SOCIAL SERVICE IN THE SOUTH

Observations and Suggestions by the General Secretary

of the National Conference of Charities and Correction

315 Plymouth Court
Chicago, Apr.7,1917.

To the Executive Committee of the Conference
and the Co-operating Committee of Southern Members:

It seems to be appropriate that a simple report and record of my circuit of southern states during November and the first half of December 1916 should be furnished you. The occasion was used to extent the knowledge of the National Conference in southern communities, as was apparently the desire of the Committee in planning the itinerary. It was undertaken, however, not in the spirit of publicity, but with the purpose of assisting in the development of social work in the South. The occasion was a revelation to me of the opportunities for modern forms of humanitarian service which the South affords, and of the unique service which the National Conference may render, as stimulator and guide of developments there.

Committee of Southern Members

Most of the success of this tour, which was made by me under considerable handicap, was due to the whole-hearted response of public-spirited men and women in the cities visited. The committee on arrangements consisted of a group that were named as the outcome of a meeting of southern delegates at the National Conference at Indianapolis last May. They were: Joseph C. Logan, Atlanta, chairman; Miss Margaret Laing and A. L. Johnstone, Columbia; Mrs. Georgia May

Jobson, Richmond; Miss Frances Ingram, Louisville, V.S.Woodward, Charlotte; Mrs. Benjamin West, Memphis; R.F.Hudson, Chattanooga; M.A.Auerbach, Little Rock; Julius Goldman, New Orleans; J.B.Rawlings, Fort Worth; Miss Sadie Gober, Jackson; Mrs.W.L.Murdoch, Birmingham; Marcus C. Fagg, Jacksonville.

Under the guidance of this group, I left Chicago on the evening of November 10 and was in the South constantly until December 21. The direction of my circuitous journey can be likened to no other letter than a Spencerian capital "G", beginning at Nashville, running into the Carolinas and Virginia, then back again to Jacksonville, and out through the western South, winding up at St.Louis. I passed through every state of the South, and had appointments in nearly every one of them. The expenses of the trip were borne almost entirely by the communities visited.

Brief mention of the places visited and the circumstances of each stop is made in an addendum to this report. A cursory account for popular reading was published in the Social Service Review of March 1917.

State Supervisory Boards

State boards of charities and corrections have been discussed at length in the Social Service Review article. On account of the historical relationships of the National Conference to this subject, I have assumed it to be an especial duty and opportunity to support the efforts of interested citizens in the states visited to have established, or to enlarge the powers of, such boards. The most definite

action I have taken has been to assist in preparing a bill to establish a state board which has been enacted into law in Arkansas. The North Carolina board has had its powers increased and its name changed to "State Board of Charities and Public Welfare". It will undoubtedly be of advantage for southern members of the Conference to encourage the attendance at our annual meetings of representatives of recently created boards, and of leaders in the campaigns to create such bodies in states where they do not exist.

Progress of Cities

The service of municipalities in the field of charities and correction I found to be central in the newer social movement in the South. An example, fruitful in suggestion, is the recent formation, in an emergency, of the city-county bureau of charities at Nashville. Many cities in the South are yet in the thralldom of old fashioned politics. But whatever their stages of advancement, the value of efficient, preventive treatment of municipal problems is impressing people. Witness Jacksonville's assignment to the Associated Charities of the treatment of relief cases; and arrangement with that organization for the employment of a Negro supervisor. Charleston has, in the absence of a juvenile court, an impromptu probation system. At Norfolk and Richmond, I addressed groups which included public officials authorized to act on the matter, concerning the establishment of municipal penal farms. New Orleans is an example of a city that is struggling toward the newer ideal - with its juvenile court, its overcrowded psychopathic hospital as a part of the workhouse, its unsupervised playgrounds, etc. I have referred, in the Social Service Review article, to two examples of what I consider the

most fully-fledged of municipal efforts, in Dallas and Houston. This general situation in the South calls for a continuance of effort at meetings of the National Conference to formulate standards for municipal welfare work.

The C.O.S. and Related Movements

Charity organization societies have been the central units in the welfare programs of many of the cities visited. Southern societies of this type constitute eighteen per cent. of those listed in the directory published by the American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity, whereas, on the basis of general population one would expect them to make up thirty-five per cent. Yet in view of the small and recent beginning of the movement there, this showing is quite encouraging. Furthermore, one would not expect so high a percentage of charity organization societies in the South because of the greater rural population of the region. In a few cities the directing authorities of these societies do not appear to be practicing the principles of thoroughgoing family rehabilitation work; however, a more general deficiency seems to be a backwardness in the public conception of modern relief measures. Right ideas of the matter, however, prevail in an encouraging number of places. The support of Associated Charities by progressive business men in these cities is one of the most promising features of the present situation. On the side of professional service, the demand for trained case workers seems to exceed the supply.

