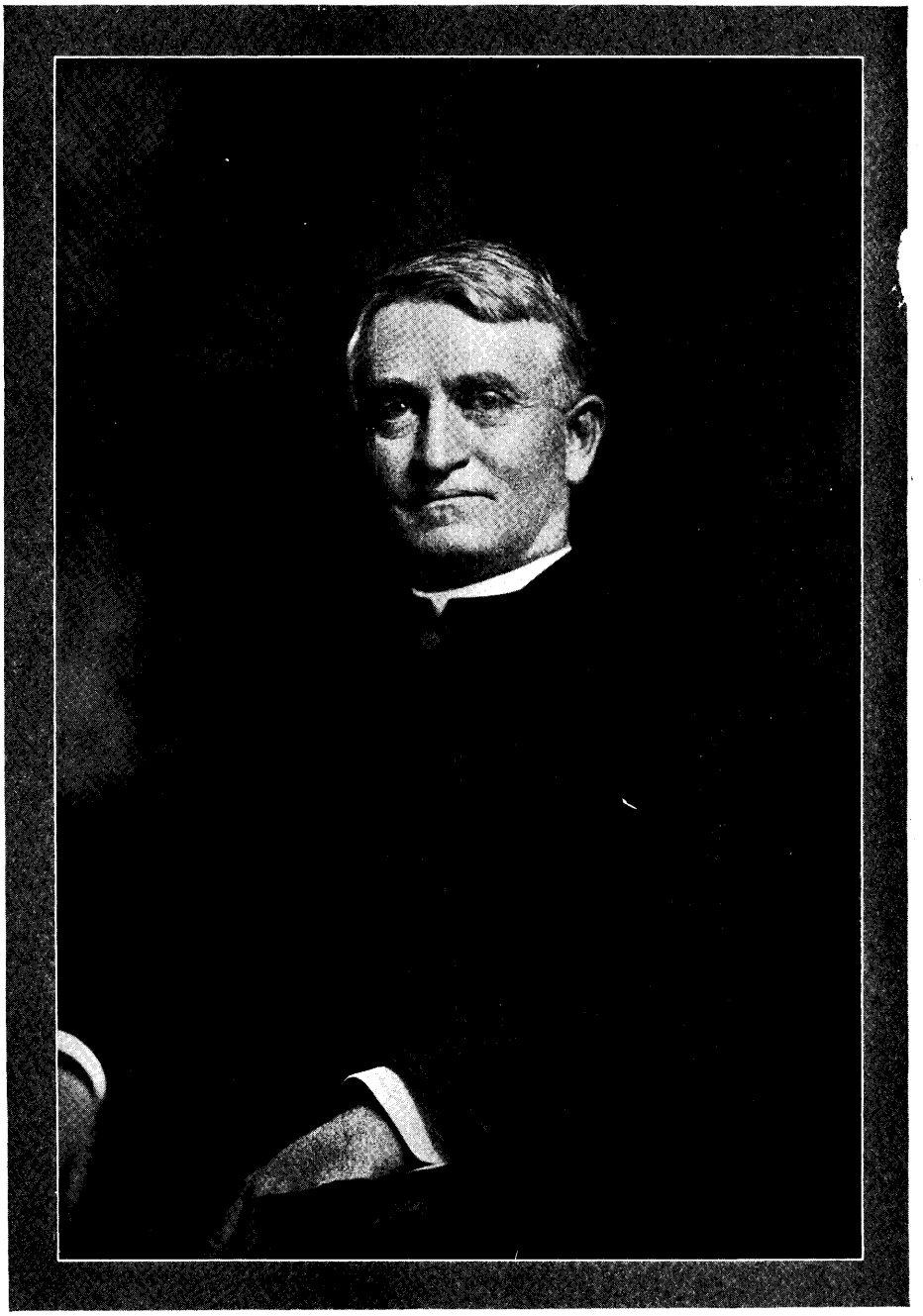

REV. FRANCIS A. FOY

PRESIDENT OF THE SEVENTH NEW JERSEY CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING

OF THE

New Jersey State Conference of Charities and Correction

HELD AT THE

HIGH SCHOOL, JERSEY CITY, N. J.

February 9-11, 1908

TRENTON, N. J.
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1908.

PREFATORY ACCOUNT.

The Conference cannot be transferred to paper, but its story can be told and its proceedings reported, hence this book.

The Conference began well. The attendance on Sunday afternoon was the largest at any opening meeting in its history, and the platform speakers were as representative as could possibly be. The audience was composed of men and women from every sect, profession and walk in life, and the speakers, all of them, bore some official relationship with the state, the city, the churches or organized philanthropic work. The "Value of the Conference," as predicted by the President, in his opening remarks, was the dominant note, and rang clear through all the addresses of the meeting. It was sounded by ex-Governor Stokes in his appeal to the people for a closer study and a fuller appreciation of the work that is already being done by the state for its dependents; it was the overtone in Rabbi Solomon Foster's eloquent address on "The People and the Conference;" it ran like a thread of gold through Father Clifford's beautiful preachment on "Charity and the Churches;" it was the note of appeal with Commissioner Wight in his excellent treatment of "State Supervision of Charities in New Jersey," and it rang to the echo in the masterful speech of Dr. William H. Allen on the "Education of Public Opinion," which closed the program of the initial meeting.

The regular work of the Conference began on Monday morning, in the address of Chairman Thurlow on the "State and Local Boards of Health in New Jersey," in which he outlined a comprehensive and efficient system of public sanitation and hygiene. This address may be regarded as a valuable contribution to the movement in favor of the unification of all the work of the State, under whatever name conducted, which looks towards the protection and conservation of the public health, and

in favor also of a closer relationship between State and local work. The address of Dr. William G. Sedgwick, the eminent professor of biology, who came all the way from Boston to speak at this meeting, was one of the features of the Conference. The topic assigned him was "Public Health and Organized Charity," and within these lines he gave us a delightful and heartening talk, in which science and practical wisdom were so blended that he was able to show clearly the intimate connection which existed between the science of the laboratory and that of the community, which connection called for the broadest sense of appreciation and the most serviceable co-operation among those who were at work on any phase, remote or proximate, of the social problem. The address of Dr. Charles A. Clinton, of the New York Health Department, on the work of that department for the "Relief and Prevention of Tuberculosis," carefully and thoroughly prepared as it was, was of distinct value to the Conference and to New Jersey. Our movement for the prevention of tuberculosis will benefit much by this full presentation and inductive study of the work of the New York Health Department. The local health problem was well taken care of by Dr. McLaughlin, of Jersey City, in his very practical address on "Correction in Local Health Matters," in which he took a well-merited fling at political methods of vaccination and street cleaning, and pleaded for a more general interest on the part of the people in the work of local health officers. Dr. S. A. Knopf, of New York, the prize essayist of the Berlin Congress for the study of tuberculosis; Dr. A. Clark Hunt, Secretary of the State Board of Health of New Jersey, and Dr. B. Van D. Hedges, of Plainfield, were among those who took part in the general discussion under this section, and their remarks gave additional value to its work.

While matters pertaining to the "public welfare" are assumed to be proper for the program of a conference of charities and corrections, the subject of "Civics" may be regarded as an interpolation, though somewhat sanctioned by custom; but there were special reasons for a section on Civil Service at this Conference. The subject has its charitable and correctional side,

as it effects public institutions, but at the present time in New Jersey it needs to be worked out on the broadest lines, in order that a state system of civil service may be established which shall, along with its wider effects, insure a more efficient administration of our charities and corrections. In the three addresses under this section on "New Jersey's Attitude Toward Civil Service Reform," by Senator Colby; on "The Growth and Development of the Civil Service Movement," by Mr. Elliott H. Goodwin, of New York, Secretary of the National Civil Service Reform Association, and on "The Practical Application of the Civil Service Law," by Mr. William Jay Schieffelin, of New York, and in the explanation by Senator Ackerman, of his bill for Civil Service in New Jersey, supplemented by the remarks of Mr. Edward K. Sumerwell, of East Orange, it is believed that the whole subject of Civil Service as applicable to conditions in New Jersey was thoroughly covered, and that the work of this section, as it appears in this volume, will be of great documentary value to the cause of Civil Service Reform, and inclusively to the cause of charities and corrections.

The subject of "Crime, Its Prevention and Treatment," which used to be treated entirely from the correctional standpoint, but is now seen to have a charitable aspect also, was in the hands of Hon. Alfred F. Skinner, as chairman of the section bearing that title. Judge Skinner's address reflected the learning of the lawyer and the experience of the judge on the criminal bench imbued with a strong faith in human nature and in the efficiency of humane and wise laws to reform the criminal. But the chairman realized that the treatment of the criminal, to be comprehensive, must be stern and regal as well as humane, and in order that these two essential though widely differing attitudes might have recognition, he happily selected the Hon. Frank H. Sommers, Sheriff of Essex county, for an address on "The Enforcement of the Law," and Mrs. E. E. Williamson for one on "The Discharged or Paroled Prisoner; How Shall We Treat Him?" Sheriff Sommer's address was entirely new in Conference work, and showed the necessity of harking back to the stern provisions of the law in order that their neglect might not be construed

into an open countenance of crime and immorality; and Mrs. Williamson's address, on the other hand, dealt with the criminal at a time when the rigors of the law being exhausted there is call for the re-establishment of social relations of a helpful and elevating character. Both these addresses were strongly supported in their main contentions by Hon William H. Speer, Judge of the Hudson County Circuit Court; Detective Sergeant Tuite, of the Newark Police Department; Mr. Richard Stevens, Probation Officer of Hudson county, and Father Fish, Chaplain of the New Jersey State Prison.

The section on the Organization of Charitable Relief was opened by an interesting and timely address from the Chairman, Rev. A. C. Nickerson, on "The Alleged Coldness of Official Charity." The work of this section was broad, comprehensive and practical. The Jewish point of view was ably and clearly presented by Rabbi Stephen S. Wise, of New York, who spoke on "The Principles and Practices of Charity Among the Jews." The Rev. Elmer A. Forbes, an Episcopal clergyman of Jersey City, dealt with the interests of the general community in charitable work, showing that they were best subserved by united effort, in a masterly paper entitled "The Charities in Jersey City and the Need of Co-operation." A paper of great practical importance on "Charitable Finance" was read by the Hon. Isaac C. Ogden, of Orange, who is doing pioneer work for the abolition of loose methods and the introduction of sound business principles in the administration of charitable organizations. It was under this section that the Hon Samuel J. Barrows, United States Commissioner for the International Prison Association, delivered his valuable message to the Conference, under the title of "How Shall we Correct the Prisoner Without Putting Too Heavy a Burden on His Family?" There was also a critical and helpful discussion of the above addresses by Mr. James B. Williams, General Secretary of the Orange Associated Charities; Mr. A. W. McDougall, Secretary of the Bureau of Associated Charities in Newark; Miss Agnes Anderson, General Secretary of the Organized Aid Association, Jersey City, and Miss Margaret Holley, agent of the Charity Organization Society at Plainfield.

The important subject of "Defectives" was given a section under the chairmanship of the Rev. Adolph Roeder, President of the New Jersey State Civic Federation, who himself dealt with the basic and elemental facts of the topic, in his opening address on "The Number and Nature of our Defectives," and then presented a selective program of great practical value, consisting of Miss Edith Holt, of the New York Association for the Blind, who spoke on the "Blind;" Dr. Henry A. Cotton, Medical Director of the State Hospital at Trenton, on "The Insane;" Dr. Russell A. Hibbs, of the New York Orthopædic Dispensary and Hospital, on "The Crippled Child;" Prof. John P. Walker, Superintendent of the New Jersey School for the Deaf, at Trenton, on "The Deaf," and Hon. Franklin W. Fort, the Recorder of East Orange, on "The Inebriate." Suggestions of much interest and value were also contributed in this section by Mr. Edward C. Baptist, Jersey City; Dr. D. B. Evans, Medical Director of State Hospital at Morris Plains; Prof. E. R. Johnstone, Director of the School for Feeble-Minded Children at Vineland; Hon. P. P. Baker, of the Managers of the Home for Feeble-Minded Women at Vineland; Dr. Maximilian P. E. Groszmann, founder of the School for Nervous and Atypical Children at Plainfield, and Dr. Charles A. Rosenwasser, of the Newark Board of Health.

The last and by no means least important section of the Conference was on "Children." It had been planned by the Program Committee to emphasize the school aspect of the child problem and to bring together on the Conference platform a number of prominent men and women whose occupation and experience would enable them to deal most intelligently with the subject. No better chairman for this section could have been chosen than Mr. Henry Snyder, the Superintendent of Public Schools in Jersey City, whose opening address indicated a knowledge born of hard work in the educational field and a large appreciation of the newer methods which have to do with the physical and mental well-being of the child, and with the extension of the school system to types and classifications heretofore neglected. One of the strongest papers of the Conference was that of Dr. Frederick C. Jacobson, of Newark, on "Medical Supervision of

Schools," which earned from Superintendent Poland the remark that it deserved to be printed in separate form and widely distributed. Others who shared in Dr. Poland's opinion and contributed to a very interesting and helpful discussion of this paper, were Dr. H. H. Brinkerhoff, Dr. Joseph M. Rector and Dr. Wallace Pyle, all of Jersey City, and John Mulvaney, Esq., an ex-President of the Jersey City Board of Education. Miss Louise Connolly, the Superintendent of Schools at Summit, gave an eloquent and somewhat mirth-provoking talk on "Love and Fear as Motives of Control," and played upon the attention and feeling of her audience, just as she might do in striving to win a class in her school work. If this address proved the necessity of love and fear as motives of control on the part of the pupil, it also demonstrated by an unconscious emphasis the value of personality and intelligence on the part of the teacher. Following Miss Connolly, some further practical suggestions on the subject of her address were made by Mr. Charles D. Ridgway, ex-President Board of Education, Jersey City, and Mr. M. H. Kinsley, County Superintendent of Schools in Hudson County. "School and Civic Co-operation in Organized Charity" was the subject of an able paper by Miss Cornelia F. Bradford, the well-known head of Whittier House Settlement, Jersey City. There was not time for the full discussion of this important paper. An overcrowded session and the late hour prevented the last paper of the Conference, by Mr. A. E. Meredith, Superintendent of Schools, Essex County, on "Parental Schools in New Jersey," from receiving the prominence and attention which it really deserved; but this address, though heard only by an appreciative few, forms one of the most valuable features of the Proceedings.

F. A. F.

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PROGRAM.

Sunday Afternoon, February 9, 3.00 o'clock.

PRAYER—Dr. Cornelius Brett, Pastor Bergen Reformed Church.

OPENING REMARKS—Hon. Marshall Van Winkle, Chairman of the Local Committee.

A WORD FROM THE MAYOR—Hon. H. Otto Wittpen.

ADDRESS—*"The Value of the Conference,"* Rev. Francis A. Foy, President.

ADDRESS—*"The State and the Conference,"* Gov. J. Franklin Fort.

ADDRESS—*"The People and the Conference,"* Rev. Solomon Foster, Rabbi of the Temple B'nai Joshurum, Newark.

ADDRESS—*"Charity and the Churches,"* Rev. Cornelius Clifford, Professor of Philosophy, Seton Hall College.

ADDRESS—*"State Supervision of Charities in New Jersey,"* Hon. George B. Wight, Commissioner of Charities and Correction.

ADDRESS—*"Education of Public Opinion,"* Dr. William H. Allen, Secretary of the Bureau of Municipal Research, New York.

BENEDICTION—Very Rev. Dean Smith, Rector of St. Joseph's Church, Jersey City.

First Session, Monday, February 10, 9.30 A. M.

SECTION ON PUBLIC SANITATION AND HYGIENE.

ADDRESS BY THE CHAIRMAN—*"The State and Local Boards of Health in New Jersey,"* Mr. L. R. Thurlow, Health Officer of Plainfield, N. J.

ADDRESS—*"Public Health and Organized Charity,"* Dr. William D. Sedgwick, Professor of Biology, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston.

ADDRESS—*"The Work of the New York Health Department for the Relief and Prevention of Tuberculosis,"* Dr. Charles A. Clinton, New York Health Department.

ADDRESS—*"Correction in Local Health Matters,"* Dr. George E. McLaughlin, Jersey City.

General Discussion—Dr. B. Van D. Hedges, Plainfield; Dr. Gordon K. Dickinson, Jersey City; Dr. A. Clark Hunt, Secretary of the State Board of Health, of New Jersey; Dr. Thomas Darlington, Health Department of New York, and Dr. S. A. Knopf, New York.

Second Session, Monday, February 10, 2.30 P. M.

SECTION ON CIVIL SERVICE.

ADDRESS BY THE CHAIRMAN—*"New Jersey's Attitude Toward Civil Service Reform,"* Hon Everett Colby.

ADDRESS—*"The Growth and Development of the Civil Service Movement,"* Mr. Samuel Ordway, New York.

ADDRESS—*"The Practical Application of the Civil Service Law,"* Mr. William Jay Schieffelin, New York.

General Discussion—Mr. Elliot H. Goodwin, New York, Secretary of the National Civil Service Reform Association; Edward K. Sumerwell, E. Orange; Senator Ernest R. Ackerman, Plainfield; Senator Joseph S. Frelinghuysen, Raritan.

Third Session, Monday, February 10, 8 P. M.

SECTION ON "CRIME, ITS PREVENTION AND TREATMENT."

ADDRESS BY THE CHAIRMAN, Hon. Alfred F. Skinner.

ADDRESS—*"The Enforcement of Law,"* Hon. Frank H. Sommer, Sheriff of Essex county.

Discussion—Rev. John McDowell, of Newark; Hon. William H. Speer, Judge of the Circuit Court of Hudson county and former Prosecutor of the Pleas of said county; Mr. Frank Tuite, Detective Sergeant Newark Police Department.

ADDRESS—*"The Discharged or Paroled Prisoner; How Shall We Treat Him?"* Mrs. Emily E. Williamson.

Discussion—Mr. Richard Stevens, Hoboken; Rev. Aloys M. Fish, Chaplain at New Jersey State Prison; Rev. Henry Elliott Mott, D.D., of Elizabeth; Detective Sergeant Tuite.

Fourth Session, Tuesday, February 11, 9.30 A. M.

SECTION ON THE ORGANIZATION OF CHARITABLE RELIEF.

ADDRESS BY THE CHAIRMAN—*"The Alleged Coldness of Official Charity,"* Rev. A. C. Nickerson, Plainfield.

ADDRESS—*"The Principles and Practices of Charity Among the Jews,"* Rev. Stephen S. Wise, of the Independent Synagogue, New York.

Discussion—Rabbi E. Mayer, Paterson.

ADDRESS—*"Charitable Finance,"* Isaac C. Ogden, Orange.

ADDRESS—*"How Shall We Correct the Prisoner Without Putting too Heavy a Burden on His Family,"* Hon. Samuel J. Barrows, U. S. Commissioner for International Prison Commission, New York.

ADDRESS—*"The Charities of Jersey City and the Need of Co-operation,"* Rev. Elmer A. Forbes, Jersey City.

General Discussion—Mr. James B. Williams, General Secretary of the Orange Associated Charities; Mr. A. W. McDougall, Secretary of the Bureau of Associated Charities in Newark; Miss Agnes Anderson, General Secretary of the Organized Aid Association, Jersey City; Miss Margaret Holley, Agent of the Charity Organization Society at Plainfield.

Fifth Session, Tuesday, February 11th, 2.30 P. M.

SECTION ON DEFECTIVES.

ADDRESS BY THE CHAIRMAN—*"The Number and Nature of Our Defectives,"* Rev. Adolph Roeder, President of the State Civic Federation, Orange.

ADDRESS—*"The Blind,"* Miss Winifred Holt, New York Association for the Blind.

ADDRESS—*"The Insane,"* Dr. Henry A. Cotton, Medical Director, N. J. State Hospital, Trenton.

ADDRESS—*"The Crippled Child,"* Dr. Russell A. Hibbs, New York Orthopædic Dispensary and Hospital.

ADDRESS—*"The Deaf,"* Prof. John P. Walker, Supt. New Jersey School for the Deaf, Trenton.

ADDRESS—*"The Inebriate,"* Hon. Franklin W. Fort, Recorder of East Orange.

General Discussion—Mr. Edward C. Baptist, Jersey City; Dr. D. B. Evans, Medical Director State Hospital for the Insane, Morris Plains; Mrs. Caroline B. Alexander, Hoboken, Member of the Board of Managers of the State Village for Epileptics, Skillman; Prof. E. R. Johnstone, Vineland; Hon. P. P. Baker, Vineland; Dr. Maximilian P. E. Groszmann, Plainfield; Mr. Hugh F. Fox, Plainfield; Dr. Chas. A. Rosenwasser, Newark.

Sixth Session, Tuesday, February 11th, 8 P. M.

SECTION ON CHILDREN.

ADDRESS BY THE CHAIRMAN—Mr. Henry Snyder, Superintendent of Public Schools, Jersey City.

ADDRESS—*"Medical Supervision of Schools,"* Dr. Frederick C. Jacobson, Newark.

Five-minute discussions by Dr. Gordon K. Dickinson, Dr. Henry H. Brinkerhoff, Dr. Joseph M. Rector, Dr. Wallace Pyle, of Jersey City; A. B. Poland, Ph.D., Superintendent of Schools, Newark; John J. Mulvaney, ex-President Board of Education, Jersey City.

ADDRESS—*"Relation of the Child to the School After School Hours,"* J. Wilmer Kennedy, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Newark.

ADDRESS—*"Love and Fear as Motives of Control,"* Miss Louise Connolly, Superintendent of Schools, of Summit.

Five-minute discussions by Charles D. Ridgway, ex-President Board of Education, Jersey City; Mrs. Luise H. Stanley, Principal School No. 7, Jersey City; M. H. Kinsley, County Supt. of Schools, Hudson county.

ADDRESS—*"School and Civic Co-operation in Organized Charity,"* Miss Cornelia F. Bradford, of the Whittier House, Jersey City.

Five-minute discussions by Charles A. MacCall, Director of Compulsory Education, Newark; Miss Jennie M. Lewis, Principal, Primary Department, School No. 8, Jersey City; W. Allen Messler, Principal School No. 21, Jersey City.

ADDRESS—*"Parental Schools for New Jersey,"* Mr. A. E. Meredith, Superintendent of Schools, Essex county.

Discussion opened by Andrew J. Steelman, Jr., Member Board of Education, Jersey City.

New Jersey State Conference of Charities and Corrections.

SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING—FEBRUARY 9-11, 1908.

The seventh annual meeting of the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction was held at Jersey City, February 9th, 10th and 11th, 1908.

OPENING SESSION.

Sunday Afternoon, February 9th, 1908.

The meeting was called to order at 3.30 P. M. by Hon. MARSHALL VAN WINKLE, Chairman of the Local Committee.

After prayer by Rev. CORNELIUS BRETT, D. D., Mr. VAN WINKLE spoke as follows:

It is gratifying to find this Conference actually in session here in Jersey City; and yet I try to believe that you are not gathered here because Jersey City needs either charity or correction in any especial way more than the other cities of the State. We have here a large city; we are the seventeenth in size in the country, as I remember. Some people I know have the unpleasant habit of acting and speaking about us as though we were the thirteenth city, with all the fate that that number seems to imply. It is true that we have deficiencies; but we are aware of them—and that is a great deal. And we have some civic virtue and a great future, upon which I have not the right to speak today, or I should like to remove some of the mis-

conceptions concerning us that I am quite sure are held by some of you who come from the foreign parts of the State.

We have some organized charities here; but I must at once admit that on that head I am not prepared today to do any boasting. For instance, the Organized Aid Association of Jersey City is supported in theory by voluntary contributions; but as its treasurer I am obliged to say that in very many cases the voluntary nature of the contribution rests entirely in theory. The hard fact is very different. But we hope for better things, of course. And we know—and you know—that this is not special to Jersey City. The real cure probably lies only in the education of the masses, morally, as well as intellectually, and in the better economic organization of society, and the coming, by that path, of the happy day when the need for charity will have grown less in proportion to population that it is at present. The ultimate improvement will not come by the making of larger contributions, for which we are now primarily striving, but in less need for help, which is our ultimate aim. However, I dislike very much to publicly admit even this manifest fact about our subscribers, for it may have a bad effect on some of the delinquents or defectives on our list of contributors. It is only due to the Organized Aid, after saying what I have, to also say that while we handle some money, and act wisely and well, yet we are in debt to the butcher and the baker, the coal dealer, and the man that sells shoes for the feet of the poor, and we need money very much, for the times are hard, and the demands for help many.

I have never rendered any conspicuous service to the cause of correction in a systematic or scientific way, but officially some eight or nine years ago, I assisted in determining that many offenders should be imprisoned in the county penitentiary of this county, or the State's prison. At that time, when I was the assistant prosecutor of the pleas of this county, I believed that a first offender, arraigned in a criminal court was not necessarily a criminal. I remember once, during the period I refer to, speaking on the subject of "First Offenders" at a grand jury dinner, for I felt strongly on the subject. The first offender appealed to me as a man worthy of special investigation, and

perhaps of help, and many a one was investigated, and at my instance released on a suspension of sentence or otherwise. The ideas I had on the subject were ideas of the head as well as of the heart, and while I did not work with any definite program, and only in an imperfect way, I was operating a probation system of my own, and doing in an unorganized way what the probation system is now doing so well in an organized way. Occassionally I meet some man who introduces himself to me, and recalls circumstances that I have forgotten in connection with some mistake of his that we had the good sense and the sympathy to recognize at the time was a mistake, and nothing more; and the man was saved, by a combination of sense and sensibility—the head and the heart working in happy partnership.

No man can measure the outcome of this Conference. In a short day or two the delegates will be again scattered over the State, each engaged in his daily work. And yet some word that is spoken here, growing out of what may be only an individual experience, may find echo in some distant part of the State, or it may be, of the wide country itself. Men who revel in statistics, in proof of the nation's material progress and prosperity, and who make themselves very comfortable in that way, usually ignore all questions bearing on the nation's moral advance. They call themselves practical men. And it takes unselfish and thoughtful men and women, of the type of many who are here, to create ideals for the consideration and acceptance of the practical citizen. If the ordinary man, the practical man, is appealed to, and if matters are brought to his attention, it is found that he is really willing to work for the establishment of any well-considered reform. But some one or some organization must make a beginning for him. It is work for you, and such as you, to focus things for him, and to present to him different points of view. Many problems press for solution. What was only possible ten years ago, is now actual. And you, and such as you, are the ones to sow the field in which the practical man is to do the work which shall mean that each decade shall not pass as an empty number of idle years. Although he at first misunderstands many things that you discuss,

propose, and advocate, although he may think he knows as much as you even in your particular field, although some of your ideals may seem to him fanciful, yet the practical man will soon enough fall in line, be converted, and do the necessary work to adopt and realize your ideals. He will be interested enough when your ideals are properly stated to him—and of that there need be no fear. But the ideals should first be tested, and pass through the fire of honest discussion, before you have any right to lay down a program before the man you ask to help do the work, and press him for his acceptance. And this kind of discussion I understand is the purpose of this Conference.

I now have the honor of presenting to you the President of the Conference, a man well known to most of you, Father Foy. He is a man whose mind and heart have long worked with intelligence and sympathy for the bettering of his fellow-man. He is kindly remembered by us in Jersey City for the five or more years that he was a faithful priest at St. Joseph's, not many hundred feet away from this hall, and he is remembered for his official connection with the Organized Aid and the St. Vincent de Paul Society. Interested and prominent as he always has been, and is now, in civic and charitable ideals and work, and believing, as his work shows he does, in organized and scientific charity, and in co-operation among all charitable agencies without regard to denominational lines, it is fitting indeed that he should be the President of this Conference..

A Conference opened by our own Dr. Brett, and presided over by Father Foy is bound to be blessed.

President's Address—"The Value of the Conference."

BY REV. FRANCIS A. FOY, EAST NUTLEY.

The seventh New Jersey Conference of Charities and Corrections opens auspiciously. After such a hearty welcome from Jersey City, and favored as we are with the presence of Ex-Governor Stokes, and of our own Commissioner of Charities, and of other recognized leaders in charitable and correctional work in this State and elsewhere, including representative clergymen of

nearly every denomination, this Conference may well feel that it satisfies a want and promotes a cause of the greatest interest to those whose lives are being devoted to human betterment through religious and social as well as governmental channels.

Since the year 1876, when the first National Conference of Charities and Corrections was held in the city of Chicago, that body has been holding annual sessions in the principal cities throughout the United States; and during this period many of the States have organized Conferences of their own, dealing more especially with home conditions and institutions. The work of these Conferences has proven to be of such value that last year there were about twenty State Conferences in addition to the National Conference of Charities and Corrections.

But while the argument from the growth and development of Conference work throughout the country is important, the New Jersey State Conference of Charities and Corrections does not need to rely upon that alone to commend it to official and popular favor. An argument drawn from internal sources, of the essential value of a thing, is perhaps the best. Hence, as most appropriate for this opening meeting, we shall consider the value of the Conference as a New Jersey institution from different standpoints and relationships. As you listen to the addresses which are to be made this afternoon under various titles, it is safe to say that this theme will be found to be in constant evidence by reason of the nature of the subjects under discussion. The dominant note, therefore, of this meeting is the value of the Conference, and we hope to so convince you of its value that many of you will be induced to join with us in the regular work of the Conference for the next few days.

From the standpoint of the Conference I look backward and I look forward. The first Conference in the city of Trenton, in the year 1902, was in the nature of a gathering of representatives from the various charitable and correctional institutions in the State, who reported to each other and to the Conference the nature and character of the work in which they were engaged, and thus created a community of interest between themselves and the Conference, which has induced them to come to these meetings year after year in order to benefit from the public and

private discussions of questions pertaining to the advancement of their work. It has been remarked that not the least advantage to be gained by persons attending these Conferences is that of meeting others in the intervals of the Conference sessions, who are interested in work or questions of a similar character, so that there is often evoked from a casual conversation with a fellow visitor, as much good as will fully compensate one for visiting the Conference. But besides making known the institutional work of the State at this first Conference, there were addresses made along other lines in keeping with the work of the Conference; and notable among these addresses was one on the subject of "The Probation System and Penal Reform," by the Hon. John Franklin Fort. It was Judge Fort who emitted the first great plea for probation in this State, at a time when the principle of probation, though enacted into law, was hanging in the balance, for lack of understanding of its real meaning and potency for good. It was that address which placed our probation system upon a sure and lasting foundation, and it to-day stands as a classic in the literature of penal reform. In saying this, however, we must not forget that other noble address delivered two years later by the now lamented Dr. Charlton T. Lewis, before the Conference at Atlantic City, in which he showed the principle of probation to be latent in human conduct, but as lying dormant for social purposes until caught up and incorporated into our penal system with the most admirable results. Both these addresses were valuable contributions to the movement in favor of probation. And here let me say also that the Conference is under lasting obligations to the Hon. Edward C. Stokes, for his masterly address in Atlantic City four years ago on "The State's Duty to its Dependents," and for his wise and eloquent words in Trenton in 1905, and in Newark in 1906. His counsel and official attitude to the Conference were of the greatest value in the past, and his presence here to-day, in the place of Governor Fort, is warmly appreciated.

To understand the nature and trend of Conference work in this State from the beginning in 1902 to the present time, one would have to examine the printed proceedings themselves. There is time only to indicate a few of the subjects already dis-

cussed, and which continue to be of great importance and growing interest. The work of overseers of the poor was one that received the earliest attention. The principles and practices of this form of public work throughout the State, and its true relationship with other forms of social activity, with a view to ascertaining its value and necessary limitations have been discussed in several of these Conferences. The question of poverty in the various communities, and how best to deal with it without further injury to those already its victims, treated from the standpoint of organized and co-operative charity, is one that has called for serious and renewed discussion and continues to be of such importance that it will form the title of an entire section at this Conference.

The ever recurrent subject of State care of defectives has come up for discussion in all its phases at these Conference gatherings.

The populations of our institutions for the insane, the feeble-minded and the epileptic are constantly increasing, which fact indicates one of the most serious problems with which the State has to deal. The conditions of modern life are said to be responsible for the manifest increase of insanity and allied maladies. This means that the evil must be attacked on its preventive side, and men and women must be prepared and trained from youth up to cope with the exigencies of modern life. The State is confronted with the problem in the school life of the child, which affords the earliest and best opportunity for dealing with its solution in a direct manner. In community and industrial life, the State's duty is indirect, but none the less necessary, in as much as laws have to do with environment and the maintenance of normal conditions in the social body. As to preventive work along educational lines a good beginning has already been made, as witness the present effort of the New Jersey State Teachers' Association, to collect data from every part of the State bearing upon the subject. Whether this points to the necessity of special schools for defective children, such as are established in the city of New York, remains to be seen. Perhaps we shall hear something of this matter under our Conference section concerning children.

The last and most acute stage of the problem concerning defectives is that in which the State is obliged to take them over for institutional care and treatment. This work, as already said, in point of numbers is constantly increasing, and as manifested by the reports of our State institutions calls for larger equipment and increased financial support. And with all this there is a feeling that at least one new State institution should be added to those already in existence. We have therefore, among other things, the whole problem of defectives before us, and an entire section of this Conference will be given over for its discussion. The question of State care alone looms larger than ever before, and it should be the work of this Conference, if possible, to enlighten and stimulate public interest both with regard to the internal efficiency of the State's institutional work, and the proper measure of financial support which that work demands from the hands of our legislators. If the joint committees of the Legislature would only visit and make a serious study of the State institutions assigned to them for examination, and if the committee on appropriations would make use of the data thus acquired, and all other available information necessary for a full and proper understanding of the necessities of such institutions and the essential value of their work, it is believed that something like adequate provision for them could and would be made.

This applies also to institutions other than those for the care of defectives. Larger demands than ever before will be made upon the present Legislature for the support of State institutional work; and when it is remembered that the appropriations asked are partly intended to meet acute conditions which have long been ignored, and when it is seen that along certain lines State care is necessarily increasing, and therefore requires additional equipment and support, it ought to be evident that "slashing" is not the whole duty of the committee on appropriations. We might invoke a business principle and say that it is often false economy. No doubt there are essentials and non-essentials mixed up in this demand for State support, and therefore there must be discrimination and admeasurement of values as well as a consideration of the means in hand, but essentials cannot be ignored,

and hence within the limits which they impose no effort or available means should be spared to render State support adequate. I am taking the liberty of referring especially to this matter, as it was the original intention of the program committee to arrange for an entire section on "The Question of Adequacy in the State Care of Defectives," with special reference to the difficulty experienced by many persons who try without avail to have defectives of the more acute types taken over by the State for institutional care. From this standpoint we had thought to approach the question of adequacy, and, after hearing what methods and systems had to do with it, would no doubt have been led up to the question of State support as the real crux of the difficulty. The program for the section on "defectives" has for urgent reasons taken a more general form, but let us trust that it has not entirely lost the emphasis originally intended, and that the State may be induced to heed the cry of its institutions for help.

This Conference is essentially a forum of the people, and as such it discusses questions of vital importance to the various communities and to the State. Social problems can be solved only by the social mind. The individual may help in these solutions but his conclusions will be of no practical value until they have beeen incorporated into that community of thought which is ever striving for a clearer comprehension of social needs. And when this collective thinking has done its work—when the solution has been reached—there is no power in the world that can destroy the principle or proposition which embodies such a conclusion. Moreover, these solutions are dynamic in character, and will not rest until they have reached the stage of constructive reality. You will remember the years of debate and deliberation over the question of sheriffs' fees, the indeterminate sentence and probation, juvenile courts, child-labor and tenement house reform, and the supervision of charities. And you will remember also how upon the solution of each of these problems the proposition so evolved, with militant and clamorous insistance fought for and finally obtained embodiment in legal enactment. And there are other equally well settled propositions which are working towards a like fulfillment. It is now

five years since the question was raised in this Conference of of these Conference meetings. The public has laid hold upon time it has been frequently discussed both inside and outside the problem and has solved it. It remains only to put the solution into effect; and unless all signs of the times are deceptive, the next achievement of New Jersey's proverbial justice will be a woman's reformatory.

Are there other problems to solve, and can you, my friends, assist in their solution? Take up the program of this Conference and run your eye over the subjects to be discussed during the next two days. It is safe to say that there are propositions underlying much of this subject matter which, if they could be brought to light at once, would set the civilization of this State ahead by at least a quarter of a century. But we cannot expect results without work, and time itself is an important factor in the solution of social problems. What we can all do is to apply ourselves to this work as opportunity may offer; and the object of these Conference gatherings is to afford just such opportunities: for the expert who least of all is sure of his ground until it has been tramped on and tested by those who know conditions better than theories; for the worker whose methods must be brought to the test of a wider experience, that they may gain in scientific value; for public officials and others whose duties in anywise touch on the safety and welfare of the people; and for the plain citizen whose routine of life must have many points of contact with the problems here discussed—for all these the Conference affords an opportunity for social service of the greatest value, in as much as those who participate in its proceedings, either by active discussion or attentive interest, will carry out with them into the wider circle of community life, some of the inspirations here received, and a better understanding of problems vital to the public weal, and which in their last analysis must be sifted and solved by the people. To make way for these solutions is the aim of the Conference, and to hasten the day when they shall influence and regulate the affairs of men in their civic and social relations, is the ideal towards which the Conference moves,

and for which its members are working. Herein lies the value of the Conference.

THE PRESIDENT—I have now the honor and pleasure of introducing one who needs no introduction, with whose work and efficiency as Governor of this State we are all familiar, and to whom we are grateful for his presence here to-day, the Honorable Edward C. Stokes.

The State and Her Defectives.

BY HON. E. C. STOKES.

I do not want to pose this afternoon as an impostor. I come here simply as a plain, ordinary substitute, without any of the glamour and, what is most to be regretted, without any of the emoluments of office. (Laughter.) Before I became Governor, I represented Governors on sundry occasions, and since I have laid aside the mantle, I find myself this afternoon in the same position. Governor Fort is detained at Atlantic City, doubtless engaged in the work of reformation. He has sent me here to extend his greetings to you who are engaged in the most important work of the day. The problems which you are to discuss are the real live issues of the hour, and I would they were so in the public mind. I often regret that the splendid energy spent in so-called business and political reform is not spent, at least in part, in the work of helping to improve the condition of our unfortunate fellow man. We denounce corporate greed; we demand legislation to regulate enterprise. We make bosses a political issue; but these are all trifling matters in comparison with the great danger which threatens us in the increase of the epileptic, the feeble minded, the insane, the criminal, and the wrongdoer. We talk glibly about reform, and the world applauds; but every humanitarian institution we build, and every prison and reformatory we erect, is a monument to the internal weakness and decay of society, and that true reform, the reform of the individual, the development of the normal man and woman, is yet sadly neglected. It is only fair to say that although I am here

this afternoon as a substitute, that I alone am responsible for my own views, and that the excellent Chief Executive whom I represent must not be held accountable for what I say.

Our civilization must solve problems to-day that civilization heretofore has always been able to avoid. In the western course of empire, many of the evils and burdens of society were left behind in the onward march of migration. Whenever the population became too congested, whenever the evils became too great and too difficult to solve, civilization packed its grip and moved on to new fields, there to start anew the work of existence. That remedy is now impossible. We have circled the globe in our journey. We have reached the last stopping place, and we cannot evade the evils that beset us by leaving them behind and moving on. We must do what our predecessors have not done; solve our problems or die. As population increases, the number of its afflicted members multiply.

The violation of the laws of morality and health induced often by too strenuous standards of living, by too strenuous ambitions by absurd social functions, and late hours, by innumerable banquets and long course dinners, the relic of the barbarism of the German forest, by a desire to live better than our neighbors and to have luxuries in our homes while we have mortgages on our houses (laughter); all these have multiplied the number of defectives and increased the number of wrong-doers. The problem of caring for these unfortunates is a grave one, not only from the economic, but from the humanitarian aspect. "Thou art thy brother's keeper," assumes a new significance when we look into the face of the epileptic and the feeble minded, the insane, the criminal and the wrong-doer. Father Foy spoke about the appropriations necessary for this work. Last year the State of New Jersey spent $1,041,000 upon its charities, and upon its penal and reform institutions over $658,000, a total of $1,700,000. That is 40 per cent of its total State expenditure.

In other words, New Jersey is spending for charitable and correctional purposes three times what, as a State, it expends for purposes of education—to train those upon whom its very existence depends. Of course, the money spent by the State for edu-

cation does not measure the total sum spent for this purpose from all sources, nor does the sum spent by the State for charitable and correctional purposes measure the total sum spent for these purposes from all sources; so that the comparison of three to one is sufficiently accurate to furnish a text for the student of social economy. The expenditure for charitable purposes last year was divided as follows:

State asylums,	$508,000 00
County hospitals,	240,000 00
For Feeble-minded women and children,	147,000 00
Sanitarium for tuberculosis,	70,000 00
Village for epileptics,	59,000 00
Board of children's guardians,	
Soldiers' homes,	49,000 00

Nor does this close the chapter. There are continuous calls for new institutions and demands for the enlargement of old institutions. Our State's prison has a capacity of 1,250, with a population of 1,251; and the apartment there for women, as Mr. Osborne, who is here, will tell you, is utterly inadequate. Our Reformatory has a capacity of 256, with a population of 503. The State Hospital at Trenton has a capacity of 1,250, with a population of 1,263. Morris Plains has a capacity of 1,800, with a population of 1,824. The Boys' Home at Jamesburg, with a capacity of 475 inmates, is now full. The same may be said of the Girls' Industrial School at Trenton. The Epileptic Village has a capacity of 275, with a population of 231. The Home for Feeble-Minded Women at Vineland will accomodate 180; the present population is 170. The Sanitorium for Tuberculous Patients has a capacity of 104, and already 65 patients are being cared for at the institution.

This picture tells its own story. Every available space is full, and the cry is: Still they come. This list does not include the municipal and private institutions engaged in this work. In 1892 the State paid to the counties for county asylums $110,000; today it pays $240,000, showing a tremendous increase in the number of insane.

Attention was recently called in a State paper to the fact that the available balance in the State Treasury was half a million dollars, the lowest it has been in years. Since then the available balance has fallen to $340,000. Unless the money now devoted to education is diverted therefrom, or new sources of revenue found, it will be impossible for the State to build new institutions, no matter how much a woman's reformatory is needed; and impossible for the State to add largely to the expenditure now made for correction and charitable institutions. A State that spends 40 per cent. of its total expenditure for this purpose, cannot be said to be negligent or indifferent, and has upon its hands a problem worthy of the most careful thought and consideration. Indeed the generosity with which the State cares for its unfortunates I sometimes fancy encourages a lack of individual responsibility. You know that if the State is willing to do something for us, we are not very apt to do it for ourselves, but individuals have responsibility as well as the State. Society has a right to demand something of the parents and relatives of dependents, and to a certain extent of the parents of delinquents. There are doubtless in our institutions to-day numbers supported by the State who ought to be supported in part or whole by their parents or relatives. The Commissioner of Charity is now investigating this subject, arranging a card index and ascertaining the responsibility of relatives and parents. At any rate, the first means of relief should be to hold the individual to strict accountability for the support of dependents wherever the individual's circumstances warrant. I would apply that same principle to youthful offenders. Let the parents of such, wherever they can, help support their children at the Rahway Reformatory, at the Girls' Home at Trenton, at the Boys' School at Jamesburg. The law awards damages to parents in case of injury to daughter or son; why, on the contrary, should not parents be partly responsible when their children prove an injury to the general welfare and when they become such a nuisance as to require incarceration? Now this provision would be entirely practicable and it would insure a certain amount of parental responsibility and prevent that crime among young boys and girls that grows out of parental indifference and neglect.

This is not an age of reform. We sometimes think it is, but it is not. It is an age of criticism, of fault-finding, of exposure, but not an age of remedy. That's the last thing we think of. We are all affected by atmospheric conditions, and in this work that grows out of the kindness of our hearts, we are continually devising ways for the care of our unfortunates and our wrong-doers without devising means. Prevention is one of the aspects that we must study in this connection. There are three phases, if I understand it, in connection with this problem. So far charitable organizations and the State have confined their attention largely to the first two. The first is the proper care of unfortunates and the proper incarceration of our criminals. The second is the improvement of our unfortunates and the reformation of our criminals, and the third step is that of prevention. The first two now occupy the attention and thought of philanthropic men and women and of the legislators of the State. It is a trite but true saying, that it is better to build a fence at the top of a precipice than to have an ambulance at the bottom of the abyss. Prevention can only come after a study of causes, and the time has arrived for a systematic and scientific investigation of the causes of dependency and wrong doing. If a disease attacks the community, we take means to check it, to prevent its spread; if the scale affects our fruit trees, government and the State employ the best experts to ascertain the cause and devise a remedy; if insects of any kind affect the crops, the best minds are employed to stay the ravages; why then should we not exercise the same protection in connection with moral degeneracy, and dependency? Is it not important to prevent an increase of these physical diseases? Is there anything more important than preventing the increase of the abnormal and helpless members of society? This State has had commissions on almost every subject; on corporations, on primary elections, on water and mosquitoes; but it has never had a commission to investigate the causes of moral degeneracy, dependency and wrong doing, which are costing it to-day 40 per cent. of its expenditures, and eating into the vitals of our civilization. Why not a commission on this phase of governmental activity? a commission to investigate the causes and give us the remedy. How far, for

instance, does the use of alcoholic beverages create a tendency to wrong doing? How far is the lack of home training a contributing cause? How far is the congestion of population in our thickly settled cities a factor? To what extent is emigration responsible? How far is a false penal system, a wrong system of punishment likely, not to reform but to harden, the erring and make them outcasts and enemies to society? These and similar queries are worthy, my friends, of the attention of those who are interested in charity and penology, and certainly worthy of the attention of the State which is maintaining a corps of officers and officials to keep some of its members from injuring others of its members. You have been to some of our State institutions. They are splendidly managed and doing an excellent work. Do you ever go there and not feel an ache in the heart and tears in the eyes? Would it not be a blessing if there were no necessity for these institutions? Would it not be a Godsend if the population in our reformatories could be reduced? Is not the subject of prevention worthy of attention?

Now the State is taking up the work of prevention in a spasmodic way. The Tenement House Commission found conditions that breed disease and moral degeneracy. They found people living in rooms without sunlight, with poor ventilation, noxious atmosphere and unsanitary conditions. Here is one of the sources of our social ills; and be it said to the credit of this commission that it has greatly improved those conditions and laid down rules and regulations that make tenement houses fit for habitation, causing them to comply with the laws of hygiene. This magnificent, yet modest and almost unknown work, is being carried on under a salutary law under which the State sees to the living conditions of its citizens.

Twenty per cent. of the citizens of New Jersey are foreign born. They come here from all lands and from every clime and from every flag. They land here in a strange country. They are ignorant of our institutions, our laws and methods of living; they are at the mercy of every rascal who wants to cheat and defraud and mislead them, and New Jersey is the first State to take up this important question. For is it not likely that these strangers, who come to our State free from the influence of home ties in an

unknown land, without guidance, will be guilty of wrong doing and become helpless members of society? Our Legislature proposes to establish a school to teach these new comers in their own language our laws and the meaning of our institutions, our ideas of right and wrong.

The State is making a third effort in the way of prevention to which reference has been made by Father Foy. Our probation system endeavors to correct the erring and keep them out of the criminal class.

These three efforts on the part of the State for prevention do not exhaust the field of research and inquiry. We shall not solve this tremendous problem until we approach it from the point of view of scientific prevention. I know our State is doing good work. We have magnificent institutions caring for their inmates in a comfortable and almost luxurious way. I am proud of the men and women of New Jersey who give their services and their hearts to this work; but I plead for a further step. I want a commission appointed of competent membership, interested in the work, able to perform their duty, with lawyers, doctors and statisticians and specialists to thoroughly investigate this subject and devise a remedy. Then let some of the money spent by the State be spent in the way of prevention, that the number of our unfortunates may decrease every year. Think of it for a moment. Is it a wise policy for statemanship to be simply pouring out money in the way of charity without making any effort to check the growing and increasing drain? I am well aware that it is difficult to enlist the interest of the public in these propositions. It is a popular thing to attack a corporation. It puts you in the public eye; but the men and women engaged in this work so modestly have only the consciousness of doing good. This problem will never be grasped by the public until they know the facts; not until there is revealed to the people of this State the number of dependents and wrong-doers and their rapid increase will they ever grapple with the subject in a practical way. Where better could the movement for such a commission come from than from this Conference? Why not recommend it to the present Legislature and have a commission appointed to report next year or the next, and commence to take hold of the work in a sensible way?

I know something about the services of those connected with the Association. I know something of their work as a member of the Legislature; I know something of their sincerity and interest, as the chief executive of this State. All honor to the noble men and women so engaged. After all, the greatest happiness that can come to our hearts is that of doing something for the good of our fellows. If we can improve the defects of nature; if we can give sight to the blind, ears to the deaf, speech to the mute, intellect to the feeble minded, comfort and peace to the insane, we should realize something of Portia's description of mercy: "It blesses him that takes and him that gives." And if we could go a step further and prevent these unfortunate conditions; if we could prevent our fellow-men from doing wrong; if we could reduce the number of unfortunates, and defectives and dependents and make them all normal men and women that they might walk upright in the sight of men and God, if our reward was not the applause of the public, it would be the greatest and sweetest reward that comes to the heart as we hear the Divine voice saying, "Inasmuch as ye have done it unto the least of these, ye have done it unto me."

PRESIDENT FOY—We can conceive of no better representative speaker than one whose largeness of view and breadth of interest have made him well known in these matters. I have pleasure in introducing Rabbi Solomon Foster.

"The People and the Conference."

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: Our Governor has shown himself to be also a wise physician. He has given us a clear diagnosis of the evil conditions of our time. I count myself fortunate in having this opportunity to present a possible solution of the evils that afflict us. It is, in a word, in the subject which has been assigned to me for discussion this afternoon: "The People and the Conference." If we can get the people to know all that we know, will not all our ills in time be eliminated absolutely? Our whole problem then is to teach the people that which we feel so deeply.

This is a new note in the symphony of the ages, the note of democracy, the value of the people. It is a note which many critics have hitherto considered a discord, a disharmony; but we now recognize that only as the people in harmony with their leaders work together can we achieve any progress whatsoever. In the great poems of the day, the effort is made to appeal to the heart of the people. In the great books that come to us from our great writers of the present, the dominant motive is to reach the heart and minds of the people. This law holds in art and literature and in our legislation; it is so in all kinds of reform. We find that the representative men of the world are those who can best voice the sentiments and emotions of the people. Our great country is great simply because of the spirit of the people. Our climate is not very different from the climate in other lands; our resources are not so much richer than can be found in other soils; but the heart of the American people, the spirit of our democracy, the enthusiasm of the people altogether, have achieved for us the wonderful results of our civilization.

Is it not most appropriate, therefore, that at such a meeting, in such a Conference, we should consider most seriously the connection between the people and the Conference? The people do not exist for the sake of the Conference; but the Conference does exist primarily and only for the benefit of the people.

What do the people expect of the Conference? Not a debating society manifestly, but a Conference in which the views of scientific workers shall be exchanged; in which experiences shall be sifted as formulated in axiomatic truths appealing to the people, so that they will adopt as rules of their life the social laws discovered by this Conference. This Conference, then, is a clearing house in which all these facts shall be gathered together and sifted and carefully formulated, and through the influence of the members sent forth as efficient agents for the advance of civilization. People should look to this Conference as to an ideal social corporation. The business corporations have been organized primarily for the purpose of handling more efficiently the vast resources of our country, and of properly distributing these resources to the people at large. Their motive

is selfish, however. This Conference in another sphere and in an unselfish way can be of service to the people at large in organizing the social spirit in its most effective form, organizing for the people vast social and moral resources which have as yet been almost undiscovered and quite undeveloped. Just as the physical resources of our country have not yet been even tested to any extent, so the spiritual and social resources of the people have scarcely been touched at all. Here and there in the land we find gold and silver and copper mines, but they represent only slight efforts, after all, of the business enterprise of the nation. This Conference can best serve the people by organizing a social corporation which shall dig into the hearts of the people and find the virtues which they possess and carefully formulate them into all kinds of worthy and proper reforms.

The people look toward this Conference as an association that shall bring about a healthy condition in the economic realm, a condition that shall make justice the dominant note of our day and not charity. The people feel deeply the injustice of our economic conditions. We have many charitable institutions, most of them moved by the highest aspirations, doing conscientious service; but the people at large need more justice; they need a larger wage rather than the permission to end their days in the almshouse; the people need more decent conditions of living than they do flower pots and soup houses and the like. This Conference can sound that higher note of justice and charity.

The people look to this Conference as to a platform upon which the best people of the country unite for a better condition in every possible sphere, especially of our governmental life. We find here and there the people divided—the rich against the poor, the weak divided from the strong; we find ourselves circumscribed by religious convictions, by political tendencies, by the force of capital against labor. What we need today in our country is a union of social forces that shall rise superior to and carry us beyond these narrow lines and limitations. To-day it is the special spirit which calls to us, and it will prove more effective than any of the appeals of the ancient world, in uniting men who, beyond the confines of their religion, have great

issues in common. We need to have this social spirit so that the ideal of each one shall be that the true value of life is not what he gets out of life for himself, but that which he puts into life for the benefit of all. Will the Conference be able to win from the people their loyal support and active interest? It depends upon the Conference. The people are ready to lend themselves when the appeal is made conscientiously and scientifically. The people are waiting for the proper note. Let this Conference sound it, and they will respond. In conclusion I would call to your mind a scene from the book of Deuteronomy which would most effectively describe the function of this Conference in its attitude toward the people. The children of Israel were assembled at the foot of Mt. Gerizem and Mt. Ebal, the sanctuary resting in the valley. Upon either side of the mountain the tribes were assembled. Encircling the sanctuary were the Levites, the priests, the elders, the judges and the people. As the elders in the midst of the people sounded the high note of religious principle, of social duties, reverberating from the sides of the mountain came the answer of the people: "Amen. So may it be." When this Conference shall enunciate the higher principles of philanthrophy and justice, we shall find that the people encircling the Conference will respond with an enthusiastic answer: "Amen. So may it be." I thank you.

PRESIDENT FOY—After listening to these remarks and hearing the words of the next speaker you will see that religious divisions are of no consequence as far as this Conference is concerned. I have pleasure in introducing Rev. Cornelius Clifford.

Charity and the Churches.

