A special committee, including in its membership Judge Pinckney and others who have the confidence of the general public, was asked to prepare the questions, at the same time being assured that it would have charge of the reading and marking of the candidates' papers. After the examination the civil service commission deliberately ignored the special committee, and made another arrangement for the reading and marking of the papers. Comment is unnecessary on the fact that Judge Pinckney refused to accept as probation officers any persons certified by this examination.

It should be clearly understood that in the entire discussion of civil service presented by this article there is no intention to discredit the merit system as a means for securing probation officers. In the past it has secured for chief probation officer of the Chicago juvenile court such well equipped men as Henry W. Thurston and Mr. Witter, and it has kept out candidates whose pull would have entitled them to the position. It is

still to be regarded as the best method of securing probation officers. But the ingenuity of man cannot make a civil service law which would automatically operate properly when administered by officials whose prime concern is to dicker for political purposes.

But there is a still more fundamental situation which demands vigilance and broad-mindedness on the part of those who stand for the welfare of the whole community rather than any special group or institutions. We have already pointed out that the elements which originally secured the limitation of the jurisdiction of the juvenile court are the very ones which have now aided, if not instigated, the attack on the court for its failure to do the things it had no power to do because of these limitations. These elements are certain factions claiming to act on behalf of the industrial schools, and especially in those religious sects which resent any public supervision of their activities. This is a field in which issues of sectarianism should not stand athwart a movement which vitally concerns the humanitarian progress of all the people.

In the interests of all, it is fair to ask whether there was mere coincidence or deliberate discrimination in the fact that all the cases brought forward to expose evils in institutional care, just prior to and during the Witter trial, were from non-Catholic institutions. It is significant, moreover, that in times past most of the cases, and certainly the more flagrant ones, in which the influence and effectiveness of the juvenile court have been set at naught through the immediate or early return to their homes of children committed to institutions by the court, have occurred in connection with Catholic institutions. That this procedure does not represent the whole of Catholic sentiment, if indeed it represents any considerable part, and is probably due to the narrowness of some factions, is demonstrated by the fact that the Hotchkiss report—which so vigorously condemns this procedure—is signed by Father Quille, representing Catholic charities as a member of the committee, and the further fact that some of the most vigorous supporters of Mr. Witter, who testified to his efficiency, were Catholic probation officers.

It would furthermore be interesting to know if there was anything more than an accidental connection in the fact that last spring there suddenly came before the gov-

error of Illinois a bill—the very existence of which was unknown to the judge and chief probation officer of the Chicago juvenile court—nominally affecting smaller counties, but which in its application to the county of Cook would have destroyed the juvenile court system of that county so far as the existence of a central court with a single judge and a central probation service is concerned. And again it may be inquired if there was merely a coincidence in the fact that after the bill failed to become a law, and at about the time the charges against Chief Probation Officer Witter were formulated, a bill was filed in a county court, on behalf of a person closely identified with leaders in the whole attack, seeking to enjoin the county from paying the expenses of the juvenile court on the ground that the law is unconstitutional.

The participation of so many different interests and religious groups represented in the membership of the Hotchkiss committee, and especially their unanimity in signing the report, inspires the hope that sectarianism may not again seek to embarrass or hinder the juvenile court or to thwart public welfare. With so splendid a basis for unified action as this report affords, it should not be too much to hope that all public-spirited citizens in Illinois may now rally in a campaign to secure more adequate state supervision of children who are public wards, more adequate jurisdiction for the juvenile court, and a complete system of child care which measures up to the newer standards and ideals so finely set forth.

For the other communities throughout the country in which the juvenile court has been attacked and which are struggling with difficulties like those with which Chicago has been contending, this analysis of the Chicago situation may help to clarify the issues.

The juvenile court is not an automatic contrivance for weighing offences and punishments. It is the state's means of handling the most delicate problems affecting tender lives. It requires a nicety of perception, a humane patience, and a far-sighted judgment not required in administering perfectly a criminal code. It is still experimental and tentative in method. The people who are responsible for its inauguration and acceptance throughout the country must hold themselves responsible for keeping it above the reckless greed of politicians and their allies. For either it must

work incalculable cruelty upon those whom it is intended to serve, or it must be administered with absolute freedom from influences of the sort which have in the last few months wrought so much harm upon the Chicago court.