Central councils of social agencies have been established in a

few cities. This movement toward federation is going forward not without hesitation, however. In Texas cities, there is a leaning toward union for financial purposes. As for southern cities in general, I believe expert study of individual communities followed by advice on this question would be beneficial in all cases. Of scarcely secondary value would be a thorough discussion of the principles involved, at the meetings of the National Conference.

The evils of the public outdoor relief system of cities and counties of the South have counterparts in other regions. Nevertheless, the scheme of pauper pensions in vogue almost everywhere south of the Mason and Dixon Line has many pernicious results, affecting other problems than that of poverty. At this juncture, when modern methods of social work are gaining support, it would be especially beneficial through investigation and discussion to clear up this irritating situation of public relief in the home.

The passing-on of beggars and applicants for aid is a general nuisance in the South. At a conference of mayors of southern cities held at Jacksonville in 1916 a movement was launched against the practice. Ordinances have since been enacted by several cities in that region to prohibit passing-on. The list of southern signers of the Transportation Agreement, administered by this National Conference, has grown greatly of late, numbering now one hundred sixty-nine.

A corresponding evil is that of solicitation by questionable charities. The practice flourishes as much, perhaps, for lack of a critical public as through scarcity of central endorsing or certifying agen-

cies in the various communities. For this reason the discussions of the charities endorsement group at meetings of the National Conference should be particularly profitable to southern delegates. That this situation concerns the rest of the country, too, is shown by appeals sent out on behalf of fake industrial schools and other benevolences.

Organization and Training of Social Workers.

There are social workers' clubs in several southern states. A few of them held their initial meetings at the time of my visit. These offer opportunity for a limited amount of discussion of methods of social work. Their chief value, however, lies in other features. There are state conferences in all southern states but one, most of them having been organized quite recently. These are essential units in the system that is fast changing the aspcet of social service in the south. The state conference platform offers the best possible opportunity for widespread, dispassionate discussion of charitable and correctional methods, and of reform measures - specifically and on their merits. Only a few of the southern conferences are full-fledged and vigorous, however. At this period it is especially important that they have the encouragement of the National Conference and of movements that cluster about it.

A dearth of trained social workers was evident in most of the communities I visited. Opportunities for service in this region probably surpass those of other parts of the country. While many positions carry attractive salaries, for the most part the rate of pay is not high. The lack of specially qualified workers in some instances may be due partly to the requirement that local men and women

be employed. Study classes have been started in a number of cities. In New Orleans, Houston, and Dallas there are schools of civics, and in other cities there are prospects of early organization of similar arrangements for special training. An inevitable obstacle everywhere, however, is the scarcity of facilities for standard field study and training in case work, under reliable supervision. The teaching of sociology in colleges and universities is a matter of primary importance in the development of social work in the South. A survey of this situation is being made, upon my suggestion, by Prof.L.L.Bernard of the University of Missouri. An adaptation of National Conference discussions of education for social work to conditions in the South would therefore be very helpful. Another step that would be of assistance would be a concerted movement among southern social workers, to make the most of their present field training possibilities, and to draw upon both their own leaders and outsiders for organized courses.

Institutions. Importance of the Church

Many noted charitable and penal institutions are to be found in the South. This is true especially where medical science and public health are involved. But one may observe in most of these states a lack of public attention to the needs of their institutions,- indeed, of general conception of the standards of administration of modern institutions. The cause is evident. The people have not had, except recently in a few states, a continuing leadership and educational stimulus in this field, such as is exercised elsewhere by central supervisory boards of charities and corrections. I believe that that group in

the National Conference which is most interested in this subject would do a great service by giving especial attention to questions of institution administration in the South. Women's clubs and other groups in several localities were found to be eager to learn of the best methods of management of institutions in order that their criticisms and suggestions might be made specific and helpful. An increase of attention to this problem would doubtless result in larger appropriations to public institutions, which seems to be a universal need.

The religious connections of social service are remarkably strong in the South. Some of the most effective appeals on behalf of humanitarian projects that one hears are made from the pulpit. The first-year curriculum of the Dallas School of Civics and Philanthropy contains a course on "The Social Significance of the Scriptures". The lectures are given by representatives of Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish churches. The sectarian antagonisms that not infrequently obstruct community welfare movements appear to be based more frequently on misconceptions of the nature and requirements of modern social service than upon lack of harmony between churches. The National Conference may, therefore, be of great usefulness to the South in its discussions in their field.