May I be permitted to say a word as to what it is that I represent? While for the past three years, the term of my residence in New Jersey, I have been interested in the excellent work that is being done by the Conference of Charities and Correction, I have had no official connection with it whatever; nor, indeed, am I likely to have. Yet I can hardly be indifferent either to its re-

sults or its ideals, whether as a citizen or as a native of this country, or as a clergyman of a venerable and historic church. When the invitation to address you reached me, I naturally asked myself what possible contribution I could make to a program such as yours. I am not a specialist in these grave matters and have, I trust, the plain man's sense of his limitations. And having listened to the excellent summary of plans outlined by Ex-Governor Stokes, and to the eloquent appeal of my predecessor, the Rabbi Foster, I feel there is a certain temerity in venturing to address you at all upon a topic about which many of you, I dare say, could instruct me to some purpose on its technical and statistical size. I am here this afternoon to represent the churches. Of course, it is a new and altogether wonderful thing that a clergyman of my cloth and confessional color should be allowed to represent the many churches in the plural, rather than the one church for which he was ordained to minister and to speak. It marks a step forward and one which I sincerely appreciate, I hope, at its right value. I think half the trouble of this controversial world, as a great religious teacher of our times, the late Cardinal Newman, has told us, comes from mutual misunderstanding. And on this very matter of the social problems of our times, there is deep down in the heart of the plain sociologist a lurking mistrust of the clergyman and his methods. Many are under the impression that he represents a past which should disappear from our modern life, a past in which pedantry and bigotry, and the unlovely thing that we call *odium theologicum* have entered too largely into the discussion of problems which call for practical sense. You know these things, doubtless, as well as I do; and yet I believe that the clergyman, whatever his particular creed may be, still represents a conditions of things, a set of ideas, which the specialist, the sociologist, the philosopher, the State, even, can hardly afford to ignore. He represents what, for lack of a better name, I must call the old-fashioned idea of charity. For charity is not, after all, an abstraction; it is a concrete, definite and most urgent thing. It does not deal bureaucratically altogether with men in masses and battalions, but with the separate and individual man. It feels instinctively that there

is nothing more insistent, nothing more precious, than the individual soul.

The great difficulty in the past has been—let me say it with all candor—that the clergyman has too often used this urgent business of charity to compass narrow, sectarian and unlovely ends. Yet if we think about charity wisely, the first thing that we observe about it is that it is a virtue that knows no barriers of race, of color, or of creed. The great Founder of our religion, whom my Jewish friend will surely give me leave to cite this afternoon —although I should scorn as a man to take occasion here to carry on a furtive propaganda of ideas which you do not wish to have discussed—has reminded us that we are all children of a common Father, and that there is neither Jew nor Gentile, Greek nor Barbarian, neither bond nor free in Him, as St. Paul insists. We have all a lesson to learn from Christ, whatever our historic reading of His life may be. I appeal to you then this afternoon to consider the claims of the churches, and to examine the lesson that they have to teach the sociologist. It is the churches that witness efficiently to the deep psychological truth that when men are in want, it is not with a theory that one must go out to them, or with a sheet of paper covered all over with impressive figures, or with a dole only in the hand, but with living, human love first of all in the heart. That is the truth that the churches, with all their supposed short-comings, still embody, and they enforce it, each in its own order, conscientiously, highmindedly, most unselfishly. Even in the Jewish Church of the Christian days, to which we may trace the magnificent traditions of charity which prove us all akin, we know that this was the way in which charity was administered from the beginning.

A priest of my acquaintance, who was intrusted some months ago by the Archbishop of New York with the oversight of charitable and missionary work among the wastrels of the Bowery, told me that after two weeks' residence there that he had learned a lesson of practical cynicism, that sat, as I thought, very ungracefully on his naturally kind countenance. He had picked up the argot and the dialect of the unfortunates with whom he had been thrown into contact, and when I ventured to protest against

his speaking of these people in the jocular terms he affected to employ, he said, "Father, if you could only learn the lesson that I have learned, you too would give up this beautiful but foolish belief of the sentimentalists and accept the despotism of hard facts." "What are the facts?" I asked. "I have discovered," he said, "from my own researches, that out of all those who come down to this mission, just two per cent. belong to the city of New York and have a claim on the services of the city's officials. The other 98 per cent. come to us from without. But worse is yet to tell," he added, "for of all those who approach us for assistance about one and one-third per cent. are genuine cases of misfortune."

The figures were certainly impressive, and I quote them by way of illustrating a second practical observation, which seems to be to our present purpose in a meeting like this. It is the equally grave lesson that the clergyman has much to learn from the scientific sociologist. I believe the greatest harm is done to the cause of genuine charity by charlatans and humbugs. Every good priest, and every conscientious minister in the United States should set his face like flint against the beggar who comes to him with a plausible lie, hoping to get a dole under cover of religion.

The sociologist then needs the churches quite as much as the churches would seem to need the sociologist. We must learn to coördinate the two lessons. One is the counterpart of the other; and true wisdom consists in allowing for both in all our plans—State-organized or Church-organized. It is by this interchange of practical experience, of mind with mind, of personality with personality, that whatever evil can be put down will be put down ultimately in intelligent wise. We shall not have the sorry spectacle of a number of good and sincerely charitable people putting their hands into their pockets for contributions to good causes, and then seeing them wasted on the undeserving.

But we must go a step further. If, on the other hand, the sociologist will learn a lesson from the clergyman, and the clergyman and the sociologist both together succeed in pooling their ideas, the public at large will learn the vital truth that there is

nothing so strong, is nothing that goes so completely to the general mind of all philanthropic mankind as the visible and yet scientific embodiment of the desire to help of which I spoke in the beginning. This is true civilization, and it is the ideal, surely, at which the Church not less than the State is sincerely aiming. Ideas, we need constantly to remember, are always profounder than our current reading of them. Many things have changed since the ideas that you and I are devoted to were first put forth. We use the word "Church," though not any two of us agree all in all as to what we mean. And the word "charity" likewise has its recondite implications which may finally justify our blind but optimistic faith in its efficiency.

Who are we that we should stand over against our fellows and refuse to take part in a fellowship of all the wise and the good of every school? We Catholics know that there never was a charitable problem in England before the great religious revolution of the sixteenth century, or in France until Christian men forgot their duties in the terrible era that ushered in the changes of a century or more ago. There is this inference, however, to be drawn from both crises, that where men are dealt with sincerely, and not as colorless abstractions, dealt with in the completeness of their personality, not as machines or units out of whom so much gain can be got for the State, but as persons having rights that the State must recognize, though many of them be rights that the State cannot provide for, our problems will not be as acute as they have hitherto been. The modern problem of charity is the result not of any change in religious thinking, I should say, but of industrial causes. For myself, I believe that a great deal of the actual sorrow of the poor comes from our mistaken notions of education. Every child, I speak as a citizen and as a priest, has a right to the fuller and more living truth. It has a right not to be starved of those deeper, holier principles which the State, owing to its wise self-limitations, can never impart. Unfortunately we are afraid of each other, we men of religion, and we are perpetually misunderstanding each other. The Catholic is afraid of the Baptist or the Presbyterian, and the Presbyterian is afraid of the Episcopalian and the Cath-

olic. So do we stand, each of us dragging at his own rope and refusing to make that unselfish contribution to the general good which the State has a right to expect from us. In the measure that we come to understand each other, as we are trying to do this afternoon, in that measure shall we understand likewise the graver causes of the evils at which we are all dismayed.

This may not at first sight seem very definite. It may read like a too cryptic and somewhat summary way of describing what I mean by the "churches" and what I mean by "charity." But it is a consoling thing, surely, that a Catholic priest should be invited to speak about such a matter at all before a New Jersey audience this afternoon. Remember, then, that in dealing with our fellow-men we are dealing with individual souls, and that as clergymen we must put aside all these narrow barriers that divide us, bearing in mind that He who sent us out to do our work first went before us in that way, healing the bodies of men, before He said anything about their souls. The man who would take advantage of any system of organized charity to preach his own religious tenets, or to propagate the claims of his own sect—I speak as a Catholic—is guilty of a dishonest act. I have no official pronouncement for my own church to utter, but I declare, and I think I can speak from some experience on the point, that all propagandism when charity is in question is a thing to be viewed with suspicion. When the Irish peasants of sixty years ago were starving in their own land, they preferred to die rather than accept the daily dole offered them by a good woman and an unfortunate clergyman, who had foolishly made it the condition of their help that the attendance at the Protestant Church should follow upon the gift. I confess to a feeling of indignation, though I will not judge those who ventured upon so questionable a form of relief. The Catholic theologian and, indeed, all honest men will add their conviction that such a course is not only disgraceful but immoral, for to attempt to make converts by the promise of material gain is the worst form of religious debauchery. That is the only message that I have to give to you to-day, and I have given it quite frankly, while thanking you for the patience and the courtesy with which you have listened to me.

PRESIDENT FOY—Among the good things bequeathed to New Jersey by the late administration was a Department of Charities and Corrections, and we are favored by having with us to-day the appointee of Governor Stokes as head of that department, the Hon. Geo. B. Wight, the present Commissioner of Charities, whom I have the honor to introduce:

State Supervision of Charities in New Jersey.

BY COMMISSIONER GEORGE B. WIGHT.

Representing the Department of Charities and Corrections of New Jersey, I am requested to address you upon the State's supervision of its charities, a topic of much practical importance, but which at this hour can be but briefly considered.

The State's charitable institutions and the number of their inmates are as follows:

State Insane Hospital—Trenton,	1,263	
State Insane Hospital—Morris Plains,	1,824	
County asylums,	2,542	
		5,629
Home for Feeble-Minded Women	170	
School for Feeble-Minded Children,	307	
Feeble-Minded Boys maintained at Elwyn, Pa.,	2	
		479
Epileptic Village,		231
Tuberculosis Sanitorium,		65
Blind children cared for in New York,	18	
Blind children cared for in Philadelphia,	17	
		35
Dependent Soldiers, Kearny,	538	
Dependent Soldiers, Wives and Widows, Vineland,	195	
		733
Total State wards or patients,		7,172

For the maintenance of these wards or patients, and for material betterment, the State appropriated last year $1,041,000, the expenditure of which is necessarily a matter of public concern.

These institutions, as you well know, are managed by non-partisan boards, composed of prominent citizens of the State, who serve without compensation, and I desire to say, after careful investigation, that I am satisfied their management is intelligent, correct, and free from political influences.

These boards appoint their own executive officers, with the approval of the Governor, hold stated and frequent business meetings, order purchases, audit and pass upon bills, and exercise constant supervision over their respective institutions, and make an annual report to the Governor.

Another form of State supervision is by the Joint Committees of the Legislature, who are appointed to visit the institutions and report their condition and needs. These committees, as indeed are all the members of the Legislature, are empowered by law to visit and examine any and all of the State institutions. Perhaps in late years this inspection may have been perfunctory to some extent, but it can easily be a very effective method of State supervision.

In 1905 the Legislature created the Department of Charities and Corrections, with a Commissioner, whose duty it is, among other things, to exercise close supervision over the charitable and correctional institutions of the State, and wherever State funds are appropriated for such purposes.

As Commissioner, I am expected to visit all the institutions as often as necessary, to learn their needs, to acquaint myself with the statutes governing them, to know their methods and work, and to recommend to the attention of the governing bodies whatever will tend to increase their efficiency, and at the same time to see that the State is not imposed upon, but receives good value for the money it expends upon them. And I claim this is being done.

But the supervision must go further. These thousands of patients and wards are largely incapable of caring for themselves, and the State has undertaken to do so. It must provide for them suitable buildings, with proper sanitary equipments, fire escapes and fire apparatus, good beds, food, clothing, medical attendance, and, in a word, every care and attention which their condition requires. This calls for a thoroughly

equiped medical department, the purchase of beds and bedding, proper food and its proper preparation, for kitchens, bakeries, storehouses and butcher shops, cold storage, laundries, with numerous other important facilities.

The respective institutions are supplied with all of these essentials, most of them modern, but some of them of an ancient pattern, and it has been my work to personally inspect them all; flour from the barrel to the oven and the loaf; meats from the butcher shop to the table, and everything else pertaining to the management from its beginning to its completion and use.

I heartily commend the work of the Boards of Managers, men and women who have no personal advantage to gain, but who perform their duties for the sake of humanity, with credit to the State as well as to themselves. I do not contend that there is nothing to be corrected. There are several things connected with the operation of the institutions which do not meet my approval, but they are within the provisions of the law. For instance, old people are frequently sent to insane asylums, because being childish and perhaps peculiar, they are a great trouble to their children or grandchildren. Two physicians have certified that they are insane, and the Court has so adjudged. Persons addicted to drink or drug habit are committed as insane in the same regular manner, and there seems to be no remedy under present laws. I sometimes give the facts to the newspaper reporters, and publicity corrects the evil for a time. As most of these people are committed as indigents, the public pays for their maintenance. In these matters the authority of the Commissioner of Charities and Corrections is largely advisory, and I can do but little toward protecting the public from this imposition.

But I will not occupy your limited time with further remarks, only to say that the State exercises the best supervision over its charities that is possible under the circumstances, looking to those entrusted with the work to make it as increasingly efficient as its importance demands.

PRESIDENT FOY—Dr. William H. Allen was formerly the Secretary of the New Jersey State Charities Aid Association and

Editor of the New Jersey Review of Charities and Corrections, and was one of those who organized the first conference of Charities and Corrections in this State. He is now the Secretary of the Bureau of Municipal Research in New York City, and is the author of the most dynamic book of the day, "Efficient Democracy." We shall now have the pleasure of hearing from Dr. Allen, after which the Very Rev. Dean Smyth will pronounce the benediction.

The Education of Public Opinion.

BY WILLIAM H. ALLEN, PH. D., SECRETARY OF THE BUREAU OF MUNICIPAL RESEARCH.

My subject is the education of public opinion. If there is any one thing that public opinion in the United States is educated up to, it is that it shall not be detained at a public meeting after quarter to six o'clock. I shall observe that restriction.

It is only seven years since we had the first conference in New Jersey. I want to say that I have attended conferences in New York and have attended the National Conference, but I can say from my own experience of many years that I never have heard in one short session more of real genuine eloquence, more of the essential facts pertaining to charity and church work and to the education of public opinion than we have heard here this afternoon.

It is hardly necessary for me now to go on and talk about the education of public opinion, but there are two things I want to mention briefly.

One is the danger that we shall leave here without a real program as to what we individually shall do to-morrow. It is one thing to be inspired by addresses such as we have just heard; it is quite another thing to utilize that inspiration when we go to work to-morrow. We are like a coachman who lived in Bristol, and who asked his employer if he might have leave of absence for a couple of days at his own expense. He was gone four or five days. When he came back his employer was anxious to find out why he wanted to be away and at his own expense, and

with his usual delicacy asked him where he had been. He learned that he had gone to London to march in the parade of the unemployed. (Laughter.)

Now there are lots of us who feel to-night that we need to do something, but if we don't look out, we are going to go off somewhere next week and march in the parade of the unemployed.

I am particularly glad that this Conference has convened in Jersey City. Just between ourselves, people living in other cities and a few people living in Jersey City have been tempted to believe that good things could not happen in Jersey City. We have proved now that the high water mark could be reached in a conference at Jersey City.

Potentially, the most influential educator of public opinion is a public official, the most illuminating agent is the effect which comes from public experience and from such official facts as Governor Stokes and Commissioner Wight have told us. I want to suggest as a practical next step for those of us who have felt this inspiration, that we go home, and starting to-morrow that we see three things or inform ourselves about three things interesting to each one of us; say our schools, our county jail not far from this building, and our Health Department. They are things which vitally concern us and the welfare of Jersey City. What do you know about your public schools? What can you find out about them? How many entering the first year go on and through up to the eighth grade? What portion of your children, with the brains and aspiration to come here to this high school building, have the opportunity to do it? Does the school report tell how many truants there were, and how many of last year's truants are in Mrs. Alexander's care this year as probationers? Can you find out what the effect of truancy is upon the supply of crime in Jersey City?

Turn to your jail; what happens to those boys? I was told at my last visit: "We always keep women here and minors there; you never see children on this side." And at that very time a little boy came right out from the side where he was not expected to be. I had to bow myself out, and was afraid to go any further for fear I should smile at the administration. What can we find out about the effect of keeping a boy or girl or a man or

woman thirty days in the county jail? Does it affect you and the environment of your children? I believe that if you think of these questions something will happen in Jersey City.

Do the same about the Department of Health. What chance has a baby, born in January, of living to the next January, in Jersey City? In New York we found that a baby wrapped up in a bundle and left on a doorstep, under a tree, or in an ash barrel, had a better chance to live in New York city than a baby born in a tenement home and welcomed and nursed by its own mother. Why? Because the foundling was given a sanitary home and was looked out for by the State, whereas the baby in its own home was not properly cared for. The streets were dirty and unclean milk was allowed to be fed to that baby. Is this possible in Jersey City?

If I understand the meaning of the meeting this afternoon, it is that you and I shall not go to the feeble-minded home or to State prison; but we shall ask intelligent questions about various things in Jersey City which are manufacturing sickness and industrial incapacity and increasing criminality. Can we not agree that we shall begin to ask questions about these things, about our schools, our prisons, our Health Department, our charities.

A short time ago we kept the centenary of Franklin's birth. On Tuesday we have the anniversary of Lincoln's birth, and ten days later that of George Washington. Let us remember that if that dream for which Franklin, Lincoln and Washington all stand in our minds is ever coming true, it is because you and I are going to carry away the inspiration of a meeting of this kind and work it into remedies to-morrow and the day after.

Benediction was pronounced by the Very Rev. Dean Smith.

FIRST BUSINESS SESSION.

Monday Morning, February 10th, 1908.

PRESIDENT FOY—The subject for this morning is "Public Sanitation and Hygiene," and I have much pleasure in introducing to you the Chairman of the session, Mr. L. R. Thurlow, Health Officer of Plainfield, N. J.

State and Local Boards of Health in New Jersey.

BY MR. L. R. THURLOW, HEALTH OFFICER OF PLAINFIELD, N. J.

In expressing my thanks to your committee for honoring me with the chairmanship of this "Section on Public Sanitation and Hygiene," I find particular pleasure in the fact that a section of this nature and importance should be assigned to any but a physician. In the early days of State and local boards of health, the health laws were enforced almost wholly by physicians; this was only natural and proper as the work and training of a physician has been the curing of disease by removing the cause, and he naturally finds in unsanitary conditions and surroundings, a cause of disease. The practical workings of a health department is closely allied with medicine, the one dealing with the health of a community—the other, with the health of the individual.

To-day, however, you will find at the heads of a great many health departments throughout the country, laymen of a comparatively new profession—the specialist in hygiene—known as the sanitarian.

The questions which must be solved in health department work to-day are complicated, due principally to the congestion of population in our cities and towns. There are questions of administration and policy for which the average physician is little adapted, his training always having been along scientific lines with no practical work such as is necessary to make a successful executive. I do not mean by this that the successful

executive is always and only found in the sanitarian, but it seems to me that in the endless details of the administrative work of a health department, a layman, assisted by the best medical advice, on purely medical questions, is far better fitted and equipped to obtain good results than a physician alone.

To my mind, the ideal organization of a health department is like that of a business corporation: At the head, a board of directors—the Board of Health—with a president and secretary; the board acts in an advisory capacity to the general manager, the health commissioner or officer—who is responsible to the board for the workings of the entire business or department; then the heads of the various departments, men trained in their special line, who are in turn responsible to the general manager —the health commissioner or officer. The Board of Health should, I believe, consist of five members, two medical men, to advise on medical questions; a sanitary engineer, to advise on questions of water supply and sewage disposal; and two business men, men of affairs and good, sound judgment, to advise on questions of administration and policy. Of course, the health department should be removed, as far as possible, from politics.

The health commisioner or officer should be a man well versed in sanitary matters, chosen for his executive ability and common sense in enforcing the great and very broad powers of the health department. Under the health commissioner should be the men at the head of the various branches, who are skilled in their work.

I understand that in our own State at the present time, a re-organization of our State Board of Health is being contemplated —a re-organization, as recommended by Governor Fort, which will bring under one head all matters which relate to the public health. At present there are several boards whose duties could better be carried out by one well-organized health department, such as the State Sewerage Commission, the State Board of Health, and the State Water Commission; the duties of all these bodies relate to health conditions of the State. Naturally the authority and duties of these boards overlap and sometimes conflict, and under the existing conditions, no line can be drawn which will place the responsibility on any one particular board.

As an example of this, take the recent epidemic of typhoid fever at the State Asylum in Trenton: The Commissioner of Charities and Corrections, the State Board of Health, the State Sewerage Commission, and the Water Commission were all implicated, yet none of these boards or commissions, it is claimed, had the legal authority under the existing laws, to enforce any order; and that all it was possible to do under the conditions was to act in an advisory capacity. How much better it would have been if, instead of having several boards with their authority overlapping, there had been one department or commissioner responsible for the sanitary condition of this State Institution. The epidemic might then have been avoided; and had there been any negligence, one board, one man, could have been held responsible.

If this proposed re-organization is effected, I hope it will include a consolidation of the State Board of Health, the State Sewerage Commission, the State Potable Water Commission, the State Tuberculosis Commission, dealing with tuberculosis in cattle, and that portion of the Fish and Game Commission which applies to shell fish. If these bodies were merged into one, we would then have a State Department of Health that would be, not only ideal, but practical.

The members of the State Board of Health should be appointed by the Governor for a term of not less than four years, the appointment so arranged that no one Governor, unless he was re-elected, could appoint the majority of the board. They should be men who are interested in public hygiene, and who would serve without salary, as I believe stronger and more capable men can be obtained to serve on an honorary board, the salary having little attraction to them. Then too, a non-salaried board is far more likely to be free from politics.

Under this advisory board should be the health commissioner, a competent sanitarian, responsible to the Board of Health and the State. He should be appointed by the Governor, preferably with the advice and consent of a majority of the advisory board; his term of office to be not less than four years.

Then, under the direction of the health commissioner, there should be the heads of the various departments: Sewage, Water,

Contagious Diseases, Vital Statistics, Dairy Inspection, Laboratory, etc. Those in charge of these departments, as well as the men under them, should be skilled and appointed because of their fitness for their duties, and not merely for political reasons. If the health commissioner is to be held responsible for the work done by these men, he should have the power of appointing and removing them.

If our State Department of Health was organized along the lines suggested in the foregoing, one of its first duties would be a complete revision of all the health laws of the State, simplifying them, making them more practical and bringing them up to date.

Many of the present laws are excellent; for instance: the new Pure Food Act, the law licensing health officers and sanitary inspectors, the registration of vital statistics, and many others, are equal if not better, than those of other States. However, those laws relating to sewage disposal, the protection of our public water supplies, the protection of our milk supplies, the powers and duties of local boards of health, and many others, need a complete revision that will make them more concise and more practical. The work of both the State and local boards of health could then be made more effective.

One of the most important questions that would confront a health commissioner under a new organization, would be a thorough investigation of the water supply system and the methods of sewage disposal of every city and town in the State.

The growth of our cities and towns has made this question of water supply and sewage disposal, a very important one. It is difficult to find pure water supplies, and when they are found to keep them free from contamination. Epidemics of typhoid fever are occurring every year in this country, due to the negligence of the authorities to properly protect the water supplies. This work should be under the control of the State health commissioner, who, with the aid of a well-equipped laboratory and trained assistants, could investigate the conditions in this State and give advice to cities and towns about proposed water supply and sewage disposal systems. In connection with this, all cities and towns should be required to submit plans

to the State health commissioner before installing water works or sewage disposal systems. The commissioner should also have power to prevent the pollution of all streams for domestic purposes, either from sewage or from manufacturing wastes. This work would require a great deal of time and money, but the results that could be obtained, as shown by that very progressive Board of Health of the State of Massachusetts, would fully warrant the expenditure of both.

The proper control of contagious diseases is one of the first and most important duties of a health department. The actual work falls on the local board of health, but in spite of the fact that the law providing for the appointment of boards of health and placing certain duties upon them, is mandatory, some of our smaller municipalities have boards of health only in name. It should be within the powers of a State health commissioner to hold the board of health of each city, borough, town or township responsible, not only for the contagious diseases, but for the sanitary condition of their respective districts. If these local boards fail to act promptly, the health commissioner should have the power to compel them to act.

The sanitary conditions of the State charitable and penal institutions should be under the control of the State Health Commissioner, but this responsibility cannot be placed on him unless he has control of all the sanitary conditions such as: water supply, sewage disposal, over-crowding, milk and food supplies, etc.

The present laws of the State give local boards of health ample power to control nuisances, and in the cities and towns of the State, the ordinances concerning nuisances are reasonably well enforced. However, with the increased population in our cities, to-day, and the growth of manufacturing, the term "nuisance" should not be confined to that which is injurious to life or health, but should also include the protection of the public comfort. The smoke, caused by the burning of soft coal in locomotives and factories, entering our houses and settling on everything, leaving a black soot; and the noise caused by the needless ringing of bells, blowing of whistles, running of flat-wheeled trolley cars, are certainly nuisances in the common

meaning of the word if not in the legal sense. In other States, laws have been enacted regulating these nuisances, but in this State, no attention has, as yet, been paid to them by the Legislature. A law should be passed, giving the State Health Commissioner the power to stop the use of soft coal, the needless ringing of bells and blowing of whistles on the railroads of this State, and giving the local health boards the power to stop such nuisances within their jurisdiction. Public opinion would be so strong in favor of such laws that there would be no trouble whatever in enforcing them.

Another important question which would come up, is a supervision of the growth and sale of shell-fish. It is a well-established fact to-day that typhoid fever is transmitted by means of shell-fish; epidemics of typhoid have been traced to oysters fattened in infected streams. A great deal of work has been done in connection with the protection of oyster and clam beds from contamination, by the Fish and Game Commission, but this work rightfully belongs to the duties of the Health Department of the State. The Health Commissioner should cause a thorough investigation to be made of all places where shell-fish are grown or fattened, and then, with the aid of a laboratory and the proper analysis, restrict this to localities where there is no danger of pollution.

A well-equipped chemical and bacteriological laboratory is one of the best assets of the health department of any State. Under the direction of a man trained for this work, examinations are made of the various cultures from diphtheria, typhoid fever, tuberculosis and malaria patients, in every part of the State. Samples of milk, water, sewage and foods of all kinds, collected by the inspectors, are analyzed. The Laboratory of Hygiene at present maintained by the State Board of Health, is doing a great deal of this work, but its efficiency is greatly hampered by the lack of a proper appropriation, and an insufficient laboratory force and corps of inspectors. Besides this routine work, the laboratory force should be sufficient to allow some original research work. The discovery of diphtheria antitoxin was far more important to the country than the analysis of a sample of milk or food, and the prosecution resulting therefrom. Dis-

coveries, important to the State and the whole country, often originate in laboratories of this kind.

The Health Commissioner should at all times have the advice of the legal departments of the State; unless properly represented in the courts, he would be able to accomplish little.

In speaking of this ideal Department of Health, I have described only a few of the endless number of duties of a health commissioner. The time will not permit me to go into detail in the questions of milk supply, ice supply, food and drug inspections, registration of vital statistics, tuberculosis, transportation of the dead, offensive and dangerous trades, and bake-shop inspections—all of which should come within the duties of a health commissioner.

If our State Department of Health were reorganized and consolidated with the proper boards, given the necessary powers, and an appropriation sufficient for the needs of such important work, removed as far as possible from politics, and then placed in the hands of a commissioner with an advisory board to assist him, I firmly believe that within a very short time, New Jersey would be in the foreground in health matters.

PRESIDENT FOY read a message from Mayor Wittpen, expressing his regret that illness had prevented him from attending the Conference. The President was empowered to return the greeting of the Mayor on the part of the Conference, with an expression of regret at his illness.

An invitation was given to out-of-town delegates to visit the Snake Hill Institutions.

MR. THURLOW said that in introducing the next speaker he would like to call attention to the fact that Messrs. Leighton, Parker, Wells and Richards had come from the Institute of Technology, in Boston, to take charge of health work in New Jersey. He then introduced Dr. William D. Sedgwick, Professor of Biology, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston, who spoke as follows:

Public Health and Organized Charity.

BY WILLIAM T. SEDGWICK.

When asked to come here to talk I accepted with pleasure, first, because of the combination of public health and organized charity which your program contemplated and which is, I believe, altogether unique; and second, because New Jersey has been a leader in certain directions of public health work and bids fair to continue its leadership.

The form of the invitation which indicated that public health and organized charity were to go hand-in-hand in this Conference, was to me inviting because in all branches of modern work we are coming to specialize so much that we need almost everywhere to set the generalist over against the specialist, lest the various branches of our work get so far apart that they become almost total strangers one to another. There is a kind of democratic affiliation which we need to cultivate and promote in all branches of our American life and work. Many of the difficulties under which we labor as a people are due to the ignorance of one class or group of citizens concerning another; of one profession of another profession. Even in a subject like that of medicine, a man who is an expert surgeon may know next to nothing about the care of the public health, or of many other branches of his profession. A lawyer who is a specialist in one subject may be quite ignorant of other branches of his own profession. This is inevitable, and so over against the specialist we want to set the generalist, the expert who can survey the entire field and report upon it. For when it comes to co-operation in American life, which life depends so absolutely on friendly co-operation, we have got to know each other better. Why is it that race prejudice is creating such havoc all over the land today? It is for two reasons. First, because owing to the shrinkage of the world which has come about from improved and multiplied methods of transportation, races are brought into contact with one another as never before; and second, because of the long standing, and, consequently deep-seated ignorance of one race by another, which ignorance, in-

grained, is the mother of prejudice. The national problems of the next ten years are going to be largely race problems, problems of race prejudice, of white versus black, of white, black and yellow men who have got to learn, but have not yet learned, how to live on this globe in peace and harmony:

I take it then as a remarkable and hopeful sign of the times that your Conference has a section on public health and organized charity. Either of these is a subject large enough for a whole Conference. The problems of public health might well consume all the time available, and, doubtless, the problems of organized charity might equally well absorb it. But it is the hybridizing of effort and knowledge which makes modern life so interesting and so productive. In science, when we crossed mathematics with physics we got wonderful results. In medicine, when we bring together biology and engineering, we get important progress, and so it has been in many and various lines. This interblending, this hybridizing of different interests is sure to produce novel and excellent consequences.

Public health and organized charity. I wonder if all of you know what those terms mean in all their fulness. I am sure you know what organized charity means, even if you could not define it, because you work in it, and a working knowledge is a valuable knowledge. But, precisely, what is public health? I was interested the other day when I saw that Mr. Attorney-General Bonaparte had undertaken to define public opinion, for I thought, here is just the thing for me. I shall know now what public opinion is, and if I can understand that, I ought to be able to say what public health is. But to my disappointment, although the Attorney-General started off excellently, he ended by saying that the best way to define public opinion is to tell what it is not. It is not this, it is not that, and it is not the other thing. And I concluded that this definition would not be very helpful. I do not think it would help you for me to say what public health is not, even if I entered into it elaborately. I prefer rather to say what it is. It is the average, or the resultant, or the algebraic sum, of the health of all the people of a community. It is therefore an intangible, abstract idea rather than a tangible reality.

But organized charity is also a definite precise thing which can easily be defined. Charity may be better or worse organized, but yet the idea is there as the idea of public health is there. And when you organize charity, you appeal to me because a biologist is a man who ought to know more about organisms and organizations and organs than any other person, since his whole life is devoted to the study of organized matter or organisms. And really, I doubt if even charity organization workers know what a splendid banner they are working under, for organization involves the very quintessence of life and of all living things. Where there is organization there must inevitably be life. And then every part of a real organism or organ not only plays its own part in its own place, for its own good, but always also for the good of the whole of which it is a part. Organized charity is organized in a double sense; first, working for itself, and second, for the good of the body politic or the whole to which it belongs, so that institutions, almshouses for example, must work not only for themselves, but for the benefit of the whole—the community or State or nation. The hand cannot say to the foot, I have no need of thee. The brain-worker has need of the manual-worker, and if the brain-worker neglects his muscles the brain will suffer. And conversely the manual-worker must work not for himself alone, but for the brain-worker and other members of the general community, state or nation.

Now, this being the case, and their mutual inter-dependence being well recognized in science, I have long wondered why intelligent people like charity workers, allow health matters to drift as they have hitherto too often been drifting in the United States; because, if charity begins at home and ought not to end there, health likewise begins at home but ought not to end there. In these days we want prevention. We have got, of course, to begin by taking things as we find them and doing the best we can. The physician must attend the sick, the worker in correction must look after delinquents. But in all charity work, and in looking after the sick and the poor, the objective point is prevention. We may even say it is preventive biology and preventive medicine; the prevention of disease, the pre-

vention of poverty, the prevention of crime; and we can even continue and say the prevention of misery, for this is tied up in the others. I say I have wondered that charity workers do not give more attention to public health matters for the simple reason that a poor condition of the public health means an enormously increased tax upon charity and the charity worker, and the best way to prevent a large amount of want and misery, if we only knew it, would be to follow out the suggestions which Mr. Thurlow has just made to us, that our States should equip their general boards of health with sufficient money to do their work properly and that the local boards of health should be well organized, active and efficient. Why? For this reason, if for no other: that the principal cause of poverty, the principal removable cause of poverty, is sickness.

When Emerson said that the "first wealth is health" he probably had very little idea of the full meaning of the term, but those of you who are brought in contact with the poor, and who know what it means to have the bread-winner ill, who know how the wolf walks right in through the door the moment the income stops, the moment the savings are exhausted, can realize the full meaning of the saying that the first wealth is health. The beginnings of poverty and misery are very often sickness. And yet a large amount of sickness is preventable. and when organized charity workers fully realize that fact and lend their shoulders to the wheel of sanitary progress they will accomplish a double end. They will remove a large amount of poverty and at the same time a large amount of sickness, misery and distress. If this is true, is it not well that the authorities of this conference have brought these two things, public health and organized charity, together? Can organized charity do anything better, even for itself, than to see that the sanitary conditions surrounding the people at large are what they should be in order to diminish the amount of sickness, now far greater than it ought to be or need be? The way is perfectly clear and we can here join hands; we can have greatly improved charity conditions at any time by improving sanitary conditions.

Take the case of polluted water from which a large number of cities and towns now suffer diarrhœal diseases, typhoid fever,

dysentery and, to a larger extent than we know, other diseases are caused by such water. The consequence of this fact is that demands are made upon the exchequer of charity societies which cripple them from doing other work which they ought to do and would be glad to do. Is it not economy, is it not common sense, to prevent the entrance into any city of polluted water? But how shall this be done? By putting our shoulders to the municipal wheel; by helping to create a public opinion which shall support the State Board of Health in its efforts to secure for New Jersey a supply of pure water. Our example will then radiate to other States as yours is in fact doing now, and public opinion will compel the organization of boards of health such as ought to exist. It is not usually a very difficult matter to get good water. Many cities are getting it. Many have not yet got it. In yesterday's paper we read of an epidemic in a town in Pennsylvania of a thousand pepole, where there were 175 cases of typhoid. Those 175 cases mean distress, poverty, misery in many families. And all might have been prevented by a decent public water-supply. A decent public water-supply might have been had if the citizens, including the charity workers, had insisted on having the right board of health and the right board of water commissioners.

We live in an interesting time in the work of preventive medicine. The medical profession has hitherto been chiefly interested, and naturally enough, in the cure of disease. And yet it has always kept up an altruistic standard which has dignified the profession and maintained it above others, by holding that physicians must prevent disease whenever they could. They have quarantined the sick, they have vaccinated, they have worked often without charge to prevent diseases; they have urged better conditions, better care, better milk, better water; and yet we must admit that their principal actual business has been the cure of the disease rather than its prevention. Now, however, we are reaching another stage of development, and the next twenty years will see a great change. Some of the medical schools are now taking up and teaching preventive medicine, and prevention is the cry of the day in medicine as in correction or charity. We must attempt to bring relief and cure, of course, but we must throw our best

energy into the prevention of disease, of crime, of poverty. And that being the case, we want to enlist your co-operation and your aid, which we greatly need.

I have spoken of water. Milk is another thing which needs looking after. In these days we realize that milk may be and by many is thought to be the principal vehicle by which tuberculosis is brought into the human body. You know how much poverty is the result of that disease, the long sickness of the bread-winner, the outgo of all the savings, the infection perhaps and invaliding of other members of the family. It is a very serious state of affairs. Whether it is true or not that milk carries much of this disease, we know that it does carry others. We have had in Massachusetts within the year an epidemic of scarlet fever, where 700 cases were traced to a milk supply. We have typhoid fever repeatedly traced to milk. Much of our city milk is dirty, and in summer stale; and many diseases of children are directly traceable to dirty and stale milk. The saving of infant mortality by good milk has been remarkable, as you will have seen if you have watched the use of pasteurized or parboiled milk in tenement houses. But instead of teaching people merely how to care for the child already sick with cholera infantum, why not go to work at the other end and get a good board of health and good milk inspectors, and have careful supervision of dairies and so prevent cholera infantum. I appeal to you to lend your influence to the improvement of public health conditions for your own selfish ends. It is an enlightened and justifiable selfishness, as so many of our actions after all are. I appeal to you to lend your influence to improve public health conditions, because public health rightly looked after by State and local boards of health means so much to all classes, and especially the poor.

Looking properly after the public health means, among other things, public lectures on health, and lessons on health in the schools. It means school physicians. I do not know whether this high school, in which we are holding our meeting, has a school physician, but all schools ought to have, because that is one of the best ways to stop the spread of disease through a city. I do not know whether you have here in Jersey City instructive

district nursing, which teaches the people how to keep their windows open to avoid tuberculosis, how to keep clean, and how to make and use simple things for fighting with disease. All this work is for the benefit of charity, for it is preventive; it is constructive. I appeal to you to use your influence in the uplift which can come quickly through public health. The time is at hand, the moment is ripe for work in this direction. Nearly every State is reorganizing its State Board of Health, and nearly every State is inquiring whether the local boards of health are what they ought to be. A new idea is in the minds of the people. It is no longer fashionable to be ill. Physical education is much talked about—perhaps too much—for we must never forget that some of the greatest men of all times have been invalids. Some of the most heroic women have upon their sick beds written poetry and history and literature which have charmed and aided mankind. Sickness has its compensations. Heine was an invalid. Scott was lame, and we should probably never have had the Waverly novels had he not been lame. Stevenson had tuberculosis; if he had not had it, we might never have had his brilliant and entertaining writings. Darwin was an invalid. Spencer was an invalid, and thousands of the best people of the world have been invalids, so that we want to beware of good health without achievement. But when we come to the question of charity we can urge the importance of health, because want of this is the one thing which upsets the home of the poor more than almost anything else does. When the bread-winner stops work, the income stops and poverty steps in; then indeed we realize, and that very quickly, that the first wealth is indeed health.

I have mentioned one or two ways in which a good condition or an improvement of public health can assist organized charity. It can help it by preventing typhoid fever, scarlet fever, and to some extent all of the diseases transmitted by foods or drinks. But it can do a good deal more. As your chairman has said, we ought to extend the idea of the term "nuisance." The time has come when we shall control the billboard nuisance, the smoke nuisance, and the noise nuisance. If an odor which is disagreeable to the nose is actionable in the courts, then a sight which is

disagreeable to the eyes must also be actionable as a public nuisance.

Another thing for which we many work is playgrounds. It was my freind and fellow-citizen, Mr. Joseph Lee, who said "the boy without a playground is the father of the man without a job." And our boards of health ought to favor and help to secure in all crowded communities playgrounds in which the children shall work off the surplus of animal spirit which would otherwise result in habits of petty crime, habits which are troublesome even when not criminal.

We need also from our boards of health stimulus in school hygiene—not only school physicians and nurses, but also better sanitation in our schoolhouses. Many schools still use the common drinking cup, that most ingenious and efficient device for the transmission of disease. Child A, with perhaps incipient diphtheria, mouths the edge of the cup; Child B comes along and places his open lips on the same spot on the same cup. It is an easy, an altogether too easy, way to transmit the disease from child to child. All these things might and would be looked after by an intelligent and wide-awake board of health. Again, the disposal of city garbage and refuse is a question which should be controlled by a good board of health. It has a bearing on the life of rich and poor alike. Alleyways clogged with ashes and garbage; dumps offered to the children of the poor as playgrounds, are not only a nuisance, but a menace to health and a fertile cause of sickness.

We want better schools. We want better streets and better lighting, and the demand is for money, money all the time. Very good. Let us take our stand right there. That is precisely where I want to take it. It is said that the taxpayers will not stand it to raise and spend so much money. But what is money raised for by taxation? Is it raised for graft? Is it raised for favored contractors? Is it raised for the benefit of petty politicians? Or is it raised for clean, well-lighted streets, for city hospitals, for public health and public charity and the other appurtenances of a well-regulated civilization? This is the final question to which we come: For what is money raised by taxation and for what is it used? Men and women like you and me

must see that the money raised by taxation shall be expended only in the interests of the people. If that is done then I have no fear for public health, for charities and correction, for the ventilation of our schoolhouses, and the care and education of our children. There will be money enough. The people will not complain of reasonable taxation provided they feel that the money is bringing its proper results. But it is the shame, the blinding shame, of our American cities to-day that the money freely raised by taxation is not wisely expended. I do not say that it is often stolen, but I do say that it is often misspent, wasted, or extravagantly used, and that it is seldom put where it will do the most good in the great majority of American cities. It is our national disgrace that although we can efficiently organize charity, and labor, and to some extent even public health, we have not yet learned how to organize ourselves into thoroughly efficient civilized communities, to raise our taxes wisely and spend them economically and scientifically. Unfortunately the people as a whole do not yet see that waste, graft and extravagance mean sickness and misery and death for themselves by causing neglect of public health measures that might avoid these diseases.

And here we must turn over a new leaf. We must learn to spend our money in such ways that public health shall be one of the first things looked after, for to-day we know as never before that the first wealth is health. "Sickness," says Emerson, "is poor spirited and cannot serve anyone, it must husband its resources to live; but health . . . has to spare, runs over and inundates the creeks and neighborhoods of other men's necessities." If we can first collect our money equitably and honestly, then spend it wisely, attending to public health, public charities and public correction, then our American municipalities will take their place alongside any in the world; but until then they will be as some of them are to-day, a national disgrace. It is for you and me to take hold of this matter and to preach it from the housetops in a straightforward, fearless and dispassionate spirit. To-day we know so much better than we do. We want the best asylums, the best systems, the best boards of health and health laboratories, the best streets and parks and playgrounds,

and we probably shall eventually have them all. It may be that we can have only a few at a time, but in this matter if public health and organized charity could strike hands and work together we should have them much sooner. I esteem it a privilege to have been here to-day, for I believe that you have touched a vital point and done well in bringing together public health and organized charity.

MR THURLOW—I am sure you will all agree with me in thanking Dr. Sedgwick for coming from Boston to give us this address. A brief discussion will now follow and I will call first on Dr. B. Van D. Hedges, of Plainfield.

Discussion.

DR. B. VAN D. HEDGES, Plainfield, N. J.—It gives me very great pleasure to express the gratitude, which I am sure we all feel, to Dr. Sedgwick for his scholarly and masterly address. I am only sorry that the early hour of the session has prevented more from being present, but we have the satisfaction of knowing that when printed in the transactions of this Conference, his words of advice and counsel will be widely read throughout the State and duly appreciated.

Out in Plainfield, we have great reason for feeling most kindly toward Dr. Sedgwick. Some years ago, when we felt the need of a competent executive at the head of our health department, we wrote the doctor, asking him to send us, as a health officer, the best man that the Boston Institute of Technology could produce. To make a long story short, as the result of that correspondence, we were fortunate in securing the gentleman who has been honored with the chairmanship of this section of the Conference. And to show you how thoroughly Mr. Thurlow was imbued with the atmosphere and theology of his alma mater, I need mention only one incident. It is currently reported that his first official act, on assuming the duties of his office, was to order an inspection of all the baked beans sold in Plainfield, to see if they came up to the high ideal Boston standard. (Laughter.)

In regard to the subject-matter of Dr. Sedgwick's address. I am sure we all feel that there is a very close and vital relationship between public health and organized charity—because the conservation and advancement of the one, depend so closely upon the intelligent and efficient co-operation of the other. In this connection there is just one thought that I should like to leave with you, and that is, the need of closer touch and sympathy between physicians and organized charity in the treatment of cases suffering from tuberculosis. Let me illustrate:

A poor consumptive patient applies to a physician at his office or to a dispensary for treatment. He is given the usual orthodox advice, to keep out in the open air as much as possible, and to engage in some occupation that will entail but little strain upon his energies. At the same time he is told to eat freely of eggs and drink from two to three quarts of milk a day. And with this excellent advice, he is turned loose again upon the world. But how is it all to be accomplished? If he gives up his position in the shop or factory, his source of income immediately ceases and starvation stares him in the face. Light work—out-of-doors—is hard to obtain, and after several unsuccessful efforts he becomes discouraged, goes back to his old occupation and there continues until the disease has made such headway that a cure is no longer possible. Soon he is compelled to give up entirely, and then he becomes a public charge and a burden upon the community. Now, if our charity organizations could get in touch with employers of labor and enlist their interest and co-operation to the extent that they would hold the filling of such positions as we have mentioned, subject to recommendations from the society, then the poor consumptives referred by the physician to the local organization would have the door of hope opened to them and valuable lives would be saved.

In closing—for my time is already up—I should like to thank Dr. Sedgwick again, in behalf of the Conference, for his most excellent paper.

CHAIRMAN THURLOW introduced Dr. Charles A. Clinton, of the New York Health Department, as the next speaker:

"The Work of the New York Health Department for the Relief and Prevention of Tuberculosis."

BY DR. CHARLES A. CLINTON.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentllemen: It is with a feeling of great pleasure that I find that I am able to be present, and to take part in this Conference—as a representative of the Department of Health of the City of New York—to talk to you for a few moments of the work done by that department in its fight against the great white plague. At the same time I feel that probably I will not be able to tell this assemblage much, if anything, with which it is not already more or less acquainted, interested as you all are in, and familiar as you nearly all are with this great subject of tuberculosis, and thoroughly instructed as many of you are in matters relating to the modern crusade against this dread disease.

I may possibly find myself in the position of the little boy whose mother sent him to school one day for the first time. On his return in the afternoon his mother said to him, "Well, Willie, what did you do to-day?" "Didn't do nothin'." "No! Well, what did you learn?" "Didn't learn nothin'! There was a lady there who wanted to know how to spell Cat—an' I told her, that's all." So, really, I may, like the little boy, be telling you but what you already know.

While I am speaking to you as a representative of one of the great municipal departments of the City of New York—the Department of Health—a department which is recognized the world over for its efficiency, its energy, it progressiveness, and for the magnificent results which it accomplishes, I am also proud to be able to claim membership in that great national organization which has done and is doing such wonderful work against tuberculosis—I refer to the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis. And I am proud also to count myself one of the humblest members perhaps, but still a member of that great society which has done so much to relieve the wants of suffering humanity; caring for the sick; tiding over families

in distress; procuring food, fuel, homes, positions for the worthy poor—the Charity Organization Society.

The several health departments throughout the States are entitled to much credit for the noble works they are doing against tuberculosis, but too much cannot be said, and too much honor and credit cannot be given to organized charity; to those bands of noble men and women, giving time and money to the betterment of the distressing conditions of suffering humaniy—the charitable organizations of this State of New Jersey, and of other States. Many a poor fellow goes to the hospital, or to the sanitorium or even to the grave, with calmer, more peaceful feeling, knowing that his needy family is being taken care of; food provided, rent paid, children clothed by one of those grand benevolent societies.

It is not so many years ago that the word consumption, as applied to the malady from which some afflicted individual was suffering, fell like a crushing blow upon the entire family. All hope was abandoned—the family and friends simply awaited the inevitable ending. The physician, even, gave no hope, no encouragement, merely perfunctory advice and medication, and said (to himself, if not to the family), "it is all over!"

These conditions, to a large extent, do not exist to-day, and why? Because experiments, study, energetic and concerted action on the part of the several organizations and societies inaugurated for the study of this disease, together with the activity of the several departments of health, have produced a campaign of education. Knowing as we do to-day, that consumption is a preventable disease, caused chiefly by the habit of promiscous expectoration, the work of educating the general public has become one of necessity, and already has produced results remarkable, indeed, both in the prevention of the disease, and in the amelioration and improvement of symptoms, or even in the cure of affected persons.

The subject assigned by your chairman is one of such magnitude, that, if I undertook to discuss all of the steps which have been taken, and that are being taken by the department of health, in its crusade against consumption, I should have to consume

much more than the time allotted me. I shall be able only to detail some of the many important facts in the work.

It is well known to the physicians of New York City that for a number of years the department of health has earnestly engaged in the study of tuberculosis, the most widespread and fatal disease occurring in that city, and in the initiation of such measures for the curtailment of its ravages as seemed practicable and imperative. After a period of preliminary study and observation, lasting seven years, the Board of Health passed a series of resolutions on February 13th, 1894, designed to assist in the accomplishment of its aims for the suppression of this disease. One of these resolutions involved the reporting of certain classes of cases of tuberculosis. In compliance with it, 4166 cases were reported in 1894, 5818 in 1895 and 8344 in 1896, and the department was enabled without opposition or the imposition of hardships upon individuals, to extend its educational work and protect a large number of persons from exposure to infection.

In order to more firmly establish and extend the work carried on under the resolutions above mentioned, on January 19th, 1897, the following amendment to the Sanitary Code was adopted by the board:

"Section 153. That pulmonary tuberculosis is hereby declared to be an infectious and communicable disease, dangerous to the public health. It shall be the duty of every physician in this city to report to the Sanitary Bureau in writing, the name, age, sex, occupation and address of every person having such disease who has been attended by, or who has come under the observation of, such physician for the first time, within one week of such time. It shall also be the duty of the commissioners or managers or the principal superintendent or physician of each and every public or private institution or dispensary in this city, to report to the Sanitary Bureau, in writing, or to cause such report to be made by some proper or competent person, the name, age, sex, occupation and last address of every person afflicted with this disease, who is in their care or who has come under their observation, within one week of such time. It shall be the duty of every person sick with this disease, and of the authorities of

public and private institutions or dispensaries, to observe and enforce all the sanitary rules and regulations of the board of health for preventing the spread of pulmonary tuberculosis."

The objects in view were both to prevent the extension of pulmonary tuberculosis, and also to promote the recovery of those already stricken with the disease.

The incidence of pulmonary tuberculosis is best estimated by its death rate, for although, as will be shown later, the Department of Health has every reason to be satisfied with the success attained in connection with the registration of tuberculosis, yet under the most favorable circumstances a certain number of cases are not reported during life.

In 1881 the death rate in New York City from pulmonary tuberculosis, per 1000 inhabitants, was 4.27. It has steadily fallen since then, until in 1906 it was only 2.16 per 1000, a reduction of 50 per cent. In other words, in 1881, with a population of 1,244,511, there were 5312 deaths from pulmonary tuberculosis, while in 1906, when the population had increased to 4,152,860, there were only 8955 deaths from this disease, an increase of less than 60 per cent. in the deaths, although the population had increased almost 300 per cent.

The procedure followed by the Board is as follows:

1st. All cases of pulmonary tuberculosis occurring in the City of New York are registered at the Department of Health.

2d. Every person suffering from pulmonary tuberculosis is furnished with instructions as to the measures to be taken to prevent its extension.

3d. All premises which have been occupied by persons suffering from pulmonary tuberculosis are, on death or removal, disinfected with formaldehyde, or renovation is ordered.

4th. Charitable assistance or hospital care is provided so far as is possible for all cases wishing or requiring such assistance or care

5th. The general public is educated as to the nature of the disease, the precautions to be taken against its spread, the advisability of institution and sanitorium treatment, etc.

These measures may be considered somewhat more in detail:

1st. The Department of Health registers the name, address, sex, age, color, and nationality, and the character of the dwelling of every person suffering from tuberculosis in this city. The information reaches the Department in several ways, appropriate action being taken in each.

(*a*) Private cases reported by the attending physician: by the postal cards furnished by the Department for that purpose; and by the forwarding of specimens of sputum for examination. A positive result constitutes an official report of a case, but when the microscopical examination is negative, the mere sending of a specimen of sputum is not considered as a notification.

The information thus obtained regarding private cases is for record, and in no instance are visits made to such persons by the inspectors of the Department, nor does the Department of Health assume any sanitary surveillance of such cases (unless the person resides in a tenement house or lodging house, or unless the attending physician requests that an inspection of the premises be made). In no case where the person resides in a tenement house will any action be taken, if the physician requests that no visits be made by inspectors and is willing himself to deliver circulars of information or to furnish such equivalent information as is required to prevent the communication of the disease to others.

In all private cases the attending physician is notified of the receipt of his report, and a copy of the circular "Information for Consumptives or Those Living with Them" is sent him with a request that it, or its equivalent, be given to the patient.

Once a year the attending physician is requested by letter to inform the Department whether the patient is still living; if so, where, and whether his condition has changed for the worse or better. Physicians are also required by the Department to report any change of address or discontinuance of treatment on the part of their consumptive patients.

(*b*) Cases reported by institutions: The authorities of all public or private institutions, such as hospitals, sanatoria, dispensaries, asylums, prisons, homes, etc., are required to furnish the necessary data concerning every consumptive coming under their observation, within seven days of such time. They must

also furnish the same information, together with the duration of residence in the institution, of every case of tuberculosis discharged from the institution or transferred to another institution, previous to or on the day of such discharge or transfer.

All the larger institutions report daily and twice a year a census is taken of all cases of pulmonary tuberculosis which are inmates of the public institutions of the city.

(*c*) Cases reported by citizens' complaints or by the inspectors or employes of other departments and charitable organizations (Tenement House Department, Department of Charities, Charity Organization Society, United Hebrew Charities, Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, etc.).

When the name and address of the attending physician of such cases can be ascertained, he is visited and inquiry made as to whether the case is one of pulmonary tuberculosis, and if so, why it was not reported to the Department. If no physician is in attendance, and the case, on being visited, proves to be one of tuberculosis, it is so reported by the Inspector, and taken charge of by the Department of Health, being either referred to one of the Tuberculosis Clinics of the Department, kept under observation at home by a nurse, or admitted to a hospital.

Through these various channels about 85 per cent. of all living cases of tuberculosis are reported to the Department of Health. The non-reported cases fall into two categories—patients of the better class, whose physicians fail to obey the law, and those of the poorest class, who have no attending physician. On the whole, the results obtained have been very satisfactory.

2d. All cases of pulmonary tuberculosis residing in tenement houses or lodging houses are visited by nurses of the Department, unless the attending physician has requested that no visits be made. The nurses visit the premises, note the precautions taken against the spread of the disease, the character of the ventilation, lighting and sanitary arrangements; whether there is overcrowding and whether work (tailoring, etc.) is being done on the premises. Reports as to unsanitary conditions of the premises are referred to the Tenement House Department for appropriate action. The patient and the family are instructed as to the chief

dangers in connection with pulmonary tuberculosis, and how they may be avoided, care being taken if patients are ignorant of the nature of their disease, not to unduly alarm them. When the patient is at work and his condition is such that his presence may be a danger to his fellow employes, an inspection is made of the work place, necessary instructions given, and cuspidors and placards installed. In suitable cases they advise hospital care, and in worthy cases, recommend that charitable aid be given. They give full instructions, both verbally and by circular, as to the measures which should be taken to prevent the spread of the disease, and as to the proper disposal of the sputum. The Department supplies suitable paper sputum cups, free of charge, to persons unable to buy them. Where patients are incapacited for work the Department nurse repeatedly visits the case, ascertains whether instructions are being observed, distributes sputum cups, and makes herself generally useful. In suitable cases where it is certain that renovation will be required on removal of the patient, the owner or agent is instructed to notify this Department when such removal takes place and also of the new address of the family. In infective cases, where it is necessary, periodic disinfection of rugs, clothing and other articles likely to be soiled by sputum, is done from time to time.

Previous to the discharge of all cases of consumption from hospitals or other institutions, a nurse visits the premises to which the patient expects to go, in order to learn whether he is known there, if his return is desired, if proper care will be taken of him, and if the premises are in good sanitary condition. If the conditions are satisfactory, the patient is allowed to leave the hospital, but he is at once visited by a nurse in order to ascertain if he has returned to address given and if he has been properly instructed as to the nature of his disease.