If the widespread effort to exploit or attack the juvenile court has reached its most acute crisis in Chicago, the very exigency has brought out in Illinois, and, be it hoped, throughout the country the determination to deal with the situation, conserve the progress already made by the juvenile court, and assure the basis for more rational and humane child care.

COMMUNICATIONS

CLOD OR BROTHER?

TO THE EDITOR:

Robert A. Woods' paper, *The Clod Stirs*,¹ is an interesting summary of views conscientiously held by an able student of affairs who has not investigated the Lawrence strike in Lawrence. It has the defects of such a compilation and among these defects is failure to appreciate the temper of the strike.

Mr. Woods speaks of "the protean engineering through which a few men, eagerly sustained by a few thousands, direct all the influence, intimidation and coercion in every shade and degree up to bloodshed, by which the lives of 50,000 are dictated continuously for a period of two months." The obvious fact should not be overlooked by anyone who wishes to understand the Lawrence strike that among the forces which held the strikers together during those trying weeks the strongest were confidence in the leaders, fostered by a daily referendum, and efficiency in relieving distress. The mill operatives of Lawrence had never been treated so well before and never before were they led by men whom they trusted.

Mr. Woods says in one paragraph: "The Industrial Workers of the World sent for Joseph Ettor," and in another: "A group of local men . . . in many ways worthy men in themselves, called in a group of syndicalist Socialists committed to the precipitous mob action of all the workmen in every grade of an industry." Whoever sent for Ettor, there is no ambiguity in Mr. Woods' opinion of the leaders: "They seek general unrest and not specific success." "The mill owners, supported very generally by the public, have felt that they could not in any case negotiate with crude disturbers of law and order." The answer is that, whatever the mill owners may have thought of the members of the strike

¹See THE SURVEY, March 16, page 1929.

committee, they did negotiate with them after the representatives of the American Federation of Labor had failed to bring about a settlement and they granted to the strike committee better terms than the federation had asked.

Mr. Woods concludes that "More thorough organization under constructive trade union leadership" is "likely" as a result of the strike, and he pictures "The trade unionists . . . comforted that the whirligig of time was bringing them around as bulwarks of conservatism, even in the eyes of the employers." Bulwarks may ride on whirligigs in Mr. Woods' Utopia, but what is the situation in Lawrence? Many thousands of Syrians, Poles, Italians, Jews, Belgians, Lithuanians and other aliens have come to Lawrence attracted, some of them, by cheerful posters representing prosperous workmen carrying fat envelopes from the mill to the savings bank. Their contact with American institutions has been limited to the mills,—a disappointment; to the Lawrence police and the Massachusetts militia,—rather closely associated with the mill owners; to the local court with its heavy sentences for technical offenses; to good citizens who endeavored to tie up the strike fund on the pretext of administering it honestly; and to the Industrial Workers of the World who organized their forces and enabled them to win their strike. Whom are these foreigners going to follow hereafter? Ettor and Haywood or those "constructive trade union" leaders who are identified in their minds with desertion and surrender to the mill owners?

Under the circumstances are the strikers likely to look upon citizenship as a cure-all, or will they, perhaps, say in effect: "America is not trying to make citizens of us, but serfs. Well, here are the Industrial Workers of the World who care nothing for citizenship and who count on direct action to win their battles. Direct action is a weapon ready to any hand, even the hand of an alien, and the processes of naturalization and the ballot are slow. Our needs are immediate and, after all, what's the use of the ballot? These Americans have been voting in their republic for over a hundred years and yet,—the wages and slums of Lawrence."

The situation is more serious than the public yet understands. We have been confronted in Lawrence with anarchy, practiced by official keepers of the law, and talked in the counsels of the workers. Neither denunciation by our most respectable citizens, nor the injunction nor any form of incantation will save us. The workers, alien and others, must be treated with justice and understanding, as men and women, else the breach between them and the rest of society will widen and who knows what will happen then? On this point history is not reassuring to the comfortable classes. The issue is not between a five and a fifteen per cent advance in wages. The issue is the future organization of industry.

A further word is due the leaders of this

strike. Is it true that they showed themselves in Lawrence as "crude disturbers of law and order?" Did they not do their best to keep the peace and did they not succeed? "A riot would cost us the strike," said Ettor. "Stay in your houses; don't let the police or the soldiers provoke you into a fight," commanded Haywood and the strikers saw the point and obeyed.