Legislation. National Conference Viewpoint

The willingness of southern state assemblies to pass social legislation on the basis of authoritative recommendation is unusual. However, with little unification of the welfare efforts of individuals and groups in the various localities the result is erratic and disorganized. "This commonwealth is made up of many petty principalities" is the way

one public official put it. An extreme example is the mass of special local laws in North Carolina, beside which the volume of general statutes appears insignificant. It is of first concern, therefore, that in each state there be built up as soon as possible a body that is able to frame somewhat of a state program for social betterment, and to pass judgment in a fairly authoritative way on the need and practical effects of proposed social legislation. The service of the various divisions of the National Conference in their conclusions concerning legislative standards in respect to their work is proving most helpful.

There is in some parts of the country a fairly definite popular conception of the nature and significance of the modern social welfare movement. The juvenile court, measures making for adequate care of mental defectives, constructive treatment of impoverished families, and many other methods and plans, are knit together. A campaign along one of these lines in any community or state represents simply a local adaptation of measures whose value is general recognized. This viewpoint is not so common in the South, I suspect. The dignity and importance of methodical social effort need to be better appreciated.

At any rate, I think it is the unanimous desire of social workers in the South that the stamp of this "National Conference viewpoint" be impressed more thoroughly upon their constituencies. Not only would it be likely to bear rich fruitage in the improvement of the public administrative practices and legislative devices of cities, counties and states, but it would also affect the action of the thousands of supporters of voluntary philanthropic efforts.

William T. Cross.

APPENDIX

SUMMARY of Appointments.

TENNESSEE: Nashville, Nov.11-12. Arrangements were made by C.C.Menzler, secretary of the State Board of Charities and Corrections, with the assistance of James P.Kranz and others. The time was spent in interviews, inspection of two public institutions and visits to the offices of several social service agencies. Guest of honor at the initial meeting of the Nashville Social Workers' Club. Spoke on public interest in social work. Knoxville, Dec.1. Guest of B.A.Williams, secretary of the Associated Charities. A three hours' stop spent in discussion of community problems; substitute for an earlier arrangement for longer visit with certain public addresses. Chattanooga, Dec.2-3. Arrangements made by R.F.Hudson, secretary of the Associated Charities, and James F.Finlay. Guest at luncheon of business men. Spoke on modern forms of social service.

GEORGIA: Atlanta, Nov.13. Arrangements made by Joseph C.Logan, secretary of the Associated Charities, with assistance of Prof.J.L. McKain, Judge W.W.Tindall, and Hugh M.Willett. Talksat Agnes Scott College, at luncheon of staff of Associated Charities and others, and at second meeting of the Central Council of Social Agencies. At last named, spoke on co-operation of social agencies. Savannah, Nov.16-17. Arrangements made by Miss Helen Cinnamond with assistance of H.B.Skeel, Rabbi George Solomon, and A.Pratt Adams. Visited various institutions. Spoke at meeting of officials and volunteer workers on the subject of community development.

SOUTH CAROLINA: Charleston, Nov.14-15. Arrangements made by Albert Sidney Johnstone, secretary of the State Board of Charities and Corrections, with assistance of Rev.G.K.Finlay, Mrs.Thomas S.Silcox, and others. Spoke at meeting of State Conference of Charities and Correction on "The People and their Institutions". Various interviews. Columbia, Nov.17-18. Arrangements made by Miss Margaret Laing, secretary od the Associated Charities, with assistance of A.D.Olliphant, President J.S.Currell, Dr.Reed Smith, and others. Guest of honor at organization meeting of Social Workers' Club, and speaker at evening meeting of volunteers. Addressed student assembly of the university on social work as a profession. Visited offices of the State Board and Associated Charities. Spartanburg, Nov.21. Auspices of Prof.D.D.Wallace and Prof.J.A.Tillinghast, with assistance of Miss Law, D.E.Camak, and others. Addressed student assemblies at Wofford and Converse colleges. Visited Saxon Mills Social Center and Textile Industrial Institute. Clemson College, Nov.22. Auspices of President W.M.Riggs. Visited the college. Due to misunderstanding, failed to make appointment to speak at morning assembly.

NORTH CAROLINA. Charlotte, Nov.19-21. Auspices of V.S.Woodward, secretary of the Associated Charities, Rev.W.Hooper Afams, J.B.Ivey, David Ovens and others. Various interviews. Spoke at Westminster Presbyterian Church Sunday morning on the crime problem. Address at annual

meeting of Associated Charities. Case conference of representatives of various social agencies. Guest at luncheon at Commercial Club. Visited Chadwick Hoskins Cotton Mill. Goldsboro, Nov.23. Austices of Miss Margaret H.Sickels, secretary of the Charity Organization Society, Dr. H.E.Robinson, and Miss Sally Kirby. Visited offices of Charity Organization Society, Chamber of Commerce and the State Hospital for Negro Insane. Addressed evening meeting called by Charity Organization Society. Greensboro, Nov.24. Auspices of A.W.McAlister, Mrs.Blanche B. Carr, T.F.Moffett, S.J.Mebane, and others. Assembly talk at State Normal and Industrial College. Various interviews. Guest of honor at dinner arranged by Board of Public Welfare.