3rd. In all cases in which it comes to the knowledge of the Department of Health that rooms or apartments which have been occupied by a consumptive have been vacated by death or removal, an inspector visits the premises and, when necessary, directs the removal of infected articles, such as carpets, rugs, bedding, etc., for disinfection, and makes such written recom-

mendations as may be required regarding the cleansing and renovation of the rooms or apartments or their fumigation with formaldehyde. When cleansing and renovation are required, an order embodying the recommendations is issued on the owner of the premises, and compliance with this order is enforced. No other persons than those there residing at the time are allowed to occupy such rooms or apartments until the order of the Board has been complied with. When there is reason to suppose that this regulation will be disregarded, a paster, stating the facts, is affixed to the door. Infected articles, such as mattresses, pillows, carpets, rugs, etc., are removed by the Department of Health, disinfected and returned without charge to the owner. All bedding is fumigated before removal. If the owner or occupant of the premises desires to carry out the necessary disinfection himself, he may do so, providing that he satisfy all the requirements of the Department, and furnish the Department with a statement from the attending physician, showing the number of rooms disinfected, the cubic feet of air space, and the kind and amount of disinfectant used. A special blank has been prepared for this purpose, and will be furnished on application.

4th. When application is made to the Department for the admission of a case of pulmonary tuberculosis to a hospital, or when the nurse finds that a consumptive cannot receive proper care, food or medical attention at his home, or when, either wilfully or otherwise, the patient constitutes a danger or menace to those about him, the case is referred to the Department of Charities, with the recommendation that he be sent either to the City Hospital for Consumptives on Blackwell's Island, or to Seton Hospital, where the city maintains a number of free beds. When such a case refuses to go to a hospital, the patient may be forcibly removed or may be referred to a charitable organization for assistance in the shape of food, fuel or medical attention.

In instances where the consumptive absolutely refuses to take the necessary precautions as to the proper disposal of the sputum, etc., the Department of Health will enforce removal. It has fitted up special pavilions for advanced cases at Riverside Hospital (the Riverside Sanatorium for Pulmonary Diseases), where

such cases may be sent at a few hours' notice and detained if necessary.

The Department nurses visit all indigent cases and those that are unable to work; they recommend charitable assistance, and see that it is given. In addition to the staff of regular inspectors and nurses, the Department also has special inspectors, who make house to house visits, following up previously reported cases, and looking for new ones.

Clinics for the treatment of pulmonary diseases have been established in Manhattan, Brooklyn and The Bronx, where every facility is afforded for the proper study and treatment or pulmonary tuberculosis.

The objects in view in their establishment were as follows:

1. *The Early Recognition and Accurate Diagnosis of Pulmonary Tuberculosis.*—It is now generally admitted that tuberculosis is frequently a curable disease, and that incipient tuberculosis, under favorable conditions, tends to recovery; however, to insure such recovery the diagnosis must be made at the earliest possible moment. Not only are careful physical examinations, together with repeated sputum examinations, made, as required, but in addition, when necesary, X-ray examinations are employed to assist in arriving at an early and correct diagnosis.

2. *The Careful Supervision of Persons Receiving Treatment.*—This supervision includes not only medicinal treatment, but also the furnishing of circulars of information in various languages (English, German, Yiddish, Italian, Chinese, Ruthenian, Polish, Hungarian and Russian), containing careful and thorough instruction as to the nature of the disease and the necessary precautions to be taken to prevent the infection of others. Paper sputum cups and paper handkerchiefs are supplied, and also proper food (milk and eggs), to indigent and needy cases.

3. *The Continued Observations at their Homes of Indigent, Needy and Ambulatory Cases, including all those Discharged from the Public Institutions of the City.*—A special staff of trained nurses visit the patients at their homes to see that the instructions given are being observed, that the sanitary surroundings are satisfactory and that such assistance as is required is afforded. Suitable cases are referred to the various charitable

organizations for food, fuel, ice, etc. Special attention is paid to the children in the families of patients, and every effort is made to prevent their infection.

4. *The Removal of Cases Requiring Such Care to a Hospital or Sanatorium.*—These fall under four heads: (a) advanced or bedridden cases, with profuse expectoration, who will not or cannot take the necessary precautions against spreading the disease, and whose presence at home is a menace to others in the family; (b) cases able to get about, but who are unable to work and who are entirely dependent upon their earnings for their livelihood; (c) incipient cases, who stand a fair chance of recovery if removed to sanatoria outside of the city; (d) cases living in lodging houses and others having no home.

5. *The Provision of a Municipal Institution Where Cases of Tuberculosis may be referred.*—(a) by physicians (indigent patients, etc.); (b) by institutions on the discharge of consumptive patients from hospitals or sanatoria; (c) by the various charitable organizations throughout the city which have tuberculosis cases under observation; (d) by other persons doing individual charitable work who may come in contact with such persons.

Everything possible is done to educate the public, not only as to the precautions which should and must be observed by consumptives, but also as to the harmlessness to the community of consumptives who are careful as to their expectoration, etc. Circulars have been prepared and widely distributed dealing with: (*a*) the dangers of dusting; (*b*) consumption, its nature and treatment; (*c*) how to keep from contracting the disease; (*d*) the free tuberculosis clinics; (*e*) instructions to patients therein; (*f*) tuberculosis catechism for the 650,000 school children of New York; (*g*) early diagnoses of tuberculosis; and (*h*) what the Department of Health does to prevent the spread of the disease. All of the above are printed in several languages (English, German, Italian, Yiddish, etc.) and will be sent free of charge on application. Stereopticon exhibitions are given during the summer in the parks and recreation piers, and during the winter in halls, parish houses, etc. Traveling exhibits of apparatus, photographs of sanatoria, explained by lectures, etc., are also given in the schools, parish houses, etc.

In addition to the many circulars of information mentioned above, a great many others are printed and distributed or placed in conspicuous places. Non-spitting notices, non-spitting small dodgers—information as to how to sweep and dust, circulars warning against the use of "fake" consumption cures and advertising "Fakes," advice for clinic patients, etc., are some of the subjects treated.

The inspection and regulation of the sale of foodstuffs, especially milk is a very important part of the work of the department. Inspectors are at work throughout the city and State on a constant tour of inspection, and all cattle are tested with tuberculin for evidences of tuberculosis, all dairies and creameries are constantly under observation, and all retail and wholesale milk depots thoroughly and continually inspected. All unsanitary conditions are remedied and all infringements of the law are prosecuted. All tuberculous cattle are destroyed.

The Department of Health maintains at Otisville, New York, a sanitorium for the treatment of incipient cases of pulmonary tuberculosis. This sanitorium, which is built on the cottage plan, maintains about 100 patients and is accomplishing very flattering results. The city of New York also sends tuberculous patients for treatment to the Raybrook Sanitorium in the Adirondack Mountains; also to Seton Hospital at Riverdale, New York, and to St. Joseph's Hospital, the Bronx. These institutions are paid per capita for the treatment of cases sent to them. The department also maintains, as mentioned before, a sanitorium on North Brother Island—the Riverside Sanitorium.

The work is becoming more and more systematic, far-reaching, and effective, and there is hope that such a campaign of education as has been inaugurated by the Department of Health of New York City, and by the departments of health of other cities and towns, together with the co-operation of state boards of health, and with the active co-operation of the organized charities, which alone are doing a vast and a magnificent work, will at some time in the, I hope, very near future be productive of such results as will enable us to say, with truth, that the great white plague has lost its terrors and that it has been practically eliminated as a formidable factor in the death rate of our glorious country.

Discussion.

DR. S. A. KNOPF, of New York, was asked to open the discussion of Dr. Clinton's paper.

DR. KNOPF—I cannot add much to what has been said, but there is one point I wish to bring out on a subject that may perhaps be misunderstood here because you have not yet a law for compulsory removal. Dr. Clinton told you that we have in New York an institution on North Brother Island for the tuberculous. I have the honor of being attending physician there, and the patients are the "elite" from the lower end. The patients are removed there, about half of them under compulsion, because they were a menace to their family or the neighborhood. Such a law does not exist in New Jersey. I do not wish you to think that by this forcible removal any harm is done. I confess that very often the patient at first rebels at the idea of being removed by the aid of the police, for if he does not come willingly, we send for the bluecoat, and then the patient has to come. But when he gets to the island and sees our earnest endeavors to do the best we can for him, he feels differently. He is removed from the dark and dreary environment of the tenement to a place where there is good light, good air, good food; and he begins to feel a little easier. He realizes that it is better to have all the air he needs—twenty-four hours of good air in the twenty-four hours—a good clean bed, which is something he is perhaps not accustomed to, good clean underclothing, which he has not had, and to take a bath, also something he is not accustomed to but which does him good. He is put into a ward and given instructions what to do and what not to do. The patient is examined by one of my assistants or myself and spoken to in a considerate manner, and on my next visit when I ask him, how do you like it, he is pretty sure to say better than at home. In these four years since I have been the physician there, we have had only about two cases who would like to have run away. As it is an island, they cannot get away unless they are good swimmers, so we do not have much trouble.

In all earnestness I plead that you consider this law. There is a great deal of good in it because there are always cases

who are willingly careless, who do not care a rap whether their relatives are infected or not. There must be some sort of police supervision of cases dangerous to the community. Regarding charity organization societies, I wish to say that they can often do a great deal more than the health departments as far as real material help is concerned.

Dr. Clinton emphasizes the great work done by the Health Department, but I want to say a word for the general practitioner who is not connected with any department. He may also have a great influence in the conquest of tuberculosis and we very rarely find one who is not gladly doing his duty in this respect. Without them we could not do the work.

Then I want to say a few words to the people who are outside the Health Department but inside the charity organization society, to you laymen and laywomen who show your interest in the tuberculosis problem by having associated yourselves with such a society. It is utterly impossible to solve the problem without you. There is such a vast and important social aspect to this problem, that it is almost greater than the medical aspect. If we begin with the etiology, I am free to confess that we must begin with the social aspect. We are especially concerned with acquired tuberculosis. We do not believe much in hereditary tuberculosis. What do I mean? The tendency may be acquired in the child by the lack of proper knowledge on the part of the mother how to raise the child. I speak of the mothers of the masses. They do not know how to feed the child or there would not be such great infant mortality. Then come the injurious influences of child labor. You have no idea how much a child is predisposed to tuberculosis if it has to begin to work before it is eight or ten or even twelve or fourteen. And there is not only child labor in the factory, but child labor in the home. I am amazed to see how in our crusade against child labor, this child labor in the home is neglected by our reformers. In my work among the tenement poor in New York, I have seen as much child labor at home as in the factory. The mother dies. She leaves a number of children, among them a little girl of ten who becomes what we call the "little mother." She carries the six months' baby on her left

arm while the right arm drags the one of two years. She does not go to school very much, but she makes the breakfast for the father and prepares his dinner when he comes home. I ask if that is not child labor as much as anything else. You charity workers have to help us protect these children. I have seen many of these little mothers, and I would be willing to take my oath that 75 per cent. of them have pronounced predisposition to consumption.

Then there is the great alcohol problem. I have too much Teutonic blood in me for you to need to fear a temperance lecture; but alcoholism among adults and among children is a strong predisposing factor to tuberculosis. If you want to help us solve this problem, I beg you to help us solve the liquor problem. (Applause.) Not merely by clapping, because there is something else to be done. You can take the first step by stopping the sale of patent medicines. There is a great deal of alcohol in them. I sometimes think almost as much alcohol is sold in that way as over the bar, and I do not exclude Lydia Pinkham's Vegetable Compound, which contains 20 per cent. of alcohol. Temperance lecturers may be good but I have my own idea of solving this problem and it is this, that instead of dark, dreary tenement houses, we should have model tenements. It is my firm conviction that if you will give the laborer, for the same amount he has to spend now for an unfit habitation, a decent, clean, cheerful home, a wife who would know how to make a good plain meal and serve it appetizingly, so that when he returns from his daily task, instead of finding a cheerless home, he will find a well-cooked meal in a clean house, the saloon would have a great deal less temptation. Therefore I appeal to you charity workers, if you want to help us to solve the tuberculosis problem, help us to solve the housing problem. I plead with philanthropists to stop building libraries and museums, even to stop building churches if necessary, because I believe you serve your Creator better when you make your fellowmen better by helping the poor to live as you would like to live yourselves.

In conclusion I wish to say that tuberculosis is a disease of the masses, but it is a preventable, a curable disease. To combat

it requires the combined action of the wise, well-trained physician, the large-hearted, generous philanthropist, the conscientious and trained workers of charity organization societies, and of all intelligent people.

MR. THURLOW introduced MR. WILLIAM C. SMALLWOOD, of Newark.

MR. SMALLWOOD—The State Tuberculosis Association, organized two years ago in May, has been working in a very quiet way organizing local committees throughout the State which take up the local problems. We have asked for registration of tuberculous cases, notification, and disinfection of homes at the time of death or removal. We have asked for visiting nurses for the homes and for medical inspection for the public schools. We have now eighteen committees: Jersey City, Newark, Orange, Trenton, New Brunswick, Paterson, Elizabeth, Lakewood, Camden, Vineland, Glassboro, Millville, Burlington, Plainfield, Mount Holly, Bridgeton, Atlantic City and Beverly. These eighteen towns and cities are making a concerted effort to prevent and control tuberculosis. We have a small exhibit which has been in most of these towns. It is open to-day in Glassboro. It closed last Saturday at Atlantic City, where 5,000 people were reached. In the two years it has reached at least 20,000 people and has carried a message to those who perhaps before knew nothing about the subject. What we have done is not to be overlooked, and yet we have only begun. Massachusetts has just introduced a bill in the Legislature making tuberculosis a subject to be studied in the public schools. We want to do that here. Massachusetts and New York have compulsory and mandatory laws on registration and notification. We want that law here.

DR. GEORGE E. MCLAUGHLIN was introduced and read a paper on

Correction in Local Health Matters.

BY DR. GEORGE E. MCLAUGHLIN.

The Century Dictionary gives the following definition for the word correction: "The act of noting and pointing out for removal or amendment, errors, defects, mistakes or faults of any kind."

Personally I have always liked the word correction, not failing to realize how it frequently applies to myself; but to-day I am going to ask you to view it as applicable to public health matters.

Some time ago Dr. Wyman, Surgeon General of the Marine Hospital Service, recognized the good to be accomplished from the annual meeting of officers of State Boards of Health and inaugurated such meetings. In fact, our own State Board of Health now also has meetings each year, composed of delegates from the boards of the cities and towns of this State. This is a gloriously good educational move, for which I believe Dr. Henry Mitchell deserves our best thanks. And why should such conferences be held? It is simply a revival of the old gregarious spirit that prompted aboriginal mankind to get together and hold council for the protection of each other against common enemies, and to-day and here in this "Conference Meeting" we may consider as enemies anything that interferes with our health or endangers our lives.

Let me then direct your thoughts for a few moments away from the blind, the halt and the feeble-minded, and ask you what is the death rate from typhoid fever in your city or town? What from tuberculosis, diphtheria, scarlet fever, et cetera? How does your death rate compare with other cities or towns? And, if your death rate is low, and mayhap you owe it to a generous Providence and a salubrious location more than to the efforts of your health board, how long will it continue so? No one can say; no one can prognosticate. Then if you know of an efficient health officer at the head of your department of health, what a rock on which to build your faith, for otherwise your "house is built on sand."

This is not idle talk. How about the bubonic plague situation on the Pacific Coast to-day, extending as far north as Seattle and south to Los Angeles? This dread disease existed in San Francisco for three years before a systematic plan of work was adopted to prevent its spread, and then only through the efforts of the Marine Hospital Service, who were finally given control—an open acknowledgement of local health board inefficiency. From August to November, inclusive, there has been 109 cases of plague in San Francisco alone.

For the last four years our State has required that all applicants for the position of health officer, sanitary inspector, meat inspector, or plumbing inspector, to boards of health, shall possess a license, showing that they have passed a satisfactory examination before a committee of examiners, who are appointed by the State Board of Health, which committee hold examinations every June and December.

New Jersey once more in the vanguard for good health laws. I say again, because in 1887, owing largely to the able efforts of Judge Lanning and Hon. W. H. Corbin, our State was given health laws of which we may be justly proud. Are we not then negligent as citizens if we do not see these laws enforced? And so I say to you, learn what your local health office is doing. Is it progressive, doing its full duty, or is it simply drifting along or possibly even stagnating.

As Prof. W. T. Sedgwick has said, "We are establishing model dairies, model municipal water filters, model sewage and garbage disposal plants. Why can we not also establish a few model boards of health which shall boldly set to work and give to the city or town under their care the best possible sanitary conditions.

"Politics must also be wholly eliminated from our boards of health. There is no Republican method of vaccination, no Democratic plan of street cleaning. The time, if it ever existed, has gone by when a proper board of health can be made up of a political doctor, a political saloon keeper and a political nobody, for no well-trained and self-respecting expert in hygiene or sanitation can or will remain in the dubious and uncertain service of such weak, incompetent or shifty characters."

Let none of us rest content until we can each say of our local health officer, as we consider his work or read his annual report, and how many of us know them at all, "Well done good and faithful servant."

DR. MAXIMILIAN P. E. GROSZMANN, of Plainfield, was invited to discuss Dr. McLaughlin's paper.

DR. GROSZMANN—It was said in the beginning of the section that it is well that charity workers should co-operate with the representatives of public health. This might as well be reversed and boards of health might be invited to more fully and conscientiously co-operate with charity workers, especially in fighting the white plague. The difficulty which is here encountered is probably better known to the charity worker than to the boards of health. Not far from here a case occurred which illustrates this. By the way, it was not in Plainfield. A certain charity organization had occasion to remove a tuberculous patient from his home and then called upon the Board of Health to have the dwelling fumigated. The answer was, "Yes, I think we will burn a sulphur candle." The lady who made the appeal replied, "If that is all you will do I will do it myself," and practically nothing was done. It interested me to see what energetic measures the New York Board exercised in the matter of fumigating and disinfecting the homes of those afflicted with tuberculosis. I think that one of the most important measures in fighting this disease is a very energetic campaign course of fumigation and disinfection. The charity workers and the boards of health should go hand in hand there.

MR. THURLOW—I should agree with what has been said excepting that I would prefer to use the word disinfection. Fumigation means only the use of some gas to destroy germ life. One of the most important parts of the disinfection of a room from which a patient has been taken is general housecleaning, washing the woodwork and so forth. This is as important as the use of any gas for disinfecting.

A DELEGATE—If you remove a patient forcibly, is there any place to which you can take him?

MR. THURLOW—There is only one institution, and that can accomodate only sixty persons. There is no law here which allows removing a patient in that way, and there is no sanitorium for the advanced cases of tuberculosis.

DR. KNOPF—It is a common idea that the greatest danger is from the patient's room. This is such an important point that I ask your pardon if I speak again to tell you that the greatest danger in the spread of tuberculosis is not from the man or woman confined to his or her room, where only the four walls can be infected. The greatest danger comes from the man who has tuberculosis in the incipient stage; who is up and about and spitting everywhere his seven billion bacilli in twenty-four hours. Therefore, the greatest step you have to take, and I believe you are to take, is the reporting of all cases of tuberculosis and of the proper treatment and care of the incipient as well as the advanced cases.

MRS. WELLING, of Trenton—We had an illustration of how much we need good local boards of health with power. I was called to close a house where a man had died with tuberculosis. He had worked in the basements making candy bon-bons, and had kept at his work till ten days before his death. He was moved from room to room during the ten days, until he had lain in three different rooms; and they proposed to take the body down stairs to expose it in another room. I had to see that the rooms were closed and the house was disinfected. That is only one case. We have a great many. What are we to do? The local Board of Health is helpless.

DR. A. CLARK HUNT, Secretary of the State Board of Health of New Jersey—*Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen:* Mr. Thurlow, the chairman of this section, has for several years been an efficient health officer in one of the most progressive cities in our State, while my association has been with the State Bureau of Health.

It is therefore fitting that he should discuss the need of reorganization of the State Board of Health, and that the consideration of needed changes in local health administration should devolve upon me.

The law of 1887 creating both State and local boards of health, and defining their powers and duties was at that time deemed ample for all the needs of the State in the effort to secure efficient sanitary supervision in its various municipalities. In fact it was only by missionary work on the part of those devoted to preserving the lives of the citizens of the State, that the Legislature finally enacted the law.

This law gives to local boards of health sufficient power to do effective work, and has been upheld in the courts of final appeal. With the police power which is the underlying strength of the law, it stands to-day as one of the best Legislative enactments ever adopted in any State.

Under the provisions of the act the members of the local boards of health in cities or boroughs are appointed by the Mayor. In the large cities there are to be found men of large experience in the world's affairs, who have been successful in the various lines of business, and whose success indicates sound judgment and breadth of views, those who are well-read and broad-minded. From this class it is possible to select a board of health whose members, although not trained sanitarians, can be depended upon to execute the laws judiciously.

In cities of any importance public opinion is on a high level, and the citizens demand that efficient service shall be rendered by local boards of health and are willing to expend a sufficient amount of money to secure such service. With money to secure a competent and trained health officer, and with a local board of health alive to the needs of a city, there can be no complaint that the present law is inadequate.

The proof of its effectiveness lies in the fact that in our State to-day we may point to a number of boards of health in cities where the results accomplished are entirely satisfactory and where the methods adopted will bear closest scrutiny.

When we come to consider the conditions existing in smaller boroughs and townships, it is at once apparent that in many in-

stances there is neglect on the part of local boards of health and that the administration of the laws is extremely unsatisfactory.

This condition is readily explained, for in townships the board of health consists of the members of the township committee, who are elected solely for the purpose of managing the business affairs of the township, and to whom is also entrusted as a side issue the protection of the health of the citizens, and a side issue it often becomes. Although experience has shown that effective work has been accomplished, such results have been due for the most part to individuals and not to the board as a whole.

An effort was made several years ago to overcome the defect which was caused by the appointment of untrained men to positions requiring definite knowledge, by the enactment of a law requiring that all inspectors of local boards of health obtain a license after passing an examination to determine their knowledge and fitness for such positions.

This law has had a good effect, but many townships, on account of low salaries paid inspectors, could get no one to take an examination and therefore have made few such appointments.

There is great need for some change in present methods which should bring the township boards of health to a higher standard of efficiency, and this is all the more apparent when we remember that the townships surround the cities and the neglect to control contagious diseases in townships may cause large and frequent epidemics in cities.

The method for improving present conditions seems to lie in the direction of having local or county health officers under the supervision of the central bureau of health. These officers should report to the State Board from time to time the conditions affecting health in the various municipalities, and also all cases of contagious diseases which may occur, and indicate the action of local boards in dealing with all health problems.

If this plan were carried out, and powers were given to the State Board of Health to compel local boards of health to take immediate action in all instances, there is every reason to believe that great improvement would follow.

A MEMBER—Is there any free home for the care of incurable cases of tuberculosis?

MR. SMALLWOOD—The almshouse is the only place. They can be received there. At Glen Gardner they take cases that seem curable. They do not confine themselves entirely to incipient cases. About half of the sixty patients pay five dollars a week or more. It is free, but the better class of cases who wish to pay are permitted to do so.

The President announced that the New York "Tribune" was making special reports of the Conference and that copies were to be had at the meeting. He further urged the members of the Conference to subscribe for "Charities and the Commons," which, he said, should be read throughout the country, and for the "New Jersey Review of Charities and Corrections," which should be read at least throughout New Jersey.

SECOND SESSION.

Monday Afternoon, February 10th, 1908.

PRESIDENT FOY—It is not often that this Conference goes beyond the limits of what might be understood as charities and correction, but the subject of civil service is so intimately related to charitable and correctional work that it has been put into the program in pursuance of the custom of the National Conference of Charities and Correction and some of the State Conferences. I have the honor of introducing Hon. Everett Colby as Chairman of the section on Civil Service.

New Jersey's Attitude Toward Civil Service Reform.

BY HON. EVERETT COLBY.

As chairman of this meeting, representing the New Jersey League for Civil Service Reform, I do not propose to take advantage of the opportunity afforded me to discuss the relation

of the State Legislature towards civil service reform. I want to state briefly how I came to be interested in this work and to describe what our organization has done during the last three years.

Two years ago, during the summer of 1905, there was a disagreement between different factions of the Republican party in Essex county. We had a fight which was rather strenuous and somewhat bitter, and during that summer we spent our time working in our organization to fight the machine in the primary. I happened to be sitting in the office of our headquarters one hot day in August, after the others had gone home, when a man came in, a poor-looking fellow, rather down at the heels, and said, "Mr. Colby, I have come in to give you two dollars. I believe you and your friends are working for something decent, and I thought I would like to give a little towards it. I cannot give you my name, for I work in a city department, and I should lose my position if it were known that I gave to this organization."

If he had left his name, as though hoping for a reward, I would not have thought so much of it. But here was a man, earning perhaps $12 or $14 a week, who comes in, pays $2 out of his hard earnings, walks out and does not leave his name! That is real sacrifice, real public spirit, real patriotism, and I honor such a man. But I said to myself, what does this mean that this man cannot say publicly that he means to contribute his little to any organization, whether political or charitable, without knowing positively that he will lose his position? Of course I came to the conclusion that so long as that condition exists we are not living under a free government. A few days later I was invited to attend a conference in Newark to discuss the organization of the Civil Service League, and I went with that in my mind, not intending to take any prominent part, but I found myself elected to office. I believe our league has done hard conscientious work. Mr. Thomas H. Brown, one of the officers, Mr. E. K. Sumerwell, of East Orange, and Mr. E. H. Goodwin deserve the credit for what has been done by our League. I have simply voiced their sentiments and used the position I occupy in the Senate to further the work that they have done so well at home.

We introduced a bill, after the organization of the League, into the State Legislature, but it was not even read, I regret to say. It was new in New Jersey, and the political leaders were absolutely opposed to it and it received scant courtesy. The next year a committee was appointed to investigate the subject, and we passed it through the Senate and it was killed in the House. The moment a political leader, a boss, loses his control of the public service, of the public offices, he instantly loses his control over the men, and he cannot tell what to do. He also loses his power over the machine of selling privileges. The bill was opposed and fought bitterly by the machine leaders, but the very moment that people began to take an interest and to study the question of civil service reform, the political boss had to leave. Two years ago it was simply impossible to get a hearing before a committee of the Legislature on a question of this kind. What has happened to-day? At this very hour, at Trenton, a discussion is going on before a committee of the Senate in connection with a public utilities bill which has been introduced. Two years ago you could not have thought of suggesting a hearing on that proposition, that a commission should be appointed to regulate and control corporations, but now there is every probability that it will be passed. Why? Because conferences of this kind have taken up this work of discussing questions of public importance that come before legislatures. So I believe that the Civil Service League and your association are to be congratulated on getting before the people the possibilities of civil service reform.

We have with us this afternoon men who have made a study of this question, not merely as theorists but as coming in personal contact with the work, and the first one I will present to you is Mr. William Jay Schieffelin, of New York, who was a civil service commissioner under Mayor Strong, and who has made a long study of this subject.

The Practical Application of the Civil Service Law.

BY WILLIAM J. SCHIEFFELIN.

Senator Colby says that I have made a study of this question. For twenty years I have observed it more or less carefully, but I do not presume to be an authority on this subject, and I should not have presumed to come here to speak if it were not for the fact that I think the service that Mr. Colby has rendered for honest government is so great that it extends far beyond the boundaries of New Jersey, and that American citizens wherever they are ought to go out of their way to hold up the hands of Senator Colby.

Twenty-one years ago, when I graduated from college, I took an interest in civil service reform. My grandfather, John Jay, was the first president of the first commission appointed by Governor Cleveland to make the regulation under which the civil service laws should be enforced in New York, and from the beginning I saw the difficulties and heard the arguments pro and con. The Civil Service Reform Association of New York was then very active, as it is now, but at that time the opposition to the law was very great, and the ridicule heaped upon the enforcement of it and on the examinations was extremely sarcastic. People said the examination questions were absurd, impractical, and that you could show nothing of the capacity of the men and women applying for positions by asking scholastic questions. But the cause made its way. It was found that not only the examinations, but the investigations, were practical. The questions asked by the commissioners were such as would be asked by employers who had to find out the qualifications of employes—their moral character, their experience. In short, the same effort was made to find out the qualifications of applicants that private employers would have taken.

Eight years later, when Mayor Strong was elected, I had the honor of being appointed on the Municipal Civil Service Commission, and served as one of the five Commissioners at that time. These Commissioners had no salaries, and the work was

very arduous. The sessions lasted from eight until midnight, and only terminated when the electric lights were put out. There was then a good deal to do with regard to deciding appeals, classification, and as to what situations might be wisely exempted. All that pioneer work has been done, and if you pass the law here, as I hope you will do this year, you will find the experience of New York of great assistance in forming your rules and regulations. It is with regard to the practical form of examinations that I am to speak. I want to cite those which are absolutely practical.

To-day, for instance, when a requisition is made for an eligible list of stenographers, a large part of the examination will consist in dictating rapidly certain extracts from books, to see how quickly the stenographers can take them down, and how quickly and how accurately they can typewrite them. That is an absolutely practical test.

Take the question of drafting. A great many men are employed as draughtsmen. They are given the tools of their craft and are set at work copying engineers' designs, and are marked according to the accuracy of their work.

Applicants for milk inspectors are given a lactometer and it is observed whether they are skilled in the use of that instrument. You would be surprised to know how many persons apply for positions about which they have not the haziest knowledge. Examinations of applicants for positions as telegraphers, as attendants in gymnasiums, and so forth, are all practical. Applicants for gas inspectors are examined as to the use of the photometer, by which the candlepower of gas is determined.

One day the chief examiner came to our board meeting and said, "You have instructed me to give practical examinations wherever possible. Now an application has been made for an eligible list of ambulance drivers, and I am at a loss to know how to give a practical examination in ambulance driving." Though I was the youngest member of the board, or perhaps on that account or because I had been driving a four-in-hand, I was asked my view. I said that I would conduct the examination. We are in the drug business, and at our laboratory in the Bronx

we have a large yard with a high wall round it, about eight feet high, so that a man outside cannot see over it. I told the chief examiner to give them their mental examination, for every one has to have a certain amount of that and to know something of the geography of the city. The men who apply for ambulance driving must have references as to their character, and must have this knowledge of the geography of the city, the location of hospitals, and so forth.

There were thirty-seven men who passed the preliminary examinations; they were weeded down to that. On a given day I had them meet on the street outside the laboratory at two in the afternoon. I borrowed one of the Bellevue ambulances and an experienced driver and had him come inside and the gates were closed. Then I told the driver to make certain changes in the harness, to twist the bellyband, to have one trace longer than the other, and to have the throat strap improperly attached, and so forth. One by one I let the men come in and told them to glance quickly at the outfit and see if there was anything wrong or whether it was all right. Only 27 out of the 37 had come to take the examination; 20 out of the 27 said the outfit was all right. It was easy to say that they wouldn't do. The other seven quickly pointed out all the things that were wrong, or several of them did. So the applicants were weeded down to seven. Then I had the harness put right, and seated on the box beside the candidate I had them drive the ambulance trotting and galloping to a selected place and stop and back up quickly in front of a given house. Several of them did not know how to drive, and we had a very exciting time. The whole neighborhood was frantic. They thought there had been some terrible accident, that the ambulance should keep on going back and forth. I assure you it was very exhilarating. But we found three or four very good ambulance drivers.

Those who ridiculed our system when told incidents like that saw that it was feasible in nearly every case to give an examination that should really show whether a man was as capable as he said he was. We found out very readily.

I remember some years ago, when Mr. Roosevelt was Governor, we had the annual dinner of the Civil Service Reform Asso-

ciation. Mr. Roosevelt described his experience on the United States Civil Service Commission, and he related the practical examinations held for "customs inspectors" on the Rio Grande border. To be an efficient inspector there one must be an excellent horseman and able to shoot with a revolver. To test them the men rode at a canter, firing at the same time at a target. Mr. Bonaparte, at the close of the speech said, "How much more practical that would have been, and how much easier to decide which really was the best man of the lot, if they had passed at a gallop and shot at each other. The one who remained last would be the one certified."

I remember a practical examination for policemen—a lot of young, strong countrymen. They would be all right physically, but the doctors had to examine them with reference to their agility and strength. That would not be controlling, but it counted in the rating. The man who could chin himself ten times was rated at a hundred; nine times, at ninety, and so on down. By chinning is meant catching hold of a bar and pulling the body up till the chin goes over the bar. It makes a great difference how you catch hold. The questions asked in the written examinations were, however, perfectly simple and practical. The answers alleged to have been given in some States were not given in our New York examination, as, for instance, it is said that when a certain school teacher was asked what position she took with regard to corporal punishment, replied, "Seated, with the culprit across my knee;" nor was it a New York young man, who, asked to describe the Roman Saturnalia, replied, "It was the she-wolf who suckled Romeo and Juliet." That was a pretty example of confusion, and I am not sure but that he was the same man who, when asked, "Who was Ganymede?" replied, "Ganymede was the son of Olympus, and an eagle," and when asked to explain that, answered, "My book says that Ganymede was borne to Olympus by an eagle."

If the notion of practical examination is ridiculed, and people say it is *doctrinaire,* tell them to go and find someone who has taken the examinations. I heard a man last week talking about the examination for oil surveyor. He was complaining about the system, but admitted the *examination* was perfectly fair. An oil surveyor is the man who has the duty of seeing whether oils

are kept in accordance with the regulations for storing inflammable material, an important position. Before you ridicule the system, find out the facts.

There is an auxiliary to our Society, called the Women's Auxiliary, which has done an immensely practical work by finding out facts and circulating them. I sincerely hope that the ladies of this Conference will take the trouble to get some of their pamphlets and organize an auxiliary. The women of New York and Massachusetts have given most effective service in this direction. I plead that you will uphold this work of civil service reform. I urge everyone to support this measure, which embodies the best features of the Massachusetts and New York bills, and the experience that has been gained throughout the country. I appeal to you to secure the passage of the Ackerman bill. (Senate No. 6, introduced January 20, 1908.)

MR. COLBY—I should like to endorse all that Mr. Schieffelin has said about the influence of women in the Legislature. I have watched results of their organized efforts. Last year there was a teachers' bill up for final passage in the Senate, and a majority of the Senators were opposed to it and said they were going to vote against it. But the teachers came down in force that night and they were very attractive and interesting and intelligent, and when the roll was called the bill was passed. That shows the effect when the women really believe in what they are trying to do and organize to help it. I do not know of a bill that has failed when it has had the earnest support of the women of the State.

During our fight for the Civil Service bill we have had the assistance of Mr. Elliott H. Goodwin, of New York, who gives his entire time to traveling round the country visiting the States which are organizing Civil Service reform efforts. He will speak to us next and I have great pleasure in presenting Mr. Goodwin.

"Growth and Development of the Civil Service Movement."

BY ELLIOTT H. GOODWIN.

It has been stated by some who have spoken that they are not experts on this subject, as if it were a technical

subject, difficult to understand. Of course to every law there is a technical side, when you come to the actual wording of the law and the question of its administration, but I would challenge you to show a principle which carries out a great reform that is in reality simpler than that of Civil Service reform. Perhaps the best statement is that contained in the Constitution of New York. By the revision of the Constitution in 1894, a Civil Service reform clause was inserted and we are proud to think that we are the only State in the Union which has that as a part of its Constitution. The statement there is as follows: "Appointments and promotions in the civil service of the State and of all the civil divisions thereof, including cities and villages, shall be made according to merit and fitness to be ascertained, so far as practicable, by examinations, which so far as practicable, shall be competitive. . . ."

Now that has three parts to it, and with your permission I shall take each one up and explain the reason for it.

In the first place, I think we all will be willing to subscribe to the idea that appointments and promotions to the public service should be made only for merit and fitness; and that we would even go farther and say that that rule should apply in private service as well. But the reason it is so essential in the public service—why so much stress is laid on this reform—is because for years, for decades, for more than half a century, appointments and promotions in the public service have been made on a totally different principle—one that has never been recognized in private business and that if recognized would be destructive of private business. I refer to the spoils system of making appointments, without regard to fitness, but solely for political considerations, without any consideration of the qualifications of the appointee for the work that has to be done. That system began in this country about 1830. It was practically unknown in the Federal service, during the period from Washington down to Jackson. During that time there were about 79 removals, while in the first month of Jackson's administration there were more removals than in all those years. In his first year there were over two thousand removals, and the growth of that system went on from bad to worse every year. It was not until

after 1860 that there was any real attempt at reform. That is in brief the system which the New York constitutional amendment (declaring appointments and promotions shall be for merit only) was intended to overthrow. That part of the clause is merely a statement of principle.

Now we come to the method: First, appointments shall be, so far as practicable, by examination. These are not academic examinations. They are practical, as practical as those which Mr. Schieffelin has described. When the examination is for a clerk it is chiefly a matter of reading, writing, spelling and figuring. When it is for a stenographer it is chiefly a matter of speed and accuracy. When it is for an ambulance driver it is as to the power to drive well. The examination is designed to show the fitness of the applicant for the position he desires to fill. But a great many people who are advocates of the system up to this stage ask why we should go farther They see no reason for having the examinations competitive. They say that if a person has shown that he is capable of passing the examination, that should be sufficient, and he should be appointed.

That brings us to the last clause, which says that so far as practicable these examinations shall be competitive. A few years ago there was a man in New York holding a public position by favor of some one, and he belonged to an organization known as the Greater New York Democracy, which was born in a few months for the purpose of a campaign, and which disappeared with that administration and the change in power. He was one of those borne in on the wave and landed a public office. He used to go to Albany to almost every meeting of the Civil Service Commission to ask to be allowed to make certain appointments without regard to the law of competition. It was my job to go and see that he did not get this permission, and going up and down on the train with him, we frequently discussed the whole situation. He gave me a book that he had written, on New York politics, and on the fly-leaf he wrote an inscription with some complimentary remarks in regard to my services for Civil Service reform—which, from what I knew of the man, I took to be ironical—ending with the statement that it was written of a period when there were other methods of obtaining public office

than the "dreary ordeal of competitive examination." It was written of the period of the Tweed regimé.

I suppose all of us would regard a competitive examination as an ordeal, but that is not necessarily saying that ordeals are bad things for us, and as tests for the public service—in spite of our personal views—they may be of great value. The competitive feature is absolutely essential. It is as essential as that there shall be any examination. Why? Because without it you cannot get the right men to go into the examination, and because without it you have done nothing to exclude political considerations. Take away competition and say that the offices shall be filled by examination and the politician will put in his man. No one else has a show. So, instead of getting the best men to compete for the service, you would get no men to enter, except those promised the positions in case they pass the examinations. Civil Service reform requires competition, and says to the citizens of the State, or the country, as the case may be, this examination is open to all of you and the appointment will go to the one who shows himself most fit. Nothing is more important in connection with the system than the element of competition.

The history of Civil Service reform shows a number of distinct periods, but we who are engaged in the work do not spend much time in reviewing what has been done in the past, for we see there is a good deal to do ahead of us. It is now twenty-five years since the passage of the first real Civil Service law, the Pendleton bill, and, as we look back to that time, we see how much has been accomplished. I should like briefly to state what was been accomplished in introducing this reform in the national, State and city governments. To the work of the New York Civil Service Reform Association can be attributed in large degree the Civil Service laws for the Federal service and for New York. Since 1881 a number of local associations have sprung up, which have joined together for national work in the National Civil Service Reform League. It is questionable whether the league would have succeeded in accomplishing the passage of laws had it not been for the murder of President Garfield by a disappointed office-seeker. This really led to the passage of the Civil Service law in January, 1883. If you are ever interested enough to look

over the lists of the names of the men who voted for that bill at that time and watch how many of them have voted ever since, you would be filled with amazement. Those men have voted since to take away appropriations from the Civil Service Commission, and have tried to hamper the administration of the law, although at that time they were brought to vote for the bill under pressure. The Pendleton law, at the time of passage, covered only 13,000 offices, but the law gave the power to the President, with the Commission, to extend it from time to time, and it has been so extended regularly, under almost every President, particularly under Cleveland and Roosevelt, until now the classified service, as it is called, has grown from 13,000 to 196,000, subject to competition under the Civil Service law. And that is not all, for the law does not permit the classification of positions which are subject to confirmation by the Senate, nor of unskilled laborers. The positions subject to confirmation in the consular service have, by Executive order, been brought under examination, and far the greater number of laborers in the Federal offices in the larger cities are subject to the registration system, which is competitive. So much for the Federal service.

New York and Massachusetts, in 1883 and 1884, adopted Civil Service laws, but it was almost twenty years before any other State took it up. In 1905 Wisconsin and Illinois adopted the measure. And in 1907 Colorado followed suit. So that there are five States now which have Civil Service laws, and I hope next year there will be at least six.

Added to that there are a considerable number of cities in different parts of the country which have adopted Civil Service regulations. That is the total to-day in the way of legislative enactment, but it does not tell the story of the growth of the movement for Civil Service reform. That is in a more advanced condition than at any time in the past. The interest in the movement is greater and the knowledge of it is wider as is seen in the attempts which are being made in all parts of the country to secure the passage of Civil Service laws.

I was promised the privilege of taking part in the discussion, and I hoped to have a chance to say a word about the New Jersey Civil Service bill, for I have had a good deal to do with it. In

fact I had a good deal to do with the bill which Senator Colby described as having gone down to defeat three times last year. I believe it to be one of the best that has ever been introduced in any legislature in the United States, and I was sincerely disappointed at its defeat. It was, however, an advanced measure containing some provisions which really have not yet received the approval of all of the friends of reform; and it has been superseded by the Ackerman bill, which is more conservative, but which I can say, having been over every line and word of it, is deserving of the support of every right-thinking citizen in the State. It applies ipso facto to the State service, whereas the other applied to the State, cities, and counties, but it was thought impracticable to pass such a measure. The present bill, however, is not without provision for its extension to all parts of the State and all the civil divisions. This is accomplished by a provision that any city council or other representative body in a country or town or village may adopt this act by simply voting so to do, and then the State Civil Service Commission will take jurisdiction. If there should be a strong public sentiment in favor of the reform, you have your remedy, even if the council should be against it in the form of a petition for a referendum with only a reasonable number of signers required. Through this you can force the question whether Civil Service reform shall be adopted or not, to be brought before the voters at the next regular election. I may truly say that the Ackerman bill is an excellent measure, and one deserving of your support. I thank you for your attention.

MR. COLBY—One of the few legislators who has devoted himself to this bill most earnestly is Hon. E. R. Ackerman. I will ask him to speak to you.

SENATOR ACKERMAN—I am glad to be here, and I thank you for the courtesy of being allowed to say a few words in connection with this bill. Senator Colby is altogether too modest in regard to his merits in the question. I merely wish to briefly recite how I came to be so deeply involved in the issue of Civil Service reform.

Last winter a bill was introduced in the State Senate, and, unfortunately for some of the legislators, the measure bore the mystic number 23. They said "We cannot vote for that," and it was a long time before we got it before the Senate. On several occasions I endeavored to have some of my friends give consideration to it, but they said no, we cannot vote for No. 23. After much amending, it was finally passed and reached the House, where it was defeated. We had a long session, and in June another Civil Service bill was introduced by Senator Hillery, and which met the same fate in the House.

In the fall, when we reconvened, I was appointed chairman of a committee, the members of which were told to get up a bill for Civil Servic reform, so that it could be passed during the session. We told the President of the Senate that this time we were going to get up a bill that would pass. We gave a great amount of time to the subject, and we considered every section very carefully. When the bill was being drafted, Mr. Goodwin, of the Civil Service Reform League, gave us some excellent advice, and helped to put on the finishing touches. We reported the bill, and it received the vote of every member of the Senate who was present, both Democrats and Republicans. When the measure reached the House the members played politics with it by arranging for an elective commission, and having accomplished that, it was voted down. That was before the election for Governor.

Immediately after the adjournment of the Legislature, we took the matter up again, resolved to do something that would receive the attention of the legislators at Trenton. We met frequently at Mr. Sumerwell's office, and got up the very best bill that it seemed possible to produce. We submitted it to Governor Stokes, who made some suggestions. We gave a copy to Mr. Sumerwell, and who afterward talked with Judge Fort and the Governor referred strongly and approvingly of the subject in his inaugural address. There is little credit due me because my name happens to be associated with this bill, except that I have been able to give some aid at headquarters. The credit belongs to Senator Colby, and we offered the present bill to him to introduce, but he declined the honor and said that I should

introduce the measure. I want to say publicly that Senator Colby is the force that has accomplished this work.

When the bill was presented to the Committee of the Senate, the Chairman said, "Good gracious, what did the President mean by sending me that great bill for." I told him that it was a good bill, and that he would not have to hire a lawyer to explain it; that Mr. Goodwin had gone over it, that I had gone over it, and that if he promptly reported the bill from committee, it would be in harmony with his past favorable record on the subject.

The bill was reported, and it will probably have its second reading to-night.

The people's business is a serious business, and should be conducted with economy and efficiency, and the bill under consideration provides—

1. Reasonable time for adoption.
2. Protects all employes in office, whether Republicans or Democrats.
3. Absolute responsibility for the personnel of the Commission vested in the Governor.
4. Expenses of the Commission are limited.
5. No person can be appointed contrary to the provisions of the act.
6. Merit and fitness to prevail.
7. Probationers to have a fair trial.
8. Examinations to be reasonable and practical, relating to the positions to be filled.
9. Commission to audit all payrolls.
10. No political assessments.
11. Home rule recognized.
12. Business-like, simple and in accordance with the spirit of the times.
13. Conforms to the State platforms.
14. Recognizes the Governor's recommendations.
15. Serves and protects the interests of the taxpayers.

The next speaker was Mr. EDWARD K. SUMERWELL, Secretary of the New Jersey State Civic Federation, and Chairman of the Legislative Committee of the New Jersey State Civil Service

Association, who has represented the Association in the preparation of the Civil Service bills and in their advocacy in behalf of the State Association before the Legislature.

Mr. SUMERWELL—You have heard the history of Civil Service reform. As the hour is so late, I will only mention a few of the salient points of the Ackerman bill, and try to show you that the bill is practicable, that it is simple, and that it is especially desirable from the viewpoint which brings this meeting together. I consider it a very happy augury that the Conference should take cognizance of the need for a better and more orderly arrangement of the terms of employment under which the Civil Service shall be conducted. The effects of the spoils system from the charitable aspect are extremely pernicious, as you know. The retention in office of men who have as their sole claim to that office the friendship of political leaders is most baleful, and it is that which the merit system strives to supplant.

The Ackerman bill is mandatory upon the State officers, and optional with the offices in the counties and municipalities. In that respect it is a conservative measure. In the first paragraph we have taken the wording of the New York law as the basis for the law of New Jersey, and have added that after the expiration of six months from the time of the approval of this act, appointments to and promotions in the Civil Service shall be made only according to merit and fitness, to be ascertained, as far as practicable, by examinations, which, as far as practicable, shall be competitive. Provision is also made that dismissals shall be only for cause. The competitive class includes all positions for which it is practicable to determine the merit and fitness of applicants by competitive examinations, and includes positions in every branch of the classified service, except such as are in the exempt or non-competitive class.

So far as the character of the examinations is concerned, they are "to be practical and to relate to those matters which will fairly test the relative capacity of the persons examined to discharge the duties of the position which they seek." No question shall relate to political or religious opinions or affiliations. This affords a proper protection on these heads.

For any position which involves fiduciary responsibility, a bond or other security is required. In practical operation, after the examination of the applicants, their eligibility is recorded in the order of their percentages of merit; and when the head of a department desires to fill a vacancy, he notifies the Commission, and the Commission certifies to the appointing officer the names and addresses of the three candidates standing highest upon the register for the class or grade to which the position belongs. The position must be filled by the selection of one of the three. That is the whole story. It takes from the head of the department or institution the opportunity to range at will among his own friends or the friends of other political leaders, and to select such persons as may suit him, and yet may not be at all suitable for the public service. They are tied down to the selection of one of the three, who, by their own conduct and by their examinations and the approval of the Commission, are found to be at the head of the list. There can be nothing more practical or fairer.

The bill provides that "no officer, clerk, or employe in the classified Civil Service shall be removed, discharged, reduced in pay or position, or otherwise discriminated against because of his religious or political opinions or affiliations."

Here is another important provision, that "any person who shall directly or indirectly solicit any subscription for any political purpose from any employe of the State shall be guilty of a misdemeanor." That prevents the mischief of political assessments or involuntary contributions. Sometimes from 10 to 25 per cent. of the wages of employes are demanded for political purposes, whether they desire to subscribe or not. This, as is well known, is one of the worst features of the present system.

Any municipality may adopt the provision of the act by an ordinance, duly adopted by the governing body of the municipality, or by the petition and vote of the qualified voters of the municipality. If at the election the majority votes against the law, it is inoperative as to that municipality.

That is the general outline of this bill. I ask you to consider it, and to write to your Senators for copies of Senate Bill No. 6, and to write to Mr. Elliott H. Goodwin or myself with respect to

any question that may arise. After you have satisfied yourselves that *it is* a practical measure, which will tend to the up-building and stability of the service, I ask you to have this matter brought before such organizations as may have accredited you here, so they may also exert their influence in its favor. Legislators are only too anxious to know the wish of the people of the State and of representative organizations. If you look about in your communities you will see the hardships done to reputable employes, in the sudden withdrawal of their employment at the behest of political leaders, through a change of political authority. The families suffer because the breadwinner is thrown out of public employment at a time when it is impossible for him to adjust himself to other conditions; and when, perhaps, following public employment for a term of years has unfitted him for the ordinary struggle of life. On account of these conditions it is a subject for the serious consideration of the Charity Conference whether there is anything more important to do than to express itself in some forcible and proper manner in advocacy of this measure. And I leave this subject with you in the hope that when you return to your homes, you will decide to support this measure and will prepare suitable resolutions for adoption by your local organizations. I have had the honor of addressing a number of organizations upon this subject throughout the State, and without exception they have favored the general policy of the Civil Service law; and I now ask you to favor specifically the Ackerman bill. I thank you, and I shall be glad to leave with the Secretary some books which will show you the nature of the examinations and how the law is working where it has been adopted.

MR. COLBY then invited BISHOP LINES to speak on the subject.

BISHOP LINES—Thank you for the invitation to speak on the subject of Civil Service legislation. I have been long interested in it, but I came to the meeting to-day with no intention of speaking, and one ought to have made careful preparation before addressing those who are gathered here. The subject of the afternoon has close relation to the great subject of the Adminis-

tration of Charity and Correction, for there have been many abuses through the incompetence of public officers appointed through favoritism rather than by reason of their fitness for office. All of us who desire the good of the State must earnestly hope that there will be intelligent legislation in respect to Civil Service laws. From what I know of the proposed bill I am sure that it would mean good to have it written down in the statute book of this State.

MR. SAMUEL FORT, of Wrightstown—This bill should receive the support of the Granges of New Jersey. Mr. G. W. F. Gaunt, of Mullica Hill, New Jersey, is the State Master, and has much influence over from fifteen to twenty thousand people, all interested in the agriculture of the State. You need their support; it is just in the line of what the people need. The agriculturalists of the State demand a judicious and economical expenditure of the funds of the State. I shall go home and will suggest that a forcible resolutions should be drawn up and passed by the Grange of which I am a member and sent to our representatives in the Senate and House, asking them for their support.

MRS. E. E. WILLIAMSON—As President of the State Charities Aid Association, and representing that body, I am glad to have a chance in public to state that the Ackerman bill has our hearty approval, and that we shall use every effort during the coming session of the Legislature to have it become a law. We consider it most important, and think that its provisions are good and easily understood, and that in connection with the State institutions it will be a very important forward movement. It will undoubtedly give the State better service.

Senator Colby has this morning suggested that women's organizations can be of great use in connection with the passage of the Ackerman bill and all other important measures that may be brought before the Legislature. His statement that women are always received with a great deal of courtesy by the legislators of both Houses, and attention paid to their requests, is true, and it now seems well that all of us women here present to-day should

go home and through our various organizations, and personally, also, endorse the Ackerman bill, and also bring it to the attention of both men and women, and in this way educate public opinion.

The Ackerman bill is the best bill of the kind that has ever been presented. Some of us would like to have it go further in its provisions, but we are willing to wait, because we feel that with the approval of the Legislature for this measure it will be easy in the future to enlarge its scope. It took nine years to get the Rahway Reformatory, and four years to secure the passage of the act which created the State Board of Children's Guardians. It takes time to educate public opinion, and no legislation can be thoroughly effective without a properly educated public opinion.

MRS. JOSEPH A. MACCLARY, chairman sub-committee Civil Service New Jersey State Federation of Women's Clubs, Rahway—I can echo what Mrs. Williamson has said as to the help that women can give. We have done a great deal of work in Union county. The Federation of Women's Clubs is interested in this legislation and will help in securing the passage of this bill.

MR. COLBY—I wish some women could be elected to the Legislature.

FATHER FOY—We have been entertained, instructed and edified by this discussion. We should now try to carry into the community the ideas we have received. It is evident that the sentiment of this Conference is decidedly in favor of the passage of that bill. I think it can be said that the consensus of opinion at this meeting is in favor of it, even though our rules forbid us to pass resolutions to that effect.

The following Committee on Nominations was announced:

Mr. J. Doull Miller, Plainfield; Mr. Richard Stevens, Hoboken; Mr. J. J. Mulvaney, Jersey City; Mr. Hugh F. Fox, Plainfield;

Mr. Edward R. Johnstone, Vineland, and Mrs. E. E. Williamson, Elizabeth.

The following Committee on Resolutions was announced:

Rev. Walter Reid Hunt, Orange; Mr. Bleecker Van Wagenen, Orange; and Rev. A. C. Nickerson, Plainfield.

THIRD SESSION.

Monday Evening, February 10th, 1908.

PRESIDENT FOY—The subject before us this evening, "Crime, Its Prevention and Treatment," figures in these or similar words in every program of the Conference of Charities and Correction. It is of the most vital importance. If the personnel of the gentlemen on the platform, and of those who are in the audience, were sufficiently multiplied, there would be no crime and no need of its prevention and cure. Men are working hard along the lines of prevention and cure. Of those on the program no one has done more effective work than Hon. Alfred F. Skinner, whom I have now the pleasure of introducing.

Crime, Its Prevention and Treatment.

BY HON. ALFRED F. SKINNER.

This subject has been treated at every meeting of this Conference. Each time a few more people are reached, both in the attendance at the Conference and in the dissemination of the proceedings by the newspapers. Each time that this Conference meets, it tries to teach some lesson as to the true method of dealing with crime and criminals, and so, year by year, the work has rolled on. Year by year the efforts of the devoted few who started the movement—some of them are with us to-night—have been crowned with success; and when you come to survey the work of the Conference, there is every reason for being satisfied. Each year has brought its fruit.

The topic that engages our attention to-night engages the thought of many judges, prosecutors, and police officers, a good many workers in the penal institutions, and it is not a subject that can be covered in any one night. Year by year this Conference tries to spread the truth a little farther, and to get some newer thought before the people. To-night we are going to consider certain phases of the general subject. One subject has been the occasion for a great deal of enthusiastic work—the treatment of the discharged prisoner. Our first subject, however, is to be the enforcement of law.