I have had the privilege of knowing some of the local leaders developed by the strike as they appeared under the stress of their most difficult situation. They reflected the good temper which seemed to visitors the characteristic quality of the Lawrence strikers. These leaders are alert, kindly, resourceful men and they have proved their unselfishness and courage. I doubt whether they will vote the Republican ticket next fall, but I should rather trust my life and fortune in their hands than in the hands that wrote Schedule K. This is not high praise, but let it stand.

JOHN D. ADAMS.

Boston, Mass.

FREE SPEECH IN LAWRENCE

TO THE EDITOR:

May I add a word of personal experience to Mr. Lovejoy's Right of Free Speech in Lawrence? I live in the next town to Lawrence and Lawrence is my shopping place. Throughout the strike I have gone freely about my usual business there, and taken my children with me; all without the slightest interference of any sort, even within the mill district. I have also, as I have had opportunity, talked with the soldiers; and I have found them without exception absolutely courteous and kindly. Moreover, in all the conversation which I have had with other persons on the subject (and you may easily guess the matter is one that gets its due share of mention here) I have yet to hear the first complaint of the conduct of a single militiaman based on first-hand evidence—though, naturally, there are all sorts of wild stories.

On the other hand, several of my fellow citizens who have had occasion to be in Lawrence, early in the day, have been threatened or assaulted by persons apparently strikers, although none of the victims had anything whatever to do with the mills on either side.

Let me add, also, that there has been no time during the strike when anybody has not been at liberty to indulge in all the free speech he wanted, provided he did it on private property. All that militia and police have ever done has been to keep the discussion off the streets, and to protect the ordinary citizen in the enjoyment of his customary rights. Before the authorities took things in hand, the mob was stopping the trolley cars and dragging out and assaulting persons like myself, who did not even live in town and had no part whatever in the controversy.

We who are here on the ground and have got to stay here after the trouble is over,

¹See THE SURVEY, March 9, page 1904.

know that there has been from the beginning just one point at issue—and that has been whether the streets were to be kept safe for the inoffensive citizen.

EDWIN T. BREWSTER.

Andover, Mass.

JOTTINGS

AID FOR JEWISH DEAF-MUTES

To furnish industrial education and secure work for the unemployed Jewish deaf-mutes in New York is the partial purpose of a new society lately organized and called the Society for the Welfare of the Jewish Deaf. The organization will aim also to promote the social and intellectual welfare of these unfortunates and to provide them with religious instruction and opportunities for public worship. About \$4,000 has been secured for the current year's work. Rev. Dr. Barnett A. Elzas, chaplain of the deaf, and secretary of the new society, has discovered that there are between 1800 and 2000 Jewish deaf in New York. Plans are under way for the renting of a building or hall where the deaf may congregate for moral and religious instruction and for social diversion. The headquarters of the new society are at 356 2nd avenue.

CONFERENCE FOR SOUTHERN EDUCATION

The Conference for Education in the South, which will hold its fifteenth meeting in Nashville, Tenn., April 3-5, is "not a teachers' association for the discussion of the technique of the school room, nor is it a mere business or industrial conference. It is a coming together of the representatives of all classes who have at heart the welfare of the country, and who believe that the largest factor in the production of this welfare is the right education of all the people for the duties and responsibilities of industrial, civic, social, and religious life." This year there will be special and round-table conferences of the state superintendents of public instruction in the southern states, the school improvement workers, students of colleges and normal schools, club women, college presidents, normal school presidents and instructors in colleges, teachers of education, and supervisors of rural schools, and conferences on the rural church, the education of the Negro, the education of women, agriculture, education for home-making, health and sanitation. The Association of Southern College Women will hold its annual meeting in connection with the conference.

Among the speakers on the program of the general sessions are: Robert C. Ogden, president; Walter L. Fisher, secretary of the Department of the Interior; Dr. Walter H. Page of the *World's Work*; Dr. St. Clair McKelway of the *Brooklyn Eagle*; Martin W. Littleton of New York; Senator Joseph Bailey of Texas; President Edwin A. Alderman of the Uni-

versity of Virginia; President S. C. Mitchell of the University of South Carolina; President David F. Houston of Washington University of St. Louis; Mr. Loudon, the Netherlands minister to the United States; Dr. Erwin Craighead, editor of the *Mobile Register*; Desha Breckenridge, Lexington, Ky.; Jessie Field, superintendent of schools, Page County, Iowa; and Dr. Bradford Knapp and O. B. Martin of the Department of Agriculture at Washington.