VIRGINIA: Auspices of Mrs.Georgia May Jobson, president of the Social Service Federation, Joseph T.Mastin, secretary of the State Board of Charities and Corrections. Norfolk, Hampton, Portsmouth. Nov.25-27. Co-operation of William A.Aery, Rev.W.B.Beauchamp, Miss Gertrude Phillpotts, Herbert Cochran, Dr.L.T.Royster, and others. Sunday morning talk at assembly at Hampton Institute. Sunday evening talk at Monument M.E.Church, South, Portsmouth. Monday afternoon and evening talks on feeble-mindedness and penal colonies to small groups at Wesley M.E. Church, South, Norfolk. Richmond, Nov.28-29. Guest of Col. and Mrs. Murphy. Afternoon meeting the 28th, of social service organizations of Richmond. Roundtable for discussion of various questions. Evening meeting in assembly room in chamber of house of representatives to discuss modern methods of treatment of the criminal. Introduced by Amexander Forward, secretary to the governor. Nov.29, talk at afternoon meeting of Co-operative Education Association of Virginia, through arrangement of Mrs.B.B.Mumford. Petersburg, Nov.29-30. Co-operation of Dr.William F.Drewry and Hon.Paul W.Petit. Evening interviews and morning visit and inspection at State Hospital for the Negro Insane.

FLORIDA: Jacksonville, Dec.4. Auspices of Marcus C.Fagg, superintendent of the Florida Children's Home Society, Homer W.Borst, Cecil Willcox, Mrs.Frank E.Jennings, and others. Visits to offices of Children's Home Society, Associated Charities, Red Cross Seal Campaign, and elsewhere. Luncheon talk to group representing directors of voluntary charities of Jacksonville, evening meeting at dinner of social workers of the city.

ALABAMA: Montgomery, Dec.5. An "unadvertised stop". Called at office of the state inspector of jails. Was shown various courtesies by Dr.W.H.Oates and Mrs.L.B.Bush.

LOUISIANA: New Orleans, Dec.6-7. Auspices of Julius Goldman, Miss Eleanor McMain, Charles H.Patterson, Miss Jean Gordon, Rabbi E.W. Leipziger, and others. Talk at luncheon Dec.6 of representatives of various philanthropies of the city. Afternoon interviews and trip including inspection of Municipal Workhouse and Psychopathic Institute and Wesley House Settlement. On the 7th, visited offices of State Board of Health, Humane Society, Juvenile Court, etc. Evening talk to social workers and others at Y.M.C.A. on community development. Baton Rouge, Dec.8. Auspices of Prof.W.O.Scroggs, Rev.H.S.Johns, Miss Enid Ewing,

and others. Escorted by the three named, I visited the state penal farm at Angola and was cordially received at luncheon by Superintendent H.L.Fuqua. Dinner guest of Professor Scroggs, the party including Professors Prescott, Fleming, and Bonham. Evening talk at the university on community organization.

TEXAS: Houston, Dec.9. Auspices of M.A.Turner, secretary of the Houston Foundation, A.M.Levy, and others. Morning interview and visit to offices of the Houston Foundation and Social Service Bureau, and representative district offices of those organizations. Luncheon with the two persons named and Superintendent P.W.Horn. Afternoon talk to the School of Civics and Philanthropy. Fort Worth, Dec.10-11. Auspices of J.B.Rawlings, secretary of the Fort Worth Relief Association, William Bryce, A.B.Vera and others. Sunday afternoon talk to group representing the philanthropic interests of the city. Visit to office of Relief Association and various interviews. Monday, guest at luncheon given by Mr.Bryce to group of representative men and women of the city. Spoke upon community organization. Dallas, Dec.12. Auspices of Miss Flora Saylor, director of the School of Civics and Philanthropy, Elmer L.Scott, director of Public Welfare and others. Visited offices of the School and of the Bureau of Social Service. Guest at luncheon of campaign committee raising budget for federation of charities. Afternoon trip of inspection about city. Addressed the School of Civics and Philanthropy on training for social work.

ARKANSAS: Little Rock, Dec.13-14. Auspices of M.A.Auerbach, Rabbi Louis Witt, Dr.Scott C.Runnells and others. Various interviews. Afternoon meeting with a group representing the United Charities, state conference, etc., to discuss state organization of charities. Morning of Dec.14 met with State Committee for Social Legislation to redraft state charities bill. Afternoon conference on bill for state school for girls. Inspection of State Hospital for Mental Diseases, meeting with directors of United Charities Association, interviews.