I want to say a word, before that address, as to what the attitude of this Conference is towards crime and towards criminals, in order that the work of this Conference may be clearly understood. Of course I cannot pretend to voice the convictions of the Conference. I can only voice my own convictions and speak from my own knowledge of what the views and purposes of the Conference are.

First of all I want to say that the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction does not treat crime as a disease. There are some writers who say that crime is a disease, and the poor criminal is only to be treated as one would treat a patient. I do not understand that that is the attitude of this Conference. We know that there are delinquent children that are wayward, vicious, obstinate, and it is found upon examination that there is some pressure on the brain, some lesion, which accounts for it. An operation is performed and that child is transformed. It would be proper to say of such a case, in a rather indirect form of expression, that crime here was a disease, but those cases are a very, very small part in the field of crime.

Then there are people who believe that crime is hereditary. Personally, I do not believe much in heredity as an element in the origin of crime, and I do not believe this Conference does. There are just enough cases to show that heredity is responsible for impulses that are transmitted, to be worthy the notice of anyone studying crime from a scientific point of view. But it is not worthy of attention in any practical consideration of this subject. So while I cannot speak for the Conference, yet I believe it to be

the attitude of the Conference not to regard crime as a disease, or that it has its origin in heredity. The people of this Conference believe in the good old-fashioned method of treating children by spanking by the arm that has inherited the right to spank, and that punishment is, after all, the largest single remedy for crime. They believe that the law must have in it not only something of compassion, but something of the severity that in the past has been too abundant. This Conference does not propose to operate on every criminal because a few children are found to be relieved by an operation.

I want to emphasize what I think has been the lesson of lessons that the Conference has been trying to teach with reference to crime, and that is this, that all criminals are not alike and that all criminals should not be treated alike. If you will stop to think, you will see that that is at the basis of the indeterminate sentence, which permits the punishment that is to be meted out to each prisoner to be suited to his case by the wise judges who study and observe him. You will see that that is at the basis of the probation system, which picks out the first offender from the hardened offenders and discriminates in his favor, and says give that man a chance; that it is that which is at the basis of the juvenile court, which says, take the boy or girl and treat him differently, separate him from the older offenders, give him a court by himself and treatment suited to his years. It is at the bottom of the parole system which has come into use in this State. All these things are based upon the principle that all criminals are not alike.

Will you just stop and think of the attitude of society toward criminals. Think of it. I hate to think of it. It is one of the reproaches of the civilization of to-day, that it has existed so long. The idea has been that when a man committed crime there was something of moral taint about him; that when he went into prison he went in as a fallen character, and when he came out skirts were to be drawn aside and people were to stand away from him. The attitude of society toward the criminal is that of society toward the leper. It would be just as sensible to treat for leprosy every person who has any sort of disease, as to treat every per-

son who has committed a crime as if he were a moral leper. We quarantine lepers; we do not quarantine the man with the broken leg. Why should we put every criminal in social quarantine? Some criminals are so vicious and depraved that there is a moral contagion about them, but many are as free from that contagion as you or I. The fact is that every judge, every prosecutor, every keeper of a state prison, found out long ago that the men who are criminals are not all alike. Oh, yes, you may accept that now, you may say, that surely is true, why should he emphasize it? We agree that they are not all alike, but still I venture to say that some of you keep the idea in your mind that although there may be differences between the criminals themselves, they are after all very different from you and me. And that is not so. They are not very different from you and me. There are men in prison who are just like you or me, except that they had some corrupting influence that you and I did not have; except that they had some temptation that never confronted you or me; except that there was some opportunity for the commission of crime that never presented itself to you or to me, and they yielded to that temptation, they succumbed to those corrupting influences, they embraced the opportunity for crime, just as you and I might have done.

Now when they did it, when they yielded to the temptation, did that make them different from you and me? Oh, no, not different at any rate in the sense that they were worse, only that they were weaker for the time, only that the opportunity came at the time with the temptation. It did not change their character. It was neither an index of a different character from yours and mine, nor was it a cause that produced a change in them that made them different from you and me.

There are men who seem determined to prey upon the community, who have such vicious and depraved appetites as to love their evil life; men who have such a disgust for honest work that they cannot earn an honest dollar, but must get it by crooked ways. For these men the law should provide long-continued, lasting punishment. The law should give to the judge who sentences, the power and the right to say to these men, upon a record of numerous convictions, that they are habitual criminals and

should be put away for life where they cannot continue their war upon society. Society is justified in regarding them as enemies. But all criminals are not like that, and the lessons that this Conference has been trying to teach is that there are these differences in criminals, and that they should be treated differently.

There are differences also in the nature, the personality, of the criminal that enter into the problem of punishment. I remember going to the Rahway Reformatory and standing with the man who was taking the record, by the Bertillon system, of two young men who had just come in. I did not know anything about their record. One looked stolid, beefy, with no nerves. He was half stripped and turned round while his nose, ears, etc., were measured and it seemed to have no effect on him. Then the other young man was put up, and he was of finer grain. I do not know what he had done, but I felt that he was a criminal by casualty, such as might have come to anyone who had made a misstep. As the officer performed his duty in measuring him, turning him round as if he were a side of beef, the sweat stood out on that young man's body and ran down his cheeks. He was in an agony of humiliation. Was there not punishment for him there that the other man did not experience? Was there not a difference between them which should make society stop and consider what the prospects are of redeeming these men? One could be redeemed only by punishment of the old-fashioned kind, which need not be inflicted on the other. Of course, that difference ought to work out a different method of punishment, and here I would like to say a good word for the Rahway Reformatory. I do not know what the truth is about the alleged abuses at that reformatory. I would not stop now to consider whether or not those charges are probably true or probably false, because this is not the time, but I want to say that the system by which the institution is founded is on the right principle. They believe in treating criminals as human beings, capable of better things as well as bad things, and they realize that they are not all alike. What happens the men who are sent there? There are three grades. The man who comes in is first put into the middle grade and is marked on his conduct. If he behaves himself and his marks show a certain result, up he goes to the higher grade. If his in-

fractions of prison discipline result in the lowering of his marks, he goes to the lower grade. He is there because he has not been willing to submit to the restraint which society imposes, and the strict discipline of the reformatory helps to bring him to understand the need of obedience to law. But he always has the hope of going from the lower grade to the higher. He does not have to wait until he gets out of prison to have hope enter his heart. It comes to him right there. He is made to feel while in prison that society has put him away, but expects to have him back when he is prepared to come back, or when in the judgment of the managers of the institution he is fit to take his place among his fellowmen. I hope and pray that if as the outcome of the investigation there be any public indignation over individual abuses, it will not be passed on to the methods that are in use in that institution, because those methods are the ones that should be adopted, and before long will be adopted, please God, in every prison in this State. Consider the methods of that institution and compare them with the old penitentiary! For all the same old place, the same old treatment, the same punishment, the same work—so called—the same slavery; all on one level, and that the level of the lowest, and oh, how low those lowest are! the dregs of the community, the flotsam and jetsam of wicked city life. All the dissolute and desperate, the drunken and the disorderly are thrown into the penitentiary and along with them perhaps a boy, who was a clerk in a store, well brought up, well trained, but who had never seen as much money as he saw in that cash drawer; or he was a collector who was trusted with more money than he had ever handled, or he had taken a little too much drink and before he knew it he had passed beyond the bounds of spending his own money in the saloon and was spending his employer's. So he is sent to the penitentiary to break stone with the lowest of the low. That is the old style, may it last but a short time in Essex county!

Our first topic is the enforcement of law. Is it not strange that in a discussion on the prevention and treatment of crime there should be any such topic as the enforcement of law? That is what we have had to come to because of laxity in the enforcement of law. It is the reproach of the community

that that condition should exist. All the evil in the community is not of the positive kind. There are sins of omission as well as sins of commission, and sometimes the virtuous portion of the community has as much occasion to condemn themselves as to sit in judgment upon evildoers, but once in a while, out of an indifferent community, tolerant of evil and violation of the law, there comes the sturdier character, the man who meets official responsibilities squarely and performs official duties fully, undaunted by the attacks of the vicious, undiscouraged by the indifference of the virtuous. We have such a man in Essex county. He is the sheriff of the county, and in that office he has made it clear that laws are to be enforced. He is going to speak to you on the subject "The Enforcement of Law." He probably knows more about that subject than any other man in the State.

Non-enforcement of the Criminal Law, Its Causes and its Consequences.

BY HON. FRANK H. SOMMER.

It is not my purpose to discuss in this paper the merits or demerits of any particular provision of the criminal law.

Nor is it my purpose to justify the execution of this body of the law.

I take it for granted that all who believe in government concede that the criminal law should be generally and effectively executed, though in individual judgment certain of its provisions may be deemed ill-advised. Failing such execution, the law and its administration fall into contempt.

My purpose is to indicate the causes of the failure generally and effectively to execute certain provisions of the criminal law and to point out that such non-execution carries in its train consequences extending far beyond the violation, with impunity, of the unenforced provisions.

The statute books of the several States contain laws prohibiting the sale of intoxicants on Sunday, and declaring the violation of their provisions to be a crime.

The fact that in certain municipalities large numbers of the people, and in some perhaps a majority, regard the sale of intoxicants on Sunday as an act innocent in itself, has led, in these municipalities, to the lax or non-enforcement of these laws. General public sentiment in these communities neither demands the general and effective enforcement of these laws by those on whom the duty of their execution is imposed, nor resents the failure so to execute them.

Constitutional and statutory provisions in the several States declare gaming in all its various forms to be a crime.

With respect to these provisions the situation with reference to public sentiment and lax non-enforcement is much the same.

This too may be said of the statutes prohibiting the maintenance of bawdy-houses, and declaring their maintenance a crime, which statutes are declaratory of the common law.

Many profess (though seldom publicly) to believe these establishments to be "necessary social evils." In the main those who do not entertain this belief are content with such a show of enforcement as suffices to keep these establishments beyond the bounds of the immediate neighborhood of their dwellings.

These conditions open the door to the sale, in comparative security from discovery, of indulgences by those on whom the duty of executing these laws is imposed.

In a paper like this the details of evidence cannot be given, but the experience of several of the more populous cities of our States establishes beyond dispute with what avidity the opportunity so presented has been seized.

It is public tolerance of, and tacit acquiescense in, the lax and non-enforcement of these laws and the violation of their provisions with impunity, that are in large part responsible for the crimes of bribery, blackmail and extortion involved in these sales of indulgences and the corruption of those who control the machinery for the punishment of criminal offences.

The experience of these cities also indicates how readily the bribe-taker becomes a bribe-giver, seeking preferment and advancement through the corrupt expenditure of money, and so extending the lines of corruption and debauchery among those charged with the administration of the criminal law.

Lack of general public resentment at the failure to enforce these laws generally and effectively and the resulting sale, by those entrusted with their execution, of the "special privilege" of violating their provisions with impunity, combine to create a body of violators of the law who feel the necessity of perpetuating paid protection.

This necessity carries them into the struggle for the control of the machinery of political parties, the government of city, county and State, and particularly of those departments which control the machinery for the detection, prevention and punishment of crime.

In this struggle they and their retinue form an active and influencial factor always kept in mind and considered by those who guide the affairs of the political organizations.

The men entrusted with the prevention and suppression of crime are more or less dependent upon the favor of these political guides for preferment and promotion.

As a body they are honest and loyal servants as well as brave. Most of them have not succumbed to the temptation to exact bribes and practice extortion. All of them, however, are fully aware of the tolerant state of public sentiment concerning violations of these laws, and know well "that the political party in power is not anxious to have a vigorous enforcement of these laws at their hands, because such enforcement is apt to be disturbive, if not destructive, of political futures," They have been taught by various means that undesired activity in the execution of these laws will lead to opposition to promotion, and to transfers to less desirable precincts and beats far from their homes. The result is that those of them who will not stoop to accept bribery, and will not practice extortion will nevertheless not enforce these laws unless there are such complaints of specific places or persons that they are forced to make some show of activity.

The active entry of the violators of these laws into the political struggle which I have already indicated leads to the perpetration of crimes affecting the franchise; crimes calculated to defeat the will of the electorate. These crimes are committed in comparative security. Eyes closed to one form of crime

through the payment of a price cannot reasonably be expected to be open in the detection of frauds upon the franchise perpetrated by the payers of such price. Nor is it reasonable to expect eyes blinded to one class of crime, because of the political influence of the offenders, to be alert to detect frauds upon the electorate committed by them.

In the retinue of those engaged in the violation of these laws under paid protection are found the pliant tools employed in frauds on the franchise. From these ranks come those who have made of illegal registration and repeating at party primaries and elections a fine art. Places in the public employ are the rewards of these followers. Established in such places they too, profiting by the examples of those with whom their preceptors dealt, sell indulgences of various kinds.

These are the causes, and some of the consequences of the want of a general and effective execution of these laws.

The conditions pointed out strike at the foundation of the State. To meet these conditions a general public sentiment demanding the uniform and effective execution of these laws must be created and manifested—a general public sentiment resenting, and intolerant of, the lax or non-enforcement thereof.

Failing this it were better to repeal these laws and leave the ends sought to be gained thereby to be accomplished by moral means, in order that their non-execution and the evil consequences connected therewith may not impair the general regard and reverence for the law.

JUDGE W. H. SPEER was introduced by JUDGE SKINNER.

JUDGE SPEER—I want to say that I heartily agree with the diagnosis that the Sheriff has made of the disease that afflicts the body politic with respect to this problem of the enforcement of law. I want to carry the thought which he has embodied in his splendid speech one step farther. That diagnosis is that public opinion does not condemn the non-enforcement of law sufficiently to show its resentment against those who disobey its provisions. I want to carry the thought so far as this; that public opinion not only should condemn disobedience to the law,

but that public opinion in some concrete way should affirmatively show its approval of those servants of the law who do their duty well and faithfully. No one knows who has not had practical experience in a question of this kind, who has not been as Sheriff Sommer has ever been, up against the combined and organized power of evil—no one knows, I say, what it means to stand alone and fight the fight against combined evil with the public looking on indifferently. The public owes a duty to its servants which it does not seem to realize. When election time comes around some of you go to the polls and in some way an election is had, and a sheriff is elected, and he goes into his office with a desire to enforce the law. He starts off in a brave endeavor to carry out that design, and what does he find? I read in to-day's paper that a police officer in endeavoring to carry out the law was mobbed. The thing reads as if it might have occurred where people live without law. It does not seem to me that such a thing should be allowed to happen in such a community as this. The laws are to be obeyed, and I agree that if these laws cannot be enforced by a concrete, organized, favorable, public opinion they should be wiped off the books, rather than allowed to remain there and bring the whole body of the law into contempt. Let us put on the books such laws as represent safe, sound, sane public opinion. Let us put them there because we desire and design to have them obeyed, and then when they are there, let us hold our public officials, our grand juries, our police to the enforcing of them, and if they do not, let us put the officers out.

Now it means a great deal for an officer to enforce the law when there seems to be apathy in the public. Take a concrete case of what it means to say the right thing and do the right thing if you have not the public with you. You will observe that on some occasion President Roosevelt makes up his mind that some great aggregation of wealth ought to be prosecuted, and he so announces—what is the result? A subsidized press all over this community hurl their slings at the head of the honest public servant.

Sheriff Sommer makes up his mind that in Newark there are places where gambling is carried on, and that it is his duty to

enforce the law, and he goes forward to close up those places, and what is the result? A howl goes up as though he had struck a vicious blow at the liberties of the people. There is something wrong when that kind of thing can be so widespread that a sheriff can almose hate himself for doing his duty. The wrong is an apathetic, diseased public opinion. Here we are to-night discussing this problem—is the hall full? The quality is excellent, but are the numbers what the magnitude of the subject should bring here to join in the discussion? Not at all. There are only a few gathered together. But there may be good results if each will go away determined to awaken public opinion, to arouse the people to the necessity of having true and positive views with respect to the duty of the community as to the enforcement of law. You can each do that in the place where your home is. If you will do that I daresay that next year you can all come and report progress.

JUDGE SKINNER—Some of us, perhaps, are here for the first time, or have recently taken up this work, but there are others who have the satisfaction of seeing results of the work of years. We are to hear from one of the pioneers in the cause of penal reform, who is having the satisfaction of seeing her labors crowned with success. Much of her work in the great cause, to which she has been giving her time and money, has been for the paroled prisoner. I take pleasure in introducing Mrs. Emily E. Williamson.

The Discharged Prisoner—How Shall We Treat Him?

BY MRS. EMILY E. WILLIAMSON.

When I attended the International Prison Congress in Buda Pesth, two years ago, the question which was ever before the delegates was: "The Ex-Prisoner. What Shall We Do For Him Upon Release?" In the discussion, it was the opinion of the majority that what is needed for the ex-convict is not charity, but the opportunity of employment. Indiscriminate charity helps

to fill our prisons—it makes idlers and toughs. A large number of prisoners learn to work while in prison, and quite a large number are willing to take advantage of this when they have finished their terms.

The prison door, upon release, is the place to give the ex-convict his chance by placing him at once at work. To live up to all the good resolutions he has made in prison, he must work. But can he get work? He has no references. The labor unions oppose his employment. Generally he has no tools, no clothing, and only the five dollars given him at the prison when he leaves. He is generally friendless, and the world is his enemy. Naturally he must go to those who ask for no references. So the good resolutions are defeated by a heartless world, and the religious influences that made a deep impression upon him, are turned into mockery, and he even has a horror of all religionists.

You say that moral and religious principles should make him steadfast in his desire for good, but when the door of every Christian home and church is closed to him, how can he be otherwise? With all avenues of work virtually closed, and all Christian fellowship denied, do you wonder that the ex-convict loses faith and hope? Who are his friends? His family? No. He, generally, as the "black sheep," is cast off by them. His respectable fellow citizens? No. They distrust him on principle. Generally the only interest they have is to tell others that he is an ex-convict. Who are his real friends? Why, persons who have wronged society. The dive-keeper and the saloon-keeper. They give him clothing, feed him, loan him money, and a roof to cover his head, and the ex-convict throws over his good resolutions.

Of course, all ex-convicts are not reliable. In fact, the crime for which they have been imprisoned leaves a streak of unreliability in all, and so it is not enough to find him employment, to loan him money, to find him a home. He must be taken by the hand, so to speak, by a friend, who will guide and influence him, give him confidence. This friend must watch over him—put him on his honor. There is a natural sense of honor in every crook. This friend must be firm and honest in purpose. I remember hearing a noted specialist say that the lack of personal influence

from individuals upon individuals was responsible in a large degree for the lack of success in reclaiming ex-convicts by organizations.

To be a friend to the ex-convict upon his release, means some expense, a large amount of confidence in the possibilities for good in human nature. It means the using of a large amount of common sense, patience, and moral courage; the ignoring of the dubious head-shaking of friends. It means the giving of wise counsel and not in over-doses.

In Switzerland, there has been in operation a mode of treatment of ex-convicts that follows closely the lines of my thought in this matter. In fact, my reading of their experience has suggested much of my present attitude to me. There the convict is aided in his upward struggle, with work, personal sympathy, counsel, and individual interestedness, and the results are truly wonderful. In one canton, that of Neufchatel, the proportion of recidivists ten years ago was four per cent., while thirty years ago it reached the astounding quantity of seventy-five per cent. These results are brought about, not through direct action of societies or organizations, but through a system of assigning a discharged man to the care of charitable men, who are called patrons. The keynote of the patrons' activity is: "Aid, protection and friendly surveillance."

Could the prison chaplain follow the ex-convict outside of the prison walls, the influence that he has had over him would be extended to his after-life. How grand it would be. In our State prison, at Trenton, in a very large degree—just as far as his strength and finances will permit—Father Fish has kept in the right path many ex-convicts after they have been released. The State Charities Aid Association, of which I am President, has helped him, when possible financially. And, again, there is one woman in our midst, one of our noted workers, who has, by her individual interest and efforts, kept straight and honest several ex-convicts. I remember calling at her country place, to find her expecting some poor fellows who were to spend their holiday in the beautiful surroundings of her home.

I know that it is impossible for us all to give individual aid, protection and friendly surveillance to the ex-convict. But it is within the power of every one to give according to his means to organizations who shall employ persons who are fitted for this work. It is in the power of all of us to give a helping hand to the ex-convict when he crosses our path.

In the Province of Ontario in Canada, there is good work being done for ex-convicts by an organization called "The Prison Gate Work." Major Archibald, of Toronto, in a most interesting report, tells of the several branches of this work, but our interest is in the Free Labor Bureau which works in connection with "The Prison Gate Work." In one year, 514 men were found employment upon discharge from prisons and jails. This organization is supported entirely by private subscriptions. The work is endorsed by Warden Gilmour, of the Central prison, and by Warden Platte, of the Kingston penitentiary.

In eighteen States of the Union, prisoners released from State institutions are furnished with money and clothing; in fourteen, with money, clothing and transportation; in six, with money only; in four with money and transportation. In one, Alabama, nothing is done for discharged prisoners. In Massachusetts, in addition to money, clothing and transportation, tools and board, or anything needed to start the man or woman under way to becoming self-supporting, they endeavor to do. The Board of Prison Commissioners supply prisoners with spectacles, trusses, artificial limbs, eyes and teeth, crutches and canes, and sometimes license and employment fees have been paid. In fact, they try to do everything they can to bring about the best results in re-establishing the man or woman. Most of the aid to discharged prisoners in Massachusetts is done by the State and county authorities, and the Massachusetts Society for Aiding Discharged Convicts. I understand that the agent for discharged female prisoners has been very successful in finding employment for them.

There are twenty-three societies, not including the Salvation Army and the Volunteers of America, engaged in efforts to help the discharged prisoner. The Pennsylvania Prison Society

of Philadelphia was established in 1787. The Prison Association of New York was established in 1844. The Massachusetts Society for helping discharged convicts was established in 1846. The Maryland Prisoners' Aid Association was established in 1869, and the Connecticut Prison Association in 1875. The Prisoners' Aid Association of New Hampshire in 1870. D'Arcambal Home of Industry, Detriot, Mich., was established in 1899. The Oregon Prisoners' Aid Society of Salem in 1903. These are the Societies that are most directly engaged in furnishing material assistance to the released prisoner.

The Central Howard Association of Chicago, the Massachusetts Prison Association, and the Kansas Society for the Friendless, cover a wider field of labor than merely helping discharged prisoners. With them all there are the following objects:

To awaken public sympathy in behalf of the worthy ex-prisoner.

To secure employment for ex-prisoners, especially acting as next friend to men entitled to parole.

To extend the advantages of the parole law and the indeterminate sentence.

Also, to encourage improvement in prison buildings and discipline.

The Nebraska Association, which is young, is doing some work. The Prison Association of Virginia has taken upon itself the form of a State Commission, having certain powers and duties conferred by the Legislature, and being largely supported by the State. The Home of Industry of Philadelphia has accommodations for 22 persons, where they manufacture brooms. Its business amounts to over $12,000 annually. The Coffin Home was donated by the Hon. L. S. Coffin, who moved from Vermont to Iowa over fifty years ago. It is a farm; has accommodation for 25 or 30 people. Tree planting, fruit culture and farming are the principal occupations.

The John Howard Institution in Boston accommodates 28. It has a wood-yard, which has been profitable. The Women's Prison Association of New York City maintained the Harper Home established in 1845 for women. It accommodates from

20 to 30. Laundry work is done, and is profitable. The Prisoners' Aid Association of Rhode Island has estblished the "Sophia Little Home" for released female prisoners. It accommodates 24. The State appropriates $1000 annually for its maintainance. The balance is derived from laundry work and donations.

In a number of States there are missions and homes supported by different churches, which do much toward assisting the discharged prisoner. The Salvation Army and the Volunteers of America do a great deal for ex-prisoners. It is not separated from their general work for the unfortunate, consequently cannot be shown in numbers or dollars. Every one knows the beautiful work that is done by Mrs. Ballington Booth of the Volunteers of America for the discharged prisoner. It is not only in her Hope Halls that the discharged prisoner is aided, but she gives herself to the work, and is the greatest friend to the prisoner in the United States.

In framing laws and administering government, our legislators, in the main, have one object in view—to secure the best conditions for all—to promote the good of the community as a whole. No legislator would dare to ask for the enactment of a law which would not be for the benefit of all citizens, if he could not claim at least that it would benefit the whole. Therefore, the conception of duty of the government which has instituted our penal codes is that of administrative justice. An offender against law, who has wronged society, must be punished, and there is a natural impulse to revenge, The punishments of long ago have disappeared, and we would all now turn with horror from the tortures that were inflicted two centuries ago.

We have substituted terms of imprisonment, and these terms are made long or short in proportion to the offense.

The problem of adjusting penalties to the crime is difficult, and from its discussion has come the science of penal law, which is being cultivated more and more by jurists and laymen. The ideal has yet to be attained, but the day is not far distant when no investigation can be minute enough to suit all cases. Can there be any standard of justice which can be applied to sen-

tences for crime? No two codes agree as to the relative guilt or offenses. For instance, for burglary in New Jersey, under mitigating circumstances a fine of $10.00 can be imposed. In Alabama, a burglar is imprisoned for a year; and in Louisiana, may be hanged. Prison records show that the average sentence for perjury is ten times as long in Florida as in Maine. This is sentiment, not reason. Why has this endured so long? Simply because of the indulgence of a foolish sentiment which is easy, while better methods require laborious investigation.

The State Charities Aid Association of New Jersey is also the Prison Reform Association, and through its influence most of the reforms that have been made in our prisons, penitentiaries and jails, have come from the work of the Prison Committee of this Association.

The Rahway Reformatory is the outcome of the Commission appointed from this Association by the Governor, who worked two years upon the plan which, in the main, governs the institution to-day. The abandonment of sheriffs' fees in connection with jails, by the State, is entirely due to the campaign which was made against the system of fees by this same organization.

The separation of minors from adults in the jails and penitentiaries is also due to the work of this Association.

There are many other things in connection with prison management and better care of prisoners, that this Association has brought about.

Lack of funds has prevented the State Charities Aid Association from doing the work in connection with discharged prisoners that it would like to do, but it has been helpful to Warden Osborne and Father Fish in connection with paroled and discharged prisoners. Largely through its influence, the parole agent of the State prison was appointed, and for a year most of the expenses connected with the work were met by the Association. The Parole Agent, Mr. Strayley, is doing excellent work, and his reports are most interesting reading. His last report reads as follows, "from October 31, 1906, to October 31, 1907:

Number of paroles in force October 31, 1906,	137	
Number paroled during year,	86	
Total number of paroles,		223
Number of paroles whose terms have expired,	64	
Number of paroles revoked,	11	
Number of paroled prisoners who have died,	6	
		81
Showing number of paroles in force October 31, 1907,		142

Of this number there are twenty-nine who are engaged in business; one hundred and four who are in the employ of business houses; four who are sick and unable to work, and five whose whereabouts are unknown. The above table shows that only 5 per cent. of the men have failed to live up to the terms and conditions of their paroles. Ninety-five per cent. are doing well and trying to live upright lives. This, I am sure, is a very gratifying result."

It is too often the case that when the person is hidden away in prison, he is conveniently forgotten, and when his term is over and he is set free, no notice is taken of his release.

No man should be consigned to prison until it is shown unsafe to have him at large, so that the wonderfully successful parole and probation laws are doing a great deal for the first offender, when executed by competent agents. When on parole or probation, the prisoner is under scrutiny constantly, and if he fails to live up to the rules, he is taken back for sentence. This results, in about seventy-five per cent. of cases, in a fixed purpose and an honest life.

The indeterminate sentence, when freedom is dangerous, is a duty the State owes to society, but under even these circumstances and proper influences, after a proper time has elapsed, the prisoner may obtain his release conditionally. The records show that in a large number of cases, the indeterminate sentence affords the strongest motive possible for good, and freedom has to be earned by the prisoner.

All this brings us again up to the prison gate, where we meet the discharged prisoner, who may be conditionally released or have his final discharge. When conditionally released, there

is an officer, who should be a friend, to meet him and guide him on his way. Now, are there always friends from the Prisoners' Aid Societies and other organizations to meet the finally discharged?

Discussion

on the topics of the evening followed. It was opened by Mr. Richard Stevens, of Hoboken, who spoke as follows:

In dealing with a subject that has so many sides, so many view-points, as that of the paroled or discharged prisoners, it is utterly impossible to cover the whole field even in a most cursory manner. I can only present the phases of this problem that I have been personally confronted with and which therefore to my mind seem of pressing importance. The chief problem, and the one that is most difficult of solution, is that of finding employment for the paroled or discharged prisoner. An offender leaves the State Prison with but five dollars in his pocket. Unless he has friends to fall back on, he must find work before those five dollars are exhausted. With thousands, I may say hundreds of thousands of men tramping our streets in search for work, men who have not the awful handicap of a prison record behind them, when these, I say, are unable to find employment, what chance has a man who cannot even furnish a reference from his last employer. The weary search goes on from office to office, from workshop to workshop, with always the same answer, "work is slack, and we are laying off even our old hands," or perhaps, "show us references from your last employer." In either case the discharged prisoner must move on and continue his hopeless quest.

When his slender purse is exhausted what is left for him but the poorhouse or a return to his former life. After he has made what he considers, and what is, in fact, an honest search for work, what is more natural than that he should turn to his old companions, who are ready to welcome back their "pal," give him food and lodging, and then when the "next job is pulled off" he is given a chance to "get in," and the army of crime has again gained a recruit.

It seems hardly necessary to add that there is, of course, a certain proportion of criminals who would naturally return to crime for a living even if honest employment were plentiful and easily obtained, but the percentage of this class of criminals is small compared with the other class who are driven back into a lawbreaking career chiefly through their inability to obtain work.

What then is the solution of this question? To my mind three remedies present themselves as possible and feasible.

The first is the inauguration in some of our institutions, especially in the State Prison, of a system whereby the State would sell the work of the convicts to contractors (as is now being done in the State's Prison), but with the important modification that the convict should be allowed to retain a fair percentage of wages for the work that he does. A part of the money he so earns could go to the support of his family, if he had any, and the balance to accumulate till the day of his discharge. With this system a man would leave State's Prison say with two hundred dollars in his pocket, and would in consequence have the means of supporting himself for several months while he was searching for work, to say nothing of his ability to pay his fare to other localities where work might be more plentiful.

The second remedy which I had in mind was the breaking down of the unreasonable and illogical prejudice which so many employers harbor against the employment of a man, boy or girl who has ever been in a penal or correctional institution. Take the frequent instance of a boy who has been an inmate say of the State Home for Boys; that fact alone will cause the door of many a house to be shut in his face. Those who refuse such a one work do not stop and ask what were the circumstances under which he was sent away. If they but took the trouble to make inquiries they would find that in many cases the lad had been sent away, not so much on account of what he had done, but owing to the fact that his home surroundings were demoralizing, and that the Judge felt that his removal from his evil environment would tend to give him a better chance in life.

The best and most practical steps that we can take to overcome this prejudice is to practice what we preach. Give employment yourself to one or more discharged prisoners when they

come knocking at your door, and then when you are making an appeal to others for the employment of this class of men, you are not asking anything from them but what you have been willing to do yourself.

The third remedy is one which I feel many of you will think is too radical, and which the political economist may regard with suspicion. I refer to the furnishing of work to all unemployed by the national, state or municipal authorities. If a man has any rights in this country, it would certainly seem that he should have the God-given right of being able to work when he is willing and capable of so doing. And that in such times as these, when the supply of labor is far in excess of what can be absorbed by private enterprise, that the government should step in and furnish work to all the unemployed, until the demand and supply for labor become more equalized. It is evident that a remedy such as this would help the heavily handicapped discharged prisoner, as well as the ordinary run of men out of work.

Those who deal with discharged or paroled prisoners must expect many and repeated disappointments. The man or the woman who seem well on the road to honest and decent living will often slip back or be lost sight of; those for whom you may do the most will often deceive and mislead you. And why should it not be so, for is it reasonable to expect a high standard of honor and right-thinking from those whose whole environment, from the cradle to manhood, has tended to pull them down. It is not a wonder that so many of these unfortunates go back to a life of crookedness, but rather that such a large percentage should be able to fight their way back to the ranks of self-respecting citizenship. Many of these whom I speak of have never had a fair chance in life; with a drunken father, a dissolute mother, with a corner gang as their early companions and guides, what result can we look for? The inevitable happens, and they are sent to a penal or reformatory institution, and how often do they emerge from such a place with a warped intelligence and an embittered mind. What do they owe to the social system that seems to have heaped riches and happiness on a few and given to them the rigors of prison life and the cheerlessness of an iron-barred cell?

What better or nobler work can a man or woman put his heart and mind to than the winning back of such as these to the land of hope, to put the opportunity of honest employment in their way, and to stand by them till their feet are well planted in the path of good citizenship and their faces squarely turned to the light.

JUDGE SKINNER—We have with us to-night one who has been doing yeoman work for the discharged prisoner; almost single-handed he has been doing a noble work. I take pleasure in introducing Rev. Aloys M. Fish, Chaplain of the New Jersey State Prison.

REV. ALOYS M. FISH—You have heard Mrs. Williamson lucidly analyze the situation of released prisoners, and you must have become convinced that truly discouraging difficulties stand in their way when the prison doors clang behind them.

I have many, many times had occasion to wonder at and to admire the sturdy efforts towards rehabilitation put forward by released prisoners even in the face of the difficulties already described to you. There is one ideal that I stand for, which my experience has amply borne out, and it is, that men and women whom the law has condemned to prison are not necessarily irreclaimable nor unamenable to higher and nobler desires and ambitions.

Some years ago, I, like the public in general, was ignorant and uncertain as to the extent of reclaimation of individuals released from a State prison. However, I determined to learn for myself and at first hand: It has taken time and energy, but I have learned much and to my own surprise. I undertook to keep in touch with men and women after they had left the Trenton prison, to investigate their after-doings, to see and to know them after the period of their incarceration. The number of ex-prisoners who willingly thus submitted themselves to a friendly surveillance on my part, and who have been or are yet in more or less regular correspondence with me, runs up into some hundreds. They are scattered from end to end of this country as also in

foreign parts, and hardly a day goes by on which I do not receive a letter from one or the other of my old-time spiritual wards.

I have made a specimen tabulation of the results of my investigations and will present it to your respectful consideration.

Status on January 1, 1908, of Men and Women Discharged from the New Jersey State Prison between January 1, 1907, and *July 1, 1907.*

Total number discharged from prison,		72
Leading good lives,	29	
Unsatisfactory, though not distinctly criminal,	4	
Distinctly criminal again,	6	
Sentenced again to prisons,	3	
Died,	1	
Conduct unknown, English-speaking,	14	
Conduct unknown, non-English-speaking,	15	
		72

I will here remark that this is a study of Roman Catholic ex-prisoners, though I am in friendly touch also with Protestants and Jews, counting a number of them among my after-prison friends. The subjects of the tabulation just given are not persons released on parole; they are, every one of them, those that have served sentence and have been regularly discharged on expiration of their term of imprisonment. This table shows that about eighteen per cent. have relapsed into bad ways, forty per cent. are upright and honorable and the rest are beyond my ken. However, of the number who are unknown to me, many must be leading good lives, for in the first place, over one-half are foreigners and foreigners, as my experience has taught me, rarely are recidivists into criminal activity, and in the second place, judging from the personalities, antecedents, and the nature of the crimes of these unknown (foreign or native-born), I am justified in concluding of many that they will never again become guilty of a criminal transgression of the law.

It will be interesting to note the crime and penal antecedents of those that are conducting themselves rightly after release from prison. Of the twenty-nine, nineteen were serving sentences here for various forms and degrees of dishonesty, such as forgery, robbery, breaking and entering; four for sexual offenses; four for grave assault and battery; two for murder. As to penal

antecedents, I have no knowledge of the past experience of five, whereas nineteen had been previously incarcerated, either in jail, penitentiary or State Prison, and only five maintained that this had been their first incarceration, though several of these acknowledged that they had been guilty of previous criminal offenses.

I have not the time now at my disposal to comment at length on these figures. I will however place in relief, and in strong relief, that the far greater number of these reclaimed and rehabilitated ex-convicts had been thieves and were not first offenders.

Do not then, I beg you, look askance at any man or woman simply because he or she has been in prison; do not condemn them as necessarily criminal, but believe, as I believe and most strongly assert, that men and women in our prisons are not irreclaimable.

JUDGE SKINNER—I am now going to introduce a police officer to you. The average criminal looks upon a policeman as his enemy. Of course, that is not so. The policeman is the enemy of crime, not of the criminal. The policeman often sympathizes with the men in their clutches. I have had them come to me and say, "Judge, I think that man is going to be all right," and I have been glad to have the benefit of their judgment, because I know they are not likely to be deceived. Every sensible reform that has been made in the method of handling criminals in this State has had the support of the police. You are now going to have the pleasure of listening to a representative of the police, Mr. Frank Tuite, Detective Sergeant of the Newark Police Department.

MR. TUITE spoke as follows:

I fully appreciate the honor of being permitted to appear here. Policemen are so seldom called upon to express their views, that it is with some trepidation I venture upon the subject of "The Discharged or Paroled Prisoner. How Shall We Treat Him?"

This problem has occupied the attention of many philanthropic persons for years, but I have not learned that any organized plan which has been adopted has accomplished to any great degree the

object of its purpose. Any organization interested in the welfare of former convicts should have the hearty co-operation of employers, charitably disposed persons, and the full sympathy of the police departments.

The police have little or no time to investigate the previous character of a prisoner, even if he possessed any good traits. The police must secure their evidence quickly and arraign their prisoners in court, else the zealous lawyer will denounce the police outrage, thus furnishing the ubiquitous, overworked and underpaid reporter with his "scoop" or exclusive piece of news.

I have said that the police have little time to study their prisoners. When arrested the prisoner is sullen; he had anticipated arrest, and concocted his defense; generally will tell little or nothing regarding himself unless he has a previous criminal record. After his commitment to jail he has time to reflect, and what good there is in him reaches the surface. The jailers are the persons who have the opportunity to gauge the mental and moral make-up of prisoners.

Few employers will retain persons in their establishments after learning of the persons' previous criminal reocrds. In nine cases of ten the unfortunate person attributes his discharge to the activity of some police official, whereas the onus belonged to some officious or over-zealous fellow-worker. The blame falls upon the police, though, for the employer declines to act hastily; he will not discharge the person until he has conferred with the police, who cannot deny the existence of the criminal record, and who cannot refuse the employer a look at the rogues' gallery. The ex-convict is not told that the police were reluctant to disclose his or her record. The inference is furnished that the information came fresh from the police, and the former prisoner rightly believes that the police are hounding him.

I know of one instance, though, where an official of a great corporation did expose a man who had procured employment with a large company in Newark, and secured his dismissal. This man had forgotten his own criminal record. There should be some refuge for the discharged prisoner, some one to whom he could make application for employment, some one who would believe

him penitent, and bestow a few gentle words and a two-dollar bill as a little encouragement.

Now and then a captain or detective have taken an interest in a former convict, but the assistance of the police is not much sought by them; they are not appreciative recipients of any police bounty. They fear the title of "stool pigeon," and after a few taunts by people who know of their imprisonment, discredit the sincerity of the police, and are soon back in the old rut, unmindful that the attempt at rescue was genuine.

I recall an instance where a detective sergeant secured employment, with the Public Service Corporation, for a paroled convict from the Elmira, N. Y., Reformatory. During his first two weeks of service, while setting up gas ranges, he robbed four dwellings. My co-worker expressed surprise, and some other things, at the betrayal of his confidence. But judges, prosecutors of pleas and sheriffs have had many similar experiences.

A body of stern, sensible business men could accomplish much good for persons upon their discharge from prison. When liberated, the prisoner is in good health; as a rule his desire, if he possessed any, for liquor has ceased, but he is without money, frequently without friends. The prisoner should know, before the expiration of his term, that employment would be offered, an opportunity would be afforded him to reform. Great care must be observed. Medicine for the fellow who takes his before breakfast, will do no good for the chap who requires his at bedtime.

I believe that I can, in a great measure, realize the delight of prisoners upon the termination of their sentences, but only a man who has been a prisoner can know the torture of confinement. I was recently a witness to the injustice of our prison system. I will not divulge the name of the youth here; he paid his penalty. In July last, at the age of twenty, he uttered a worthless check for $10.00, was arrested, pleaded guilty, and on July 15th was sentenced by Judge Ten Eyck to six months in the penitentiary. On the night of January 20th, this poor fellow, whose home by the way is in Canada, entered the detective's room at police headquarters in Newark. He was the picture of despair, pallid and benumbed with the cold; his outer apparel was the light summer

suit which he wore when arrested. He could not secure the few trinkets and papers taken from him, on account of the absence of the detective who arrested him. Replying to a question as to where he intended to go and what he proposed doing, he said, "God knows." Further questioning elicited the fact that when he left the penitentiary at Caldwell, N. J., late that afternoon, he was entrusted with the whole sum of a dime, sufficient for car fare to Newark. No thought for his lodging, which could be had for ten cents; no thought that he might hunger; no thought for him at the prison, only the influx was to be considered; no time for the poor fellow who came with summer raiment. The detectives provided the young man with money for shelter and breakfast, and again the next morning when he called some change was bestowed upon him. Many, forgetting the law, would not have censured this unfortunate if he had sneaked into the Y. M. C. A. building, the Essex or Union Club, and gotten away with a fifty dollar coat with two or three dollars in coin in the cash pocket. There should have been a refuge for this young man; some man or place where he could have asked for a loan; some one to whom he could have said, as he did to us, "I have come across, I am going to be honest." I may be mistaken, but I believe the material for the making of a good man was in the little fellow. God knows, as he said; but the police are ready. We have his photo., his Bertillon measurements and finger-prints; he can never alter himself to defeat our record, and we have ample space in the big criminal docket for future convictions, should any be secured against him.

I could relate many more similar instances. All criminals look alike to the police. The professional thief and the petit larceny thief run the same gauntlet after being taken into custody. Their pedigrees are taken, a page assigned them in the book of records with room left for entering future offences. Juvenile offences are sent to the juvenile court, frequently, though, they are paroled pending their arraignment before the magistrate. In Newark the cheap theatrical shows are responsible for much juvenile depravity. The matinees are largely attended by children, and some immediate legislative enactment is necessary

to prohibit the attendance of our youth at these day-time performances. Cheap theatres are a menace in Newark, and the same conditions prevail elsewhere. This matter I have referred to for the reason that the danger is not confined alone to the male sex, and I am expressing the sentiment of the police of our city, whose duties have attracted them to the theatres. I assure you, ladies and gentlemen, that these places are producing an element dangerous to society. Many of the habitues of these places have become and many more will become offenders.

Policemen are a corps of men of whom people in general have little knowledge. It is my duty to speak of them. No body of men are so frequent subjects of censure. I have heard men say that they were unmindful of newspaper criticism, but no man is that callous. Policemen are good husbandmen, equally as solicitous of the welfare of their kin as any other class of men, fully as attentive to their religious duties, and contribute more liberally to charities than do men of more means in other walks of life.

Every duty though whether in the enforcement of State laws or ordinances offends some person or persons, and the blame must be borne by the policeman who is performing duty in accordance with law. No police officer, or number of officers, will persecute or conspire to send a man to prison. I have no recollection of such conduct on the part of the police.

Policemen have much sympathy for the man who must be returned to prison, and it is my opinion that these unfortunates, by reason of that sympathy, do at times receive much consideration at our hands. Men who have served their first terms in prison too often become disheartened. They do not seek employment immediately upon their discharge from prison, soon become known as idlers, return to that evil companionship and rendezvous which was, in a great measure, responsible for their downfall, and soon look with some expectancy for another term in prison. These are the men, who, after arrest, while in jail, and up to the time of their trial, will accuse the police of "hounding" them. Judges, though, after investigation, and after talks with the prisoner, soon learn that the police have been misrepresented.

Police statistics do not show the percentage of reformations among criminals, and the police do keep them under as strict surveillance as possible. Men who are known as criminals, perhaps the fact that they have criminal records, force the police officers to regard their every act and movement with greater suspicion.

I know that police officers observe care while investigating cases where former criminals who have secured employment are concerned. The fact that a man has employment rates him higher with the police. I have heard detectives say when other officers referred to a criminal, "Oh, he is all right now. He works every day." It has happened, though, that while the fellow was working every day, he was engaged in some criminal occupation at night.

As a rule, detectives who are in search of a man who has secured employment, will, if there is the slightest doubt of the person's guilt, effect the arrest in a manner to prevent the employer from learning of his being in custody. I know of numerous instances where former offenders have been in custody and convinced the police of their innocence, and the fact of their detention was maintained as a police secret.

For the benefit of the community it is essential that men who have strayed from the paths followed by honest men should be watched. From the police standpoint it is expected that they will go wrong again. Acquaintances and friendships are formed in prisons. The old offenders and men just starting on a criminal career rub elbows while employed, or on the promenade. The old offenders find whatever bright sides there are in prison life, and their cheerful manner has its effect upon the new man, he begins to feel less keenly the disgrace. Thus the intimacy begun in prison ripens into friendship, during which the most confidential relations exist, and which are maintained until they meet after liberation, continues sometimes until they are arrested and parted by being sent to separate prisons.

Prison authorities should endeavor to separate in prisons the first offender from the old-timer. It is astonishing to police officers at times how men in prison learn of the criminal work

going on in the outside world, and equally as astonishing how many young men, after serving their first sentence, emerge from prison well-taught in criminal lore. If more care was observed in prisons by separating the first and second offenders, the young from the old, the problem of "How shall we treat the discharged or paroled prisoner" would be less difficult to solve.

JUDGE SKINNER—And now we are going to hear from one who will speak on this work as it applies particularly to the Christian Church. It is applied Christianity in its pure form, and I want the Conference to hear from one who can show the attitude of the church toward these waywards and unfortunates whom we call prisoners.

I take pleasure in introducing Rev. Henry Merle Mellen, of Christ Reformed Church of Newark, N. J.

REV. HENRY MERLE MELLEN, NEWARK—What all the speakers have been trying to emphasize is that the ultimate solution of all these problems lies with Christian society. The genius of Christianity presumes an attitude of helpfulness on the part of Christian people. The Founder of Christianity in His own mind and heart knew the power of the religion that He came to found. That is why he emphasized the great fact that helpfulness on the part of those who called themselves His disciples was to be expected. Whether we accept all that He came to teach or not, this much is certain in our day, that all the machinery of reformation, social and otherwise, lies in those principles which we call Christian. It is very interesting in discussions like this to go back to the foundation of all these institutions. After all, for the solution of these problems we must go back to the Life of the Founder of Christianity. Not only was the Master willing to send away a bad woman with the words, "Go, and sin no more," but he dared to be seen on the well-curb at Jacob's well, on a footing of friendliness with a woman of disreputable character. If ministers to-day were seen in such a friendly attitude they would lose their reputation. But not only was the Master willing to be called the friend of publicans and sinners, but he dared to call into the

inner circle of discipleship a renegade like Zacchaeus and a grafter like Matthew. He was not only willing to court the friendship of men of shady reputation, but he harbored in the sacred circle of His own disciples a man like Judas. All this we have in black and white in the New Testament—the book which we teach our children, from which we select our texts and which we herald as the panacea for all the world's evils. All this we teach in all the services of our churches, in all the religious exercises of our Sunday-schools. All this, and far more, we all teach. And yet after eighteen hundred years of Christianity, while we still call ourselves Christian, what is our attitude toward this class of people whom we call criminals? Christianity is no more a gathering of disciples on a Galillean hillside; it is a world force. It is no more a dozen disciples walking up and down Judea in friendly converse with the Great Teacher; Christianity to-day counts millions of souls. It is no more confined to the boundaries of a little country, it is a power that impresses the greatest minds and inspires the most heroic lives of the world—but what about these people? We have still the outcast and the sinner with us. The sinner is still in our habitations, and the criminal is still a part of society. What is our duty, what is our attitude toward them? We have our elegant churches, but I dare assert that there is not a clergyman in this city who would undertake to invite the criminals whom he can put his hands on to a public service in his church. Clergymen hear the secrets of crime in their studies, but there is not a man amongst us who would dare tell his most intimate friends the stories of crime that he hears. We have these things poured in upon our lives every day, and especially on Sunday, and yet what a difference there is between the attitude of the Founder of Christianity toward the criminal classes and the attitude that we so carefully nourish. We are, after all, only a lot of pious, platitudinous Pharisees. We draw aside our skirts when we come in touch with these men and women. We do not like the smell about them. We do not like the atmosphere that they bring. Christianity to-day is guilty of neglect toward these men and women, for whom society is largely

responsible and to whom Christian society owes a great debt of sympathy.

What attitude shall the church take toward these men and women? The attitude taken by Jesus Christ, the Founder of Christianity, was an attitude of justice and love; of charity tempered by sanity. When Christianity in all our churches learns that lesson, when we have come to learn that the only difference between the criminal and ourselves is the difference of environment, of temptation, of human weakness, and that in the eye of God we are all sinners, and that the exceptional criminal is only an accident in the artificial, social machinery, when we shall emphasize that and learn that every man of us has a debt to society at large and to the lowest man on earth, then we shall learn something of what the real Christian spirit means. And with all our machinery, with all our methods, with all our discussion, with all our conventional arrangements, we are lost until we get down to the fundamentals of religion. When every man of us and every woman of us catches the divine spirit and gets down to the level of those that are fallen and who need reformation, then and only then will this problem be solved. When the church rises up and gives the signal, when the church is ready to give the impetus, then society will feel a sensation such as it has never felt before, and will rise up to do this work. The question is whether Christian society will use the opportunity. The question is whether we are really and truly Christians or not?

FOURTH SESSION.

Tuesday Morning, February 11, 1908.

PRESIDENT FOY—I shall not attempt to explain the nature of The Organization of Charitable Relief. Rev. A. C. Nickerson, of Plainfield, the chairman of the morning, will do this. He has certainly succeeded in making up a very interesting program as to both speakers and subject-matter. I have great pleasure in introducing Mr. Nickerson.

The Alleged Coldness of Official Charity.

BY REV. A. C. NICKERSON.

I would speak in praise of cold, that salient characteristic of the North. We have long known its negative results. We are only beginning to appreciate its blessings. We have experienced the stoniness of the winter ground, the forbidding bareness of trees and shrubs, shivering sensations, with their suggestion of freezing, we long have known. But the icy spurs of Nature have made men energetic, sent boys and girls swarming with their skates to ponds and rivers, searched the cells in human bodies and ransacked the lobes in human brains for inertia microbes, and, driving them out, given every Northern land an independence, initiative and rough vigor in its men and women which more southern latitudes have conspicuously lacked. We are only just discovering the far-reaching beneficence of cold. "The great white plague" is now to be conquered by it; not by languid fanning of southern zephyrs, but by bracing cold, which nips the disease germs, as terriers do rats, the cold convoying purest air, laden with balsam from coniferous trees, and breathing from the high hills of God. We rob enervating summer of more than half its terrors by such supplies of blocked cold as save our provisions from perishing and ourselves from imminent discomfort. When an ardent July sun smites men, so that they fall in their tracks, it is ice, preserved cold which saves them from fatal consequences. Ice gives back to wife and children the smitten bread-winner, felled by Taurus as he toiled. Cold equalizes the seasons for us, to some extent. It builds a bridge, adorned with flowers and fruits from the tropics to the poles. Cold storage means an equable temperature, not over-cold, not over-warm, but just right to maintain life, beauty, sweetness at their best in the kindly fruits of the earth, "so that in due time we may (all) enjoy them."

And our age declares a lowering temperature in men's mentality, a most desirable thing, one devoutly to be wished. The fever of debate may lapse into the wandering mind, the fierce

fire of anger and resentment has been known to shrivel men like a furnace, so that they dropped dead as their words flamed! The advice, "keep cool," is as common to men entering upon any struggle or danger, as is the municipal sign "dangerous passing" at the entrance of new highways. To the youth, going in for athletics, his advisers say, keep cool; to the fireman climbing to dizzying heights to save life, men say the same; to the life-saver, breasting the stormy sea; to the rescuing party, descending the mine shaft, to save the perishing; to the captain of the wrecked ship, amid a multitude of distraught men and women; to the falsely accused; to the endangered in mind, body or estate, we say "keep cool," so important is cold to our salvation. When a member of the family of a physician is very ill the wise man knows that sympathetic excitement will send the mercury of his feelings up with such a bound as to unfit him to save his loved one, so a brother practitioner, with a cooler head, is called in. In court, the excited contestants are, by their very excitement, disqualified from judging of their rights. A characteristic of a good judge is a calm cool mind. Our crimes come mostly from over-heated brains. Desperately put to it, to save the life of your friend, when he must go under the knife, you put all prejudice against schools and individuals aside, and throw all your influence toward employing the best surgeon, the man with nerve balancing his skill, although his general frigidity may be distasteful to you. So, "all ye ice and snow, bless ye the Lord, praise and magnify him forever!"

And, as Captain Cuttle said, in the Dickens book, "the bearing of all this lies in its application." Let us thank God that official charity has a cool head, that it is controlled, restrained, that it loves God and its neighbor, not only with its heart but also with its head, that it strives to deal even-handedly with believers and non-believers, Catholic and Protestant, saint and sinner, keeping in mind the sun and rain which their Creator sends equally on the just and the unjust, their need their only claim. Brethren, notwithstanding the long time in which organized charity has been at work, and the quite continuous perfecting of its methods, there is need of that word "alleged" in my subject to-day. Not by any means are they the thoughtless and improvident alone

who allege coldness on our part, and with no complimentary implication, but many others are with them in their resentment. Intelligent, kind, charitable persons, even at this late day, assume a superior virtue in witholding co-operation from our carefully planned and executed work, because it is indifferently given. Yet these are mostly very busy people, who can rarely know accurately the needs they would meet. "Cold as charity," rightly directed, wisely serving and saving charity, is a far more complimentary phrase to throw at us than the flingers think. Their intended thorns are changed to roses in transit. The warm-heartedness of the profligate temporarily in the gutter, who, doubtless, would "treat" all around, and indiscriminately, could he regain mastery of his feet and his purse; the giving to him that asks, as alms which open the door of heaven to the giver, causing countries like Italy to swarm with lusty professional beggars, ready to exploit alms-giving to the farthest limit of human endurance; the unquestioning largess of the riotously-generous millionaire, or the shrewd politician, buying favor with charitable gold, scattering his reminders to responsive poverty, to the moral undoing of many; all this is the extreme antithesis of the careful, painstaking, wisely-anticipative and prudent giving for which we stand. And all who would introduce the heating system of their church, with its inevitable restriction and labeling sympathies; all who would prefer the warming up which flames from racial fires only; all who would wait for personal impulse to run up the mercury in the tubes of feeling, are in a narrow channel, aside from the law of brotherhood which our methods accentuate to-day.

It is, of course, possible to overdo the scientific study of our problem. It is possible to spend too much money in distributing our assistance, but I gravely doubt if even excessive expenditure in training charity workers could possibly balance the money wasted on personal bestowments without consultation of public benevolencies. The longer time required by our best medical schools and the more thorough study before granting a degree, should be suggestive of the sound preparation needed by such as deal not so much with bodily aches and pains and senile infirmities as with the springs of human activity, with indolence of

temper, suffering of mind and agony of heart. Much of the work of organized charity is the remaking of men.