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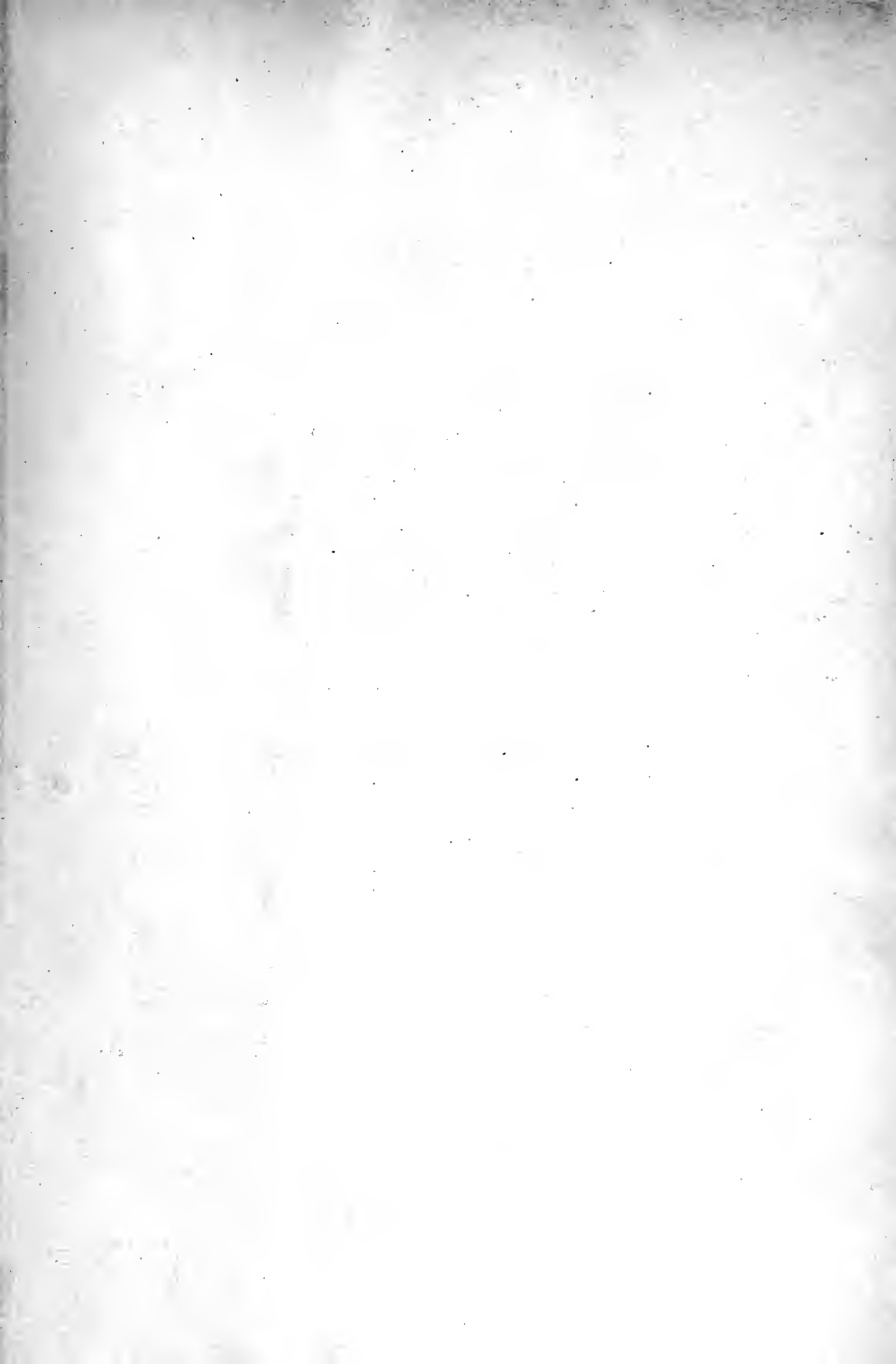
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