MISSOURI. St.Louis, Dec.20. Hastily arranged stop to appear at a hearing given by the governor-elect, Hon. Fred D. Gardiner, on reorganization in the state charities ser vice. Luncheon with the members of the State Board of Charities and Corrections, meeting with the State Committee for Social Legislation, conference with chairman of Committee on Kindred Groups of the National Conference.

THE PRESIDENT'S RESEARCH COMMITTEE ON SOCIAL TRENDS

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The President's Research Committee on Social Trends takes pleasure in sending to you as one of those who are moulding public opinion in the United States a reprint from the New York Times containing the first fifty-five pages of the two-volume Report on RECENT SOCIAL TRENDS IN THE UNITED STATES.* These pages present the Committee's Review of the information brought together in the undertaking.

The sole purpose of the three years' researches which went into the making of these volumes has been to determine the facts regarding changing trends in the United States during the first third of the twentieth century, with special emphasis upon emerging problems, and to present the facts for public use. This is the first time that such a study has ever been attempted at the request of a head of a nation. More than seven hundred organizations and individuals have participated. The work has been privately financed. The New York Times considered the report sufficiently important to justify publishing this special supplement. The chapters cover:

The Population of the Nation
Utilization of Natural Wealth
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Changing Social Attitudes and Interests
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Rural Life
The Status of Racial and Ethnic Groups
The Vitality of the American People
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The Activities of Women Outside the Home
Childhood and Youth
Labor Groups in the Social Structure
The People as Consumers
Recreation and Leisure Time Activities
The Arts in Social Life
Changes in Religious Organizations
Health and Medical Practice
Crime and Punishment
Privately Supported Social Work
Public Welfare Activities
The Growth of Governmental Functions
Taxation and Public Finance
Public Administration
Law and Legal Institutions
Government and Society

*The full report consists of some 1600 pages and is published by the McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, at a price of $10.00.

PRESIDENT'S RESEARCH COMMITTEE
ON SOCIAL TRENDS
230 PARK AVENUE
NEW YORK

GRAND CENT. ANNEX, N.Y.
1933

Miss Frances Ingram
428 South First St
Louisville Ky

Revised school code, systematizing public school system.

Consolidated schools in excess of 1200, with full high school courses, have supplanted more than five times that number of one-room school houses, and there has been established a complete supervision of school courses and text books.

Additional pay for teachers.

To meet emergencies, provision has been made for state aid to weak school districts, so that educational facilities of the country are equal to the best in the city.

Act authorizing Ohio State University to establish an Extension Division.

Act providing for small boards of education in city school districts.

Act to create the Agricultural Commission of Ohio and to prescribe its organization, its powers and its duties.

Act creating a Public Utilities Commission of Ohio and prescribing its organization, powers and duties.

Act to regulate the civil service of the state of Ohio, the several counties, cities, and city school districts.

Act establishing direct primary elections.

Act providing a board to censor motion picture films.

Act to provide for registration of persons employed to advocate or oppose legislative measures, and to regulate the method of such advocacy or opposition.

Act creating Legislative Reference Department.

Provision for building of a new penitentiary farm with the purchase of a large tract of land, far removed from the city, so that the prison may be made self-sustaining, with prisoners given opportunity for out-door employment.

Vocational training for blind children in the public schools, enabling blind children in large cities to secure training while living at home, with increase of contribution from the state for each blind child.

Act to provide for elimination of commercialized vice, with severe penalties for immorality.

Provision against job-selling with effectual administration through the State Industrial Commission.

Establishment of Courts of Domestic Relations in larger counties of the state.

Creation of a State Board for Vocational Education to promote this system in the public schools.

Provision for an institution for treatment and education of deformed and crippled children.

Creation of a Board of Clemency, to be in constant session for consideration of release, parole, and probation of persons under penal sentences.

Indeterminate sentence law under which first offenders are given every opportunity for rehabilitation, and no men are deprived of the opportunity of making a new beginning.

Granting children of school age, who are inmates of a county, semi-public or district children's home, the privileges of public schools.

Creation of a Bureau of Markets.

This is a summary of the more important things done, in Social Agency work in Ohio, through effective co-operation of agencies with the aid of aggressive, executive leadership.

HOWELL WRIGHT
EXECUTIVE SECRETARY,
CLEVELAND (O.) HOSPITAL COUNCIL.
MEMBER OHIO SENATE (CLEVELAND DISTRICT).
308 ANISFIELD BLDG.,
CLEVELAND, OHIO

THE SEARS & SIMPSON CO., COLUMBUS, O.