> "I gave a beggar from my little store
> Of well-earned gold. He spent the shining ore
> And came again, and yet again, still cold
> And hungry as before.
>
> I gave a thought, and through that thought of mine
> He found himself a man—supreme—divine,
> Bold, clothed, and crowned with blessings manifold
> And now he begs no more."

Our principle is that in common with advanced Christianity, with the best in the so-called "new thought," with the doctrine of as yet untried psychical power recently advocated by Prof. Wm. James! It is the support of personal initiative, the evolution of self-help, the Kingdom of heaven within!

We are ambitious for recognition by the poor as their "next friends." George Adam Smith said of his day, and it is quite as true of ours, that "in trials and misfortunes, and still more in errors and faults, men are liable to turn to their weakest friends for sympathy which is often insincere and generally undeserved." The poor, before they know us, think our methods mistaken and our help insufficient, while the well-to-do are too often with them in this unfortunate estimate.

The charitable society is the dynamo to which all good will should bring itself, to be enlightened. It is the social power-house. It furnishes opportunity for men to bring "their money to the exchangers" as the gospel admonishes us to do, that, later, they may receive "their own, with interest." Our aim is to establish connection with all the good will in the community. "You wire to us, we wire for you." Our object is the general bettering of the conditions of living. Our work is the constant evolution of a great principle. The settlements are a social example of deliberate, cool intention to prove our consciousness that we are "our brother's keeper." When I learned to swim I began as a little boy, in the warm shallows. After a time, gaining confidence, I went one day to the brink of the cold sea. There I stood, stripped and shivering, upon a raft, fearing to launch away. An

older boy pushed me in. He was "cruel only to be kind." From that day onward I swam with my elders in the mutually bracing and buoyant tide. We swimmers say to every non-co-operating society and person, come in, you will never regret it! We would like to back your hesitant good will.

A local speaker is to tell us later of Jersey City charities, and the need of "all hands round." Others will say how the principle works now in Orange, in Newark, in Plainfield. We want a general belief in the improvement of our helpfulness through the merging of our concerns.

One asked Horace Mann, "How is it that you have power to do such great things for your country at such great sacrifice, when you are so misinterpreted and misunderstood?" Horace Mann, with a superb lift of the head, it is said, replied, "I am sustained by my deep conviction of the improveability of the human race." So with us! Co-operation is an imperative need. All disconnection imperils the whole of charity. If a foot or hand is withdrawn from service, by disease or accident, fever steals through all the veins of the body, the head is sick, and the whole heart faint." "The head cannot say to the feet, I have no need of thee." We cannot give ourselves holily unless we give ourselves wholly. Very few can from their individual means assist all whom they would; but by contributions to the fountain-head of charitable assistance all may have part in the work or refreshing and re-creating. And pride shall thus be schooled, the left hand not knowing what the right so modestly does; the impulse of the moment shall have proper restraint; the flood of emotion shall not swamp our judgment! Fenelon taught men in his day that "humanity is as one man, who lives and grows and learns continually." Tiresomely trite and wearisome all this is to many of you, I know, but the lesson is not yet generally learned, and you who know it well must patiently endure its repetition.

We work toward civic co-operation. Later speakers will report progress in this direction. The city or State must punish criminals when they commit crimes. But as the innocent always suffer with the guilty, we must co-operate in lessening that suffering as much as may be. The underserved hardships

which so frequently fall upon the families of convicts enlist our sympathies and summon our intelligence. One well qualified to enlighten us will speak this morning on this theme. A New York journal recently declared that "The Charity Organization Society by its work will eventually purify the management of the greatest city of our country, and make it directly humane instead of sadly human."

Of all people who have suffered long and suffer still from "Man's inhumanity to man" probably none are so quickly in our thought as our Hebrew brethren. Perhaps their history, steeped in pain, has made them wisely humane. Certainly there is nothing hysterical or over-fervent in their manner or methods, yet their success has made us desirous to learn of them. "Still at the prophet's feet the nations sit!"

Uuburden yourselves of pride, prejudice, philanthropic ambition to lead, to be known of men, and cooly reason with us. A Western journal tells of a young Kansan who took a young woman out to skate. Soon his companion was cold. He applied a match to a hole in the ice. It blazed up instantly with a hot, bright flame. The lake was said to be full of natural gases. However that may be, possibly our alleged coldness has within itself warmth sufficient for all real needs.

After the address of the chairman of the section, he reminded his hearers of the eloquent words of Dr. Wise at the opening meeting of the Conference held at Paterson, N. J., a year earlier, and gratefully acknowledging the debt of the Conference to him, and with words of sympathy for the serious illness in his home, which made his coming almost impossible, presented Rev. Stephen S. Wise, D. D., of the Independent Synagogue, 81st street, New York, N. Y.

The Principles and Practices of Charity Among the Jews.

BY DR. STEPHEN S. WISE.

May I preface what I am to say this morning concerning the principles and practices of charity among the Jews, by making clear that I should be most loath to be considered, because of apparent dissatisfaction with present-day charity methods, as

one who is not in sympathy with organized or the higher charity. Who does not know that the men and women who, under the standards of organized—that is, no longer chaotic—charity, have enlarge the realm of social services, have been as one with him who sang:

"I am a friend of the unfriended poor."

Not only have their souls been humanized by the deep distress of the world, but their minds have been clarified into the understanding of the summoning task.

Strange as the words may sound, I would urge upon you at the outset that Jewish charity has in one respect done a great wrong to my people. The very wisdom and efficiency and adequateness of Jewish charity have quite explicably given rise to a very grave misapprehension. Nothing has been more potent to convince men that the Jew is rich, and to conventionalize the use of the term, rich as a Jew, than the circumstance that the poverty of the Jew, the very, very poor Jew, has never been forced upon the presence of the non-Jewish world. The pride of self-respect has made the Jew unwilling to let his poorer brother appeal for help to his non-Jewish neighbor—especially seeing that much, if not all, of Jewish poverty was due to the most unbrotherly attitude of the world without. But the failure of the Jew to appear as a suppliant for public alms has been misunderstood by the world, which has most erringly argued that the absence of evidences of poverty among the Jews was proof conclusive that the Jew was rich, when, in truth, no people have been nor are poorer than the Jews. It is verily a sorry testimony to the relations which long obtained between Jew and Christian that, however dire his want, the Jew would not rely upon the charity of the Christian to succor him in his need, but deemed it wiser to leave the outer world in ignorance of his state, however wretched. Major Gordon-Evans of the English parliament, one of the sponsors of the anti-alien law, journeyed to Roumania and Russia while the bill was pending and stated upon his return that he had never seen such *Elend*—to quote his very word—such pitiable and seemingly incurable wretchedness as he had met

among the Jews of Roumania and Russia; remember, too, that more than half the Jews of the world are resident in Russia and Roumania.

You have heard it stated before—it cannot be repeated too often—that there is no word in the Hebrew language which is the exact equivalent of the Greek term, charity. Throughout the pages of the Hebrew Bible you will find no word which quite parallels our own word, "charity." Shall we then infer that charity was unknown to ancient Israel, or that the grace of charity was never commended to my fathers? The Hebrew word, which in post-Biblical and as early as in New Testament days had come to have the annotation of charity, *Zedakah,* signified originally—justice. The praise thereof, the urging thereof, is to be met with throughout the pages of the Hebrew Bible. Quite characteristic of the insistence of the prophets is the command, "Justice, justice shalt thou pursue," and the vision of the seer, "Let justice flow like waters and righteousness as a mighty stream." In truth, and this explains the attitude of the Jew toward the whole question of charity, as long as *Zedakah,* social justice, obtained between man and man the grace of charity was of lesser moment. It was only after the root virtue of *Zedakah,* social justice, fell into abeyance that a substitute and corrective became necessary. Thus the later, secondary meaning of the term, *Zedakah,* namely charity, which became a palliative rather than preventive of the evils of injustice. It was only after righteousness, which is rightness of relation between man and man, had ceased to be that a partial corrective became needful.

It is equally significant that the Hebrew language contains no equivalent of our much-used and familiar term, pauper. I emphasize the absence of a Hebrew equivalent of the English, pauper, though such omission seems to controvert my claim that the Jews are a pitiably poor people. No word with the exact connotation of pauper is to be found in the Hebrew tongue, though there be a score of names for the poor man and the reason therefore is near at hand. The Mosaic legislation, although it made provision for the care of the poor and the needy, nowhere assumed that poverty is an incurable social disease, and that the

pauper is inevitable in every land and under every civilization. You will doubtless be tempted to remark upon the contradiction which inheres in the way in which I interpret the attitude of Mosaic legislation to the poor, as compared with the word of the Mosaic dispensation, "for the poor shall not cease from the land: therefore do I command thee, saying, Thou shalt open thine hand wide unto thy brother, to thy poor." I would urge in answer that we have wrongly shifted the emphasis from the second to the first clause—the writer's emphasis resting on the need of opening wide one's hand to a brother whether the poor cease from the land or not. You recall that this word was repeated by Jesus, when He said, "The poor you have always with you." Parenthetically I would observe that it is less heretical to hold to-day that our forefathers may have been in error insofar as they held that poverty should never cease from the land and that the poor should be with us always—less heretical, I say, than to cling with paralyzing faith, as, alas, we have done through the ages, to the maxim that the poor we must always have with us, that poverty is an irremedial disease, that nothing more can be done than to mitigate the minor evils of poverty, that the symtoms of social disease alone can be dealt with instead of its deeper-seated causes.

I have said that the Mosaic legislation did not regard poverty as inevitable and incurable. In reply to my contention, it will be urged that many wise and far-reaching Pentateuchal laws seemed to anticipate the ceaselessness of poverty in the land. None the less I venture to reaffirm that though the laws of the commonwealth of Israel prescribe most human and merciful dealing with the poor, still the law did not take for granted the existence of a submerged and irredeemable tenth in the land.

Briefly I would recall to your minds the many ways in which the principles and practices of Jewish charity anticipated the ideals of the higher charity of our own age. First of these was—if men must be helped, then let them be helped, that is, helped thoroughly and adequately. If they are poverty stricken, they must not only be fed, but so helped that they shall lift themselves up. Adequate care of the poor was made possible by the acceptance in part to this day of the authority and validity

of the law, which enjoined the giving of at least a tithe of one's yearly income to the poor. One of the deplorable losses of present-day Jewry has come about in the partial abeyance of this longtime loyally-fulfilled custom, though happily even among some of the foremost Jews of our day the ancient practice of tithe-giving is faithfully observed. Be it remembered, however, that the Mosaic law commanded not the giving of the tithe as a maximum but as a minimum. The giving of a fifth was ever commended, even when tithe-giving was commanded. So that, in summing up, it may fairly be stated that while the laws of the Jewish commonwealth did not complacently assume that poverty is an essential element of communal life, they sought to deal remedially with such poverty as might arise.

In one other respect Jewish charity may be said to have anticipated the higher charity. Ruskin once said: "It is not written in the Bible 'Blessed is he that feedeth the poor,' but 'Blessed is he that considereth the poor.'" The Hebrew words *Maskil el-Dol* have reference to one who ponders over or is wisely attentive to the needs of the poor. Blessed, then, saith the psalmist, is he who deals knowingly and understandingly with the poor. The deeper implication of the Hebrew ideal Ruskin succeeded in grasping—there could be no true consideration for the poor until after there had been wise considering of the poor. There is some danger that certain disciples of organized charity will read into the Biblical verse which arrested the attention of Ruskin the meaning: Blessed is he that examines or investigates the poor. Boastful though my claim may sound to the uninitiated, you, who are not unfamiliar with Jewish ideals of method and charity, will be ready to assent to my thesis that the Jew has ever sought to deal wisely and understandingly with the poor. One of the learned Jewish exegetes of the Middle Ages, commenting on a Biblical passage referring to the poor, declares that a man must give his heart and his mind for the good of the poor; that is, exercise his reason as well as spend his love.

It is well within the mark to maintain that the ancient Jewish principles and practices of charity were constructive and never destructive, which is another way of saying that they were governed by the spirit of far-seeing statesmanship rather than

by near-sighted policy. If you are at all familiar with the story of charity among my people, you will know how fearful Israel ever was of pauperizing and insofar degrading those whom it set out to serve. Do you remember the Biblical verse which commands: Thou shalt not rob the poor nor crush the afflicted. The question has doubtless occurred to me at all times—how can the poor be robbed or the afflicted crushed? The Jewish fathers evidently believed it to be possible to rob the poor, rightly holding that to deal unwisely with the poor is to rob him. You do rob him, if you take from him his self-respect; you do crush the afflicted if, instead of lifting him up, as said Marcus Aurelius, you so deal with him that he remains unable to stand upon his own feet, if you assume that he must continue to lie prone, that he cannot be helped to re-establish himself as a self-reliant being.

By way of explanation of the term, constructive ideals and methods in Jewish charity, let me refer to the Provident Loan Society in New York and other cities with which you are acquainted. Do you happen to know that the work of these provident loan societies was anticipated by centuries and centuries? Turn to the psalter, a precious heritage common to us all, and consider the oft-quoted words: He that giveth to the poor lendeth to the Lord. Taken literally, the verse is in one sense sorry doctrine, namely, if the emphasis be placed upon the implication that a gift to the poor is as a loan to the Lord, and therefore not only a safe but a desirable investment. The Jew has for centuries interpreted the verse differently, reading not, he that giveth to the poor lendeth to the Lord, but he that lendeth to the poor giveth to the Lord. Whence has arisen a far-reaching system of what are commonly known as Jewish Free Loan Societies. An organization of this type and name has been doing a remarkable work for more than a decade in New York, its capital being modest, its losses merely nominal; withal the number of those whom it has permanently helped by tiding over difficult places being almost unbelievably large. It ought to be added that this ancient Jewish manner of social service had not been revived among the Jews of America until the arrival in large numbers upon these shores of Russo-Jewish immigrants,

to whom is due the honor of having re-introduced among the American Jews a type of service of which it may be said that it helped for all time without hurting at any time, and insofar truly served.

I would remind you of yet another consideration that is fundamental to the complete understanding of Jewish ideals of charity. The words, "loving-service," which may be offered as a paraphrase of the Hebrew *Gemiluth Chasodim,* carry the implication that the possession of wealth is but another name for stewardship or trusteeship. When the possessor of wealth is possessed by it, he ceases to be its possessor. The slave of things has abdicated mastery. The olden Jewish teachers recognized the truth that possession spells obligation. They commanded: He shall help my people, and to the question, Who are my people?—they answered as in the name of God: The poor are my people, the poor are mine! Our sages hold that the Lord has so ordered things that charity is needful, for without it men would lack the opportunity to do their full duty as men. Sometimes this thought assumes a rather humorous aspect. I remember some years ago that while I was engaged in conversation on the street with a well-known philanthropist, he was accosted by a shabbily-attired man, who, without a moment's hesitation, addressed my friend: "Sir, I have come to render you a great service." "What is it that you mean to do for me?" he was asked. "I intend to give you an opportunity to discharge a sacred duty by asking you to give alms to me, who am in sore need." I think the poor man really felt that he was serving the man of wealth; that in the transaction he was benefactor as well as beneficiary. And he was. Read Zangwill's grotesque tale, "The King of Schnorrers," if you would understand how rich and poor alike shared the thought that the giving of alms was not an optional privilege, but an inevasible obligation. None so poor, it was felt, as he who would not serve another. In one sense the poor in need of help came to be thought of as an agent of God, who was served in the service of His poor.

Furthermore, I would point this morning to the marked and growing anti-institutional conviction, if so it may be called, which is beginning to inform the higher charity. From very early days,

Jewish principles and practices in charity were anti-institutional. Mark you, I do not claim that in the year 300 B. C. the City Board of Charities in Jaffa discussed at its annual meeting the question whether it would be better to "board out orphans" or to keep them in orphanages; nor do I say that the National Conference of Charities and Correction in Judea at its session in 450 B. C. considered the problem, old-age pensions *vs.* poorhouses. But I do claim that to my fathers, long centuries ago, was given the high wisdom of dealing with the problems of human help and dependence in ways that were not formal, mechanical, institutional. Let me explain. My fellow-Jews are very proud of the Jewish orphan asylums which dot the land. I confess that my pride in them is subdued by the reflection that a Jewish orphan asylum is, from one point of view, a significant and lamentable renunciation of a basal principle of Jewish charity. Instead of arguing in the old days as to the advisability of "placing out orphans" in homes, the rabbis proclaimed that a double portion of the spirit of God rests upon a home in which an orphaned child is harbored. Such a dictum was not only more profitable than discussion, but it was decisive as well. Better than all debate touching the underlying principles of "placing out dependent children" was the laying down of the truth that the home was blessed which gave welcome to an orphaned boy or girl, blessed not through any magic process but by virtue of the blessedness of the deed. Blessed, indeed, is any home the heads of which give shelter to an otherwise homeless child, for they have done the thing that ought to be done. Instead, therefore, of building asylums for orphans, the Jews formerly made asylums of their homes. The result was that the Jewish child, fatherless and motherless, was certain to find a home somewhere when the need arose. Even the poorest Jewish home was large enough to make room for an orphan child. Were not such homes rich and blessed?

Yet, again, the need of providing Homes or Asylums for the aged did not present itself to my fathers in earlier centuries. That anachronism of modern civilization, the poorhouse, would have been unthinkable in Jewry in any age. When the rabbis taught that no duty was more imperative than that of caring

tenderly and reverently for the aged, they merely bodied forth the innate filial sense of the Jew. Urged from Biblical days to rise up before the hoary head and honor the face of the old, it was but one step to thoughtful, tender regard for all aged men and women whether of one's kin or not. One of the loftiest virtues of the race, loving reverence for the aged, the Jew embodied in an attitude tender and humane toward the old, the infirm, the helpless. No homes for the aged and unfortunate were needful as long as the door of every Jewish home swung open to the homeless. Often, if I may be pardoned the personal allusion, I have heard my venerated father tell the story of his own home in Europe. On Friday morning my grandfather was wont to journey through the town in which he was rabbi, in order to seek out the poor strangers. These he would bring to the synagogue for the Sabbath eve service, after which he brought all of them, whatever their number, not to a restaurant armed with meal tickets, but to his own home. Sometimes the number of his guests at the dinner-table on Sabbath eve mounted to a score—not a little matter for the poor rabbi's wife, or the rabbi's poor wife—seeing that if there be one thing poorer than a church mouse, it is a synagogue mouse. These unknown but not unexpected guests found royal welcome with the advent of the "Sabbath queen" to the Jewish home, however lowly. The poor stranger was known not as the village beggar, which he may in truth have been, but as a guest. His were the rights of hospitality, for was he not a man and a brother? The poor stranger was not shunned, nor tolerated when he proved inescapable.

Job's account of his own stewardship became a perennial norm for Israel: "And the cause which I knew not I searched out." The Jew was not satisfied merely to deliver the poor that cried, waiting in other words to respond to the appeal for help. He conceived it to be nothing less than his heaven-sent duty to search out such causes as he knew not. To him might have been addressed the words of Dante:

> "Not only him who asks
> Thy bounty succors; but doth freely oft
> Forerun the asking."

Is not this of the essence of statesmanship in charity?

In closing, let me bring home to you the central or fundamental conception which underlay the aims and practices of Jewish charity, namely, that charity must rest upon justice. The one thing of everlasting significance that the Jew has taught men—I sometimes fear has almost failed to teach—is that charity can never be a substitute for justice. Charity can supplement justice, but charity can never make that good which injustice hath badly wrought. In the structure of human life justice must be the cornerstone, charity the capstone. This is the first article of Israel's social faith. Remember the word of Micah: "What doth the Lord require of thee but to do justice, to love kindness and to walk humbly with thy God." Loving-kindness must follow rather than go before justice. Justice first and justice ever! The taunt of Ruskin in the "Crown of Wild Olives" will not stand: "As much charity as you choose, but no justice," for the ideal of the Jew was: As much charity as you choose, but first justice.

I find Israel's ideals of charity summed up in the great message of the prophet: "Thus speaketh the Lord of Hosts, saying, execute true justice and shew mercy and compassion every man to his brother." First justice, righteousness; after justice,—supplementing, completing, crowning, transfiguring justice,—the showing of mercy and compassion every man to his brother. To his brother; not to the poor, not to the stranger, not to the homeless, but to his brother! Justice presupposes brotherhood. Instead of teaching that the justice of to-day may be the charity of to-morrow, let us hold fast to the ideal first taught in the name of the God of Israel—the charity of this day and every day must be pillared upon justice eternal.

Rev. M. T. Lamb, Superintendent N. J. Children's Home Society—In connection with our work we have had nearly 1,400 children in our care. For thirteen years we have had possibly two Jewish children. On several occasions we have been asked to provide for a Jewish child, but my experience has been that all we have to do is to notify some Jew of the fact and that is the end of it. We are never asked to care for their children. They always do that for themselves.

MRS. F. C. JACOBSON (of Newark)—Mr. Chairman, I would like to emphasize one point which Dr. Wise made in his splendid address. That is, that we must endeavor to maintain the self-respect of those whom we would help. The Conference of Friendly Visitors, of Newark, is represented here to-day by both its President and Trained Worker. I am sure those present would be interested in knowing what this body is doing for the poor in Newark. These women are not Lady Bountifuls, but they are good friends in the truest and best sense. They teach the poor to help themselves. They show the wretched and dirty that there is a standard of living, and, with advice, sympathy and love, bring them up to that standard. They do many other things, which I feel certain Mrs. Weinberg, the President, or Miss Dunbar, the Trained Worker, would be glad to tell us about.

MISS DUNBAR—I have not been long the head worker, and I think that the President could tell of the work better than I can. We have about ninety ladies who give part of their time to going into the homes of our poor people, those who apply to us at the Bureau of Associated Charities. If a family is considered one where constructive work can be done, where they will accept suggestions from women whose lives have been in other lines, we give that family into the care of the Conference of Friendly Visitors, and constructive work is done in that way.

In connection with the Bureau we have a Visiting Housekeeper whose time is spent in the homes of families which claim our interest. Her work is most practical in teaching the mothers the best way to conduct their homes, prepare their food, etc. We find that the very fundamental things they often know nothing at all about; facts about ventilation, about cleanliness, about scrubbing the floor; about such little things as covering their hair when they sweep. The visiting housekeeper instructs them in all these things and works with them as a friend.

Our Visiting Nurse Association is always willing to co-operate with us, and the nurses give their time to the mothers and children, teaching them many things they have never known before in reference to the care of the sick.

We have each week a conference where our visitors meet and

an hour devoted to the problems that come up with reference to these families, and the best ways to deal with them. Following this meeting, fortnightly, we have a study or informational hour, which is for the purpose of educating the visitors in social work, for which speakers are asked.

Once a month we have a report from the Provident Savings collector, who spends her entire time in going about among poor families inducing them to save. Sometimes she made eight hundred calls a month, getting ten or fifteen cents a week from each family. Many of the families have developed a sense of thrift, and after they have a sufficiently large account, it is transferred to the savings bank. This winter we have been much encouraged by the reports. During these hard times the people have realized more than ever what it means to have a little something laid by that they can call upon if there is need, which is really their own money, earned by their own energy. The records show that the calls for this money have been to meet real necessities—coal, shoes, sickness, etc. The women say themselves that they know now what it means to have a little money laid up, and they tell us that next winter they hope to have saved even more. Of course, within the last two months they have not been able to save. We are feeling the stringent times and cannot find work for many of our men.

Another piece of work that our Friendly Visitors are doing is watching for and reporting unsanitary conditions to our Dark Room Committee, with which our tenement house inspectors are glad to co-operate.

The entire work of the friendly visitor is practical and it is really a work of love because these ladies give their time to, and come in personal contact with, the women whom they are trying to help

The chairman gave to the Conference the greetings and regrets of Rev. E. Mayer, of Paterson, who was to have followed the last speaker, but who was absent on account of illness. The chairman then said that the Conference had always looked to the Oranges for advanced charitable endeavors and advice, and asked Mr. Isaac C. Ogden to speak on "Charitable Finance."

Charitable Finance.

BY ISAAC C. OGDEN.

One of the marked tendencies of business during the past twenty years has been union along common lines of work, for the purpose of securing greater economy in effort, and at the same time greater efficiency in results. We have seen this put into effect in many cases, often on a colossal scale, and where the conditions have been such as to attain the above ends, the new organizations have prospered, and by their success have justified their existence. This concentration of corporation management has been most marked on the financial side, while more independence has been accorded to the manufacturing plants. A number of examples might be named of corporations with their financial headquarters in some central city, but with factories scattered over the country, each factory responsible for its own management, the local managers vying with each other in endeavoring to produce the best results, and at times apparently in competition with one another.

Whether this principle could not be applied with equal success to the management of philanthropic institutions as to business enterprises, has been a matter of consideration by some of those interested in the charities of a neighboring community where I reside. Concentration on the side of out-giving in service did not seem practicable or desirable, as the lines of work of the institutions are so different; but concentration on the side of in-gathering seemed entirely so, for here the thing desired was the same, money, and the methods used in securing it were largely the same.

We felt that there was a growing necessity for some new and better method of financing our charities. What had been sufficient in the past was proving insufficient under increasing needs. We felt that we were no exception to the rule, that the able and willing were bearing a disproportionate part of the burdens and that we must find some means through united effort to increase the spirit of beneficence among the great part of our fellow-citizens.

Our first step was to see whether we were the explorers of a new territory or whether there were any footprints of predecessors to guide us. Here it appeared that there is nothing new under the sun, that a similar plan, after much experiment and some preliminary failure, had been successfully operated in Liverpool for thirty years, and that it had been approved by the charitable public as saving them from repeated and annoying appeals, and by the institutions as furnishing them a more efficient and a more economical method of gathering their income. We also learned that such a plan had been successfully used by our Jewish brethren for the past ten years in a number of our own cities, where it had been found that the needed sums could be collected with less effort, and provision for increasing need be more easily made, than by the old method.

Our next step was to ascertain whether our own conditions were adapted to any similar scheme. We procured the annual reports of fifteen of our pricipal charities, and analyzed their incomes and their subscription lists. Their receipts fell mainly into four classes:

1. The income derived from invested funds;
2. The earnings of some of the institutions;
3. Direct contributions from the public; and
4. The proceeds of fairs and other entertainments.

The income included in the first two classes did not come within the scope of our inquiry.

We made an analysis of the receipts of the third class, namely, direct contributions from the public, covering over 7,000 contributions, and tabulated all gifts of $5 and over. These numbered 1862, given by 1035 persons. We were surprised to find that 638 persons had contributed to only one society; 193 to two, and 93 to three, leaving only 111 who contributed to more. Two persons gave to nine societies. In addition there were more than 5000 contributions under $5 each, and running as low as 10 cents, and amounting to nearly $9,500.

We further analyzed by amount the 1862 contributions made by the 1035 persons, and found that less than 7 per cent. of the givers had contributed over 53 per cent. of the total, thus justify-

ing our previous impression that the great burden of the support of our charities was borne by a comparatively small number of persons. The 7 per cent averaged $253 each, while the remaining 93 per cent. averaged $16 each.

Another and a disappointing fact appeared from these two analyses. There were 638 persons who gave to only one society, and there were 400 persons who gave only $5 each. With each of these 400, $5 was the total amount of his support of our local charities, except in so far as any may have given in addition sums of less than $5, the analysis not having been carried below this figure. A personal knowledge regarding a good many of these 400 seemed to indicate that their gifts were dictated by some personal or local motive, and not by any broad principle of charity, and that by the stimulation of such a principle the increased support needed for our institutions might be largely found.

The fourth class of income, namely, that derived from the proceeds of fairs, entertainments, etc., presented the greatest difficulty. Owing, as we believe, to lack of education in the principles of beneficence, very many people seem to feel that when they give they should receive something in return. Those purchasing tickets for entertainments, no doubt, are under the impression that they are giving in charity, but it seems perfectly clear that to the extent to which they receive value for their expenditure they are not, and it often happens that but a small part of the sums spent for tickets remains after meeting the expenses of the entertainment. We believe the method is economically wasteful, and that the same amount of effort devoted to disseminating fuller information regarding the needs of the societies and to the cultivation of a broad principle of charity, would result in direct giving and would produce greater net results.

In the matter of collecting the incomes of the societies, there are large possibilities of economizing labor and saving energy. Follow out the usual course of events with, for example, the 1035 persons whose gifts were classified: 80 per cent. of them gave to only one or two societies, and 20 per cent. to from three to nine. Take first the 20 per cent., and imagine the experience

a person contributing to (say) half a dozen societies. Possibly he might be an exceedingly conscientious and systematic giver, who would procure the reports of the various organizations, look them over carefully, select those which he desired to aid, apportion among these the fund at his disposal, and send in his contributions at the proper time. But this picture is altogether too ideal, and it is not going to an extreme to say that it would not be realized once in a hundred cases. Some of the remaining ninety-nine would respond to a note of reminder, but this would involve a separate note from each society, and the probability is that with the great majority one or more personal calls would be required. And this does not take into account the altogether fruitless calls on behalf of those societies which be rejected.

Now consider the eighty per cent. who gave to only one or two societies. Without intending in any way to criticise, it seems fair to say that a good number of these, if their spirit of beneficence were stimulated by fuller knowledge, would be willing to give a more generous support to our charities. It is largely a matter of information and education. But how can the education be best given? By each society separately? Would this not be like sending a pupil to a separate school for each branch of learning to be acquired? And then consider the annoyance to the individuals besought by the representatives of a dozen or more societies.

In contrast to this frequent solicitation to which the charitable are now exposed, would not a new method appeal to them, by which no person, having once contributed or pledged a contribution, would be solicited again within a year for any further gift? The convenience of this principle has been recognized in Liverpool to such an extent that there some refuse to contribute to any society not using the federated plan. It must also not be lost sight of that a society availing itself of such a method would thereby acquire, to some extent at least, a guaranty of worthiness and efficiency which might not be enjoyed by one standing alone, and which would commend it to the more favorable judgment of the community. The Endorsement Committee of the Newark Board of Trade affords an example of a parallel function.

One of our churches may be quoted as a living and prosperous example of a parallel method of support. Ever since its organization, twenty years ago, it has been supported by voluntary pledges made at the beginning of its fiscal year and paid at regular dates chosen by the contributors. As a result the trustees know early in the year the income they can depend on; payments are promptly made, arrears are but trifling, and there is no collection at the end of the year to make up a deficit. The church is now applying the same system to its benevolent funds, in very much the same way as is here proposed. Pledges are asked at the beginning of the year for the different objects aided by the church. Givers may designate how the amount pledged shall be apportioned and payments are made at regular times selected by the givers. The plan is working as well on the benevolent side as on the secular, producing not only an increased total, but letting the treasurer know in advance the support which will be given to the various objects on the church list, and adding materially to the interest of the givers in those to which they contribute. Where the distribution of the amounts pledged is not indicated by the givers, the apportionment is made by the officers of the church. With the congregation it has been an education in charitable finance to acquire the idea that they are not paying for something and receiving an equivalent for the amount paid, but rather that they are partners in a great work, and that there is no measure for the amount to be pledged but the conscientious equation of their ability and their duty. A newcomer frequently asks "What is my pew rent?" or "What am I expected to pay?" and he is surprised to be told that the size and situation of his pew have no relation whatever to the question; that the amount rests solely with his own conscience, and will be known only by himself and the treasurer.

It seems as if the principle which has been found so successful in the case of this church, should be applied with equal success on a larger scale to the support of our local charities. Indeed it seems as if, in the latter case, it should prove even more successful. With the church its success depends almost entirely upon the enthusiasm and faithfulness of the treasurer, who is not a

salaried officer, and who is able to give only a part of his time to the work, while much more could be accomplished by a well-organized board working with the aid of an efficient paid secretary.

We believe that the acceptance and ultimate success of such a plan lies with the givers, and that if it appeal to them as efficient and business-like, it will secure their support and also its acceptance by the various institutions. We believe that it should first be explained in detail to the principal givers and their adherence gained. If they will agree to contribute the same amounts as heretofore, and will further aid in forming an underwriting fund to cover any shortage which might possibly arise during the reorganization of the collecting machinery, there seems little doubt of its success.

While I was engaged in my work with these statistics, I read with great pleasure Dr. Wm. H. Allen's most interesting and stimulating book, "Efficient Democracy." In one of the earlier chapters, in speaking of the bookkeeping of charitable institutions, he urges the necessity of an adequate system of accounting, and says that the question is not whether an institution can afford to employ a good accountant, but rather whether it can afford *not* to. And later, in his chapter on hospital management, he again urges the necessity of uniform statistics, and says that such a system has been adopted by four of the leading hospitals of New York City. My own experience accords with what I have quoted. An institution dependent upon the public for support should issue a full and clear annual report, the financial part prepared by a proper accountant, from which its supporters can learn the results obtained from the use of their money and judge how efficiently it has been expended. Where there are, in addition to the treasurer's statement, others by an assistant treasurer, or auxiliary committees, these should cover the same period as the treasurer's report, and sums passing through the subsidiary accounts to the main account should be easily traceable in both statements.

In closing I cannot give better expression to the aims which I have endeavored to explain and advocate than to quote the following resumé:

1st. To collect by direct contributions only, through one central body, the money necessary to carry on the charitable and philanthropic work of all the affiliated organizations.

2d. To give wider publicity to the varied forms of charitable and philanthropic service carried on by these organizations; to make known the needs to which they minister, the methods by which they work and the results attained; to stimulate a deeper interest in their work and to induce those who give money to give also their co-operation and personal service as far as possible; and to be the means of bringing workers and work together.

3d. To secure and maintain co-ordination and co-operation in the work carried on by the various organizations, so as to prevent duplication, overlapping and unnecessary expense.

Before the address of Dr. BARROWS, the Chairman said: As our civil war drew toward its close people woke up to the suffering which had been endured in the homes of the soldiers, by mothers, wives and sisters. And now, said he, we begin to adequately realize the suffering which comes to a family whose bread-winner is lost to them by becoming a criminal, and Dr. Samuel J. Barrows, U. S. Commissioner for the International Prison Commission, will tell us what the prospects are for the alleviation of the unfortunate condition of these people.

How to Correct the Prisoner Without Punishing the Family.

BY SAMUEL J. BARROWS, PRESIDENT OF THE INTERNATIONAL PRISON COMMISSION.

Two subjects assume importance in these days in dealing with offenders; one is the importance of recognizing the just responsibility which may rest upon the family; the other is the importance of relieving it of burdens which the family ought not to be asked to bear. In his excellent address on Sunday Ex-Governor Stokes called attention to the responsibility of the family. This is especially evident in dealing with youthful offenders.

It was found in Colorado that many offences committed by children were due to the instigation or complicity of parents. Hence the work of the juvenile court was strengthened by a law making parents and guardians responsible for encouraging, causing, or contributing to the delinquency of their children. Similar laws have now been passed in several States, including the State of New Jersey. Such offending parents may be fined $1,000, or be imprisoned six months, or be punished by both fine and imprisonment. The effect of such laws has been salutary.

In ancient times the family, not the individual, was the social unit and punishment was visited upon the family of which the offender was a member. This principle is expressed in the oldest Assyrian code of which we have knowledge. It was embodied in other codes. Punishment in medieval times was not only visited upon the offender, but upon his children and children's children. His estates were confiscated; his children reduced from affluence to poverty.

To-day we have given up the patriarchal system. Our society recognizes the individual as the unit. We do not hold members of his family responsible unless there is direct evidence of complicity. These laws that I have quoted recognizing the responsibility of children and guardians are not laws for the punishment of the family, but for the protection of the individual child, and we have laws and societies for protecting children against the tyranny and cruelty of their parents in contrast to Roman and patriarchal times when the father had absolute power over his child.

Of course there is a spiritual and social law, a law of the affections by which when one member suffers all members suffer with it. We cannot relieve the family of the shame and distress which may come upon it through dishonorable or criminal acts of one of its members. That, however, is not an arbitrary punishment inflicted by society; it is the operation of the law of sympathy. But in these days we do not place a stigma by law upon such a family, and do not deprive by law of civic or legal privileges. The Constitution of the United States declares that "no bill of attainder shall be passed, and no attainder of treason

in consequence of a judicial sentence, shall work corruption of blood or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted." To-morrow we shall celebrate the birthday of Abraham Lincoln; I am thinking now of the circumstances of his death. It illustrates the point I am making. The heart of the great actor Edwin Booth was broken by the deed of his brother. For a time it was a load of grief against which he could scarcely bear up. But none of that burden was placed upon him by the American public. There went out to him, on the contrary, warm and tender expressions of sympathy and love. I recall the testimonial given to him two or three years later in the Winter Garden Theatre, New York, when a great audience composed of representative and distinguished people of New York came together to present him with a medal in recognition of his artistic achievement in acting Hamlet for a hundred successive nights. The audience came not only to express its admiration for the actor, but its love for the man. They said to him "Not one stain or stigma of the act you abhor will rest upon you; we come to show you the love and admiration of the American people." Thus in modern life it is the individual and not the family which is singled out by laws for punishment.

Our theory and our principle are right, but, unfortunately, our practice contradicts our principles. In spite of the fact that we profess not to punish the family for the acts of its members, that is what we are doing all the time. You speak of the penal institutions of your State; you think they are at Trenton, at Hudson, at Rahway, and in the county jail; but the places of punishment are not there alone. You will find them in a thousand homes. The prisoner's family not only has to bear the mental suffering which comes from the wrong-doing of a member, but an economic burden is laid upon the family greater than it can bear. The prisoner may suffer in mind, but in these enlightened days he does not suffer in body. He is sure of plenty of food and of shelter; he will not receive any notice to get out because he cannot pay his rent. It is the wife, the mother, the children that suffer in this way. There is no distress more poignant to a family than that which comes from the sudden removal of the

bread-winner. The family has been living close to the margin of comfort; it has no accumulated resources; it depends upon the labor of husband or father, and when this is withdrawn it is plunged into poverty and destitution. When I think of such instances I think of them not as rows of figures, columns of statistics; I think of them objectively. I see the pale, worn face of the little woman suddenly deprived of the wages of son or husband and brought face to face with the task of supporting four or five little children, none of them old enough to earn a cent. I have seen them at my office; I have seen them in their homes, and the distress seemed all the greater because the little children did not know what it meant and why papa did not come home.

There are those who will say there are institutions to which the children can be sent, and that private charity can bear the burden, as it often must. But this is no rational answer; it is yielding to the problem, not solving it. Mr. Wight spoke on Sunday of the shameful way in which some families fail to provide for aged parents or dependents, and sent them to public institutions. That is certainly an evil; but on the other hand, I have been struck again and again with the splendid courage of the wife and mother who will work off her finger-ends rather than break up her home and send her children away. We think of the heroism of the battlefield, but there is no greater heroism than that of the faithful mother who is giving her own life to maintain the life of her children.

The first way in which we may relieve the family from the economic burden is by placing the offender whenever possible upon probation. Experience has proven that considered simply from the standpoint of the individual offender, a great many cases can be treated by probation without imprisonment. But probation is also assuming new importance from the standpoint of the family. It is a mistake to take away the bread-winner when the safety of society does not require it. In many cases a slight fine may be imposed. This, of course, is some tax on the resources of the family, especially when the man is imprisoned because he cannot pay the fine. Let the fine be paid on instalments and during an extended time of probation, and the

result is better for the State, because it is able to collect the fine, and better for the family, because it is able to pay it. In figuring the economic value of probation, we must count the saving to the State of the cost of imprisonment and the saving to the man and his family of the wages he may earn on probation which he could not earn in prison.

Relief of the same character as that made possible by probation is secured also through parole. This term is applied to the conditional liberation of offenders whom it has been found necessary to commit to prison. The same considerations which illustrate the economic and moral value of probation also prove the value of parole. In many cases the sentence of a man may be shortened profitably after he has served but a third of the maximum time of his sentence imposed by law. Mr. Amos W. Butler, Secretary of the State Board of Charities and Correction of Indiana, made a study of the financial results of parole covering a period of four years and seven months in that State. In that period there had been paroled from the two prisons of that State 1340 men. These paroled prisoners earned on parole $272,661.68, of which amount they had saved in hand $48,063.71. At the New York State Reformatory Mr. Brockway made an estimate of the time that 5,120 prisoners, paroled in the first twenty years of that institution, would have had to serve under a definite sentence. Taking the minimum of sentences to the State prisons for similar offences as a basis of comparison, it showed a saving of 10,112 years of imprisonment and a saving of maintenance cost of $1,895,456. If there should be computed and added to this monetary saving the earning of the paroled prisoners while on parole, calculated on the Indiana experience of earnings, then a total economic benefit is shown of $2,362,683.

Another cause of our punishment of the family is our system of prison slavery under which we compel a man to labor for the State without paying him anything for his work. In some States large sums of money are made out of prisoners for the benefit of the State, but none of this surplus is assigned to the prisoner or his family. I do not think that such enforced slavery can be justified on ethical grounds or by any consideration of

social welfare. While it is desirable that prisoners should pay the cost of their maintenance and cost of supervision by the State, it is not desirable that the State should use them as slaves, and confiscate all their earnings. In some States and countries better usage prevails. The prisoner is allowed a share of his earnings, and while a part of it is retained until his discharge, the rest of it can be used to good advantage in aiding the prisoner's family.

Bad as is the slavery of excessive and unrequited labor, it is not so bad as that of compulsory and unrequited idleness. In the State of New York the idleness in penitentiaries and jails is simply deplorable and under our system of working for the State the prisoner at best can earn but a small amount for himself. There are many prisoners capable of earning the full cost of their maintenance by the State and an additional amount sufficient to pay the rent or subsistence of their families. I recall the instance of a man who had a wife and three small children. He was a skilful machinist. When he came out he earned five and six dollars a day at his trade. Under a wise system of law and administration it would have been possible for this man to pay the cost of his keep by the State, and he could have earned at least enough to pay the rent of his family. If he was worth five dollars outside, he was worth at least two dollars a day to the State, a sum sufficient to pay his maintenance in prison, and that of his family outside; but as he received nothing for his labor, private charity had to be invoked to tide the family over.

There is one form of offence in which the ordinary treatment of the offender is conspicuously inefficient and absurd. The meanest of all offences in the category of crime is the desertion of wife and family. It is an offense shamefully prevalent. How shall we deal with it? The ordinary method of imprisonment is ineffectual. The endeavor to place it among the most serious crimes in the penal code by classing it as a felony enables one State to make a requisition upon other States for the extradition of such offenders, but it does not deter or correct the offender. A wife deserter escapes from New York to New Jersey. We may have him extradited and sent back, but in

punishing the man the State punishes itself as well as his family; for he does not earn the cost of his imprisonment, and his family is no better off because the State has shut him up in comparative idleness.

Some of these cases may be dealt with by placing the prisoner under bonds to support his family, and obliging him to assign to his wife a portion of his wages. In Massachusetts this plan has been worked succesfully. In Connecticut in the year 1905, $5,918 were collected and expended for families of probationers, and in 1906, $13,139.

But there are many cases in which probation fails. The prisoner is lazy and thriftless. He will not work unless compelled to. In such cases the only rational way seems to be for society to place the man where he will be forced to work, and then apply his wages to the support of his family. So far as I know the first State to adopt this principle was that of Ohio. It was brought about by the action of the Toledo Humane Society, largely through the influence of its president, Mr. James M. Brown. In 1889 a law was passed and applied to the Toledo Workhouse, providing that where a fine had been imposed, such person might be imprisoned in the workhouse and kept at hard labor at the rate of sixty cents per day for each day's labor, and a sum equal to forty cents per day should be paid for the support and maintenance of his family. This law continued in operation until about three years ago and was working well when it was repealed. There was great trouble in its enforcement, the workhouse commissioners did not look with favor on these provisions of the bill because it affected the finances of the workhouse. When the municipal code was revised it was repealed with the rest of the old code.

In March, 1907, the Legislature of the State of Colorado enacted that "whenever any able-bodied person is confined in the county jail having been convicted of the non-support of his wife or minor children, the county shall pay toward the support of such wife or minor children not less than fifty cents, nor more than one dollar per day for each day such person shall work." This law went into effect July 5, 1907, and there has not been time enough to see how it will work.

March 23, 1906, a law was passed by Congress applying the same principle to the District of Columbia in the cases of non-support or wife desertion. It contains a provision for probation and the assignment of a weekly sum from the wages of the dependent under an order of the court for the support of his family, but in case this fails, and imprisonment is ordered the superintendent of the workhouse is directed to pay fifty cents a day to the wife and children for each day's hard labor performed by the prisoner. A small appropriation of $200 was made by Congress for this purpose. Under Judge De Lacey of the Juvenile Court this appropriation was soon exhausted, but he collected and paid over through his court more than $6,000 to destitute families from earnings of the men paid into court.

The Brooklyn Juvenile Probation Association has drafted a similar bill and recommended its passage in New York; but labor conditions in our State are not favorable.

In the United States Penitentiary at Leavenworth, an effectual method is applied in dealing with prisoners who refuse to work. They are placed in a separate building and each in a separate cell, large and well lighted and with an abundant supply of stone to be broken. As the condition of getting his dinner a man must break a prescribed quantity; unless this is not done the meals fail to appear. When labor is placed on such a gastronomic basis the prisoner soon succumbs. Such a method might effectually be applied to the criminally idle husband or the wife deserter. Only I would carry it further. I would set before him some opportunity for remunerative labor; I would say to him, "John, you have a wife and two children; they are thin and hungry; they are half-starved by your neglect. Here is some work for you. When you have finished it you will have earned enough to pay for a dinner for your wife and children. Then here, there is some more work for yourself. When you have earned a dinner for your wife and children and for yourself, your own dinner will be sent to you. You have the privilege of working or starving. Your crime is murder, the murder of your wife and children by slow starvation. If you will not work, you can starve with them," and I would have the law so amended that the man might be kept for the rest of

his natural life under an indeterminate sentence, released conditionally on parole; but recommitted to compulsory labor if he lapsed into voluntary idleness. This would be, I think, an effectual way of dealing with this meanest of all offenders.

MR. SAMUEL FORT—I must say that I agree with the gentleman in many things that he has said. He has spoken of wife-deserters as being the worst type of men. I for myself feel that he did not go far enough, or did not commence at the right end. It is a fact that a large percentage of these wife-deserters are poor men with nothing but their hands to provide a living, with a capacity of earning $1.50 to $2.50 dollars per day, and he asks what shall be done to them, and I ask what shall be done to the rich millionaire who will hire perjurers to swear away his wife's character that he may take another, and I further ask, what shall be done with such men as Stanford White and Harry Thaw?

MRS. E. E. WILLIAMSON—I have been a Probation Officer in Union county for several years, and also for one year in Middlesex county, and I have seen what excellent work can be done under the Delinquent Parents Act. Charity organization workers can materially assist in the enforcement of this Act by bringing to the attention of the Probation Officers, delinquent parents. The Truant Officers of the State are using the Act with wonderful effect. A large number of parents were brought before the Court in Middlesex county under this Act and were put on probation. The effect was remarkable.

The Chairman then said that in coming to Jersey City the Conference felt unwilling to be merely the recipient of the handsome hospitality of its splendid high school and its comfortable homes, and hoped to be of service to the municipality in drawing its charities into a closer and happier co-operation. To forward this end he had asked Rev. Elmer S. Forbes, of Jersey City, to speak on "The Charities of Jersey City and Their Need of Co-operation."

The Charities of Jersey City and the Need for General Co-operation.

BY REV. ELMER S. FORBES.

In speaking of the charities of Jersey City it hardly necessary to go into details of organization and work, for these societies are very like similar institutions to be found in almost every city in the country. Excluding the churches, lodges, and trades unions, which, while giving much relief in various ways, are primarily organized for different purposes, the public and semi-public charities of this city fall naturally into certain well-defined classes.

1. Children's societies. The helplessness of childhood easily awakens sympathy, and perhaps it is quite natural that there should be more institutions devoted to child-relief and child-saving than to any other form of charitable work. Of these there are nine: The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, The Children's Home, Home for the Homeless, Christian Home for Orphan Children, St. Francis' Orphan Asylum, St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum, St. Mary's Girls' Asylum, St. Michael's Orphanage, and the Lutheran Home.

2. Hospitals, of which there are three: St. Francis', The City, and Christ Hospitals.

3. For the care of the aged and infirm: The German Pioneer Home, Home for Aged Women, and St. Joseph's Sisters' Home.

4. Rescue Homes. For men: The Neuman Mission and Industrial Home and the Salvation Army Industrial Home. For women: St. Katherine's Home, and the Home for Girls.

5. Working Women's Homes: St. Mary's Boarding Home and the Young Women's Christian Association.

6. Societies for general relief: The St. Vincent de Paul Society and the Baron de Hirsch Society. Also in this group may be included the Open Hand Club, the Philanthropy Department of the Woman's Club, and several circles of King's Daughters which give relief from time to time as the need is brought to their attention.

7. The Evening Journal Fresh-Air Fund.

8. Social Settlements, of which there are two: Whittier House and the Deaconess' Home.

9. The Organized Aid Association, whose principal work is the investigation of applications for relief, but which in emergency cases does give material assistance.

It may be noted that while the city is provided with a very respectable variety of charitable organizations, there are certain needs for which there is no provision at all, and other for which there seems to be an over-provision. Thus there are no lodging houses for women. In a city of two hundred and thirty-five or forty thousand population there is no place where a homeless and friendless woman can apply for shelter. Possibly this statement should be slightly qualified. In an emergency the Home for Girls will open its doors to such an one, but the capacity of this Home is very limited and its chief work is of a different kind altogether. Homeless men all over the city know that if they have no other place to go they can always turn to the Newman Home or the Salvation Army Home, where they can obtain food and lodging in return for a certain number of hours of labor per day, but for homeless women there is no such provision. For them, with but few exceptions, there is no place but the streets, and perhaps in the last resort the station houses. The need for a lodging house for women is very pressing.

There is an equally crying demand for a well-appointed laundry, where women who are ignorant of the business can be carefully taught domestic laundry work, and where the instructed can be given employment. Such an institution would be a great boon, and would solve the problem of living for a considerable number who now find it almost impossible to fully support themselves. If to these institutions could be added an employment agency for men and women, managed in a way that would inspire confidence both in employers and those who would be employed, and a hospital or home for incurables, the system of charities in Jersey City would be tolerably well rounded out.

There is no over-supply of institutions except those having to do with child relief. Nine would seem to be more than are needed in a city of this size, and if modern methods of dealing

with the child problem could be generally applied, it is more than likely that the number could be reduced.

Turning now from the charities of Jersey City, those we have and those we ought to have, to the second part of our subject, one is tempted in his haste to say of co-operation in this city as of snakes in Ireland, there isn't any. Of course, this is somewhat of an exaggeration, but still it is true that in this important matter Jersey City is far behind the times. There is great need of a very much closer co-operation between the charitable institutions and the Organized Aid, which should be the link binding them all together, and between the Aid and churches and individuals. This co-operation should have a double purpose: (1) The supplying of adequate relief to those who really need it in a way that will preserve self-respect and strengthen character, and at the same time the detection of the frauds who prey upon the charitable public; (2) the proper support of the charities of the city.

The importance of the Organized Aid Association does not begin to be appreciated as it should be by the people of the town. It is really the keystone of our arch of charities, and the complex problems of poverty, and of intelligent and helpful relief cannot possibly be solved without it. We have institutions enough to meet the most immediate and pressing needs, but each of them is organized for a certain definite work. The S. P. C. C. will take charge of the neglected child and the hospitals will care for the sick grandmother, but neither singly nor all together can these institutions handle properly the case of a destitute and broken family. Constantly the agent of the Organized Aid is called upon to visit typical families, of which the father spends his time in the corner gin-mill, the idle and slatternly wife lives in a pig-pen of a kitchen, where sickness, beggary, drink and destitution make up an indescribable picture of wretchedness. Any one who is familiar with the poorer quarters of the city knows what it is. In the presence of the problem which such a family presents, the charities of the town one and all are helpless. They cannot build up the family character nor restore self-respect, and this is just what must be done or the very help which they give will plunge these unfortunates still deeper into the mire of

dependence. The Organized Aid exists to do this work which the institutions cannot do, and is doing it all the time as faithfully as its limited means will allow.

The reason why there should be the closest kind of co-operation between the charities of the city and the Organized Aid is perfectly clear; without it their work is only half done. Their first aim is to relieve immediate distress, but after this comes the obligation to remove the cause of destitution, to keep the individual or the family out of the ranks of pauperism, and to make them independent and responsible members of society. They cannot do this work themselves, and they should therefore turn it over to the Aid to do for them. They should send to the office of the Aid a record of all cases which come to them, for investigation and registration. To a certain extent this is done. A few of the institutions are working with the Organized Aid in full and cordial sympathy, but more of them are not. In some there seems to be a curious kind of jealousy in their work, as though what they did and how they did it were nobody's business but their own, but such a feeling is wholly unreasonable. The only thought on the part of either institution or individual in the bestowal of charity should be to make it effective; and experience has proved over and over again that the first step in this direction is to investigate, then to register, and then to bring the case in hand under a wise and sympathetic personal influence which will produce the desired result.

When an application for relief is received the first thing to do is to investigate it. Before you can possibly decide upon what finally ought to be done, you must understand the circumstances of the case, and a personal visit by someone trained to the work is the only way to get the facts. Occasionally the objection is made that we have no right to intrude upon the privacy of the poor in this way, but this objection should have no weight. As well might you say when a physician goes to see a patient that the doctor should simply take his word that he has a pain or an ache and ask no further questions. Before the physician does a thing, before he gives an opinion or writes a prescription, he makes a careful examination and what he does depends upon his findings. So it should be with an applicant for charity. Take

it in the case of our hospitals. In Christ Hospital, with which I am familiar, it costs now in this period of advanced prices between ten and eleven dollars a week to maintain a patient in the public wards. A person, let us say, applies for admission to the ward, but professes to be unable to pay anything at all for the care he will receive or the cost he will be to the hospital. The question at once arises: why is he unable to pay? Is it because the head of the family is out of work, or because he is idle and dissolute, or because long-continued sickness has brought the family into debt, or is it shiftlessness, or ignorance, or misfortune, or accident? The hospital does not know, and has no time nor money to spend in finding out, yet this is precisely the information which ought to be had before it is decided to put the patient on the charity list. Because of the lack of it, it occasionally happens that patients escape paying their way when they are able to do it in whole or in part; and on the other hand families which would gladly meet their obligations, and could do it if they were helped to a more economical management of their household expenses, are obliged to eat the bread of charity because they do not know how to avoid it. The hospital is cheated and families are pauperized because the facts are not known. The hospitals should turn all their applications for free care and service over to the Organized Aid for careful investigation, and only after a report from that office should the application be granted. The same course should be followed by the poormaster's office, and all other institutions; and in this way their own special work would be done more effectively, relief would be given more intelligently and systematically, and families would not be so likely to sag down into the dependent class, but would be strengthened and built up in character.

Registration in the office of the Organized Aid simply makes the information which has been gained available for future use. Should an applicant appear a second time, as often happens, it is not necessary to do the work all over again.