Social Service

AND

Social Legislation

IN

OHIO

Advanced steps taken to deal with causes of poverty and crime and to promote the general welfare

NOTE-WORTHY ACCOMPLISHMENTS IN SOCIAL SERVICE

When in March, 1919, there was summoned to the Governor's office in the State House in Columbus, the chief executives in Ohio of all national and state war-time agencies which had a peace program, together with heads of all departments of the state government which had welfare policies, provision was made for the first state centralization of social agencies in the United States, and there was established the plan which has shown itself to be so effective in mutual effort for human welfare that other states of the union are following the program.

Governor Cox has always, as an executive, taken a lead in legislation and administration for social service, with a vision not frequently found in public men. His war experience with the social agencies of the state proved to him the value of transforming a war-time program in the field of social service to a peace-time program for continued effort.

In suggesting a unity of effort for social service the Governor, presiding over the meeting, pointed out:

(1) That the period of reconstruction had dangers more serious than those of war;

(2) That the combined efforts of all social service agencies would be needed to steady things;

(3) That the local community—the small cities and towns—would be unable, obviously, to support branches of all the reconstruction agencies;

(4) That, therefore, it was only good business sense for the administrative heads within the state to get together for the prevention of duplication and waste, and for more effective cooperation with the departments of state government.

This meeting was followed by the organization of the Ohio Council of Social Agencies, with effective sub-committees, which have pooled information as to the needs of the state, so that the combined strength of all organizations can be put behind any special need for immediate response. In many cities surveys are now being made by the Ohio Council.

Affiliated with the Ohio Council of Social Agencies are three other state councils, the Council on Child Welfare, the Council on Women and Children in Industry, and the Council on Family and Social Work, each of which has two representatives with membership in the original council. This organization, yet in its infancy, has proved to be the greatest forward step the Social Agencies have ever undertaken anywhere.

This story is recited as a matter of noteworthy accomplishment, informative to social workers outside Ohio, and demonstrates why Governor Cox, a Democrat, has been three times elected Governor of a Republican state. He has the vision which enables the rendition of the highest possible order of public service with the will to do. He not only seeks, but accepts the advice of experts in this, as in all other progressive movements, and so doing has accomplished much.

Among the noteworthy social legislation measures enacted into law under his administration.

Additional provision for care of feeble-minded, including erection and equipment of a new institution on the cottage plan, with appropriation for a tubeculosis hospital.

Provision for additional cottages at the hospital for epileptics.

Establishment of a Bureau of Juvenile Research with provision for thorough mental and physical examination of all juveniles committed to the institutions of the state; for mental and physical examination with medical treatment, where necessary; for final placement in the institution best fitted for the ward's needs. This Bureau is primarily a mental hygiene clinic, cooperating with other mental clinics throughout the state, and maintaining a permanent central registration of mental defectives, looking toward elimination of causes which produce defective children.

A compulsory workmen's compensation law, admittedly the best in the union, and which has been accepted as the model by other progressive states.

A State Industrial Commission with powers to handle all questions affecting capital and labor, with a state mediator as the keystone.

Complete survey of occupational diseases with recommendation for health and occupational insurance.

Strengthening the use in the state of railroad safety appliances.

Safeguarding of accidents in mines by proper illumination.

Extra provision for dependents of men killed in mines.

Elimination of sweatshop labor.

Increased facilities for mine inspector operation.

Protection of miners working toward abandoned mines.

Provision for minimum time pay day.

Codification of child laws with establishment of child welfare department.

Compulsory provision for mothers' pensions.

Elimination of the "fellow-servant rule," "contributory negligence," and similar rules as to industrial accidents as a part of the administration of compulsory workmen's compensation, re-establishing faith in the courts.

Law to provide against adulteration of food stuffs, and prevent combination to fix prices.

Establisment of a state tuberculosis hospital and district hospitals throughout the state by county action.

Adoption of health code giving state health commissioner regulatory power over subdivision officials, with a special appropriation to combat epidemics and contagious diseases.

Employment of prisoners in road work, including the manufacture of road-building machinery and material, with compensation of prisoners for all work done, with earnings over cost of maintenance paid directly to dependents of prisoners.

Recommendation and passage of state legislation for woman suffrage (now pending under referendum).