Much that has been said about the necessity for co-operation between the Organized Aid and the charities of the city applies equally to co-operation between the Aid and churches and individuals, of which there is comparatively little. There are seventy-

four religious organizations in Jersey City, but only twelve of them are in touch with the Organized Aid. Closer relations between them are much to be desired. The churches give a great deal of help in the course of the year, but for the most part they keep their own counsel. They send very few requests for investigation to the office of the Aid and make no reports of work done, consequently beyond doubt there is much overlapping of charity. Nearly every clergyman is familiar with the mother in shabby mourning who brings her child to be baptized, and when she is visited makes a touching appeal for clothing or help of some kind, who, if the facts were known, would be found to be receiving assistance from several churches. I myself knew of one whose baby had been baptized in six different churches with this end in view. Such cases are extreme, of course, but still families which will ask for charity are quite apt to be eclectics in religion, and will not hesitate to be Presbyterians in the morning and Episcopalians in the evening, if they find it profitable. Personally I believe that all applicants for help from the churches, with rare exceptions, should be reported to the Organized Aid and discreetly visited. The reports could be kept in a specially guarded private list, if you please, open only to the pastors of the co-operating churches, but in some way the charity lists of the churches should be watched as carefully as those of any of the institutions; and I believe the results would be correspondingly valuable, both to the churches themselves in the saving of charitable funds and to the families in setting them more speedily and firmly on their feet.

Co-operation between individuals and the Organized Aid as the representative of charities of the city, has not received the attention it deserves. The first and most obbvious way in which individuals can co-operate is by sending to the office of the Aid all persons who apply to them for help. I need not tell you that to the homes of the kindly disposed there comes an endless procession of the socially lame, halt and blind, telling every possible story if by chance they can wheedle anything from a dime to a dollar from your pocket into theirs. The kind-hearted are notoriously easy marks, and none know it better than those who abuse their kindness. You can learn very surely how you are rated by

these parasites of society by noting the calls that are made at your front and back doors. A gentleman of this town told me some years ago that he found he was feeding on the average three persons a day at his kitchen door, and because of the rise in his household expenses he had been obliged to cut down his outside relief to one person a day. Well he might, and if he had not, the number of his self-invited guests would have continued to increase without limit. Indiscriminate giving of money or food or clothing is the worst possible kind of charity. Mr. Hewitt, the former poormaster of Jersey City, used to say that those who were guilty of it should be indicted by the grand jury. No doubt it is difficult for the generous-hearted to keep from responding to the appeals which come to them, but they must take their choice; either go on in their bad old ways and bear their share of responsibility for the ruin and degradation of those to whom they give, or else be converted and begin to deal with them helpfully and humanely. The right thing to do with all personal applications for help is to send them to the Organized Aid, to be handled as each case may require. The trouble is that these appeals are apt to come to us at times when this course is not practicable. About eight o'clock on a cold and wet Saturday evening is a favorite hour; but even then you can send your men to the Newman Mission or the Salvation Army Home, and the women to the Home for Girls, for the time being, and give them cards to report at the office of the Aid on Monday morning. Give your money to the Homes and not to the beggars; the Homes need it more and will make far better use of it than the beggars. By this course you can feel that you have done genuine kindness, and have given help that really counts.

Another way in which individuals can co-operate with the Organized Aid, and so indirectly with all the charitable institutions in town, is by joining the corps of friendly visitors. We may well be guided here by the experience of others, and the universal testimony is that the very best way to build up a broken-down and shiftless family is to bring it under the influence of a wise and sympathetic friend. The friendly visitor does not go as the paid agent of a society, but as a friend, and hence the name. In earlier day, when life was simpler, perhaps there was

more of this cordial and happy relation between the well-to-do and the needy, but, however it may have been then, now they seem to be drifting apart, and more than ever is it true that one-half the world does not know how the other half lives. The aim of the friendly visitor is to get back into genuine and helpful relations with his fellows. He is not to go about like a converted Scrooge, scattering turkeys and shoes and coal in his wake, he is not to go at all as a benefactor, but as a friend, ready to supply what his poorer or more ignorant friend lacks. Ignorance is one of the great causes of wretchedness and misery. The submerged tenth do not know how to live, nor spend their money to advantage, nor keep house, nor cook, nor take care of their sick, nor sew, nor wash, nor do anything else which would help them to keep out of the ranks of the submerged. The friendly visitor, and the visitor may be a man or a woman, goes to such family as one friend goes to another, and shows it how, and this is the secret of the whole matter. How valuable such a work may be is shown by a study of forty-three cases found in the last report of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. Of this number all but fifteen had become practical normal and self-supporting, and of the fifteen, twelve had shown marked improvement. From one such report you may know all.

I can say but a word about co-operation with a view to providing adequate support for the charities of our city, yet such co-operation is much to be desired. The financial condition of many of our institutions is not satisfactory. They are greatly hampered for lack of funds, and the support which they do receive comes in a haphazard and often wasteful way. To begin with, it comes from too small a number. Those who are known to be charitably disposed are besieged on every hand for subscriptions, until in self-defense many of them are tempted to stop all contributions to public charities. Then there is the unabated nuisance of tickets for entertainments for the benefit of this or that or the other charity. As soon as the fall season opens the stream of appeals begins, and it does not run dry until it is time to depart again for the seashore or the mountains. This method of getting money is unbusiness-like and wasteful.

Unbusiness-like, because instead of asking for support on the strength of the work which the institution is doing, it tries to get it by giving a premium for every subscription. Give us two dollars for the home or whatever it is, and we will give you a prize in the shape of admission and a seat at the entertainment. It is a wasteful method, because from a quarter to two-thirds of the receipts are apt to be eaten up by the expenses. It is too great a price to pay for what is finally realized.

The charities of Jersey City should certainly come together and organize a sound and business-like system of collecting the funds which are needed to maintain them in a state of efficiency. This ought not to be a difficult matter. The institutions are worthy of support, and the people of the city wish them to be maintained. There are good-will enough and money enough, and all that is required is an efficient and inexpensive system of collections. Once organize it, and put the charities of the town on a solid financial basis, and the work they can do will be multipled indefinitely.

Mr. James B. Williams was asked to take part in the discussion. He spoke as follows:

Rev. Mr. Forbes has shown the need of co-operation in Jersey City. A problem has been presented, and the first step toward a solution has already been started in the organization of the Organized Aid Association. A central organization may be called by any name you choose, but such an organization is absolutely necessary if co-operation is to be substituted for competition, and all forces combined in such a way that there will be less waste of effort and more effective and appropriate service rendered. This does not mean that the autonomy in government or work of any particular organization is affected, but it does mean that the work of each will be based upon a more intimate knowledge of the whole needs of the community and what other organizations or individuals may be doing to meet them. It means that the methods of each organization will be improved, and that gradually the work of every society will be considered in relation to the work and the needs of the whole. The petty jealousies and

scrambling for supremacy, and the effort to upbuild the organization at the expense of those who are in need of its service will be done away with, and we will begin to see the good and devoted service of those in every organization and stop criticizing.

I believe strongly, though, from my limited experience, that there should be some official connection between the constituent societies and the central organization. There should be more than an understanding to co-operate, there should be a definite plan of work and a binding agreement with every organization as to how all are to work together. This seems very important for two reasons: (1st) Members of the boards of managers of the different organizations are continually changing, or should be. (2d) The executive of the central organization is likewise not continuous in office. As these changes take place, the understanding between the boards of managers of the different organizations and the executive of the central organization becomes vague and the working relation less definite. If there be a definite agreement, the co-operative work does not depend so much upon the continuation in office of the executive of the central organization, or of the individual members of the board. Co-operation then becomes a definite policy of each society.

In Orange the lack of a definite agreement in many instances has been partly overcome by the organization of the Federation of Social Workers, composed of two representatives from the board of directors of each organization, which meets to consider special problems of the community, to become acquainted with the work of each society and to develop an interest in and help improve the work of all. The work of this organization is principally educational, and its beneficial results in the work of the community are already very apparent, and I hope from it may grown an even closer binding together of the work of all.

The co-operation of the churches is no less important than that of the organizations. The church is still and will continue to be the backbone and inspiration of all charitable and philanthropic work. It is the spirit of service and love for fellow-men as taught in the church, which must influence every charitable act. It is the sanctity of childhood and the sacredness of the home, as pro-

claimed by the church, that is and will continue to be the ideal of organized charity. Why do not ministers more readily join forces? Many reasons are offered. They say organized charity is cold, formal and heartless. "Organize business and labor, yes, but do not organize sweet charity." There are some who fear proselytism, and others who cannot be convinced that social service is religious service pure and simple, even though it may not be part of their denominational work. But in most instances I feel that the work of organized charity is not clearly understood, especially in practice, or else mistakes have been made which did not elicit the sympathy of the religious bodies. By demonstrations of treatment in individual families in which ministers may be interested, by securing their help in specific problems of families, and by keeping free from denominational work, it should be possible to show that the commandment of modern organized charity is not "Thou shalt *not* give, but thou shalt give *thyself*," that organized charity is not a system of making public property of people's misfortunes, but of trying in a confidential way to find out how to help them and to bring all forces for aid to their assistance.

The co-operation and interest of the public is fundamental, and upon its proper education depends the success of all constructive work. Educational work, which will present the ideals and practices of organized charity, should be a part of the every-day activity of each organization. This may be done in many ways, but most effectively, I believe, by showing the actual individual treatment of families, always emphasizing the positive side of the work. The negative side is readily understood and is the first result felt. I have often found that many people look upon an associated charities only as an organization to keep the tramps and beggars from their back doors, and not a place where the honest, unfortunate man with a family should come.

As a very important part of the public should be included the people for whom the organizations exists to help, I feel that their co-operation is minimized, and it seems to me that we often lose sight of the fact that in order to be of most service to the poor and the unfortunate, that their co-operation must be sought.

There are misunderstandings which must be corrected, points of view to be considered and listened to, and a consequent closer relation established with those who need the help of the wiser and stronger members of society. This side of the work in Orange has been emphasized with gratifying and marked results.

In the Oranges there is active co-operation between the organizations, but still room for improvement. The overseers of the poor of the four municipalities co-operate, referring aplicants at their offices for the first time, to the Bureau for investigation. We have a written agreement with Orange and South Orange, and the arrangement has been much more effective than the understanding which exists between the Bureau and the overseers of the poor of East Orange and West Orange. The churches and the public are in active co-operation. The result has been a more adequate care for the needy, a saving of unnecessary expenditures, for relief by the municipalities, a lessening in the number of applicants for relief, the practical elimination of the vagrant and beggar from the Oranges, and a deeper and quickening perception of the needs of the community and the development of work to meet them.

Once there is co-operation, the wonder is how any community ever got along without it. Let it not be said of the charity of any community that, "It creates much of the misery it relieves, but does not relieve all the misery it creates," just because it refuses to co-operate.

MISS AGNES ANDERSON, General Secretary of the Organized Aid Association, Jersey City, was asked to follow MR. WILLIAMS.

MISS ANDERSON—I want to go a step farther than Mr. Forbes, and say that I do not believe any charity can do good work if it is working independently of the other charities in the city. No charity or institution can do its best without being in touch with a central agency. The particular work of the Organized Aid Association is organizing the charities of the city. Of what use are our investigations and our registry if the charities and public make no use of them? We have in Jersey City, as you have heard, a number of children's homes and agencies

working for children. In the seven or eight orphan asylums, as nearly as we can get the figures, we have about seven hundred children and only one day-nursery, which has a struggle for existence. The people in Greenville, Hudson City, Bergen and some parts of lower Jersey City cannot use this nursery because it is too far from their homes, yet we have seven orphan asylums. You see the tendency is to take the children from their homes and place them in institutions. We have a society for the prevention of cruelty to children, which is needed I think more than in any other city; this is also struggling for existence We have two industrial homes for men, but no industrial home or lodging house for women. We have no laundry, or work-room; women come to us for employment, and work has to be found for them in private families. With our charities we have practically no co-operation. I do not believe that the people know what co-operation means; it is not consolidation, it is not combination, it is not bunching four of five charities together. My idea of co-operation is to have each charity understand definitely the work it is organized to do and stick closely to it, using the other charities for the work they are organized to do. A home to care for children is not a place for to look after fallen women. Nor is the home for fallen women a suitable place for old couples. And yet there is just that chaotic state of affairs in Jersey City. Another trouble here is that the charities are living too much on the past instead of building on the past. It does not mean sacrificing the work of years to unite with a newer association, but gives a better chance for effective work. If we do not co-operate we are going to be left behind. The spirit of the age demands co-operation. The complaint that we have too many charities is really without foundation. I heard a few days ago that one of our industrial homes, which is equipped for good work, with machinery for sawing and splitting wood and for chair caning, and can take care of seventy-five men, is carrying a mortgage of $9,000, with a floating debt of $4,000, and has run behind this year on current expenses $1,500. There are other charities in about the same condition. It is easy to criticise and find fault; let me suggest two remedies. First, closer co-operation of all charities, working

through a central agency. Second, annual reports. Not reports through the newspaper, but published reports that can be used for reference. It has been very difficult to get any reports from the charities of Jersey City. There are only three that I know of that issue regularly annual reports.

With a population of about 240,000, we get about 150 people to contribut to the Organized Aid Association. If we could get annual statements from the other societies and compare, you would find about the same people who support all the charities. One excuse for not issuing reports is that they cost too much, and it is a needless expense of money. The charities that make that excuse do not realize that it is a better investment than any they could make to advertise their work, and it is an obligation they owe to the public. They should render a public accounting of all the funds received for their work and show how they have spent the money.

The last speaker of the morning was MISS MARGARET HOLLEY, agent of the Charity Organization of Plainfield.

Charity Organization in Plainfield.

BY MISS MARGARET HOLLEY.

The success which has been reached in charitable work in Plainfield is largely due to the close co-operation which has been effected throughout the city. Two associations, the Organized Aid, and the Relief Association, had for years been working along the same lines. Last June there two societies were consolidated under the title of The Plainfield Charity Organization Society. It was deemed wise to unite the two, and experience has proved the wisdom of the change, making a stronger and more efficient working body.

The attempt has been made to constitute the office of the C. O. S. a bureau of information, for the benefit of all the charitable agencies and charitable individuals in the community. There, as everywhere else, the most difficult work of the organization is the education of the public to a recognition of the prin-

ciples, and a knowledge of the aims of the society. When this is successfully accomplished, we may hope to effect much more than has yet been done. There are many warm-hearted, kindly-disposed people, who want to give material aid to the poor; but who have no definite plan in their giving. To those people the work of the organization should appeal. They can ascertain from those who have studied the case, its status, what aid has already been given, what are its needs, and how the help given may be really a help, and not a hindrance to the beneficiaries, as well as how such aid may assist in making better conditions permanent.

We are glad to state that the municipal agencies, the churches, private charities and institutions are falling into line, and working out the problem of charities in a satisfactory way.

Two years ago our branch of the King's Daughters recognized the need of a Day Nursery as an adjunct to the Baby Camp which they had already established. The nursery was started and has proved a great success. It has provided day's work for a certain number of women and freed the hands of many another who wished to be self-supporting. Cases are investigated by the C. O. S. for the benefit of these charities, as well as for the Hospital.

The truant officer has proved of equal assistance. The relief committee undertook to supply certain of the children of the poorest families with such shoes and clothing as would enable them to attend school. The work of the truant officer has enabled the society to do this work with judgment and efficiency and to find many cases which would otherwise have escaped notice.

We hope soon to have a society for the prevention of cruelty to children, and to establish a more satisfactory relation with the Salvation Army for this purpose.

Co-operation must lie at the base of all work for the betterment of society. The elevation of the individual must be the end in view, and to effect this every precaution should be taken against his pauperization. At the holiday season, when the church and the world opens its heart toward the poor, it is especially necessary that what is done should not only be done well, but that it

should be done wisely. It is a pitiful thing to the investigator to find families, probably the most self-respecting and "worthy," with not a single kindness received to bring cheer to their cold and desolate homes; while others, more clamorous and complaining are the recipients of three, perhaps of four, ample Christmas dinners.

During this winter the C. O. S., by co-operation with the Mayors of our city and borough, has been able to do what is worth far more than any charity; it has been able to secure employment for men who have been thrown out of work by the closing down of factories and workshops.

Enough has been accomplished to give rise to the hope that with closer and closer co-operation, we may finally bring every agency, public institutional and private, into line, and that with no greater expenditure of work or of money, our charitable work may be quadrupled in efficiency.

FIFTH SESSION.

Tuesday Afternoon, February 11th, 1908.

PRESIDENT FOY—The subject for this afternoon's consideration is "Defectives." The Chairman, REV. ADOLPH ROEDER, President of the State Civic Federation, is known to most of us and needs no introduction. MR. ROEDER will now take charge of the session.

MR. ROEDER—I want to submit the following statistics from the various State and county institutions:

FOR THE INSANE.

State Hospital at—	*Male.*	*Female.*	*Over 50 Years of Age.*	*How Many Pay.*	*Totals.*
Trenton,	626	637	...	.....	1,263
Morris Plains,	917	907	...	.....	1,824
					3,087
Counties—					
Atlantic,	37	49	43	3	86
Burlington,	68	88	85	14	156

Counties.	*Male.*	*Female.*	*Over 50 Years of Age.*	*How Many Pay.*	*Totals.*
Camden,	128	123	90	18	251
Cumberland,	64	73	...	{ 9 in full. 5 in part. }	137
Essex,	558	712	...	Abt. 100.	1,270
Gloucester,	4	4	...	.....	8
Hudson,	271	348	215	.....	619
Passaic (no report)—estimated,	...	...	...	.....	500
Salem,	4	5	4	.....	9
Total insane,					6,123
					6,123
Epileptics,	132	99	...	.....	231
Feeble-minded women,	...	...	...	.....	170
Feeble-minded children,	207	100	...	.....	307
Blind in Pennsylvania,	...	16			
Blind in New York,	...	18			
		—			34
Total number of recorded dependents,					6,865

After calling attention to the relative number of men and women to the ratio of the number of insane in Trenton and in Essex county, and to the general list of State Institutions combined, namely:

Insane—Trenton and Morris Plains.
Deaf—Trenton.
Feeble-Minded Women—Vineland.
Feeble-Minded Children—Vineland.
Epileptics—Skillman.
Sanatorium for Tuberculosis—Glen Gardner.

MR. ROEDER continued:

MR. ROEDER—After hearing these statistics you have a pretty fair idea of what that number stands for. I want to express my thanks for the courtesy of the officials who have responded to my request for statistics, and for the promptness with which they were sent. I am especially grateful for many details which were sent as to the insane, which are of enormous value. These are the things which I wish to lay before you as the basis for our consideration this afternoon.

In carrying out this program, I have asked competent persons to speak on the feeble-minded, the epileptic, the cripple, the deaf and the blind. I will introduce as the first speaker, PROF. JOHN P. WALKER, Superintendent New Jersey School for the Deaf, Trenton.

"The Deaf."

BY PROF. JOHN P. WALKER.

There are a million people in the world to-day who are totally deaf; a million to whom the singing of the birds, the whisper of the winds in the trees, the purling of the brooks, the lashing of the waves on the shore, come and strike no responsive chords. A million human beings to whom the music of nature and art are alike hushed. The human voice with its frets and trills, its beautiful cadences, falls upon their ears and they hear not. A million persons to whom all sound is dead. They belong to a class the education of which was scarcely attempted until within the last century and a half. Before that time they were regarded as hopelessly separated from the rest of the world, as incapable of being aducated, and as in fact on a par with the insane and the idiotic. They were born, lived, and died, existing rather as the lower animals. They had but feeble sense or judgment, were usually without vocation, a disgrace, so considered, to their friends and relatives, and objects of pity to all. Nor was this the entire fulness of their cup of misery, for through ridicule they were frequently developed from harmless beings into scourges to society, and a felon's cell too often closed their sad career. When this was not the case, they were consigned to that scarce less pitiable condition, a charge on the county or commonwealth in the nearest almshouse. Dante speaks of a place to which he came in his wanderings, more deep and dark and terrible than all the rest, over the portals of which was written, "All hope abandon, ye who enter here." Over the portal of the deaf a century and a half ago, might have been written, all hope abandon ye. The son of Crœsus was a deaf-mute, and not all the wealth of that wealthiest of monarchs was sufficient to alleviate in any way the mental condition of the hapless youth.

How, it has been that in all the ages that have elapsed since, so many have been allowed to grow up in ignorance, we cannot understand, for we know the education of the deaf is possible, nay, even easy. When time and well-directed efforts ar expended on them, they may acquire a thorough use of language, and when this is acquired they are at once lifted to a condition of intelligence similar to that of the speaking people around them.

It was in the year 1769 that the Abbe de l'Epee opened a school in the suburbs of Paris for the deaf. About the same time a school for the deaf was opened in Leipsig by Heinecke. The former thought that signs were necessary. The latter urged that speech only was necessary and that the deaf should be educated by speech and speech alone. After this, for many years, educators were divided into two classes, one employing the pure oral method, and the other advocating the use of the sign language. It was not until the year 1815 that any effort was made to educate the deaf in this country. In that year Thomas Gallaudet went to Europe to be fitted as a teacher, and in 1817 he opened a school for the deaf in Hartford. That school was followed by schools in other States until to-day there is hardly a State that has not its school for the deaf, and some have several. Our own State has one in Trenton, of which I have the honor to be superintendent. It is located in one of the most beautiful suburbs of the capital, within ten minutes' walk of the capitol, almost directly on two trunk lines of railroads with a number of trolley lines passing. It is on a plot of nine acres.

This was opened in 1883, and has been in successful operation ever since. Here, first of all, the physical condition of our children receives attention. Many of them come to us defective in this regard. The air is carefully watched; the water is boiled and filtered and cooled only by hygienic ice. We have a trained corps of physical instructors, a good infirmary, a trained nurse, a school physician, an oculist and a dentist, and there is little left to be desired to conduce to their bodily welfare.

Their morals are carefully guarded. They receive almost daily religious instruction. The Protestants go to the Protestant church in the neighborhood, and the Catholics receive the ministration of their priests and sisters.

The intellectual department is carried on as nearly as possible

upon oral lines. There are two or three schools in the country where it is claimed no gesture whatever is used. This I think is quite out of the question. The deaf will use some gesture, and there is no school in the world where there is absolutely no gesture resorted to. In our New Jersey School we confine ourselves as much as possible to speech and writing. We have a splendid industrial plant where woodworking, carving, printing, half-tone engraving, shoemaking, millinery, sewing, dressmaking, and all sorts of housework are taught.

Like the rest of my co-workers here, we also have our needs. In the first place we need more room. Our present accommodations are for 140, to-day we have 160, 20 more than we can well care for, a part of our pupils having to sleep in the infirmary. When we get accommodations, we shall need a better compulsory law. Many of our children remain with us but from four to five or six years, a period wholly inadequate. When these are supplied, our commonwealth will have provided fully for her children of silence.

MR. ROEDER—It gives me pleasure to hear that such competent care is given to these children. Now I am to call upon Mr. JOHNSTONE, of Vineland, who is caring for the feeble-minded.

The Feeble-Minded.

BY PROF. E. R. JOHNSTONE.

We have in our State a Home for Feeble-Minded Women, a Village for Epileptics, and a Training Scohol for Feeble-Minded Children. They all have a bearing on this subject.

In the Training School, which was intended for children, we have adults, men and women. They should not be in the training school. Someone said, a few minutes ago, that one of the chief difficulties here in Jersey City is, that one charity attempts to do the work of another. This is the trouble in the training school—with these adults.

I suppose nearly one-fifth of the people now here have asked why the training school does not take such and such a child, who is applying for admission. It is right to complain because we do not, but it is not possible to take all the children who apply, when

their places are already filled by those adults who have their home here with us.

There should be a better classification, and to get it we need the influence of every man and woman here.

There are five sides to the question of caring for the feeble-minded of New Jersey.

All of the feeble-minded women should be provided for in the State Home for Women. They need more room, and the Commissioner of Charities should have the authority to transfer all such women from the other institutions in the State.

Feeble-minded men have at present no proper institution to which to go. A large number are in the various institutions of the State, but without the care they should have. The Epileptic Village is willing and will be glad to take them. Many such men have been trained in the children's institution, and are, to quite an extent, capable of earning their own living.

If you will urge the bill, asking for an appropriation for a building to accommodate forty feeble-minded men in the State Village for Epileptics, you will be making room for forty feeble-minded children.

People who do not understand, think that it is wrong to put the feeble-minded and the epileptic together. Nearly every large institution for the feeble-minded or epileptic has both classes, and they are entirely harmless, one to the other.

Until we have enough money in the State to build a separate institution for the feeble-minded men, the present plan of a building at the village, separate from the rest of the institution, but not costing any more for administration, is best.

Actually feeble-minded children only should be sent to the Training School for Children, and the waiting list there would be entirely cleaned up, if our nine epileptics would go to the Village, and the 100 adults which we have could be provided for as suggested before.

There is quite a large class of feeble-minded who are not particularly troublesome in their homes and not likely at any time to be dangerous to society. They might well be kept at home, and if trainable, sent to the special classes in the public schools.

This brings us to the last problem, namely, those who are doubtful cases, sometimes called peculiar, atypical, neurotic, dull or stupid or backward. There is at least one such child in every public school primary class. Most teachers will tell you there are at least two. This means that every large school building has enough to make a special class. Suppose there are only thirty in the regular class, and one is deficient. This child will take much more attention from the teacher than any of the others, and that is not at all fair to the rest of the class.

Our large cities are beginning to make provision for such children, but every parent should insist that ample provision be made for all that need it.

One more thought—much money might be saved for the State if the Commissioner of Charities could have a clerk who would devote all the time necessary to actually ascertain if the parents of the State's wards are paying all they are able toward the support of their children.

FATHER FOY—A commission was appointed to collect data throughout the State with reference to defective children. That committee has not reported yet, and there is danger of its falling through, but the points brought out here will, I hope, help to bring out exact data as to the number of defectives in the public schools.

Hon. P. P. BAKER, of Vineland, was asked to speak.

MR. BAKER—Mr. Chairman: It gives me pleasure to be here to-day. In looking over your program I see that more than forty addresses before the Conference treat on every subject connected with defectives.

I hold an official position in the Training School for Feeble-Minded Girls and Boys located at Vineland, this State, but am not engaged in the specific work of the school.

It is just twenty years since Mr. S. Olin Garrison, founder of the Children's School and the Women's Home for Feeble-Minded, located at Vineland, asked my assistance in obtaining the necessary legislation to provide homes within our State for this class of defectives. As the legislation asked for carried

with it an annual provision for the care and training of the children as well as an appropriation to purchase land and buildings for the women's home, and as our, at that time, legislators had only a vague idea of the great need of these institutions. the appeal to the Legislature met with a chilling response. As there were, however, such able and warm friends of the cause as Doctor Parrish, Senator Cattell, Mrs. Williamson, Hon. Benj. F. Lee, Comptroller Anderson and others, advocating the bills, the required legislation was secured, and the two strong institutions at Vineland were established, and in them and through them untold good is being accomplished in this work of humanity.

In a circular of information issued by the Training School July, 1888, Mr. Garrison, Superintendent, says: "The cottage system has been adopted, and everything is being done to maintain the home idea over against that of the institution. The children are distributed and classified through cottages.

"The primary object is not to take care of the low and unimprovable class of mind, but rather to reach and uplift many children who are deficient because of their feebleness of body and intellect, and secure to them the advantages of a school. Our aim is to awaken dormant faculties, to arouse ambition, to inject hope and self-reliance. The feeble-minded especially need patient, kind but firm discipline as well as instruction."

The inadequate provision for these children in our State is becoming better known every day, although friends have been liberal, contributing a quarter of a million dollars with which to purchase land and erect and equip buildings at Vineland, as much more money ought to be provided at once to meet present and near future demands.

How to prevent the increase of, or rather, how to bring about a decrease in the number of defectives whose care entail an enormous expense to our State, and whose presence are a continual menace to society, is a subject of vital concern. Happily this question is now receiving earnest and intelligent attention, and may we not hope that before long marked headway will crown the efforts of the faithful investigators.

MR. ROEDER—I am glad that Mr. Baker touched that reminiscent mood, for it is natural for me, too, to remember how very conservative our Conference was in the beginning. It is always wise to start conservatively even if radical measures are to be undertaken. But the amount of work done by this Conference is encouraging. As to the mentally deficient they are in some ways more unfortunate than those physically deficient. I have asked Dr. RUSSELL A. HIBBS, of the New York Orthopædic Hospital and Dispensary, to tell you something about the crippled child.

Crippled Children.

BY RUSSELL A. HIBBS, M. D., SURGEON-IN-CHIEF NEW YORK ORTHOPÆDIC DISPENSARY AND HOSPITAL.

The crippled child until about 1865 was looked upon by the community as one of its unfortunate members, and while it received pity, little attention was paid, from a surgical standpoint, to crippling diseases, and therefore, small success attained in their treatment. Thus a cripple was considered an incurable and helpless member of the community.

About this time the Hospital for the Ruptured and Crippled was organized, with a special department for the treatment of cripples, and a little later the New York Orthopædic Dispensary and Hospital was organized and devoted entirely to their treatment. From these institutions as centers in New York many others have developed throughout the country until orthopædic surgery has been perfected to a degree that it has redeemed this class of unfortunates from helplessness, and now this community, as well as all others to a greater or less degree, has been made to feel that while the crippled may need pity he needs still more opportunity, and if surgery can restore his physical health, society should give him those opportunities which belong by right to every child. Not only this, but society has realized that he may become of economic value to the community in the measure of his efficiency to perform useful work. Thus has grown up the interest in his education.

It is important, however, in considering any plan for the education of cripples to always have in mind that it is disease and deformity which make their education a problem differing from that of healthy children, and no plan should be considered apart from their surgical treatment.

The education of any child is of small value to the community at large, or indeed to himself, until he has a foundation for same in physical health, which makes possible the exercise of those elements of strength which come from it for performing the common duties of life. For this reason the education and surgical treatment should not be considered apart from each other, but should be carried on under the same organization, because that organization and environment which is best adapted for the success of their surgical treatment, and the promotion of their health furnishes, at the same time, the best opportunity for their education.

It may be said that the majority of crippled children are disabled during all the years of school life, that is from four to fourteen, and that the disease and deformity from which they suffer are such that it is unwise to attempt their education under our public school system. It requires the best surgical care continuously during all these years with the average child to secure a physical condition possible to make him a safe citizen. It is not possible with children attending public schools to give them the proper surgical care, nor does the crowded city school room offer the atmospheric surroundings necessary to successful treatment. This is true for all cripples, but more especially so for the large percentage made cripples by the effect of tuberculosis. Orthopædic hospitals have been able during the past years to cure many cripples, not as many as they will, I trust, in the future years, but a great many. In following these children into manhood and womanhood, as I have done in a great many cases, and seeing them compete with men and women of the same age, it has always been pitiful to note at what tremendous disadvantages they are placed, owing to almost entire neglect of their education.

This is due to the fact that their attendance at the common school was so irregular during the years of school life, much

of their time being spent in hospitals, and a great deal at home in bed, so that not only was their education neglected, but their surgical treatment was less effective because of the inability to control the child.

During the past few days I have seen a young man twenty-four years of age, who suffered in his early life with tuberculosis of the hip joint, and whom I have followed very closely for some fourteen or fifteen years, with a relapse of his disease. While he has advanced himself largely by his own splendid energy, to be an expert telegrapher, he is now unable to work and is suffering with the same disease. Had this boy been placed in an institution in the country at eight years of age, when his disease began, and kept there for the next six or seven years, receiving the proper surgical care to his joint, he would have been a much more efficient citizen from an educational standpoint, and a safer one physically.

This case shows, especially, the tragedy of not having health, and is fairly illustrative of the whole problem, as I could give you the histories of hundreds of children whose health has been seriously impaired by attempts at securing an education in the public schools of New York, and at the same time receiving treatment for some crippling disease. The surgical and educational efforts fail equally in the end, and the children grow to manhood and womanhood without health. Those of us who have been long in orthopædics see our surgical efforts fail year by year from our inability to have these children under our control in the proper atmospheric surroundings, and they at the same time grow into inefficient, suffering men and women.

The New York Orthopædic Dispensary and Hospital was founded in 1866, and during all the years up to 1904 did this kind of incomplete work.

In that year it opened its Country Branch and Industrial School at White Plains, New York, with accommodation for fifty-two children, which is now being increased to a hundred and fifty-six. This institution was built and endowed by a very generous hearted and keenly intelligent woman, Miss Emily A. Watson, with the definite and distinct purpose of solving the health, educational, and surgical problems of the crippled child.

Such children are admitted to it in the early stage of their disease, and kept there under the best treatment that modern surgery dictates, until an absolute cure is accomplished, which means from five to eight years. They have everything that is necessary to the promotion of their health, such as surgical treatment, atmospheric surroundings, etc., and are given the most practical education that modern educational methods dictate, so that when they are discharged they are able to enter upon the duties of life at no disadvantage. Under such conditions the education of these children is no more difficult than the education of any other group of children, as their surgical treatment interferes very little with their daily school work, it being largely mechanical, and allowing such freedom of attendance as makes possible the proper organizing and grading in their educational work.

While we do all in our power to promote their education no one is allowed to forget the hospital feature of the work, so that there is no chance for a break in their surgical treatment, which so often occurs when they are at home, because of the thoughtlessness and ignorance of the parents and the wilfullness of the child.

Under such conditions we may find, as time goes on, that the very limitations set about these children, owing to their lameness, will enable them to become very proficient in their educational work.

Indeed, I am convinced that these children, if we do our work well, will make more efficient men and women than healthy children in the surroundings from which they come. It is a matter of common observation that cripples, being less diverted from their work, concentrate the mind more thoroughly.

Of course, in such an institution there are certain dangers to be guarded against, and one great danger is that because so much is done for them they may be unconsciously led to expect more than they should receive, and lose self-reliance. Appreciating this danger, however, is the first step towards obviating it. They must be made to feel that when they go out into the world they cannot get positions in offices and workshops unless they show as much or more ability to fill them than their competitors. They must be better book-keepers, stenographers, dressmakers,

laundresses, etc., if the expect to get positions. They should not be led to believe that they will be employed because they are cripples, for they will not be, and such is not fair to them. They should have as wholesome an economic basis for their lives as any child.

In such an institution as ours where a child is taken from its home for so considerable a length of time during the period of its most active developments, the responsibility of the home must be met, and in the last analysis the extent of the institution's usefulness will be determined by the success we obtain in meeting that responsibility. For it matters little if we keep an individual child for years, and restore its health, unless at the same time we encourage the development of those elements of character which will make it a safe citizen.

That this may be done I haven't a single doubt, and to a better advantage for the average child than in its home, because it is seldom we find a crippled child in its home receiving adequate discipline of its mind or character. How can a mother living in a condition of poverty, with a family of children, exercise competent judgment in disciplining the crippled one? It is impossible. So in most instances peace with it is bought at its own price. Therefore, the tragedy of such a child's life is not the fact that it is taken from its home—that is the greatest blessing that can possibly come to it—the tragedy being the development of disease which makes its leaving home necessary.

In the inception of this work, the proper occupations to teach these children gave us much concern. We have less now on account of this, and will let that part of the work develop itself, because after all it is not so important during the years of school life that we have in mind so much the particular occupation of the child, as that we create in it that attitude towards work which will make it the necessity of its life. If we can accomplish this for the individual child there will be no difficulty in its securing employment. What is needed in all the world more than anything else is men and women who love work. With that desire, and efficiency in almost any occupation, success may be attained.

We are using all the activities in the administration of the plant

as a means of industrial education, the kitchen, the laundry, the garden, the mending and sewing, and all the housekeeping departments, repairs to the place, machine shop work in repairing and constructing of braces, etc., etc.

In the beginning of this work it was difficult to find parents willing to leave their children with us for so long a period, and here comes again a part of the whole problem.

The parent must be made to understand that we are interested to cure their child, and when this is understood, as a rule, we have little difficulty in securing their earnest co-operation. They should be made to feel that you are working with them, and should be held closely in touch with their child, allowed to see it at frequent intervals, and when this is done you will have no difficulty at all. There is no danger of the child becoming weaned from its home, or being unwilling to return to it when we have finished with it. If we have done our work well these children will go back to their homes carrying strength with them.

We are not only not having difficulty in getting children now, but are having difficulty in knowing what we can do with the numbers begging for admission.

It is evident, from the fact that your Chairman has invited me here to say something on orthopædics, that you are considering the question of the education of the cripples. If this consideration leads you to take any active steps towards accomplishing their education I hope that you will realize that in meeting their surgical necessities you are preparing the most economic, as well as the most efficient, way of securing their education.

Do not establish schools for the education of children who are suffering from active disease and deformity until you have made provision for the absolute and permanent relief of that disease and deformity.

The Chairman next introduced Dr. Henry A. Cotton, Medical Director of the State Hospital at Trenton.

The Care of the Insane.

BY DR. HENRY A. COTTON.

It is with just pride that we can point to the great advance made in this country in the care of the insane in the last century. But in many ways we are still behind our European colleagues, both in the care of the insane, and in offering facilities for studying mental diseases. In the past ten years, however, those interested in the subject can note a decided change in the attitude of the State hospitals regarding scientific research, and many states can boast a healthy activity in the medical work of the hospitals.

We are at present, however, more interested in the actual provisions made for the care and treatment of the insane, although no one can deny the benefit derived by the patients from a more careful study of their cases. A better relation is established between patients and their friends on one hand, and the hospital authorities on the other. That any damage has been done by a physician spending one or two hours with a patient's relatives to obtain a complete history of a new patient, instead of merely receiving the patient and telling the relatives the visiting days, no one would affirm. On the contrary, after such an interview the relatives feel that a welcome interest has been taken in the patient, and they are satisfied that the same interest will be continued by the physician.

Mental disorders necessarily must be dealt with in a manner quite different from ordinary diseases, and the patient and public at large must be protected.

The methods of commitment have passed through various changes, which have usually been to the advantage of the patient. I am glad to note the present form of commitment in this State. It is certainly one to be commended. It is more in line with modern ideas, and intrust the committing physician with more honor than is usual in most States. While this law benefits a large number of cases, there still remain two classes of patients that should be able to avail themselves of treatment in our State hospitals. First, those on the border line of insanity, so to speak,

who could not legally be declared insane, and, second, those who are mentally affected to the extent that they could be legally committed as insane, but who are entirely competent to give consent to hospital treatment. Often these cases are in the early stages of mental diseases, when the need of hospital care is urgent, and the hope of curing them is more promising than if they are received in the later stages.

At present, outside of private institutions, the State hospitals are the only places to which these patients can look, and their admission to the hospital should be facilitated by a form of voluntary commitment. This would allow cases suffering from various nervous conditions to obtain relief in the hospital, and should constitute "sane voluntary commitments." The other class are spared the stigma of a formal declaration of insanity, and when they leave the hospital as recovered, they have the satisfaction of knowing that no legal steps were taken to deprive them of their liberty. They should come under the head of "insane voluntary commitments." This form of commitment has been tried very successfully in Massachusetts for a number of years, and steps have recently been taken to extend its usefulness.

The plan is simply that anyone needing hospital treatment can apply to the authorities of the State hospitals for admission; such a patient signs an agreement to give three days' notice in writing of their intention to leave the hospital, after which time they cannot be detained. Such a provision is necessary, as, in the judgment of the medical director, if such a patient is not in a condition to leave the hospital, suitable arrangements can be made for detention, friends communicated with, etc.

The matter of payment is one that can be easily adjusted. In the case of private patients a bond can be filed by their relatives, or three months' board paid in advance.

In the case of indigent patients a return could be made to the "committing" judge from the county, and their settlement adjusted the same as in regular commitments.

The privilege of voluntary admission should not be extended only to those who can pay for their own support, but also to the indigent class, who would be greatly benefitted by such a privilege. Of course, such a procedure will not be popular at first,

and few will avail themselves of the opportunity, until the public at large has perfect confidence in the State hospitals, and can be assured of the proper humane treatment while residents of the hospitals. For the successful operation of such a plan much depends upon the hospital authorities. The old asylum treatment must give way to hospital methods, proper classification, and segregation of acute cases, so that the association with chronic or disturbed patients should be obviated or reduced to a minimum.

In the treatment of patients as hospital cases without restraint much of the present feeling against hospitals can be eradicated, and discharged patients will carry a different memory with them, than where they have been subjected to restraint and have had to associate with the chronic class so distasteful to them.

It is our aim at Trenton to make such a hospital a reality, and already restraint has been abolished and hospital care instituted. The future looks bright for making the insane hospital assume its true sphere in the community, not a place to be dreaded as indicative of a hopeless future, but rather as a place that offers the greatest chance of recovery.

The authority of the State is needed to make such a commitment legal, and we certainly hope that this Association will endorse such a measure.

Another phase in caring for the insane I wish to discuss is that known as "After-Care." We have, indeed, poorly fulfilled our mission and function if we are content to be interested in the insane only so long as they are in the hospital. It is our duty not only to assist these unfortunate people back to reason, but, if possible, to take measures to prevent a recurrence of mental trouble. Every effort should be made to assist a discharged patient to again assume his station lost at the time of his commitment.

The "after-care" movement is not new, but has been in vogue in some European countries for over twenty years. As early as 1893, a committee was appointed by the American Medical Psychological Association to look into this matter, and a very favorable report of such a movement was endorsed by this Association. At the meeting of the above society in Washington,

in 1907, a report of the operations of the "after-care" committees of the State hospitals of New York was read by Dr. Mabon. Much valuable information as to organization was given, and the results of the work of these societies convinced one of the advisability of every State adopting such measures to care for discharged patients.

In New York this philanthropic work has been carried out under the direction of the State Charities Aid Association, with the co-operation of the hospital authorities.

There can be no doubt of the value of such an association in this State, and I believe it could be carried out with the co-operation of the State Charities and Corrections.

There are two classes of patients that would be benefitted by such "after-care," and the plan of operation would be somewhat different. One class includes cases discharged from the hospital, wholly or partially recovered, who need assistance and encouragement and advice, in order to assume their place as self-supporting citizens. The plan would be to have committees located in different townships, who would be notified of the discharge of certain patients whom the hospital authorities deemed worthy and in need of such supervision. Their surroundings could be looked into, and evils that would have a tendency to retard recovery or cause another attack should be removed when possible. Suitable employment should be secured for such patients, as the lack of employment often brings these unfortunates to a state of despondency and discouragment. Above all, the fact that some one was interested in their welfare would act as a healthy stimulus. To know that we can go to some one for advise and help, if in embarrassing circumstances, would have a great moral effect on them, and often prevent a falling back into the old habits and conditions that caused the first breakdown. Such committees should be in communication with employment agencies, and help to place these people in positions which they can occupy. Often people are wary about reinstating employes, and employing men who have been insane. The attitude toward them is one of suspicion and distrust, and often militates against securing employment. In over 500 visits made

by the committee above referred to, in no case was a visitor treated discourteously or any antagonism shown. On the other hand, she was always welcomed and treated in a manner which plainly showed that her visits and advice were much appreciated. Any one who undertook such a work should be amply rewarded by the results obtained in many cases, and I cannot emphasize the necessity of such an organization too strongly.

Another class of cases that should come under this supervision, but in a very different form, embraces those who are in the hospital, and who have reached such a stage that they would not only be benefitted by living outside of the hospital, but would gradually be restored to being self-supporting citizens. These cases often have no friends or relatives able to care properly for them, and they are not able to earn their own living immediately after leaving the hospital. Many cases are mild and harmless, and could live in families to great advantage to themselves and at a reduced expense to the State. These cases, I can assure you, are present in no small numbers in all hospitals, and they make unusually good workers, so that the authorities are loath to part with them. Such cases could be cared for in families in communities under the system of "family care" or "boarding out," so successfully tried in Massachusetts in the past few years.

In some States these cases are returned to the county almshouse, a procedure that cannot be too strongly condemned. They are far better off in the State hospitals than in the almshouses. By removing suitable cases to family care, they frequently become gradually self-supporting. As they improve, and are capable of more work, the State pays less and less for their board, until finally they begin to earn their own living, and are no longer an expense to the State or county.

In my experience I have seen many patients returned to self-supporting citizenship by such a system of boarding out; patients who would othewise have remained for an indefinite period in the hospital.

The boarding out of patients should be under the direction of the board of managers and the hospital physicians, and such provisions as are necessary should be covered in a statute relating to "family care." The physicians in the hospital, one well ac-

quainted with the patients, can select the proper ones to board out.

In the case of women, care should be taken to select only those who are of an age to preclude any accidents or moral lapses. Suitable boarding-places should be chosen with reliable families in the vicinity of the hospital, so that frequent visits could be made by a physician or nurse from the hospital, and medicine and clothing furnished when necessary. In case a patient does not get along, they can be immediately returned to the hospital. The tendency should be to bring the hospital physicians into closer touch with the community, and thereby strengthen the public confidence. It would stimulate the members of a community to take a greater interest in restoring such patients to natural conditions of living, and would be of great pecuniary advantage to the State.

These two measures which I have so briefly outlined, I wish to bring before this Association for their consideration, believing that you will be interested in any suggestion that will benefit this unfortunate class of State wards. Both measures have been inaugurated in other States with success. The voluntary commitment, of course, is a matter for legislative action, but the "after-care" work can well be taken up by this Association in a semi-official manner.

DR. B. D. EVANS, Medical Director, The New Jersey State Hospital at Morris Plains, was asked to open the discussion.

DR. EVANS—I have been much interested in hearing some of the statistics given here upon what the speakers seem to look on as an alarming increase in the number of mental defectives and of the insane of this State.

Statistics do show an increase in the percentage of insane persons and mental defectives, but the increase is not a great one, nor can it be considered alarming when the statistics of New Jersey are compared with adjoining States and those States subjected to the same social conditions.

We are a growing people and a great nation. Our resources are increasing day by day. It is generally recognized and under-

stood that along with the evolution of society and the increase of wealth come advanced business methods and additional financial stress, but that the modern social organization tends towards excessive indulgences both of an alcoholic and sexual character.

Irregularity of conduct as a factor in producing ill-health is not to us a new proposition, but gross social irregularities, financial stress and mental strain make up a potent combination in producing mental defectives and persons of such delicate mental balance that the development of insanity may be almost looked upon as a natural result.

You who year after year gather together to discuss these important questions, and by an organized effort endeavor to bring about an improvement of such social conditions, understand the force of this claim very well. It is the A, B, C, of your work.

That the State's expenses in caring for the insane and those born mentally deficient has increased is perfectly logical. It is in perfect harmony with the increase of expenses in every department of life's activities, and applies to the expense account of the modest little home of the poor as well as to the great business concerns, the marts of commerce, the nation's industries, the running of our municipal governments, the preservation of our police regulations and the maintenance of our public charities.

Think of our army and navy to-day! Call them absolute necessities if you please—I am inclined to look upon them as such. Then consider how Congress is called upon to meet the expense of both these great organizations, and to this add the construction of battleships, gunboats and torpedo boats and the various forms of coast defense, and then let us turn back the pages of history to the days of George Washington, in his struggle to give to us liberty and to lay the foundations of this great government, and we find him begging Continental Congress for $5,000.00 to help his army in the hour of distress. A few such comparisons at once teaches us that, as we grow, our expenses must necessarily increase.

In our large State intitutions for the insane—you must expect me to talk about my special field of work—there are held in custody the sons and daughters of the noblest and best families

of this Commonwealth, and yet under our existing laws there are sent to these same institutions insane convicts and criminals, to be cared for under the roof of the noble charity, and to be mingled with persons upon whom there is not the slightest taint of criminality; whose fathers and mothers, grandfathers and great uncles and aunts, through their earnest intellectual efforts, the liberality of their purses and their strong moral worth, gave magnificent support to the establishment and organization of the State's best charitable institutions. Shall we not, in recognition of the noble work of these people, show due thought to the comfort and welfare of their children and their children's children? Do we expect those who come after us and become active in the administration of public charity to look after, with humane consideration and with the spirit of Christian fellowship, any unfortunates who may be dear to us? If we believe "As ye sow, so also shall ye reap," let us sow wisely and provide for the care of our afflicted and weaker brethren.

We appeal to the Legislature, and make known the fact that almost daily there are being sent from State's prison, penitentiaries and jails, to the State hospitals, insane convicts and criminals, schooled in crime, and that they are brought into contact with persons whose lives have been free from criminality, and in whose veins run the best blood of the State. In reply to such appeals for the segregation of the criminal insane after the manner adopted by numerous other States, the petitioners are told of the limited treasury, political expediency, and other matters not calculated to give marked encouragement or tend toward early relief to the sad conditions presented, and are advised that it is best for the time being to keep the convicts with those free from crime. I say to you, and say it fearlessly, that it is a shame that this most important matter shall be allowed to go so long without receiving the serious consideration it is entitled to at the hands of the Legislature.

Another matter which I have from year to year presented to the Legislature, in the Hospital Annual Report—this being the channel officially available to me—is the problem of properly caring for indigent inebriates.

In the year 1885 a law was enacted under which persons of means who are confirmed inebriates or habitual drunkards may be cared for in the State institutions for the insane. This has proven to be a good law. Men who were wrecking their homes, who were a menace to society and who were squandering their means, have had a legal check put upon them and have been restrained for the purpose of medical treatment and the protection of society. Through the provisions of this law the property of such inebriates has been cared for by legally appointed guardians, and they have been given professional care and medical attention. If that is good treatment for the wealthy is it bad treatment for the poor? The same whiskey, the same beer, the same poisonous effects of wine, the inordinate and unwise use of alcoholic beverages will wreck the home of the poor man as well as that of the rich. It will more readily bring about criminality with the poor because he is surrounded by fewer protecting influences.

I have pleaded with my best energies that the State might provide a place in which to care for indigent inebriates that the interests of society might thus be advanced, that hundreds of homes might be better protected, that children might be enabled to go to bed without crouching before a drunken father's voice. I have written and spoken to induce the law-makers of this State to provide some institution where the habitual drunkard, a victim of tainted heredity and disease, might be taken care of, not as a prisoner nor as a criminal.

Let us correct social evils with the hand of humanity; let us lead the erring as gently as possible into the ways of right, but when social evils and serious errors of conduct are the outcome of a diseased hereditary taint or acquired disease, let us surround the afflicted one with proper environments and medical treatment and thus help him and society by giving him a chance for reformation, for the strengthening of his will-power and restoration to normal vigorous health and bread-earning capacity. This will be doing something for a class which needs it and upon the broad principles of charity and philanthropy.

There is one other subject I would like to mention, and that is the care of idiots and feeble-minded. I fear that my friends,

Senator Baker and Mr. Johnstone, will think I am inclined to attack the noble institution which they represent, but I beg to assure them that I do not. I claim that the State of New Jersey does not look after its idiots. A number of them have come to the State Hospital over which I preside. I have there little children perfectly helpless—boys and girls. I write to the charitable organizations of the State, but the poor little souls have no one able to care for them. No institution will open its doors to them. The Vineland school is a good institution and admits some indigent patients, but they take those which will show the best results, and operating under the same conditions I should do the same. I do not say this as a criticism, but when you make out an application to them they have the right to reject it. I am credibly informed that their applications far exceed their accommodations. So idiots and the lower order of imbeciles such as are not susceptible to training are rejected. I have them in my wards among the adult insane where they have to be watched and protected like babies. I am supposed to have one nurse to ten or twelve patients, but it takes one nurse to properly watch each one of these little patients and protect them from the violent outbursts of the insane.

According to law I do not have to accept them, but if I do not where will they go? When I do, what can I offer them? Certainly not the care and attention they are entitled to, or such as other States give to this class. If under sixteen and you send them to the home for feeble-minded women, they will reject them. If they are incapable of receiving training the training school at Vineland will reject them. If they are epileptic idiots the epileptic colony will reject them. So they come to me, and I, in the past, as a matter of humanity have received them.

The State Hospital is now so crowded with patients that it is simple wisdom for me to avail myself of the provisions of the statute and decline to receive any of the grades of idiots.

There is one point bearing upon this subject which I desire to impress upon you in the hope that you may in turn present it in due form to the Governor and Legislature of this State. It is this: That if this State feels it at all incumbent upon it to care for

the idiotic children who are indigent and the indigent imbeciles, it is also clearly incumbent upon the State to care for them properly and in a manner that will compare favorably with the facilities and methods of other States and that it is more economic and humane to care for this class of dependents in buildings set apart especially for them than to have them scattered about in institutions for the insane, not equipped to either properly protect such helpless children, care for them, or give them the attention and training that a certain percentage of this class receives in other States.

While we must admit that our idiots and imbeciles are increasing in number along with the increase in population of the State, and that while our insane population is increasing as well, our resources and wealth are much more rapidly increasing than our population.

I desire to emphasize the fact as a principle of public charity, and also as one of the cardinal principles underlying any wise system of correctional procedure, that when a municipality, a State, a national government or any legal organization which may assume or be given the right to take away from any class of citizens their liberty, and to restrain such persons and dictate their outgoings and incomings, their mode of living, etc., etc., it carries with it the full responsibility of supporting such persons and supporting them well.

I thank you for the courtesy conferred upon me in requesting me to open this discussion.

MR. EDWARD G. BAPTIST, of Jersey City, was invited to speak on the care of the blind.

Mr. BAPTIST—The average person seeing a blind man in the streets thinks perhaps that he is an exception, that they are few and far between, but trustworthy statistics show that the average proportion of the blind to the seeing is about one to twelve hundred. This throughout the United States would give us between seventy-five and eighty thousand blind. New Jersey has a population of about two and a half million, which would give us, approximately, two thousand blind throughout the State. It is

high time, then, that some provision be made for the education and industrial training of the New Jersey blind.

New York founded her first institution in 1831, now seventy-seven years ago. At that time did New York State have a population of two and one-half million? I think not. Not many years later the Batavia, New York, institution was founded; thus New York had two State schools at a time when her population hardly exceeded that of New Jersey's present population. Until recently the New Jersey minor blind had the privilege of education in the New York and Pennsylvania schools, but some difficulty has arisen which deprives them of this opportunity. There is said to be about thirty-five pupils from New Jersey in the neighboring schools, and there is an annual appropriation of between $10,000.00 and $11,000.00 for their education therein. But my personal observation assures me that there is a large percentage who cannot get accommodations in these institutions. I believe, therefore, that the blind of New Jersey are numerous enough to warrant the founding of a New Jersey State School, for the literary and industrial training of minors and the industrial training of the adult blind as well. There is no recourse for those who lose their vision after they have attained their majority, and, for want of remunerative occupations, they are dependent upon their relatives, friends, or upon the community. It is chiefly these blind who are seen singing in the streets or grinding an organ as a means of livelihood. The minors should have a literary and industrial training, and the adult blind should receive training at such industries as are generally taught the blind throughout the world. It has been demonstrated that the majority can be trained to be economically independent. It is a misnomer that the blind are totally disabled through the loss of vision. When a person's physical activities are restricted, their metal activities become greatly increased, and, from necessity, the blind develop remarkable mental resources, and in the majority of cases, if properly trained, they prove self-sustaining. In a publication in the form of a circular, appealing to the New Jersey people, I gave illustrations of several of the most successful blind people, and mentioned some of their achievements, one of whom was Senator Gore, of Okla-

homa, blind from his eleventh year, who was admitted to the bar, and later, entering politics at the age of thirty-seven, was elected to the United States Senate, having the honor of being the the youngest man in the Senate. I mentioned Mr. Herreshoff, who designed a number of our American cup-defending yachts. Also Miss Helen Keller, deaf, dumb and blind from infancy, whose accomplishments have astonished even the most philosophical. I also mentioned Newell Perry, Ph.D., a mathematician at the Columbia University, who, finding the American libraries inadequate for his purpose, went to Germany, and returned a few years later with the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. Professor Louis Carroll, who holds a fellowship in the Columbia University, in his youth mastered classics, but, finding that he could not secure text-books enough to make it a profession, he subsequently mastered mathematics, and later improvised calculus variations, the highest form of mathematical science. While Bachelor of Art diplomas among the blind are no less numerous than fellowships in the pianoforte and musical theory. In view of these individual achievements, do you think the blind are incompetent? But, rather, do they not prove that, with proper training, they become self-sustaining? If you could secure the statistics of the blind, you would find that about seventy-five per centum are self-sustaining, despite the prevailing prejudice which deprives them of the patronage that is extended to the seeing.

I think if a New Jersey Association for the Blind were thoroughly organized it would facilitate getting legislation for the blind in New Jersey.

Eight weeks ago a movement was started by a committee of three to organize such an association, and up to the present time it has been very successful.

Before closing I wish to say that anyone who can devote any portion of their time to this worthy cause, whether they are engaged in any other society work or not, is cordially invited to become a member of the New Jersey Association for the Blind, and they can do so by giving their names and address to the chairman and they will be notified of the meetings.

I not only believe that such an institution for both literary and industrial training for adults should be established, but that every article produced by the blind, after it is inspected by the one in charge, and qualified to commend the institution, should be labeled or stamped, such as "Manufactured at the New Jersey Institution for the Blind," that the patron may know it is a product of blind workmanship, and by the satisfaction which the article may give, remove the prevailing prejudice and create confidence in the ability of the blind.

At the annual conference of the National Association for the Blind held at Boston last August there were representative workers from nineteen States, including three provinces of Canada and the District of Columbia. There were also representatives from England—but was New Jersey represented? Sadly—no.

I trust that at the next annual conference she will be well represented.

While other States are many years in advance of New Jersey in the work of enlarging the opportunities for the blind, we will profit by their experiences; and while our efforts have just begun, we will progress rapidly and reach the same goal in less time than they.

The Blind.

Miss Winifred Holt, Secretary of the New York Association for the Blind, was introduced and spoke as follows:

In the last two years I have often refused to speak in New Jersey on the blind because it did not seem that the time was ripe to produce good results. I am glad to be persuaded from indications that the time has now come when New Jersey at last seriously realizes that duty demands, not charity, but economic justice for its blind.

As secretary of the New York Association for the Blind I represent an organization which deals with the largest number of blind in the country. What conclusions we have reached, and the work which we therefrom have undertaken is the result of years of careful study of work for the blind throughout the world. For convenience we can classify the work which every community

should undertake for the blind under four heads. First, preventitive, then the blind of school age, working age, and the old and infirm blind.

We have reported in 9,585 cases for the State Commission appointed by Governor Higgins and continued by Governor Hughes. Our Association realized the vital necessity of first taking stock of the people whom we wished to help, seeing how many of the blind should not have been blind, how many should be wage-earners, how many of these so-called blind were really blind. Many of them lived in the river, in vacant lots or, perhaps, in airships. Several sighted people drew several blind pensions! A census is the foundation of economic work for the blind. If you want to do good work in New Jersey for the blind you can't get out of beginning it in that way, and you must do it by personal visitation and not by correspondence.

One of the greatest, and certainly the first need of the community to consider in work for the blind is preventing the more than 30 per cent. of unnecessary blindness. Twenty-five per cent. of this blindness is from infant ophthalmia, which is the result of criminal carelessness on the part of the doctors or mid-wives in charge at the time of the birth of the baby.

Combined action of the health boards, doctors, the police and the public could stamp out this scourge, which is estimated in our country as the next in greatness to the curse of tuberculosis. Other preventable blindness comes from Fourth of July celebrations, snowballs, etc. We don't want our youth to be less patriotic. It can be as fervid, but less self-destructive, if the police and the guardians of children will do their duty. Scarlet fever and measles also come among the preventable ailments which cause blindness.

Helen Keller says: "When we know our duty to unborn generations and to our bodies, the institutions, which we now point to with pride, will remain as monuments to our ignorance and the needless suffering which we have endured."

We don't want to erect institutes for the blind to encourage that carelessness which causes the blindness of children. We want to stop that unnecessary blindness, and the remaining blind children can be properly cared for in the public schools with the sighted,

as is so successfully done in Chicago, Milwaukee, and as has for years been done in part of England.

I have personally applied more than once, have even written, to the Governor of New Jersey to have blind children sent to school. I was told that the appropriation in New Jersey is exhausted, that therefore the blind children can't be educated.

This may have been righted recently, but the Commissioner of Charities and Corrections, Mr. George B. Wight, says in his report: "The State provides for the care and instruction of 18 children in Philadelphia and 17 in New York at an aggregate expense of $11,000.00, a small fraction of what it would cost to care for them in an institution of our own." I do not know how many blind children you have in New Jersey. We have about 600 in New York, about half of whom are out of school. You have probably a great many more than 35 blind children in New Jersey. You should know exactly how many you have and have proper provision for each one of them.

If you can't send your blind children to the New York or Pennsylvania schools for the blind, why don't you send them to the New Jersey schools for the seeing? In Chicago, three public schools receive blind children at a cost of $173.08 per capita.

Do something about your blind children, and do it at once. Don't let them grow up curses to themselves and the community in which they live; also make education for your blind compulsory. Without it there will always be some blind who grow up incapable of doing anything or enjoying anything.

Then, whatever you do for blind children, insist on their having proper provision for fresh air and exercise. Their naturally feeble bodies require it. Often with proper exercise and physical development they may recover a part of the lost vision. In many instances without sufficient physical training they sicken and become insane. This is recognized by the best schools of the blind abroad and in this country.

In England blind boys have won medals in life-saving swimming contests and in athletic competitions with the sighted. In Pennsylvania I have seen stirring races and daring swimming feats by the blind students. We may look for the same now in

Boston that it has the good fortune to have Mr. Allen for principal.

If you want to do anything for your blind people go and see where that thing is best done. Don't be contented with what you read or what you see your neighbors doing. New York City is unfortunately behind the times in its treatment of blind children.

Our next class are the adult blind. With proper laws enforcing a provision of safety devices and supervision of explosives in mines and factories, much can be done to save about five per cent. of adult blindness. The other blind of working age should, on losing their sight, have some organization where, free of cost, they can learn how to be blind, and how again to resume the path of self-support and self-work.

The New York Association for the Blind has a factory for blind men, where they learn chair-caning, which is not very profitable, and broom-making, which is a better business proposition. We are hoping some day to have a mattress-making department and willow-weaving. Both of these industries are among the most profitable undertakings for the blind, as shown here and abroad. We do not feel that all the blind should cane chairs and make brooms, therefore, our constant effort is to suit the need of each individual as much as possible.

We have taken up telephone switchboard operating, and although we were laughed at for thinking of such a thing for blind people, six blind have operated them successfully for some time in New York, two in hospitals, two in commercial houses, one in an editorial office, and another in a charitable organization.

Thus far we have only one complaint, and that was in relation to the color of the blouse of our first blind switchboard operator, who was unfortunately also color blind. Another good thing for our blind has been typing from the phonograph.

One young electrician, who suddenly lost his sight and was nearly driven desperate because he was unable to do anything, and could not support his wife and himself, is now acting as private secretary for a member of a large firm, where he first began to typewrite from the phonograph. His employers are so much

pleased with him that they send him to and from the office in a motor.

Massage is a great field for the blind, in which there is no reason that they should not succeed better than the sighted world, unless the sighted world is too ignorant to realize the immense advantage of employing for massage those individuals whose sense of touch is the finest in the world. In Tokio, alone, there there are nine hundred blind masseurs, most of them making a self-supporting wage. London has its institute for massage, and there are three distinguished doctors who are unwilling to employ any but blind masseurs for their patients, realizing that they obtain better results than sighted people of the same profession. Notwithstanding these undoubted precedents, the blind-seeing public of New York, as one of our co-operators calls them, hesitates to employ capable and efficient blind masseurs. Our business is now to educate the public in this respect. The blind man is already educated.

It is more difficult to help our blind women. For them, as well as for the men, we have classes in typewriting, reading, writing, and other things, also in sewing, crocheting, basket-making, and bead-making of up-to-date bead things like electric light shades, candle shades, etc., etc.

Several of the girls are also doing well in places with sighted workers. Three blind girls are now employed in a publishing house, several are teachers, and we have two blind stenographers, one of whom has just taken down in shorthand and written the first report of our Association. Her picture will appear as the frontispiece, and if any of you want our report it will be cheerfully furnished you upon application. Our belief is that nothing is settled that is not well settled.

Although the blind have proved that they can do anything from climbing Mt. Blanc to making beautiful statues, their range of industries is somewhat limited, but our constant endeavor is to broaden it.

We believe it is very unwise to build institutions for the blind, or to segregate them. Our blind should have their own independent, contented lives in their own families, like the rest of us, and when possible go forth to their daily work. Blindness is bad

enough if one has all the ameliorating blessings of family and friends to help. Why should we add to the affliction of blindness banishment to an institution with others similarly handicapped? Most of our men and women of the Association live at home, and have the interest of their daily task outside.

In New York, we have two blind editors, who run large newspapers; two bank presidents, who are blind; one of them has doubled his capital since his blindness; one captain of industry, employing directly over one hundred and fifty sighted men.

We know of blind Senators, Judges, the blind Postmaster-General of England, Fawcett, who is said to have had an eye on everything when he was in office; blind philosophers, poets, musicians and artists. In fact, what the blind ask of us is the opportunity to live and to learn how to overcome their handicap, and to exist normally with the sighted world.

We often find that the blind child who has not been institutionized has a better chance in life than the one who has been taught to regard itself as belonging to a defective class.

Blindness will not make commonplace individuals great, but the great blind consider their handicap merely an incident.

I must own that though I had believed myself prepared to accept anything as possible for the blind, I was surprised this summer in Paris when I met M. De la Sizeranne, of the Valentine Haug Association in Paris, to find him going about with a carpenter's rule and bossing gangs of sighted workers who were finishing the beautiful house which he, a totally blind man, had architected. The seeing blind man, if God has given him capacity, can take his place in the community and win out ahead of the blind seeing man, but the incapable man would have remained incapable despite the added burden of blindness.

Another very important thing that we have noticed is the bad results of permitting blind men and women to come in contact with one another. This should be prevented. We feel this so strongly that our women's club meets on a different night from the men's. Our men's and women's classes are never held at the same time and no blind person making a blind marriage is employed by the Association.

There are two reasons for this. First, that every family needs a pair of windows, and if both the wife and husband are blind it usually forces them to some ignoble way of earning their living, such as beggary or less honorable means. Second, the problem of heredity. We know of a family where for five generations there have been blind children, and of another where in one family there have been five blind children.

The best blind people feel strongly about this themselves, so much so that the Alumni Association of the great school at Overbrook, Pa., drops any blind graduate who makes a blind marriage. This it not cruel, it is just and right, for the individuals as well as for the community.

We have still to consider the old and feeble blind who are unfit to work. For them much can be done by home teaching societies, where the teacher going to the house of each individual can make life tolerable by teaching and suggesting employments.

Great Britain alone has sixty home teaching societies. The New York Association at one time had six home teachers, but now the home teachers' work is supplemented by the Social Service Committee, which brings cheer and comfort and amusement when the pupil is not able to learn or study progressively.

Although homes for the blind seemed a necessary provision when the schools graduated large numbers of blind children who were unfit to take their part in the work and the play of the community, now that we know how to prevent blindness and how to make the needfully blind useful, the present provision of blind homes should be adequate, and I believe that the more progressive age will see the propriety of putting the infirm blind in the homes for other feeble and aged people, thus giving them more normal and brighter lives and bringing out the best qualities in the other inmates.

I have noticed myself the admirable effect of having a few blind people with sighted ones. The Association has on the staff eight blind individuals, and I am witness to the fact that the patience and the ability of the blind workers does much to strengthen these qualities in their sighted neighbors.

I wish that my time were longer; there is so much to be said,

and the saying it now seems so vital. Provide for your blind, but provide wisely. Not in institutions, not in making provision for blind babies, but in doing all in your power to prevent blindness and to make the needfully blind people useful and normal so that they can take their part and develop whatever capacity they may have.

The blind form a small class. Thank God we don't need to provide a world for them. It is our duty and our privilege to fit them so well that despite their handicap they may take a dignified and useful place in our world. It has been proved in this country and in Europe that they can. It is not necessary for the safety of the community or for their own happiness to shut them up in institutions, which policy is now even questioned in the treatment of criminals and inebriates. The blind are peaceful, capable, intelligent, law-abiding citizens. They can't see, that is all, but they are our superiors often in the use of their other faculties. They are anxious not to be economic drags, but to work and to help us just as much as we will let them.

Lincoln said that if slavery is not wrong, then nothing is wrong. If you don't give a chance to your poor blind many of them must be slaves, impotent and fettered by their blindness. I hope that you will realize this and hasten to give them at once light through work.

Mr. W. H. Patrick was introduced as the next speaker. Miss Holt explained that Mr. Patrick's blindness came upon him long after school age, and that he is now one of the greatest aids to the New York Association for the Blind, being the President of the Blind Men's Improvement Club and an active worker on the Social Service Committee.

Mr. W. H. Patrick—It is not necessary for me to enlarge upon what has been said with regard to the prevention of unnecessary blindness, but I do want to say a word on the education of blind children with those who are sighted in the public schools. I believe that the blind child, just as much as the sighted, nay, more, needs the incentive of competition. If the blind adult is to compete with the seeing adult, the element of

competition must enter into the life of the child. The sightless child must learn to hold his own. On the other hand, the crying sin of the age is selfishness, and if we wish to inculcate unselfishness there is no better way to do it than for sighted children to help the sightless in the same class.

As to the adult blind, they are men and women with ambitions, desires and a longing for social life. It has been often said that competition is the life of trade. It is the life of a man, and no man is really a man unless he desires to compete. No man is a man unless he wants to hold his own. The public owes to the blind man, just as it owes to the blind child, the training, the education, which will enable him to hold his own. He must have the training, when he becomes a child once more, that will fit him to be not only a blind man, but a blind "man."

He must learn to compete and succeed under his changed conditions. He must have the opportunity to join in social life. He does not want to be shut up in an institution. He does not even want the gilded cage of the canary, but wants the free life of the sparrow, who can choose his own companions and place to live. He wants to make himself the equal of the sighted man, and, if he can, his superior. He wants to earn his bread by the sweat of his brow, or, as it seems to be preferred now, by the sweat of other men's brows, if he has the brains to do so. One other thing he needs, especially when he first loses his eyesight, and that is encouragement. I was crossing the Atlantic once, and met a lady, who told me that there was no such thing as pain. I said there was. I believed that, more than once, I had had inside information on the fact. She said it was a mistake; it was only an idea that I had in my mind. I said, "How about the baby that cries when a pin sticks into it?"

She replied, " That is the mesmeric influence of universal belief." I cannot argue that now, but one of the greatest handicaps that the blind man has is the "mesmeric influence" of universal unbelief in his ability to do anything.

The Lord help your unbelief. Set to work and learn something about the blind, who has lost but one sense, although the general public scarcely credits that. He is not necessarily deaf, although many people think he is. My friends still shout at me

after seven years as though I was deaf or a foreigner. He is not lame, although many times my arm has been black and blue from being held up in the air when trying to get out of a car. He is not necessarily imbecile, although it is the custom for a waiter to ask someone else if he can manage to feed himself. He even knows where he lives, although many seem to doubt it. We are only blind, but we need encouragement. If you will inquire into the life of the blind generally you will see that they need the opportunity to compete, the enjoyment of such social life as they would otherwise have, and encouragement to make themselves self-supporting.

The New York Association for the Blind endeavors to fill the various needs, and its motto, "Light Through Work," covers the whole ground. I shall venture to repeat a couplet, which the last speaker gave me a few days ago:

> "Though darkness covers all, our work we may not shirk.
> O, thou great Light of light, give Light through Work."

May the Great "Light of Light" give you the light, that you may bring to some of those who really live in darkness, "Light Through Work."

The next address was upon

The Inebriate.

BY HON. FRANKLIN W. FORT.

On the medical side of inebriacy I profess no knowledge, but my experience in the past year as Recorder of East Orange has made me often wonder whether we are properly dealing with inebriates in the courts. The method at present for dealing with an inebriate, whether he be a casual or an habitual, are identical. The judge, when the prisoner is brought before him, has the choice of three actions. He may fine, he may imprison, or he may place on probation. The fine, in my judgment, may be discarded as utterly useless in cases of drunkenness, whether habitual or otherwise. The fine rests not upon the man who is fined, and

is paid not by the man, in the majority of instances, but by the family. It is a rare case when a prisoner who has been fined goes without his tobacco or his other comforts of life to make up for the fine, but it is a very frequent case when the wife, the mother, the child, comes into the court to pay the fine after it has been imposed. Of all forms of punishment, that form which bears lightest upon the person punished and heaviest upon those related to the accused is the fine, and is the most foolish. It seems to me that in any case, practically speaking, where the offense is one where no profit has accrued to the person accused, the fine is weak and inadequate.

In the second place we have imprisonment. Where? In the county jail or in the penitentiary. The county jail is the place for those awaiting trial on more serious accusations and for the general criminal of the lowest grade. In the penitentiary men wear stripes and more or less hardened criminals are to be found. No man should be sent there so long as drunkenness is the only accusation against him. The third method is the probation system, an admirable system in many of its effects; admirable sometimes in cases of this nature, but lacking in one of the essentials for the cure of inebriacy.

That is the present situation that confronts the judge. I submit in the first place that drunkenness is not a penal offense, and should not be treated as a penal offense, except in cases of certain types—men who get drunk for the pleasure of it, or sometimes callow youths, who think it is smart to get drunk. In those two cases drunkenness should be penal. But in most cases of drunkenness it is a disease rather than a crime. This has been covered in previous conferences and none of us need further proof as to its nature as a disease. If then it is a disease, should it be punished as an offense? Is it a thing which demands correction at the hands of the law, or is it a thing which demands cure? I have not seen three cases where punishment was what was needed. I have seen many cases where cure was needed.

When a judge wants to cure, what can he do now? If he comes up with a drunkard who has been so habitually drunk as to be insane, there is an insane asylum. Outside of that there is nothing but the fine, the jail, or the probation system. The probation

system can be used in dealing with drunkards of a certain type, but there are very many others that it cannot reach. The worst drunkard is the home drunkard. He is the hardest proposition for the court to reach. Frequently men have been brought before me, men whom I have convicted as common drunkards, and yet it has been their first arraignment in the police court; though evidently shown that it has been their habit, year after year, to get thoroughly drunk at home. Those men it is difficult for the probation officer to reach because the families will not help him. Why will they not help? Because the moment you commit a man to the jail you cut off the family revenue. It is a hard thing for the family to have to bear with the drunkard because without him the family are paupers. Yet it is one of the most frequent and one of the saddest conditions met with in our courts.

If we are going to cure drunkenness, how are we going to go about it? Eventually, I hope that this State and all the States will construct for the cure and treatment of habitual drunkards institutions distinct from the asylums for the insane and the prisons—institutions to which may be committed from the court those on whom the drink habit has a hold, whether they wish to break that habit or not. We have nothing of the sort now. When a man comes up who has money enough the judge can put him on probation and tell him to go to a sanitorium and pay twenty-five or fifty dollars a week and stay there until he is cured. But you cannot do that with the poor man unless you have the great good fortune to find a gentleman willing to volunteer the sum of a hundred dollars, as I did yesterday, for trying to cure a man who was brought before me for drunkenness. That in itself is an index that this general subject is taking some hold on the public mind. That is the way it can be reached by private charity, but the time has passed when it should be private charity and when the State should leave to the judge the choice between imprisonment and a fine or the probation system.

I am sincerely anxious that this State should take the lead in this matter. New York is prepared to do this. The scientific method of dealing with this evil would provide an institution to which a man could be committed until cured, an institution in which he could be made to support himself and his family, and

toward which I firmly believe the saloons of our State should contribute. Their license fees should be used towards its erection, maintenance and support. This seems to me the only way in which the difficulty may be overcome. It is hard to get the State which has so many demands upon it to appropriate money for this object. It is hard to get the State to take hold of any new method of treating defectives and criminals unless we can point to the revenue. There are thousands of saloons and thousands of licensed places paying from $200 to $1,000 a year, and it would take but a little of that vast revenue to maintain an institution where the drunkenness, which is the fruit of the saloon, might be cured, and the greatest of the evils which are filling our jails every year might be removed from this State.

Pending the time of the establishment of such an institution I hope the State will place in the hands of the probation officers, who are doing magnificent work—a work that you cannot realize and would not believe if I were to tell you—I hope that the State will place in the hands of its probation officers the means whereby they can deal with individual cases and promote cures where now there is nothing in sight but a prison. Take away this one thought—see whether you cannot help to induce the State to lead in this movement to cure drunkenness rather than to punish a sick man as though he were a criminal.

DR. CHARLES A. ROSENWASSER, of Newark, was invited to discuss "The Inebriate."

Dr. ROSENWASSER—Recorder Fort has called attention to the need of an institution for the care and treatment of inebriates, and Ex-Governor Stokes has placed great stress upon the importance of the prevention of the evils we are here to discuss. I wish to say a few words about the inebriate from the standpoint of a physician who has made a special study of this class of patients. Four years ago I took up this work. I have learned that the inebriate is curable if treatment is begun in time, and is properly conducted and persisted in, and that such treatment is available to the man who can afford to pay for it, but that unfortunately many men who need treatment, and who would

gladly place themselves under treatment, are unable to do so owing to lack of funds. I have also learned that for every patient who is willing to be treated for this disease there are very many who will not submit, and that there is no law in this State which will compel them to do so.

If you see a man about to commit suicide by drinking carbolic acid, the law expects you to prevent him if possible, and will support you in so doing, while he can be arrested, for this form of suicide is a crime. If, on the other hand, you enter a home of destitution, where the father is a chronic drunkard, who has driven his children upon the streets, and whose wife is in misery, and you see the father about to take a drink of whisky, committing suicide by a slow method, you have absolutely no right to prevent him from so doing, and, if you attempt to do so, you may, indeed, be arrested yourself for interefering with his personal liberty. We have no law which permits a wife to put such a husband in a place where he can be either cured or prevented from annoying her, unless she has money.

We hope to bring about a decided change in these conditions. Mr. Alonzo Church, of Newark, has draughted a bill, which will shortly be presented to the Legislature. It asks that counties of the first class be empowered to establish institutions for the care and treatment of inebriates. This is the first step and I have reason to believe that the bill pill pass. Armed with this, it is proposed to start in Essex county a powerful movement for the establishing of such an institution. Within a short time the patients now occupying the Essex County Hospital for the Insane on South Orange avenue will be removed to the new buildings at Overbrook, leaving the old buildings vacant. We are going to ask the freeholders to establish here a hospital for inebriates. Mr. Church has worked upon this project for a long time and the outlook for success is most promising. We are going to show the freeholders that a large class of men and women can be helped before they get to the police court stage. When once a man or woman has reached the county jail the chance of saving them is very small.

Drunkenness is a progressive disease and as in the case of tuberculosis there is a stage wherein it is curable. Every

inebriate does not need to be locked up however, for under scientific medical treatment and the use of common-sense methods and remedies which are available to every physician, a large number of patients can be successfully treated without being taken away from their families. But in dealing with the vast majority of cases a well-equipped institution is an absolute necessity. When these patients have been restored to physical health, moral and religious treatment is of vital importance. When you can surround a phyically restored inebriate with such influence you can expect a cure. Without such influence you must be prepared for a relapse.

Dr. Evans has told you that there is a wise law in this State under the provisions of which a habitual drunkard can be committed to the Morris Plains Asylum as a private patient. Aside from the expense of maintenance, however, this commitment costs between one hundred and twenty and two hundred dollars. He has told you that the law has proven a blessing to many wealthy men and their families. We are simply asking that this blessing be also bestowed upon the poor.

We are not experimenting, for we have experience of other States and countries to guide us. In Foxboro, Mass., there has been an institution for the care and treatment of inebriates in successful operation for sixteen years, and there is one in Knoxville, Iowa, now in its third year. The institution which appears to have done the best work, however, is situated in Ellikon, near Zurich, Switzerland; it has been in existence for eighteen years, and has a record of fifty per cent. of cures. Surely with such an outlook something ought to be done for the inebriate and his family, especially when we consider that without treatment the outlook is absolutely hopeless.

There are a large number of incurable alcoholics and drug-users and many of them are semi-insane for a long time before they become totally insane. There is no reason why such persons should be allowed to be a menace to society and to themselves, and be permitted to continue propagating diseased offspring. Permit me to lay stress upon the fact that the institution is to take care of drug-users as well as of alcholics, and that in one sense it will be a reformatory for women.

Should all our efforts to secure the establishing of such an institution prove unavailing, it will not mean that the efforts will be discontinued. Failure will simply be a stimulus to keep on working. We are then going to appeal to the public. You have hospitals for the sick of all kinds and classes, why not have an institution for the prevention and combating of the one basic cause of all the evils we have come here to discuss? Such an institution need not be entirely a charitable one, for drunkenness and drug addiction are no respectors of persons, and the revenue derived from a large number of wealthy patients will help take care of those unable to pay. I hope you will all try to help us get this hospital for inebriates in Essex county.

MR. JOHN M. GLENN (Secretary of the Russell Sage Foundation)—It is a great pleasure to have a chance to say a few words to this Conference. What I have heard has been most interesting and instructive. I came over to see what New Jersey is doing, and it is encouraging to find such a large audience for an afternoon meeting.

I would like to say a word about the blind. A special relationship has given me a special interest in them. In dealing with the blind we should note how much they are like the rest of us, and not how much they differ from us. They lack only the sense of light and color. With the blind, as with the seeing, we should not devote our energy chiefly to the teaching of the brightest or the dullest, but our main care should be rather to educate the average man and woman to be self-supporting and good citizens.

Begin by helping them to strengthen their wills, to determine to stand on their own feet, to use their heads and their hands and their faculties as much as possible, and make them feel as little as possible the lack of that one sense, the sense of sight.

The blind are treated too often as if they were helpless. This is true of both children and adults, and it is the greatest obstacle to their development. Do not pity the blind; encourage them,

stimulate them—that is the way to help everyone who is disabled. Two things are important in the treatment of the blind and of the inebriate, namely, to find out where they are strongest and where they are weakest, and then we can develop the strong and good in them, and help them to overcome their weakness.

At the end of the session Dr. MAXIMILIAN P. E. GROSZMANN gave a very concise and comprehensive summary of the statements and opinions brought forth in this most interesting and instructive conference.

First, he pointed out the very defective classification which has led to place in the same group of "defectives" such widely different types as the feeble-minded, the idiots, the paupers, the insane, the deaf, the cripples, the epileptic, the blind, the inebriate. He referred to Mr. Patrick, of New York, a blind merchant, who had spoken in the same session and had inspired the audience with his manly words, showing how the blind only need the opportunity of proper education to take their place with the best of seeing men and women. How can such a man be classed with the drunkard, even though we may concede the drunkard to be more a pathologic, than a degenerate type?

Here, then, is seen the need of a better understanding of the characteristics of the classes loosely combined under the general term "defective." Such a better understanding and classification will enable us to better deal with their needs.

Secondly, he showed that all speakers had agreed that there is great lack of proper and adequate provisions for those who are thus handicapped by nature in their life-struggle. And yet, the number of these unfortunates is increasing, commensurate to the increase in the population and to the growing complexity of life conditions. All States of the Union, New Jersey not among the last, need to make very strenuous efforts to meet the demand, and there is here a great field for charity and philanthropy no less than for legislative action. While this means the spending of much greater sums of money in this direction than have hitherto been forthcoming, Dr. Groszmann quoted the sta-

tistic statements of Dr. B. D. Evans, medical director of the State Hospital for the Insane, at Morris Plains, who had spoken that same afternoon. He had proven that the nation's wealth had increased at a much greater rate than the nation's defective population. There seems to be, then, no lack of funds if they were only properly applied.

Provision for the unfortunate classes is a public function, although it is often first suggested and made by private activity. It is, and this was Dr. Groszmann's third point, preventive in nature. All the speakers had emphasized the fact that the time had come when we must look for preventive measures rather than for corrective measures. Just as preventive hygiene takes the place, more and more, of curative medicine, so proper provisions for the care and of the defective classes will more and more obviate the necessity of penal institutions, poorhouses and asylums. Proper provision does not mean only a segregation and care of the defective individuals, away from the normal population; but also educating the afflicted for independent self-support, and a prevention of defective development. Many of the ills of society can be cured by timely attention to the defective classes of children.

Prevention in this respect will gradually eliminate, in a great measure, pauperism and crime, and will establish a higher standard of public health and morality. Prevention is cheaper than correction. Correction is an expense; prevention is an investment.

Prevention as an educational and protective measure costs less in the first place. It had been shown by one of the speakers that the State of New Jersey spent a considerably greater percentage of its annual budget on correction than on education. Education, then, is less expensive, also because it saves considerably at the other end. But it is an investment also for this reason: While the uneducated defective is a non-productive burden, education produces producers, such as participate in the production of the nation's wealth and in the development of the nation's resources. And with the exception of the lowest idiots, or the worst forms

of insanity, defectives are made self-supporting, at least, in part, by training and education. In this respect, care for them resembles the modern efforts to make use of the waste-matter and the by-products in industry. What had formerly been thrown away as useless has in countless instances become a source of most valuable production. Think only of the coal-tar products. This economic or industrial law can well be applied to the "by-products" of the race; those classes who have been considered heretofore as largely waste-matter, can not only be saved, but worked into highly valuable human material.

Dr. Groszmann here took occasion to refer to the highly inspiring address, made in the forenoon of the same day by Rabbi Stephen S. Wise, of the Independent Synagogue of New York. Dr. Wise had represented the Hebrew view of charity, saying that this idea really has nothing to do with charity in the accepted sense at all, but implied the idea of justice. Dealing wisely and understandingly with the poor and dependent classes was not a matter of charity pure and simple, but a mandate of common fairness and human justice. Justice to them, yes, but also justice to the community. It is a wrong conception to think that preventive, and for that matter, corrective measures, should depend on the good or bad will of any individual; they imply a duty, a duty of one individual to his brother, and a duty of the State to its members.

In closing, Dr. Groszmann indorsed the very helpful suggestion which ex-Governor Stokes had made in the opening session of the Conference. Mr. Stokes had pointed out that the best way to solve the problem of charity and correction was to discover the causes which lead to defectiveness, dependency and crime. When these causes are once understood, they may be removed, as far as possible. Mr. Stokes therefore recommended that the Legislature should be urged to appoint a commission, composed of experts, sociologists, physicians, educators, etc., whose function it should be to study the causes of pauperism, crime and defectiveness, so that proper methods be devised, in gradual recognition of these causes, for their removal, or, at

least, their mitigation. These causes may be found in the life conditions of modern society, or in pathological developments of different kinds; at any rate, it will be possible to cure the ills of society only by a proper diagnosis, first of all, of their reasons and origin, and by a scientific method of preventive treatment.

FATHER FOY—I want to say a word of commendation to the boys and girls from the High School who have been in attendance in the galleries, listening so patiently and attentively this afternoon. It is to be hoped that they will be benefitted in proportion to the interest they have taken in this meeting.

Adjourned at six P. M.

SIXTH SESSION.

Tuesday Evening, February 11th, 1908.

This session, the last, was called to order by President Foy at eight o'clock. The section was devoted to "Children," and was in charge of Mr. Henry Snyder, Superintendent of Public Schools in Jersey City.

The report of the Nominating Committee was read and adopted, and the following officers were declared elected:

President—Mrs. F. C. Jacobson, Newark.

Vice-Presidents—Mrs. Emily E. Williamson, Elizabeth.
Gov. J. Franklin Fort, Trenton.
Hon. E. C. Stokes, Trenton.
Hon. Franklin Murphy, Newark.
Rt. Rev. James A. McFaul, Trenton.
Rt. Rev. Edwin S. Lines, Newark.
Hon. Marshall Van Winkle, Jersey City.

Secretary—Mrs. E. V. H. Mansell, Trenton.

Asst. Secretaries—Miss Mary F. Van Leer, Passaic.
Mrs. Anna Reed, Somerville.
L. R. Thurlow, Plainfield.

Executive Committee—Rev. Francis A. Foy, East Nutley.
Hon. George B. Wight, Trenton.
Hugh F. Fox, Plainfield.
Charles F. Currie, Blackwood.
Rev. Walter Reid Hunt, Orange.
Rev. D. Stuart Hamilton, Paterson.
Mrs. Archibald Alexander, Hoboken.
Arthur W. McDougall, Newark.
Albert C. Aborn, East Orange.
George O. Osborne, Trenton.
Algernon T. Sweeney, Newark.
Edward R. Johnstone, Vineland.
Bleecker Van Wagenen, Orange.
Thomas McEwen, Jersey City.
Rev. A. C. Nickerson, Plainfield.
Miss Agnes Anderson, Jersey City.
Hon. Everett Colby, West Orange.

Mrs. Williamson, Chairman of the Nominating Committee, announced that the committee made the recommendation that the next annual meeting should be held in Trenton.

Mr. Snyder introduced as the first speaker, MISS LOUISE CONNOLLY, Superintendent of Schools of Summit. Miss Connolly read the following paper:

Love and Fear as Motives of Control.

BY MISS LOUISE CONNOLLY.

There was a time when subjects feared their rulers—when a "Teddy Bear" would have been *lese majeste*. In those days parents too were feared. The value of George Washington's two noteworthy truth-tellings lay in just the one point that modern youth does not understand. "I cut that cherry tree," cheerfully replies the boy of to-day;" the old thing was no good anyway." And his manner implies, "What have you to say about it?" In those days teachers also ruled by fear. The rod was not spared—which does not, however, necessarily imply that the child was not spoiled.

This relation between the governor and the governed is preserved in literature, and still profoundly affects by the suggestive force of story, poem, and picture, the feeling of children about school. It takes a great many happy days at the kindergarten to do away with uncle John's daily facetious question, "Well, did you get whipped to-day, Johnny?" Several of our present school readers contain Whittier's poem which tells of

> "Feet that creeping slow to school
> Went storming out to playing."

As a corollary to this, the idea that children may be expected to be untrustworthy and unruly also underlies much of the misbehavior shown from the kindergarten through the college. No one is more conservative and more conventional than the school boy. "As it was, so it should be," is his underlying thought. He is going through the stage of development corresponding to the "taboo." Marbles must be played at such a time, hats off and gloves on is the inexorable decree of boy fashion, and the teacher is a "horrid old thing," even though she may be loved and revered in secret.

Many schools—or, better, classes—are still ruled chiefly by fear. The passing of corporal punishment has little to do with this. Fear of a scolding, of the loss of a privilege, of open disgrace, of a weighty displeasure, of the sting of sarcasm, is just as real as the fear of the lash.

"You would better be glad that you live in modern times," said I to a high school boy sent to the office for discipline. "You would have been well thrashed for an offense like this fifty years ago."

"I'd rather take ten lickings than one of your lectures," responded the youth with uncomplimentary candor.

This will be so, as long as human nature, in teacher and pupil, remains what it is. No rules or regulations can prevent, but it seems, certainly, to have been reduced to a minimum by the pressure of public opinion. Indeed, so potent is this opinion that neither pupil nor teacher will acknowledge that even legitimate fear exists—the teacher because he heeds the prevailing sentiment,

"Speak gently; it is better far
To rule by love than fear,"

and the pupil because he shares, with all the youth brought up under a republican form of government, the notion that all fear of authority is cowardice.

There has been a long swing of the pendulum the other way. All pedagogic literature for the past—say thirty years—has been full of adjuration to the teacher to rule by love.

The arguments on the subject set forth in the text books studied in our normal schools are reinforced by the biographies of great teachers distributed to teachers' reading circles. Pestalozzi and Arnold need have formulated nothing so long as their lives were informed by the spirit of the Great Teacher.

This has been but one of many manifestations of two movements: the increase of personal liberty to the verge of license, and the increase of humane sentiment. Prison reforms, humane societies, social settlements, the Gerry Society, indicate the latter; the former is so diffused in this country that a goodly portion of the laws on statute books are generally disregarded. One must collar a policeman and swear through a megaphone to get arrested for profanity, for instance.

This movement ushered in, and has been furthered by, the increase in the proportion of women teachers. Woman cannot rule by force so well as man. She can, through generations of practice, influence indirectly better than man.

The fact, however, that fear is not the chief motive in most schools nowadays, does not prove that that motive is love.

The truth is that teachers "manage" the pupils, and that the pupils know it. It is not unusual to hear pupils remark that they cannot "get along" with Mr. So-and-so, or that Miss Such-a-one "gets along" with all her pupils "fine." The implication seems to be that is "up to" the teacher to manœuvre so that there may be no unfortunate clashing of wills.

Side by side with this moral revolution—a change in methods of discipline, has gone an intellectual revolution—a change in methods of teaching.

Short periods of work make it unnecessary to force a voluntary attention at cost of mental and physical strain. A pupil welcomes even an uncongenial task if it means change—variety.

An enriched curriculum, with its appeal to all types of mind and character, renders forced attention unnecessary, and prevents the clash of wills. This is true of nature study, music, art, but especially of manual training in all its forms. Louisa Alcott knew this when she wrote "Little Men." We are still laboriously teaching it to our school boards.

Better physical conditions in the school room have removed fruitful causes of lassitude to be stimulated and of restlessness to be curbed. Most of what remains of insubordination will be removed when medical inspection in schools is perfected.

The doctrine of "interest," the use of the child's own activity, the inductive method, the wise correlation of school subjects with each other and with the interests of the home and the street, and the recognition of the educational values of social life and of play, have made possible a respect from pupil to teacher and a sympathy from teacher to pupil never so widely felt before, and hence have obviated much of the necessity for apparent discipline.

I have had the privilege of coming into contact with a cultivated intellect which has, on matters connected with elementary education, had Rip Van Winkle's forty years' sleep. Nothing enlightened me so much in regard to the changes which have taken place during the half century, as his astonishment, and horror over our point of view. "What! A child dares to tell you that he 'is tired' of what you give him to read? Is it possible that you consult the child's *desires* in selecting his books?" No wonder that in our fathers' time desks were carved, red pepper put on the stove and all the proverbial antics, so delightfully related by Twain, Eggleston, and Warner, indulged in. A young girl fresh from the normal school or college to-day, with no weapon but good manners, gets readier obedience from her fifty pupils than could be obtained from his score of "scholars" by the mature man of long experience aided by a bunch of birch twigs and a strap in the good old days, if we are to believe half of what the chroniclers tell us.

Mr. Smith gets much more openminded attention to the algebra lesson on Monday because he umpired the basket-ball game on Saturday, and young Jones receives Miss Brown's strictures on his English more cheerfully because she danced with him Friday evening.

From all these causes it follows as a fact that only the inexperienced, or unhealthy, or unhappy, or temperamentally unfit teacher has any general need to uphold his authority by show of force, and that the average teacher feels such a need only in dealing with the atypical child, or with the child from atypical surroundings.

And so we congratulate ourselves upon the fact that we live in the Golden Age, when perfect love has cast out fear. The questions arise: (1) Is it true? (2) If it is true, is it well?

It is not true. Look within, and each successful teacher will acknowledge that he employs the hand of iron, however disguised by the velvet glove.

Were it so, it would not be well. However shielded from hurt or injury, we should have, as we grow, the experiences befitting our stage of development. "The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom" must be known before that fear can be cast out. And the quality of mercy must ever be mightiest in the mighty.

The fact that some children are so tactfully "managed" along the path of virtue that they do not feel the reins, causes them to fail in that very requisite knowledge—how to submit, and that even more necessary branch of learning—how to obey. Pupils in the high school, because authority becomes there more impersonal and less uniform, generally betray this lack in their previous training, especially in the freshman year, and this is a chief cause underlying so large a percentage of decrease in high school enrollment at this point.

I had an interesting interview, not long since, with a naturally gentle lad who had thus been "managed," and who had arrived at the age of fourteen before coming into any serious collision with authority.

"She told me to do so-and-so," he explained, "and it wasn't just, and so I wasn't going to."

"So?" said I. "There are some eighty million people in the United States, all obeying properly constituted authority, except some infants, some idiots, some insane, some criminals—and you. How did you get on that side of the fence? What have the people been doing who should have taught you about obedience to law twelve years ago?"

"But it wasn't just," he patiently explained.

"You had an appeal," said I, "first to me, then to the Board, then to the State authorities."

"And meantime," he inquired, "what would I be doing?"

"Obeying," said I.

He cogitated awhile. "Isn't it ever right to resist?"

"Yes," I conceded. "In Revolutionary days our forefathers shed their blood in resisting injustice. Have you such a principle at stake that, for the sake of those coming after, you are willing to be martyrized?"

He said he hadn't.

But he should not have needed that sort of instruction at that age. Authority too often gives place to finesse.

Closely related to this discussion is the new movement in the treatment of crime. The juvenile court is not the embodiment of a new principle; it is a new embodiment of an old principle. The socialistic tendency of the age is revealed in it. In loco parentis, the teacher ferruled the child who did wrong. Now the judge fines the parent of the naughty child. The boy who spurns the lamenting mother who "wishes Johnnie would do right," and disobeys the father who blusters but does not perform, and who winks at the cajoling teacher as "dead easy," responds to the kindness of the judge who personifies law, and who might, if he chose, lock him up. Authority has shifted its throne. Between the partial affection of the parent and the severity of the judge stands the school. It is interesting to note that Judge Lindsay wishes that the juvenile court might be considered educational rather than punitive.

To this discussion also belongs the recent retrogressive movement in regard to corporal punishment. From Squiers at Dotheboy Hall, indiscriminately beating until his cruel appetite was glutted, to an eastside boy, arm akimbo, pouring forth profane

or obscene abuse in the presence of his classmates upon a defenceless teacher, forbidden by law to touch him, is a far cry. We need a modern Dickens to describe the present anomalies.

Another matter, closely allied, is the school city movement. Undoubtedly our children are influenced by the conditions of the complex and advanced form of society into which they are born. Equally, they must grow from stage to stage as they are capable of it. To take over, seriously, the government of their school, and carry it on democratic principles, without inspiration, supervision and, sometimes, inhibition from the teacher, is too heavy a task for them. For a school is, and must be, a monarchy. The values of the school city are, doubtless, great, if this fundamental fact is not lost sight of. It can be used as a means of teaching, objectively, the civics of certain grades. Treated as a team play, it contains a disciplinary power as great as that of any of the athletic games.

To sum up:

While fear is not wholesome as the chief motive for human action, a little wholesome awe is a good basis upon which to build the palace wherein confidence and love shall dwell.

And, even as a chief motive, fear is perhaps more healthful for the soul than egotism, vanity, unbridled wilfulness, or even than good-natured tolerance of those in authority.

On the other hand, no parent or teacher has a right to use fear as a motive to obedience who does not love the culprit. And, as to corporal punishment, William James has the best word on that head. After the age of infancy, it is fraught with peril. Only he who loves should dare to smite. And as to love, my advice to all teachers is: "If you don't actively, warmly, abundantly *love* the worst and most unruly of your flock, then—go get married." The Lord has His own way of filling the mother's heart with the only justification for severity to a child.

Mr. CHARLES D. RIDGWAY, of Jersey City, was asked to open the discussion.

MR. RIDGWAY—I do not know that there is much to be said in addition to this very excellent and instructive paper which has

been read by Miss Connolly. This question of preserving order in the public school is up again for discussion and decision. I read in the New York "Sun," a month ago, an extract from an article written by one of the greatest educators of that city and a principal of one of the New York schools. This article he had written in opposition to all kinds of physical punishment for the control of children and the maintenance of authority in the public schools, and yet he made this admission. He said that the difficulties of maintaining order and authority in the public schools of this country were increasing every year, and something had to be done. To my mind that is a very serious admission by one who advocates the entire exclusion of corporal punishment in the public schools. I do not know whether that statement is true or not, but I do know that authority and order in the public schools have got to be maintained or the public schools are going to be a failure, and to have them a failure would be a greater calamity to this country than war or pestilence. Take the case of the boy cited by Miss Connolly who is brought before the judge of the juvenile court. The boy may spurn his weeping mother, and defy his blustering father, and wink at his teacher "dead easy," but in the juvenile court he submits to the kindness of the judge because he knows that the judge has power to lock him up. The kindness of the judge has to be supplemented by his power to lock the boy up, and that is a very different thing from the kindness of the teacher, backed only by her own personality or by her words only. I can remember the little red school house in the country, where we used to have a woman teacher in the summer and a man teacher in the winter, when the big boys came. And always on the top of that master's desk was a birch rod five or six feet long. I can testify to the controlling influence of that birch rod on the desk in favor of orderly conduct, because there sat the man on that bare wooden platform with the power and the authority to use it. I do not remember that it was ever used on any *small* child, but it was used two or three times on big boys, and they ought to have received the punishment they did. In the solution of this subject I want to make this proposition, that the State of New Jersey

has no right to surrender the power and the authority to inflict corporal punishment in all proper cases. You have a law on the statute books that no teacher can administer it and that no scholar, whatever his character or his offence, can ever be subject to physical punishment. I say that the State has no right to surrender that authority in proper cases. It is an unnecessary concession to lawlessness. I would not think of giving to every teacher the right to punish a child physically, but I say that the State must step in and protect the child before it becomes a criminal, even to segregating them, if necessary. Before these boys become criminal the State should step in and, if necessary, take them away from their fathers and mothers and the conditions and environment that make them criminal, and put them under specialized teachers—men and women who shall inculcate principles that will tend to make them decent citizens and bring under control all those tendencies which tend to make them criminals. This right has got to be recognized, and to enforce it the right to inflict corporal punishment has got to go back on the statute books. You have got to repeal the existing law as one of the means of removing the necessity of resorting to such punishment. I do say that love should be the controlling and pervading motive in the control of children, and no teacher should appeal to the motive of fear in the primary department of any school. The teacher in an ordinary school with an ordinary class of small children, who cannot by force of her own personality and her high sense of honor and justice in her treatment of those children, and by a pervasive and burning love for them, maintain order, then she ought not to be a teacher. And any teacher that will strike a child under the impulse of anger and resentment ought herself to be disciplined every time. But I will say this, that any teacher who can teach a class in Jersey City and never show her anger, and never feel resentment rise in her, is in the kingdom of heaven. But she has got to learn to control herself, for she can never control her child until she first controls herself. But the fact remains that love in its most perfect manifestation can never control all men. If that proposition is not so then every man and woman in Jersey City, who hears the gospel of Jesus Christ,

would become a Christian. But they do not, for the same reason that the boy resists his teacher, viz., their unwillingness to submit or obey. There never will come a time in the moral government of this universe when the principle of fear will not be a legitimate motive for human coonduct. But it must be recognized that those are exceptional cases. That is where all our trouble comes from, to know what to do with the extreme cases. This question is one of the most important facing the American public. It is of the same nature as the question of poverty or crime, the control of these uncontrolable children, what we call bad children. But the solution of it is with the teaching force of the United States. It is up to the superintendents and the principals and the teachers to solve the problem and solve it right.

Mr. SNYDER then introduced Mr. M. H. KINSLEY, Superintendent of Schools, Hudson county.

MR. KINSLEY—The paper which we have heard from Miss Connolly is entirely sane. It was prepared by a practical educator who has come into personal contact with the problem with which she deals, and it seems to me that reasonable people listening to it will agree with it. I am reminded of an incident told by an educator. He was passing through a school corridor when he heard a teacher laying out a class for some misdemeanor for which the class as a whole was to blame. Five minutes later he passed the room again, and everything was quiet. He went in and found the class intensely interested in their work and the teacher all smiles. He afterwards said to one of the boys, "You fellows got quite a tongue lashing, didn't you?" "We didn't get anything more than we deserved," said the boy. I believe that girls and boys will recognize authority when it is used in a reasonable way, and that they are glad to be subject to it. I think the paper expressed this better than I could. Dr. White told us once of a very boisterous class in one of the Ohio cities, which had practically driven out several teachers, and afterwards a girl whom he knew was allowed to take charge of the school. It was well known that no corporal punishment could be used.

When difficulties began, she went to Dr. White and complained, and said that she must give up. He said, go back and resolve to win out. She went back—and continued in the class. The pupil who refuses to obey becomes an outlaw, and the object of the law is not to protect the outlaw in his crime, but it is for the protection of those who obey the law. If a pupil refuses point blank to do the thing which he is commanded to do there seems to be but one way to deal with the case. Some men in authority in schools call in a policeman, but you cannot do that everywhere. While I do not think I would for a moment stand here and advocate corporal punishment, I would say that if I were dealing with an unruly boy I should take him by the shoulders and put him out. This may not be the ideal way, but it seems to me that wholesome fear may eventually become respected. It may be of a low order at first, but when respect has come it is a gradual grade up to love. When a teacher has established herself in the respect of the class, she can go ahead and win the class to do anything by love. But back of that they know there is a power. The power of the teacher to control—that is what tells. A good mother of Hoboken, speaking of bringing up her five boys, told me that she began to teach them to obey long before they were two. That is when training must begin to be effective. The children of which I speak, felt occasionally the power of the mother's arm and she thinks it did them good; I did not hear the boys' side of it. A boy who is told to do a thing, and absolutely refuses to do it, is, as I have said, an outlaw, and it is necessary to take the most stringent measures with an outlaw.

Mr. SNYDER next introduced Dr. FREDERICK C. JACOBSON, of Newark, who read a paper on "The Medical Supervision of Schools."

The Medical Supervision of Schools.

BY DR. FREDERICK C. JACOBSON.

Medical science to-day does not wait till a patient is sick and in bed before offering its services, but, by preventive methods, guards him before sickness comes and gives health to resist disease. That old adversary, disease, has never, during the long

fight against it, received so many hard blows as recently. Witness the victory of our sanitarians over yellow fever in Cuba and over malaria in Rome and in Panama.

Medical supervision in some form has been exercised throughout the ages. In antiquity it was exercised by the priesthood as a part of their religious rites. From the Talmud and the ancient papyri it is evident that its repute was great. In later times its power waned, and in the middle ages it had little force against the ignorance and superstitution about it.

Previous to the nineteenth century there was no sanitary science. Not until about 1840, when Pettenkofer applied the methods of chemistry to soil, to water and to air, was that science born. New ideas and new investigations then broadened rapidly, and there began a world campaign for cleanliness and ventilation.

The culture medium and the microscope unlocked secrets and explained the virtues of cleanliness. The discovery of germs and the methods of identifying them and their life habits gave us the key to contagion. Governmental powers were invoked, by the creation of boards of health, to compel cleanliness and close channels by which germs and vermin are carried from one place to another. The easy contact in schools, of children coming from all directions and all kinds of homes, was bound to compel, sooner or later, official inspection.

The educators of our land have not been slow to recognize the benefits of medical supervision. From their early methods of forcing pupils with rod and taunt, they have come by the easy process of child study to appreciate the aid which this supervision can give. They recognize its value for the elimination of communicable diseases. They are enthusiastic in those few communities where they have seen thorough examinations made of the eye, ear, nose, throat and body, and remedial action taken. They appreciate that a cause of exhausted nerves and degeneracy is found and can can be removed from the schools. The medical supervision of schools will build a new generation of men having greater resistance to disease and greater power of mind, and will prove a great uplifting force in our civilization.

It is proposed to take the weaklings of our schools and bestow on them the blessings of health that they may return to us the

reward of strength and of good citzenship. There are about 17,000,000 public school children in the United States, and of these fewer than 5,000,000 have even a superficial medical inspection maintained over them. Probably fewer than 250,000 of these have been thoroughly examined in schools for evidences of organic disease, yet the results obtained from these few have fully demonstrated the theories of its value, and have justified plans for more complete supervision than any yet placed in practice.

Both statistics and experience have taught us startling facts. Over 90 per cent. of school children have been found abnormal. These abnormalities are of many kinds, some trivial and some mortal, and some of them which are always serious are found with great frequency. It is unnecessary to repeat the various figures. They are published in the daily print, in our popular magazines, in the reports of different societies and conferences and in technical journals. One of the most evident facts is that backward and incorrigible children have the highest proportion of abnormalities.

Oculists, especially, have contributed much to the knowledge and improvement of school life. During the early half of the past century an increase of poor sight among scholars was noticed. In Breslau, after Fröbel's kindergartens had been in vogue for a generation, more than half the students of the university were victims of near-sightedness. The educational system was rapidly ruining the eyesight of the people.

The invention of the opthalmoscope by Helmholtz in 1848 gave an exact method of examining eyes, and sent oculists everywhere gathering statistics and applying methods of reform. Statistics from all over Europe, and, commencing about 1875, from the American centers of education, all showed the same prevalency of eye diseases. The most quoted of all these statistics are those of Cohn, who, in 1867, examined over 10,000 students in Breslau.

To-day we have carefully compiled and thoroughly analyzed the records of about 500,000 school children. We know that practically all children have some eye trouble during their school life, that 65 per cent. show evidences of eye disease when ex-

amined and that 40 per cent. have pain when they use their eyes.

Eye-strain and brain-fag have such similar symptoms that they cannot be distinguished; when eye-strain is relieved by a proper glass brain-fag practically disappears. Under the present conditions of school life probably one-third of the children should wear glasses.

Within the last fifteen years there has come to the attention of the medical profession a condition of post-nasal growths, ordinarily called adenoids. These, by blocking the breathing passages, prevent free aeration of the lungs. They produce catarrhal secretions that disorder the stomach. Such conditions are usually attended by a cerebral stagnation which dwarfs the intellect. Examination leads us to believe that over 10 per cent. of the children have adenoids. The remedies to be applied are as varied as the conditions requiring them. In nearly every case the remedy consists in the enforcement of simple hygienic measures, or in a simple surgical procedure, or in the wearing of a proper eyeglass.

The removal of adenoids and the putting on of glasses has been followed by such wonderful improvement of the body and mind as to make the recital sound like romance. Children become less nervous and more attentive and amenable to discipline; their bodies develop better; their minds improve, and newly-awakened desires to succeed end truancy, and give other occupation than teaching badness to companions. The story of Public School No. 110, New York City, is almost beyond belief except to those who are familiar with it. A class made up entirely of derelicts from the neighboring schools was examined, and every member was found to have some physical abnormality. Eighty-three of these children were operated on for adenoids in one day. A neighborhood riot followed, but after six months parents and teachers were close friends, and all but four of the children have improved physically and had done more school work in those six months than in the previous two years.

A few years ago athletics was responsible for much ill-health. During the last several years the athlete's physical condition has been much studied, and observations have been made on which, in many of our institutions, a rational system of physical

directorship is based. These athletic directors are either medical men or men who hold their work under close medical supervision. Excepting from accidents, injury from athletics is now practically eliminated.

The medical supervision which our present knowledge demands, is—first, a daily inspection of all children suspected of, or specially liable to, infectious diseases; second, frequent (monthly) inspection of all the children; third, a complete examination of every child at the beginning of its school life; fourth, the correction of defects found on inspections and examinations; fifth, a re-examination at such intervals as is found necessary; sixth, the direction of athletics; seventh, the investigation of hygienic questions in housing children. All this work must be arranged so as to interfere in the least degree with the regular work of the school.