A State Aged 100

Glimpses of Social Progress in Indiana During One Hundred Years

By Alexander Johnson

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A State Aged 100

Glimpses of Social Progress in Indiana During One Hundred Years

By Alexander Johnson[1]

INDIANA was the last, or almost the last, of the frontier states. In those to the westward, the railroads came first and the settlers followed along the iron rails. They had mail and newspaper service in their new homes on the prairie, almost as efficient as they had enjoyed in the states they had left. In Indiana, the pioneers, like the early settlers of the continent, went on horseback or on foot into the wilderness. They hewed their farms out of the virgin forest. Mails were slow and infrequent, newspapers were rare. The settlements were small and widely scattered. Each family had to be self-provident and self-dependent. Only the strong and stout-hearted could survive the hardships of those pioneering days.

The sturdy individualism that made it possible for the pioneers to conquer the wilderness, persisted to some extent in their children after the first generation had passed away. It is no wonder that the social spirit, which is now so well marked in the state, was perhaps a little slow in showing itself among the self-reliant descendants of the pioneers. It is little wonder that practical and even material aspects of life prevailed over those theoretical or esthetic.

[1]Alexander Johnson was the first secretary of the Indiana Board of State Charities, serving from April 1, 1889 to June 30, 1893. In the preparation of this paper he has been assisted by Laura Greely who has been for many years chief clerk and statistician of the board. He wishes most gratefully to acknowledge Miss Greely's invaluable help, without which, in fact, the article could not have been prepared.

To write in briefest outline the history of social progress in Indiana during the first century of the life of the state, would be an attempt too ambitious for the author of this paper. All he can hope to do is to indicate some of the salient points of the story and sketch the progress of the benevolent and correctional work of the commonwealth, more particularly its development since April 1, 1889, when the Board of State Charities was created.

The first constitution, adopted in 1816, was a noble, human document, and in many respects in advance of similar foundations of law in other states. This was notably shown in its declaration as to the punishment of crime. The eighteenth section of the bill of rights reads: "The penal code shall be founded on the principles of reformation and not of vindictive justice." This was a beach mark of progress, set by a high tide which receded, as such tides in the affairs of men usually do.

A few far-seeing men there were in the country, like the noted Edward Livingston in Louisiana, who visualized great principles like this, but they were so much the exception to the general rule, that in Indiana it took 81 years before that noble declaration of the constitution was made actual in statute law as applied to serious offenders, and 97 years before it was applied to misdemeanants.

Prison Reform

ONE of the abiding results of this first declaration was that wise theories of

correction have been recognized and given voice by Indiana statesmen, and, however slowly adopted, prison reform has been a frequent matter of consideration and comment, especially by the long line of wise and high-minded men from whom the governors of the state have usually been chosen. In Governor James B. Ray's message to the General Assembly, 14 years after the birth of the state, occurs a fine argument against the death penalty. It is based on the principle that the object of punishment is not merely to prevent the offender from committing other offences, nor only to deter others from crime, but includes reformation of the criminal.

After recounting the many possibilities of error and miscarriage of justice, the impossibility of certainty in human affairs, he concludes:

"Effects are sometimes ascribed to causes which never produced them. Misapprehension and mistake follow. The scene closes with one of the primitive but barbarous customs of the early and rude stages of society, when even witchcraft was believed in by legislators and judges as learned as Matthew Hale, and life taken to appease the superstition of the law and the judge."

Fifteen years later, in 1845, Governor James Whitcomb in his message to the legislature, thus outlined the system which has only just been adopted in Indiana by the establishment of a state penal farm.

"The policy of confinement in county jails as a punishment for crime may in most cases well be questioned. It is not only a serious burden on the counties, but it is believed to be incompatible with reformation, which is the leading purpose of criminal punishment. The application of the principle of penitentiary discipline upon those guilty of minor offences . . . by means of houses of correction is respectfully recommended. They should be established with an eye to the comfort and . . . employment of the inmates, and to the exercise of a kindly but firm and steady discipline."

Similar expressions of enlightened thought upon public questions might be quoted, and when the constitution was revised in 1851 many of them were adopted in the amendments.

Although the territorial legislature of 1792 had authorized the erection of jails, yet previous to the admission of the state the legal methods of correction were chiefly pillories, stocks,[2] the whipping post and the gallows. Some of the earliest jails were in the cellars of court houses, and a few of these remained in use until recent days. No doubt most of the first jails were little more than rude log cabins. A famous two-story log jail still exists in Brown county, although it is little used as it is not supposed to be strong enough to confine modern criminals.

The first Indiana state prison was established by a law of 1821, at Jeffersonville, and was opened November 1, 1822. This is on the southern border of the state and when built it was fairly central as to population. By 1859, it was evident that the great growth of the state was to be in the central and northern parts, and an additional institution, called the State Prison North, was built at Michigan City on the lake.

In 1897, the sentiment in favor of reformatory treatment of those convicts who were supposed to be corrigible led to the closing of the southern prison, as Reformatory, for male offenders, under such, and its conversion into the Indiana thirty convicted for the first time; with the methods of the indeterminate sentence and parole as the chief features of its system.