The daily inspection of suspicious cases must be arranged for by the teacher segregating those children who have been absent for several days, those who are returning for the first time after having been excluded for medical reasons, and those who have any suspicious symptoms. The examiner must inspect each of these children as soon after nine o'clock as possible. He must exclude from school all who are a menace to other children, returning the others to their classes with such instructions to the school nurse or the teacher as he deems wise. The nurse, or teacher assisting, should fill out slips for each child excluded; one for the parents, advising them of the cause of exclusion and ordering them to consult the family physician or specialist, or to attend the clinic; another for the files of the local school; another for the files of the office of the Board of Education. If the case justifies it, the Board of Health should be immediately notified.

During the early part of each year, and when the system is being first introduced, this will take considerable time, but later it can be done very quickly.

For the monthly inspection of all children the examiner should be at the school when the children march in at nine o'clock. Standing in the proper position, the examiner can see

each child pass. If he observes anything suspicious he should designate the child to the teacher who stands at his side, and the child should later be brought before him for closer examination.

Each child should, during its first year of school life, be thoroughly examined for evidences of organic disease. The examinations should be made by examiners who continue at this work, but they may be made by those who do the morning inspection. For this work the assistance of a nurse is necessary. The child's clothing must be sufficiently removed to permit proper examination. Measurements of height, weight and chest are taken. The heart and lungs are carefully listened to. Reddened eyelids, cross-eyes, enlarged glands and tonsils, decayed teeth, spinal deformities and nervousness are looked for. The mode of breathing, peculiarities of facial expression, if prominent, and impressions of the examiner, if subjects for records are noted. The mechanical methods for testing sight and hearing may be taught to and applied by nurses, whose findings will be carefully reviewed by specialists. All findings should be entered on record blanks in duplicate, one to remain at the local school and go with the child to other schools and be added to from time to time as required; the other to go to headquarters and also to be added to as required.

Practical steps must be taken to correct abnormalities. Parents should be held responsible for the condition of their child and should be notified with sufficiently detailed instructions to insure intelligent action when the child needs remedial attention. Philadelphia authorities report that 70 per cent. of their recommendations are followed out. If parents fail in this duty, the office of the medical supervisor must find means to compel them. There will remain a number of cases in which the parents cannot be made to act, and for these the authorities must themselves provide the surgical or optical remedy. For the relief of these the clinics and hospitals, which are partially or entirely supported by public funds, could be utilized. Should these institutions be overtaxed, and they certainly might be, or if friction should arise respecting the work, a place or places of treatment could be established and the work done under the direction of the medical supervisor's office.

Re-examinations at intervals during the school life should be made. Whether these should be made every year, or only toward the end of the school life, the system will later determine. Certain it is that vision should be re-tested at about the third year when the child has learned his letters and has entered on that stage when he will, of his own volition, read story books. At this time his eyes will be subjected to increased stress and liability to injury, so that at about the age of twelve the eyes should again be re-tested. I am inclined to believe that a thorough examination should be made every third year. In high schools and colleges the eyes should be tested every year, especially until the degenerative conditions of vision in schools are corrected.

Athletics should be directed. A child's first examination will show whether violent exercise will or will not be injurious to him and the proper exercise he should take. Later examinations may modify this. Frequent examinations of the candidates for, and of the members of, those athletic teams whose games are strenuous should be made.

A necessary part of medical supervision is the teaching of hygiene in the schools. The child should know how to care for himself and for those who in later life may depend on him. Thus, the teaching and enforcing of the care of the teeth, as an illustration, will save the child from many hours of pain and intestinal troubles, and possibly from lowered health in later life, and it will also save the public treasury from supporting dental clinics.

The number of hours a child studies must be regulated according to his individual ability.

Incidental problems of the school room should be investigated. This does not mean the pursuit of the scrub woman and of plumbing details, but, while alert for any neglect of hygienic rules, it does mean the investigation of those new problems which hygiene is constantly uncovering. It is in this branch of the work that an able supervisor will enhance the value of and bring luster to his office. Children with developing bodies and minds, gathered together by thousands, present phenomena for analysis. The study of epidemiology, of dust-laden currents in the classroom, of the effects of humidity on study capacity, of

the fixed ratios of irremediable diseases to nervous action, of the pyschic effects of color tints, and of other problems which will come to a scientific man of this department, will assist to knowledge yet undreamed of.

Every child in every school house in the land, be it district school or city school, parochial or public, primary or collegiate, should have the advantage of this supervision. The city school will be closely watched by trained specialists, while the lonely school in the country must use the best knowledge of the local doctor. The machinery for its application will differ much in different places, and state and national laws must be invoked to create it. The State should compel full medical reports of all children from local authorities and on these reports nurses and special examiners should be sent to the suburban schools to do the necessary special work.

Should this program seem at first glance too paternal, we must consider that its principles are established. When parents fail to provide for their children those benefits which civilization has discovered for them, the higher power of government should step in and protect such children and those who come in contact with them. The gradual absorption of the rights of the parents is recognized in laws to establish a minimum of education for all children of a community, and to prevent truancy and child labor. Society must, for its own protection, educate and nourish every one of its children, so that their lives will not be wasted, but utilized for manhood.

Not only are the higher ideals of health and education more nearly approached by medical supervision of schools, but the economic problems are lessened. The average child will be a tax on the school fund for a much less time than he is at present. This one item alone in the budget will more than pay all the costs of medical supervision and go far to lessen the shortage in our present seating capacity. The efficiency of each teacher will be increased. The largest part of her time and energy is spent in coaching, and her greatest disappointments come from, the slow pupils of the class. The improved health which will follow proper medical supervision, makes repetition less necessary, discipline easier, and more things can be taught to more

pupils with less expenditure of time and energy. All branches of school administration will be made easier by reducing the variable factors of ill-health and absenteeism.

The mistake which is being made wherever medical inspection is applied is in considering it as a species of charity rather than a business-like and just procedure. Men and women capable of doing the work cannot be obtained to continue in it and give it their best endeavor without proper remuneration. There is a market value for labor and for those who have the ability to do this class of labor; it is high, but far from prohibitive. The more responsible positions must pay sufficient to attract specially fit persons, and to ensure their continued service. The examiners and the nurses must receive enough to hold them subject to authority.

A specialist should not do work which an examiner could do equally well, nor should an examiner do work which a nurse might be trained to do; since on the basis of the economic distribution of labor, it is needless to have a high-priced man do relatively simple work.

The administration of medical supervision of schools should be under the control of the Board of Education. Those advantages which are gained by it being controlled by the Board of Health, are lost through the jealousies and questions of authority which arise. The work to be done needs harmonious action, and examiners and teachers, while free to analyze their own difficulties and define their own ideas, can co-operate best when under the same control.

Every school system should have a medical supervisor. He should be subordinate to the superintendent of education, yet free to appeal directly to the Board of Education when his recommendations and orders are not followed. If he has a seat in the Board of Health and in the Board of Education, *ex-officio*, even though without vote, his opportunities will be greater. He must be a physician. Only a man who has a complete medical education is competent to administed the duties of the office. If he is in the active practice of his profession his value as the medical supervisor will, because of his pre-occupation, be lessened. Our technical institutions are graduating a special class of men versed

in sanitary engineering and biology, who are often better fitted to administer the executive work of a health department than physicians, but the office of medical supervisor of schools requires an additional knowledge of physical diagnosis, surgery and opthalmology. The medical supervisor must have the assistance of a sufficient number of examiners to make the routine examinations and relieve him of details.

The examiners must be medical graduates, preferably recent graduates. Inducements should be made to tempt the younger examiners to adopt school work as their life work. There will be plenty for them to do. The continued examinations and re-examinations, the following of individual cases, the watch over athletics, the coaching of new examiners, the supervision of reports, consultations with teachers and architects and with family physicians will require talent and time.

The medical supervisor should have the assistance and advice from eye, ear, nose and throat, bone and other specialists, who should take up the more advanced work of the examiners and complete it.

There should be nurses to assist in the examinations, to do the mechanical testing of eyes and ears under direction, to apply simple remedies as required, to follow the child to its home and tell the parents of the school requirements and to help in all those emergencies which the system will develop.

There must be a clerk or other assistant to keep the records straight and up to date.

The ultimate test of good is that it encourages and sustains life. Time must, in its evolutions, bring about organizations in society that are best fitted to improve the physical welfare of mankind. The thorough medical supervision of schools is such an organization.

Discussion.

Dr. H. H. BRINKERHOFF, of Jersey City, was invited to open the discussion after Dr. JACOBSON's paper.

DR. BRINKERHOFF—The paper leaves little for discussion, but one or two questions suggest themselves to me. A few years ago

a police board placed the visiting of schools in the hands of the six city physicians. They each had five schools and they were compelled to visit them twice every week. It lasted but a short time. There did not seem to be any co-operation between the superintendents and the visiting physicians. We have from thirty-five to forty thousand children in the public schools. The Board of Health has two nurses examining the children. You can figure how long it will take them to examine thirty-five thousand children. I am not of the opinion that the Board of Health should supply to the Board of Education nurses and physicians to examine the children. I believe that the Board of Education should employ physicians to do this work and pay them reasonable salaries. Nurses have to do this work, under the present system, detailed from the Board of Health. The children have to be examined for troubles of the head, the eyes, the nose, the throat, the skin, the tonsils, eczema, etc. These nurses have in several instances sent children home with scarlet fever or measles. I have heard criticisms as to the correctness of the diagnosis of the nurses. I do not think there is any doctor who is always correct, but the nurse is not trained for this sort of thing, though she may be able and capable in the work in which she was trained. I doubt whether this city will ever come to the time when it will give the Board of Education money enough and will let it hire enough physicians to do their work properly, and enough nurses to do their particular part. I have sometimes thought, from the way they talk at city hall, that cities are poorer than the poorest pauper they take care of; poorer than the poorest children they take care of. Mr. Snyder should have the money for trained physicians and the Board of Education should supervise them. The physicians would then be in a position to do more work and to give lectures on hygiene and other subjects to the teachers. The children could be taught hygiene and the best method of living, and how to keep clean, and how to look after their health. Down in our lower section, among the Italians, I have several times come across children who were sewed up at the beginning of winter, to be kept in the same clothing until spring. That occurs among them constantly.

The other day an Italian girl of thirteen or fourteen left school to be married. One reason I am in favor of having the Board of Education have the control of the school nurses and physicians is that there would then be no conflict of authority. On one or two occasions the nurses of Jersey City have had trouble. One principle did not want to recognize them at all, and another objected because the nurses were willing to take the children to the city hospital for treatment. If the parents are satisfied we transfer them to the city hospital and the treatment or operations, if necessary, are made. I do not advocate that the children of the wealthier classes should be taken to the hospital, or be treated by nurses or physicians. They should be sent to the family physicians. There is nothing else to do. In the matter of hygiene in the school room we are improving in Jersey City. There was a room where the children had to sit all day with the gas burning, but that has been remedied. I think every one objects to the old-fashioned method of having the children's outside clothing all in one coat room. It is one of the best ways of spreading disease. In the new schools this has been taken care of by separating, as far as possible, the outside clothing of the children.

DR. JOSEPH M. RECTOR (of Jersey City)—*Mr. Chairman, Members of the Society and Invited Guests:* In reply to the most excellent paper of Dr. Jacobson, it seems reasonable to tell you that it is not possible to establish any general set of rules that will be applicable for the medical inspection of the public school in every community. We can only place before you certain fundamental principles which have long since received the recognition of hygienic bodies and medical assemblies, and allow the working out of these primary facts to the peculiar need of each individual district.

The reason for this will be readily seen when you consider that each and every community are subject to many and various requirements, and to meet these many necessities we must fashion a system which will be in harmony with the special needs and circumstances of its surroundings.

The Doctor is correct in saying that educators and physicians recognize the value of medical inspection for the discovery

and elimination of communicable diseases and the complete examination of a child for organic disease, but he must remember that in doing so he must recommend an economical system as well as one which will be thorough; his position as now stated, is an ideal one, but the expense for carrying it out would be far beyond the reach of the average community.

Daily inspections should be made of all children if we would prevent the early and rapid spread of an existing contagion. The doctor will agree with me that the physician is the only one capable of making a thorough examination, but, where is the Board of Education that will supply the sufficient number of physicians.

It is nonsense for a Board of Health to expect the ordinary nurse to be capable of determining the exclusion of children for such conditions as they know little or nothing about. I am not criticising the trained or district nurse when employed in her proper sphere, and I commend the district nurses of this city, as I am of the opinion that they do excellent work with the means at their disposal, but their education does not lead them in these channels and their training has no such end in view. The nurse is taught to obey, intelligently, the suggestions of the physician, to render immediate aid in cases of emergency, and to be able to skilfully manage and nurse every case of illness that may be given to her charge. The district nurse, in addition to her usual training, must be capable of meeting the exigencies of the city's poor. It must not be forgotten that in the exclusion of a child we must contend with the family and the family physician, and the making of repeated errors will cause a conflict, small at first, but one which may result in grave proportions.

There is no one who can tell us so quickly any unusual condition in a child as a teacher. The teacher is accustomed to the looks of the child, day by day, and when there is a change in appearance the teacher is the first one to notice it, and it should be her duty to isolate the child at once, pending the supervision of some one better qualified.

I would recommend to the doctor the possibility of adding one more subject to the Training School Course. It does not seem to me that the young ladies would object to one more study;

they should be delighted to know that they could absorb this branch of medicine or hygiene. If the training school pupil should be taught the first evidences of the ordinary diseases, as we find them in the usual collection of school children, we would then see a difference in the spread of contagion and remedial diseases.

The success in preventing contagion in most cases depends upon the early recognition of the disease, so one can easily see that the inspection of children two or three times a week is not sufficient. There is no time to lose in the controlling of an epidemic, and every day lost in the beginning means a harder problem in the end. There is no more economical way to prevent the spread of disease and no earlier method of recognition than to cause the teacher to be educated in the early signs of disease and to bestow upon her the power of immediate quarantine.

A complete examination of every child at the beginning of school life should be an absolute requirement, and any serious defect should debar the child from school until such defect has been corrected.

I cannot agree with Dr. Jacobson, that we should have specialists and a large crop of nurses, nor that we should attempt to treat or manage any of the troubles that develop after the child has become a member of a public school. It is not in our jurisdiction to instruct the parent how the child should be taken care of after the defect has been found, our jurisdiction should end when we have found the defect, except in the case of the poor child. We would be interfering with the rights and prerogatives of the practising physician. All such treatments should be left to the parent or guardian and under the advice of the family physician.

It would be proper to have the authority for re-examination at such intervals as is found necessary.

We should not interfere in the hygienic questions of housing children, unless requested to do so by such board or society as may ask for our consultation or advice. It is not to be forgotten that our aim is medical inspection only, and for the simple

purpose of discovery and elimination of communicable disease, but not for their future treatment.

To accomplish such inspection there must be a medical department, with a medical supervisor at its head. He must have a sufficient number of well-paid medical examiners, men well trained in this class of work, also suitably trained nurses, whose duty shall be the assisting of the medical examiners, the instructing and caring for the city's poor and the carrying out of the medical examiner's orders.

Such supervision cannot be properly carried out while we are hampered by any board otherwise than the board to whom we are responsible.

The doctor is wrong in saying that the supervision should be subordinate to the Superintendent of Education. These are conditions which do not concern the superintendent, except in a general way. The superintendent is not capable of making the necessary medical rules, his previous training has not been subject to such educational conditions, nor as such should he be given the power to dictate how the Medical Department of Inspection should be managed. As he is the head of the Educational Department, so should the medical supervisor be at the head of the Medical Department, while both in turn be amenable to the Board of Education, their common head.

The Board of Health should not dictate to the Board of Education except in matters which are detrimental to the general public health, or, when such health laws are in danger of, or are being violated. The exclusion of children should rest with the Medical Department, whose rules and regulations must be consistent with those of the Board of Health so far as they relate to infectious or contagious diseases.

In order to reach this goal, we must proceed to the enactment of laws which will accomplish our purpose. Such laws must be carefully framed, they must be beyond the control of politics. We must be in a position to appoint men who can execute these laws, and not be compelled to accept men who know nothing of the existing conditions and who are not in sympathy with their proper execution.

When men are placed over us, and laws are made by legislators who are ignorant of what should be done, then are we in a worse predicament than at present.

The time has come when the physician must go before the Legislature in order to obtain such requirements as shall be necessary, and that means he must put his shoulder to the wheel; that he must ask, if he would receive.

Medical supervision should not be considered a form of charity. When an educated physician spends his time in serving the city or State, he should receive suitable remuneration in return.

The physician should not be chosen because of his special surgical or medical abilities, but he who is best fitted to assume the duties peculiar to these requirements. His remuneration must be proportionate to his dignity and his appointment protected from political removal to its fullest extent.

Until the body politic is made to recognize these necessities and some similar organization is obtained, our medical inspection in the public school will continue in the same ridiculous fashion.

MR. SNYDER—The doctor can say that with propriety because he and Dr. Brinkerhoff gave their services practically free of charge. We enlisted the sympathy of the Board of Health at a time when the funds were insufficient and the salary of the city physicians was very small. The work done by these gentlemen, while required, was practically gratuitous so far as compensation was concerned. I testify with great pleasure to the work which they did at that time, even although they speak so disparagingly of it. I think it was very valuable to us.

Another gentleman who helped us acted as a volunteer. He examined the eyes of hundreds of children without cost to us, and I know from many cases to which my attention was called that he was of great service. He will speak to us next, Dr. WALLACE PYLE.

DR. PYLE—I believe fully in everything that Dr. Jacobson has said and if it were not for the money, we could institute here such a system as he has outlined. The subject has long

been a favorite one of mine, especially with reference to the ears, eyes, noses and throats, but of all the examinations that can be made in school I think those of the eyes will secure the most benefit in the least time and for the least amount of money. Ten or twelve years ago, in Boston, they found that from thirty to thirty-five per cent. of the school children suffered from defective vision. They have had medical examinations for ten years and in the last year the reports show that the children with defective vision are only one-half of one per cent. We cannot get away from this remarkabl showing. By the correction of these defects the children do not have to twist and turn to see their books and blackboards or to take positions which will lead to curvature of the spine. They are decidedly improved. It is a well-known fact that children and adults who are near-sighted, or astigmatic, are apt to be sullen and morose because they cannot discern the facial changes of the people to whom they talk. Many a child has been unjustly reproved for inattention when in reality he cannot see things as the other children do. I believe that the efficiency of the teacher will be greatly improved by the proper correction of the defects in the eyes of the children. They must be corrected so that they have normal vision. The highest ideals of medical supervision and sanitation cannot be brought about until the important subdivision of the subject is brought about. It has been proved to me that the defects of children's eyesight is often overlooked at home through ignorance; and in school by the inability of the teacher to give each child the individual attention necessary; and by the children themselves because they do not know what the word should look like, never having seen it with a pair of normal eyes. The average layman does not appreciate that a cross-eyed child suffers any inconvenience except from the facial disfigurement and the nagging of the other children. But it is an interesting fact to know that the eye which converges towards its fellow virtually loses its sight until after six months to a year, the full power is diminished. If these examinations were made and the eyes were treated, and then the child returned to school, many a useful eye would be saved for use which would otherwise be lost. It is incomprehensible why a body of educated men, such

as we have on our boards of education, allow these mistakes to continue and to add to the children's misfortunes by increasing the amount of home work. In our own city, as compared with New York, the amount of infectious disease of the eye called trachoma is very small. In New York in one school there were seventeen per cent. of the children found to have this disease. They were excluded, required to have treatment, and returned to the school. Within the last year the percentage has diminished to two and a half.

The majority of our poor children are incompletely clothed and shod, strangers to clean clothes and cold baths, and as a consequence their eyes and noses are running most of the time. The treatment of a running ear requires some time, and while it may be correct to exclude these children according to the rules, it seems to me that this is unnecessary. Yet it is of so much importance that these running ears be stopped as soon as possible that I think every child should have a notification sent to his house requiring the father of such children to have them treated.

The habit of mouth breathing is very easily discerned. The open mouth of the child, the flat nose the stupid expression on the face, are all evidence of the obstruction of the nasal passages, and there is usually a nasal twang. The results of treatment are marvellous, and I cannot say enough foor the two young ladies who are doing a scientific work on the subject in our public school. They bring to our clinics, twice a week, from eight to ten children in absolute need of operation for the benefit of their health. Some years ago Dr. Durgan reported nine thousand children, of whom forty-five per cent. were afflicted with some aural or respiratory disturbances, and when you realize that a great many of these troubles are accompanied by inability to breathe easily through their noses, you can see how serious it is

I agree that we should have a medical man on every board of education. He should advise and oversee the medical inspection. That work must be in harmony with the rest of the school work or little will be accomplished. From what I have seen of the physical culture exercises in school I believe they are de-

ficient. Ten to twenty minutes a week is not enough. I think every child should have thirty minutes of some form of physical culture or calisthenics exercise to broaden the chest, to draw in fresh air and strengthen his body to resist disease.

Some of the cities in which there has been but little money for medical care and nurses, the medical inspection has been carried on by the teachers. This plan was submitted to our board of education and rejected. One of the newspapers ridiculed the statement that every child's eyes should be examined once a year, but I believe the time has come when all physicians, educators, and even the newspapers appreciate the necessities of this movement. I hope within the next few years that Jersey City will be able to have something done in this way, although it cannot be complete because of our financial depression. In several of the States examinations of the children's eyes are made by some simple tests. The results have been wonderful, and I am sure that if such a system could be instituted here, we should have just as much benefit.

Mr. SNYDER next introduced Dr. A. D. POLAND, Superintendent of Schools in Newark.

A. B. POLAND, PH. D. (of Newark)—The general question of the need of medical supervision of schools has long since passed the academic stage of debate; the absolute need of some kind of medical supervision is now almost universally conceded. The question, therefore, is not "Shall we have medical supervision of schools," but "What shall be the nature and extent of this medical supervision, and by whom shall it be conducted?" Dr. Jacobson's admirable paper touches the high-water mark of the best current thought and practice. New York, Boston, and several other cities have made great progress already in the direction of medical examination and oversight of pupils in the schools. In New York, at the present time, the question is being debated who shall control the medical inspection of the schools, the board of education or the board of health. There are good reasons on both sides. It is not, however, so important, in my opinion, which board does the work as that the work shall be well done.

Ten years ago, when medical inspection of schools first engaged public attention, it seemed best that it should be undertaken by boards of health in co-operation with boards of education. Now that boards of education have become more familiar with the subject, and less likely, therefore, to make many serious mistakes, it may be best to put the medical supervision of schools in their hands, particularly as they are responsible under the law for the employment of medical inspectors and for the payment of their salaries.

Medical inspection in the city of Newark was inaugurated seven years ago by the appointment of twelve medical inspectors. We have now sixteen medical inspectors, each paid a salary of $400. These inspectors are appointed by the Board of Education, but they are under the immediate direction and control of the Board of Health. They are required to make reports to both Board of Education and Board of Health. Upon the whole, the Newark system has worked well. There has been little or no friction of any kind in our city between the two boards. It is now felt, however, that the supervision of medical inspection is demanding too much of the time of the Health Officer, whose energy must necessarily be largely taken up in the administrative matters of the Board of Health. The daily direction and control of sixteen medical inspectors requires the almost exclusive time of one man. If we are to attempt to extend medical inspection of schools along the several lines recommended by Dr. Jacobson, a head medical inspector, who shall give his whole time to the schools, is a necessity.

There is a weakness in our present law, inasmuch as parents cannot be compelled by the Board of Health or Board of Education to see that pupils excluded from school receive proper medical or surgical treatment. Thus in the case of pediculosis it often becomes necessary to exclude pupils again and again before parents are brought to a sense of their duty. I have in mind, also, a case of adenoids, where the parent was visited by the child's teacher and urged to have an operation performed on the child; the teacher even went so far as to offer to take the child to a free dispensary. The parent objected on the ground that the child was "all right," although as a matter of fact the child

was almost wholly incapacitated from attending school. I am of the opinion that a law should be enacted to compel parents to have the proper treatment given in such cases. Dr. Jacobson's paper has pointed out clearly many other directions in which medical supervision of schools could be extended and made effective.

In my judgment, we are now only at the threshold in the development of medical inspection of schools. The State has assumed what by nature is a parental duty, to wit, the education of the child. For this purpose the child is taken away from his parents for five hours daily for a considerable part of the year. He is under the State's charge while undergoing the process of education. Obviously, it is the duty of the State to see that the child suffers no harm during these years of his tuition. But does not the State owe it to its own prosperity and preservation that the child's body should be trained as well as his mind? It would seem to be a necessary corollary to State education that the child's body should be trained as well as his mind.

In my opinion the medical inspection of school children should include not only, as now, an examination for symptoms of contagious diseases, but an examination of eyes, hearing, breathing, and, in general, as thorough an examination of each child as would ordinarily be made by the family physician.

JOHN J. MULVANEY (of Jersey City)—I believe, and have for years believed, that no amendment to the corporal punishment law shall be necessitated if we have proper, adequate medical inspection of pupils in the schools. The little red school house, with the male teacher, is not so frequent to-day, and many of us who are not educators have become acquainted with the little tricks of the teachers for the regulation of class discipline, the application of which depends upon a close observation of the physical condition of the children in the class room, and upon the theory that the psychic condition of the pupils depends a good deal on their physical condition.

When I was on the Board of Education I had pleasure in attending the lectures given to the girls in the Training School. I remember one point they were taught there—that one way to get on with children was to see that the ventilation of the

room was right. I am convinced that many a child got the rod for being sulky when he really was tired and should have been resting, and that others were punished for mischievous activity when they should have been given pencil and paper to change them from their usual occupation.

I do not believe that the subject of medical inspection should be added to the training school course; nor that the Board of Health ought to have anything to do with medical supervision. Get proper medical officials and pay them adequately. Four hundred dollars a year is not enough. Put the Board of Education in charge, and have the physicians subject to their orders. I would also have the doctors attend the faculty meetings of the schools. That would give the teachers as much information as would be necessary to them, and, better still, would give the doctors a view of the subject with which they are not familiar to-day. It will not accomplish the impossibility of making a doctor out of a teacher, or a psychologist out of a doctor, but it will work out well in practice.

MR. SNYDER—So far as the inauguration of the system is concerned, we have all the law needed. It is ample for establishing medical inspection in any locality. It is not law we need, but public spirit locally exhibited.

The next paper was on:

School and Civic Co-operation in Organized Charity.

BY MISS CORNELIA F. BRADFORD, OF WHITTIER HOUSE, JERSEY CITY.

About ten years ago, when we were endeavoring to start in Jersey City an Organized Aid or Charity Association, and I, with others, was earnest for its formation, so much so that the rooms in Whittier House were placed at the disposal of the public week after week for public meetings for this purpose, several of the workers in other settlements wondered why I should be so interested in charity associations. Some openly

expressed surprise, and asked if I were not a little mixed in my own mind regarding settlement life and charity work? My invariable reply was: "Have you ever lived in a large town and attempted social betterment work in it, in which there was no organized aid association, nothing systematic to which to appeal, nothing organized with which to co-operate?" Of such conditions my friends were ignorant.

The former concept of an organized aid or charity association was that of a methodical, cumbersome, never-varying mechanical human force, doing its work thoroughly but ruthlessly, regardless of souls, hearts and bones. The generators of this force had a way of turning the searchlight of intelligence, but never of love, into the innermost recesses of the hearts and lives of the unfortunates who came their way. Then, after mature deliberation and consideration, this unfortunate would be ticketed, numbered and pigeon-holed, to be brought out when wanted into the glaring light of day. Only relief, pure, cold and simple was considered. Loving fraternalism, never. Modern charity, however, carries with it a new meaning. To define it is difficult. Time broadens definitions and revolutionizes methods. Charity has become broader, more sympathetic, less pugnacious, more co-operative. Its scope has enlarged. It is no longer considered as a relief-giving agency purely. Professor Ellsworth, in Charities and Commons, writes: "Charity is but a name for social help of the weaker members of the community. It is essentially an expression of the group-spirit, of the spirit of social solidarity which strives to fit as many as possible, not simply 'to survive' as Huxley says, but to live well." The chief work of charity is to adjust the social weak to society. Social betterment is the basic stone of the work to-day, of the organized charity worker, the settlement resident, the teacher, the preacher, the doctor, the judge, and all interested in promoting the good of society at large. It is believed as never before, that right here on this beautiful, old earth of ours, love one for another may so build up society that every man may see in the other his brother, because of the divine in him, and right here God too may be seen because God is love. So the old wine is simply being put into the new bottles. Organized charity is but one of the agents for filling

these bottles. Organization at present is in the atmosphere. On every hand are great combinations and "we are learning," says Mr. Glenn, "the disadvantage of isolated action." In union there is strength, in division weakness. If in accumulating there is strength in organizing, then does the converse hold equally true, and in dispensing there is strength in organizing. To give away wisely, to distribute carefully, to discriminate thoughtfully, to judge leniently and justly, require time, thought, advice, counsel, organization, co-operation.

In dealing with all sorts and conditions of men and of subjects, greater knowledge, larger experience, more wisdom is gained from a concensus of opinion than from a one-man opinion. The larger the field, the more varied the work, the greater the need of advice, counsel and assistance. The work of organized charity to-day is a large one, carried on in a multiplicity of ways and of forms. Its not least prominent form is its constructive. In meeting a family, or in dealing with an institution, it assumes that the family is the unit of society and by helping, it may be an individual member of the family, to raise the moral, social and spiritual conditions of the family, it is raising the tone of the community in which the individual or family is found. A new moral individual has been made. A new home life has been constructed. "A new family has been helped out of the slough of degradation, into independent, beautiful life." The work of reconstructing may be slow, but "by all means have the family idea and reclamation emphasized."

This constructive work adapted to the needs and exigencies required, and embracing the individual, the home, the institution, is seen to extend all along the line of organized charity work. Writes Mr. Joseph Lee: "In short, constructive philanthropy seeks to intensify life by promoting activity toward objects at once more definite and more inclusive, objects embracing at first the individual's own future definitely conceived and then the larger whole of the family, and finally of the state. Such is its nature and essence." Love is kind and considerate, and whenever organized charity is animated by the spirit of kindness, of courtesy, of humanity, then is its spirit a co-operative one. Selfishness, jealousy, love of power, rule only in the heart and work

of those who think but of themselves and of the work which they alone are accomplishing. The significance of the phrase, "organized or associated charities," implies banding together, associating with one another. Organized consideration well directed, and supervised co-operation can do much towards revitalizing the world. Not amalgamating all charitable endeavors into one large society to be entirely under the control of a certain person or board, but the associating charities, as it were, the "come, let us reason together" society, for the general good of the community, for the general welfare of the city and the state, for general counseling and helpfulness of every individual charity, this is associated charity. According to Dr. Devine, "If the world-wide desire to help others can once be effectively organized, associated and directed, we shall see the end of half the world's misery. We organize, not because there is too much charity and should be restrained, but because, working in the dark and at cross purposes, their efforts are thrown away and fruitless." Wastefulness in expenditure is uneconomic. Fruitlessness in effort is weakening. In their results they are both painful and futile. Said a young woman to me, some years ago, "I wish you would help me to the names of all the presidents of the King's Daughters circles in Jersey City, for I want to tell my story to every one of them, and may be I shall so move their hearts that I shall receive aid from every one of them, for I tell you, Miss Bradford, I must live, but I don't like to work." I found this woman utterly willing to become a member, if necessary to carry out her purpose, of every church in town. Feigning to have been converted in several, she had already united with three, could talk most glibly of conversion, baptism, denominationalism, and so-called religion. Indeed, in talking with her, one could but feel that here was a case of too much church and too much charity. It seems almost needless to say that later I encountered her in the police court. What else and where else could one expect to find such an all-around impostor. What can be done with one of these sweet-voiced, blue-eyed, light-haired, church-adaptive liars and beggars? If there is no organized charity she may be left alone to extract many things over and over again

from the different churches and King's Daughters circles, she may be left to grow old, in lying, imposition and sin, and a church and a community may be allowed to be robbed and imposed upon because of lack of knowledge. The thing to be done is, through association, prevent the imposition and perhaps reclaim the impostor.

An associated charities office should in many ways resemble a city hospital. At the head of it should be a well-informed, brother-loving, social-bettering man or woman, and every individual going there for treatment should be considered in the light of a patient ill with some disease. The patient himself should be carefully attended to, and also the economic and social environment in which he is situated. To this social-bettering hospital the public should be invited and should feel at liberty to go for consultation, for advice as to the best form of treatment, and from it should go out the pathological advice which would in every way be helpful to the entire community. In this way institutions, churches, schools, the individuals could still carry on charitable work in different forms. As we have said, there are many kinds of charities. The school system is said to be a work of charity. "For he that teacheth another giveth alms to his soul; he clothes the nakedness of his understanding and relieves the wants of his impoverished soul. He, indeed, who governs well leads the blind, but he who teaches gives him eyes." The soul-giving charity does not consist in book pabulum only, and to-day the schools are proving themselves equal to the supplying of nourishment of all kinds. More and more are they becoming social as well as educational centers. Sewing, cooking, domestic economics, industrial and physical training, baths, play grounds, indeed everything that helps to start, build up and develop the educational, physical, ethical, moral, and citizen character of our heterogenous school children, yes, and of their parents as well, are now being carried on by our public schools. Mothers' meetings—would that the fathers had them, also—evening lectures, nurses, doctors and dentists are now included in the regular school hours of the up-to-date school. Schools, too, are now associated with the city libraries. Dr. Henderson, of Chicago,

writes: "There is no logical stopping place in the development of our schools. Mr. Huxley's idea of free education for all citizens from the gutter to the grave is being realized in the United States. In this broader educative work which the schools are undertaking, they are doing it, not simply as schools, but because the school is a department of the State. The State now insists upon it that the child up to twelve and fourteen—would that it were up to sixteen or eighteen—must attend school, that up to this age he must not work during the day hours, though, beginning with this tender age of twelve or fourteen, in some States he may work the entire night through. The State and the municipality are now passing laws and ordinances for better housing conditions, public baths, parks, playgrounds, public gymnasia, pure food, probation officers, attendance officers, parental and defective schools, and vacation schools. All these to-day are considered as essential to good citizenship, and even to the rudiments of educative knowledge. They are believed to broaden the mentally and physically undeveloped citizen, boy and girl. The school, the municipality, the state, are harmonious units, part of one great whole, working for universal betterment, working to adjust the social weak to society. If consideration and love for the children of all ages of the State, is the animus which prompts to this broader education, this higher citizenship, this enlarged concept of life, and if this be the aim of organized charity, then may the civic movements, the school work and organized charity be working in co-operation. Let me now recapitulate, in a series of propositions, the position taken in this paper.

Organized charity is constructive, adaptive and embrasive:

It is basically and inevitably co-operative:

It is more economical and more efficient than indiscriminate and heterogeneous alms-giving:

Communities, cities and States may be administered more economically because of knowledge gained through unified and associated work:

Individuals, churches, schools, municipalities, State, can more efficiently serve humanity when properly organized and working co-operatively, than when acting independently and disjointedly.

It would seem that both the definition and illustration of our subject are to be best found right here in this seventh annual meeting of the New Jersey State Conference of Charities and Corrections. It is being held in this beautiful new public school building, and Mr. Snyder, the able and highly honored Superintendent of Jersey City schools, has, in this Conference, a section on schools. The entire working up of the Conference, so far as local arrangements have been necessary, are due entirely to Miss Anderson, the efficient and indefatigable secretary of our small, but very greatly needed, Jersey City Organized Aid Association. A settlement worker has been asked to present this paper, eminent divines, representative of varying denominations, men of force and of eloquence are representing the church, an able judge has spoken on The Treatment of Crime, a city officer has spoken on The Enforcement of Law, Civil Service has been discussed by one of our State senators, one of our statesmen, Ex-Governor Stokes, has told of The Defectives in our State, and Governor Fort was invoked to outline his views as to "Needed Developments in the State's Institutions." Individuals, schools, church, city, State, co-operating together have been here represented, working for social betterment, for higher citizenship, for associated love.

The last address of the evening was on:

Parental Schools for New Jersey.

BY A. B. MEREDITH, SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, ESSEX COUNTY.

The satisfactory enforcement of the State Compulsory Education Law and of the Child Labor Law requires the establishment of Parental Schools. They should be founded and supported by the State as an integral part of the Public School System. Since the State, by means of special schools, cares for those who, through physical deficiencies, cannot avail themselves of the common school privileges, it ought to make a like provision for those moral deficients who will not avail themselves of the common schools. By the latter we mean habitual truants,

habitual absentees, and incorrigibles. This obligation resting upon the State is both a legal and moral one; see provisions of the State Constitution. "The Legislature shall provide for the maintenance and support of a thorough and efficient system of free public schools for the instruction of all the children in this State between the ages of five and eighteen years."

Inasmuch as all the children of the State are included in this Constitutional provision, those for special consideration here include the following classes of pupils:

1. Habitual truants, 7—14 years of age.

2. Habitual absentees, 14—17 years of age outside of compulsory age limit, but who do not work and who hang about the streets.

3. Incorrigible children, victims of dissolute parents, with no home control and who will become wards of the State unless taken from their environment and given a chance.

What a Parental School is: It is a school of detention but not in the technical sense of that term as used in the New Jersey statutes. It is intermediary between the Day Truant School (or what is coming to be known as the "Probation School"), and the Reform School. The children sent to the Parental School, for sufficient cause are not necessarily school offenders. The school provides a salutary place for those whose home conditions and moral tendencies would eventually lead to dissoluteness and crime. The aim of the Parental School is preventive and constructive. It is a school where the officers and teachers are strictly *"in loco parentis."*

Children sent to such a school are not necessarily criminals but will become so unless cared for. Prior to commitment to a Parental School, the probation system, the special day class, and the delinquent parent act should all be employed to their fullest extent. Taking a child from a home and committing him to institutional care should be the last step. Such a school will be a link in the long chain of formal educational agencies and a step toward the realization of the ideal of making it impossible for a person whatever his condition and whatever his acts to escape an education at the hands of the State.

4. Such schools should be placed in the country on good farms, of thirty or forty or more acres in extent.

5. They should be organized on the cottage plan, with about thirty pupils to a "family."

6. The cottages should have every modern equipment, each with an open dormitory. There should be a proper school building with adequate manual training equipments and with a gymnasium.

7. The pupils should be under constant supervision. They should assist in the care of the houses and grounds.

8. The discipline should be firm but kindly. The formation of proper habits of thinking and of acting should be secured through a living interest in every employment, exercise, and recreation.

What a Parental School is not:

Not a reform school as it is essentially different in principle. Preventive and constructive in character. Punitive idea absent. No guards, high fences, etc.

What has been done in other States; Massachusetts, Illinois, and New York, Newark City Home.

Reasons for such a school:

1. Good of individual, a part of education. Reclaim those afflicted with a moral disease by salutary influences. Take from bad environment. Give a kind of training he especially needs.

Manual training is of primary importance in a parental school. This is the true foundation of a moral character, self-reliant and purposive. The course of study should therefore include manual training, domestic science, drawing. These are in addition to the ordinary school work, which broadly speaking should run parallel with the usual course in the public schools. These schools are for a special class, so that a special course of study will need to be worked out. Provisions should be made for religious instruction.

Child needs physical regeneration through out-door occupation, gardening and gymnastics.

Children of these classes are victims of malnutrition and general physical degeneracy.

2. The good of society demands the establishment of these schools. Towns and cities, when rid of gang leaders, and then gangs, disintegrate. The ordinary school is not suited to their refractory natures, hence they need to be transferred to a special institution as a matter of municipal economy and society relief. False economy to wait until laws are broken, crimes committed, and when it becomes necessary to bring in the expensive machinery of the courts.

The deterrent effect upon others of like inclination is not an inconsiderable factor.

What such schools accomplish:

1. Proper environment for one-sided natures is provided.

2. Leads to a proper education of the will, and to an interest in life and its work.

3. Develops self-control through maintaining and nurturing the self-respect of the child. He is able to go back to a distracting environment and lead an upright life.

4. Gives a boy a chance to catch the spirit of co-operation, which leads him to live harmoniously with his neighbors.

5. Taught lessons of orderliness, cleanliness, and with this the dignity of honest labor.

6. By proper education his whole life is touched because he is put to a whole school, i. e., one which can recognize his many-sided nature.

As in medicine, stress is now laid upon hygienic and prophylactic measures, so that the most important side of this question is that which deals with the positive or formative elements in our public school system.

The greatest problem is to discover and treat the causes of juvenile delinquencies, rather than to refine the special schools of a reformatory nature.

The discussion was opened by Mr. ANDREW J. STEELMAN, Jr., of the Board of Education, Jersey City.

MR. STEELMAN—It is not a charity, it is a practical business that we have in hand, in doing something for those children who are morally deficient. They should have some place of

training, and the children not morally deficient should not be associated with them until they are brought up to the level. I should like to say a word about the Jersey City Board of Education. I believe you have nothing to be ashamed of. We have not the money that some municipalities have. We have a large floating population, a large foreign population, and we have only one man to look after truancy. But that man has done remarkable work. That is one side that I would like to have the Jersey City people know. He made 7,000 personal visits in six months to homes of truants and absentees. Two hundred parents were prosecuted for neglecting to do their duty, and some boys were sent away. We have also an ungraded school, and that is the first step to the parental school. We have an ungraded class, where truants and incorrigibles are taken in hand by a capable young woman; and out of 104 who have been taken there, 67, or over 60 per cent., have been returned to their classes and are doing well. Five had to be sent to the State home. If we had had a parental school where they could have been sent it would have been better. But Jersey City is advancing in the subject of education.

MR. SNYDER—Two weeks ago I received a visit from two of the students of this ungraded class, who came to me because I make the assignments to the ungraded class. The peculiar reason for this visit was their desire to remain in the class. They had been sent there because of incorrigibility, and the principal was so satisfied with them that he was going to send them to the ordinary elementary school; but they were so fond of this class that they wanted permission to stay. I thought that was rather complimentary to the teacher, and that it indicated good methods in handling the boys.

It is too late to discuss Miss Connelly's paper, but I want to give notice that if the question is ever raised as to whether the law forbidding corporal punishment shall be repealed I want to be counted on the negative side. I want to protest against the repeal of that law. The drift of the discussion seems so much in favor of severity in punishment that I want to be recorded as a reactionary against that sentiment.

I want to say also that some one should call the attention of those present to the remarkable skill with which this whole Conference has been conducted. I do not refer only to the exercises of the evening. I refer to all the sessions of the Conference. I believe Father Foy deserves the heartiest congratulations. I want to express my appreciation of his excellent management, and say that I congratulate him heartily. Furthermore, I desire to thank those who have participated in the discussions of this evening.

PRESIDENT FOY—We have reached the closing point of the Seventh New Jersey Conference of Charities and Corrections, in some respects the most successful one that has yet been held. If the hours have been long, it is because more matter has been crowded into the work than in any previous Conference. It is to your credit that you have maintained your interest in this long and somewhat fatiguing meeting.

The Executive Committee handed up a paper earlier this evening, but it was given to the newspapers. The substance of it was this: That in as much as the rules of the Conference prohibit resolutions, no resolutions are offered, but thanks are due to those who are responsible for the work of the Conference, to all those who have contributed to make it a success; to those who have furnished the subject matter from the platform; for the addresses, and those who have responded to the addresses so acceptably; to the Board of Education, who received us with open arms when we were in sad stress for a suitable place to hold this Conference. We did not realize that there was such a beautiful building as this High School in Jersey City. We know that it has interfered with the school work to have our sessions here, but nevertheless the offer was extended to us, and the principal, Mr. Hopkins, has adapted himself to this inconvenience. The Board of Education, and Mr. Snyder and Mr. Hopkins deserve our gratitude for the gracious manner in which they have treated us from the beginning. Our thanks are due also to the local committee for its strenuous and arduous work. Never before has so much work been done for a Conference at such odds.

Our thanks are especially due to Mr. Van Winkle and Miss Anderson who have directed the local work, and to Miss McNaughton, for her great assistance; to Mr. Tennant, Mr. Dear, Mr. Stevens and Mr. Butler, and to other citizens who have contributed in various ways to the local work.

In Mrs. Jacobson who has been elected, we shall have an ideal president. It was thought proper to give the office for the next year to a woman. Mrs. Williamson was the first woman to receive it, and now after several years it goes in proper order to Mrs. Jacobson. It would be hard to select adjectives to properly describe what she has contributed to the organization, the preparation and the work of this Conference. It has been the labor of weeks and months on her part, almost single handed. I and the committees have been in conference with her, but the practical work has been done by her. She was able to do it so well, because she knows the conditions and the problems of this State, and she knows those who are interested in these problems. It was she who selected the lists which resulted in such a fine gathering of out-of-town members. We owe her the greatest praise and the warmest thanks, more than to any other officer of the Conference. It was a worthy and gracious act to confer upon her the honor of being the next president.

This has been a good Conference, but you do not realize it now as much as you will later, when you have assimilated the thoughts here presented, and when you read them in the volume of proceedings which will be sent to everyone who has registered as a member of the Conference. The printed proceedings will show that we are making progress along many lines, and that the Conference is unifying the social activities of the State in a way that is bound to result in the greatest good to all the people. The Seventh Annual Conference stands adjourned.

Registration.

Total number of different persons who registered,		477
From Jersey City,	254	
From Newark,	43	
From Hoboken,	25	
From Oranges,	27	
From New York,	20	
From Trenton,	17	
From Bayonne,	10	
From Plainfield,	10	
From Paterson,	8	
From Elizabeth,	7	
From Passaic,	4	
From Englewood,	4	
From Arlington,	4	
From Nutley,	3	
From Madison,	4	
From Rahway,	3	
From Kearney,	2	
From Cliffside,	2	
From Summit,	2	
From Vineland,	2	
From West New York,	2	
From Jamesburg,	2	
From Bloomfield,	2	
From Brooklyn,	2	
From Verona, Princeton, New Brunswick, Berlin, Newton Centre, Somerville, Springfield, Weehawken, Montclair, Piscataway, Wrightstown, Atlantic City, Bernardsville, Grenloch, Boston, Massachusetts, Metuchen, Secaucus and Morris Plains, one each,	18	
		477
C. O. S. secretaries,		8
C. O. S. workers,		52
Delegates from Children's Aid and S. P. C. C.,		20
Delegates from Visiting Nurse Association,		8
Almshouse superintendents,		4
Bloomfield, Piscataway, Newark and Secaucus.		
Overseers,		3
Jersey City, Plainfield and Newark.		
Clergymen,		29
Delegates from the churches,		38
Settlement workers,		10
Probation officers,		7
Union, Hudson and Essex counties.		

Prison wardens,	2
Essex county and Trenton.	
Factory inspectors,	3
Delegates from children's homes,	18
Delegates from State Consumers' League,	1
Delegates from Association for the Blind,	4
Delegates from rescue homes,	11
Delegates from New Jersey Legal Aid,	1
Delegates from civil service,,	5
Delegates from State Home for Girls,	4
Delegates from State Home for Boys,	2
Delegates from Y. M. C. A.,	1
Delegates from Y. W. C. A.,	12
Delegates from woman's clubs,	44
Delegates from State Soldiers' Home,	2
Delegates from homes for the aged,	9
Delegates from Newark City Home,	1
Delegates from State Reformatory,	1
Delegates from labor unions,	4
Delegates from W. C. T. U.,	3
Delegates from hospitals,	14
Delegates from St. Vincent de Paul Society,	7
Delegates from day nurseries,	8
Delegates from State Board of Children's Guardians,	9
Board of Health officers,	8

Treasurer's Report.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE NEW JERSEY CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS FOR 1908.

Wm. J. Day, Elizabeth,	$1 00
Mrs. S. Clark, 173 Clinton Ave., Newark,	1 00
Rev. F. A. Foy, Nutley, N. J.,	10 00
Cook & Genung Co., Newark,	1 00
Wm. H. Barnett, Newark,	5 00
Franz J. Beyer, 1175 Broad St., Newark,	5 00
C. F. Currie, Grenloch, N. J.,	1 00
James S. Higsbie, P. O. Box 23, Newark, N. J.,	5 00
Frances Day, 237 Grove St., J. C.,	2 00
Rev. D. S. Hamilton, Paterson,	2 00
Mary B. P. Garnett, 509 River St., Hoboken,	5 00
Mary G. Hawkes, Summit,	3 00
Mr. Geo. Jagle, 30 E. Kinney St., Newark,	1 00
Wm. Lanning, Trenton, N. J.,	1 00
Wilson Farrand, South Orange,	5 00

Mrs. Emma Earles, 16 Webster St., Newark,	$1 00
Geo. F. Herbert, New Lisbon, N. J.,	2 00
Miss K. P. Duncan, 50 Park Place, Newark,	2 00
Mrs. Alex. Milne, 47 Spruce St., Newark,	1 50
Friend, Paterson,	1 00
Geo. C. Maddock, Trenton,	1 00
Mrs. E. P. Denison, 150 Belleville Ave., Newark,	1 00
Mrs. C. B. Alexander, Castle Point, Hoboken,	43 00
Miss N. Holman, 12 Academy St., Newark,	1 00
Alex. C. Humphreys, Stevens Inst., Hoboken,	5 00
Carl Heller, Verona,	1 00
M. B. Dutcher, 39 Park St., Westfield,	1 00
Walter Kidde, 10 Union St., Montclair,	3 00
Bishop Edwin S. Lines, Newark,	5 00
C. E. Bertholf, 367 Washington St., Newark,	50
Miss M. C. Brown, 160 Monmouth St., Newark,	1 00
J. D. Miller, Plainfield,	2 00
Rt. Rev. Jas. A. McFaul, Trenton,	10 00
Mrs. F. H. Kelling, Rutherford Ave., Plainfield,	1 00
James Wrightson, 25 Walnut St., Newark,	2 00
Miss Edith Waller, 35 Tompkins St., Orange,	1 00
Geo. W. King, Secaucus, N. J.,	10 00
Adaline A. Buffington, 26 Grove St., Madison,	50
Ella H. Mellick, Plainfield,	1 00
Rev. A. H. Bradford, Montclair,	1 50
Mrs. H. G. McCully, 1 Fuller Ter., Orange,	1 00
Rt. Rev. J. J. O'Connor, D. D., South Orange,	5 00
Mr. J. C. Pumpelly, 2881 Broadway, New York,	5 00
Rev. John H. Fox, Trenton,	1 00
Peter Quackenbush, Paterson,	10 00
Geo. Osborne, Trenton,	5 00
Mrs. E. A. Ransom, Jr., 82 Prescott St., Jersey City,	2 00
W. H. Yeomans, 147 Warren St., Paterson,	2 00
Miss J. Conover, 10 Bayard Lane, Princeton,	1 00
J. A. Lane, Plainfield,	1 00
Matilda V. Leary, 523 Scotland St., Orange,	1 00
A. C. Aborn, 562 Park Ave., East Orange,	5 00
Rt. Rev. John A. Sheppard, V. G., Jersey City,	5 00
Benjamin Atha, Newark,	10 00
Andrew J. Gavett, Plainfield,	1 00
Hugh F. Fox, 49 Water St., New York,	10 00
Rev. Thos. J. Moran, Arlington,	5 00
James A. Butler, 89 Magnolia Ave., Jersey City,	2 00
Frank D. Loomis, 10 Academy St., Newark,	1 00
John E. Taylor, 40 McCullough Ave., Morristown,	2 00
F. H. Schielke, 61 Pearl St., Paterson,	1 00
Mrs. F. J. Swayze, 765 High St., Newark,	1 00
Mrs. Robert Spencer, 10 Lawn Ridge, Orange,	1 00
Friend,	1 00

Rabbi Nathan Wolf, 254 N. 7th St., Hoboken,	$2 00
Mrs. Franklin Phillips, 539 Mt. Prospect Ave., Newark,	1 00
Rev. Henry R. Rose, Newark,	2 00
B. Van D. Hedges, Plainfield,	2 00
Miss Josephine Kremm, Court House, Elizabeth,	1 00
Rt. Rev. J. A. Stafford, Jersey City,	5 00
Rev. Edward G. Read, Somerville, N. J.,	1 00
Rev. M. T. Lamb, Supt. N. J. Children's Home, Trenton,	1 00
Misses Tweedy, 125 Crescent Ave., Plainfield,	3 00
King's Daughters Circle of the Silver Cross, Mrs. T. W. Conover, treasurer, Newark,	2 00
Miss Jennie K. Hoover, 142 Carrol St., Paterson,	1 00
Rabbi Solomon Foster, Newark,	1 00
Rev. Aloys M. Fish, Trenton,	1 00
Mrs. H. Worms, 216 Van Houten St., Paterson,	1 00
Geo. A. Vail, 100 Prospect St., East Orange,	2 00
Louis Bamberger, Newark,	5 00
Harry K. Straley, parole agent, Trenton,	1 00
Chas. A. Rosenwasser, M. D., 214 S. 6th St., Newark,	1 00
Alfred F. Skinner, Prudential Building, Newark,	5 00
Miss L. M. Lindsley, 115 Washington St., East Orange,	1 00
Mrs. G. W. B. Cushing, East Orange,	2 00
J. Moore White, probation officer, Camden,	2 00
L. Dennis, M. D., Evanston Junction, Pasadena, Cal.,	5 00
J. Wm. Clarke, 346 Mt. Prospect Ave., Newark,	5 00
Mrs. Dexter Tiffany, 125 Crescent Ave., Plainfield,	5 00
Maxmilian P. Grozmann, Plainfield,	2 00
Mrs. E. E. Williamson, Elizabeth,	40 85
Julia Bronis, 270 Tremont Ave., Orange,	1 00
Miss M. J. Conklin, 313 Summer Ave., Newark,	1 00
Dr. Hicks, 425 South Orange Ave., Newark,	5 00
Mrs. J. F. Goertz, Treasurer Altruist Society, Montclair,	2 00
Richard Stevens, 1 Newark St., Hoboken,	25 00
Franklin Murphy, Newark,	15 00
	$375 85

DISBURSEMENTS OF CONTRIBUTIONS OF NEW JERSEY CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS FOR FEBRUARY, 1908.

		Balance due Mrs. F. C. Jacobson from 1907 Conference,	$13 04
Jan.	24.	Stamps, Mrs. F. C. Jacobson, Secretary,	40 00
		Printing, Modern Printing Co., clasp envelopes,	2 00
Feb.	6.	Printing, John L. Murphy Publishing Co., Trenton, reprints of Review,	9 50
	7.	Printing, Oliver Typewriter, sets of paper and envelopes,	47 15
		Printing, Brant & Borden, appeals, envelopes, etc.,	12 75
		Stamps for 1,000 letters, typewriter ribbon, addressing envelopes, Treasurer,	23 00

Feb.	25.	Printing, Oliver Typewriter Co.,	$16 00
		Modern Printing Co., printing letter heads and programs,	95 50
Feb.	28.	Postage (incidental),	6 96
Mar.	6.	Expenses for out-of-town speaker,	20 00
	8.	Mrs. P. A. Sharpley, stenographic services for Mrs. F. C. Jacobson, Secretary,	2 00
		Telephone calls during year,	9 95
		Stenographer (Mrs. Jacobson's use),	3 00
		Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows, official stenographer, reporting proceedings,	75 00
			$375 85

JOHN A. CULLEN,

Treasurer New Jersey Conference of Charities and Corrections.

March 7th, 1908.

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