The organic law of this institution was said by students of penology to be the best in the world, and the reformatory has earned an enviable reputation. By a separate act of the same year, the indeterminate sentence was applied to convicts in the northern institution although it remained a prison.

About the year 1905 the method of sterilization, to prevent what was supposed to be hereditary criminality as well as feeblemindedness, was introduced and practiced for some time without any authority of law, but with the consent of those who submitted to it. Then a law was enacted making it legal as applied to incurable idiots and incorrigible crim-

[2]Although authorized by law it seems doubtful that pillories or stocks were built.

inals in institutions. This law was not heeded, since those operated on were supposedly corrigible inmates of a reformatory. No other institution operated under the law, although it applied, quite positively, to many of their inmates.

In 1909 at the request of a governor, who declared the method unethical and the law unconstitutional, the practice was discontinued. The law has not been repealed, or passed upon by the Supreme Court.

The principle of reformatory treatment was applied to young male delinquents in 1867, when the House of Refuge for Juvenile Offenders was established. The name of this institution was changed in 1883 to Indiana Reform School for Boys, and 20 years later to Indiana Boys' School. Each change of name indicated an advance, in purpose at least, and methods at first crude and unsatisfactory were changed with the changing name.

In 1869, the growing belief in the reformatory principle and the disclosure of some grave abuses in the management of the state prison, caused the establishment of a correctional institution for women and girls. This was in spite of an assumption, rather felt than expressed, that the number of female criminals was so small, and the depravity of the few so positive, that measures of reformation were either useless or unnecessary as applied to them. The institution was named the Indiana reformatory Institution for Women and Girls and was opened October 4, 1873. It was a combination of a prison for women and a reform school for girls; the two under one management, in separate wings of the same building; the inmates never mingling, and seeing each other only at religious services in the common chapel. As was usual in those days the reform school received children merely dependent and neglected as well as those technically delinquent.

With increasing public attention to the state's social economy, increasing faith in the efficacy of reformatory discipline, and chiefly, an increasing sense of justice to the unfortunate even if delinquent, this incongruous assembling together of adult criminals, juvenile offenders, and innocent victims of misfortune or of others' crimes, was felt to be a grave mistake, and various attempts were made to correct it.

First Board of Women

In 1877, the management of the institution for women and girls was "taken from the oversight of an unsympathizing board of men and committed to a board of women."[3] It is believed that this was the first institution of the kind ever placed in the care of a board composed exclusively of women. In 1889 the name of the institution was changed by the progressive legislature of that year, to Reform School for Girls and Women's Prison, and an effort was made to dissociate the two parts as much as possible. It was felt to be an injustice to the girls whose reformation was hoped for to have it understood, as was inevitable under the circumstances, that they had been prison convicts.

At last, by an act of 1903, which, however, was not carried into effect until four years later, the two institutions were separated in fact, the department for girls was removed to a country location and named the Indiana Girls' School; and the quarters formerly occupied by the girls were made into a correctional department for short term women convicts, who had formerly been held in county jails.

In 1899, the Indeterminate Sentence and Parole Systems, which up to that date were usually the distinctive features of a reformatory as opposed to a prison (although in Indiana they applied to both), were extended so as to apply to the prison for women. After another period of 14 years, in 1913, the Indiana State Farm was established for short-term male convicts, previously kept in county jails. In everything but the indeterminate sentence,[4] this made the reformatory principle apply to misdemeanants, as had been urged by Governor Whitcomb in 1845; so that at last the

[3]Extract from a report of the Committee on Prisons, etc., of the Indiana Yearly Meeting of the Society of Friends.

[4]The Board of State Charities has urged the application of the indeterminate sentence to the convicts at the Penal Farm.

noble declaration of the constitution was almost completely embodied in statute law.

In 1903, a law created juvenile courts. The first step in this direction was taken by Judge George W. Stubbs of the Indianapolis Municipal Court in 1901. He was "astounded at the number of children brought before him," and without any idea of establishing a special court, separated the hearings of the children's cases from those of adults. The law of 1903 applied to every county, and provided for paid probation officers. Still there was some popular misapprehension. The Juvenile Court was still misunderstood as more or less of a criminal court, not merely a court for children who by law are beneath the age of responsibility and so cannot be criminal. In 1907 a new law made the Juvenile Court the sole agency for any legal dealing with children; such as making them public wards as dependents.

Early legislation about jails conferred full authority as to their management on the circuit judges. But the control that seemed provided for was not fully, if at all, exercised and there were many complaints of disorder, insanitation and bad discipline. The Board of State Charities had inspected the jails from the beginning of its work and under its urgency many improvements had been made.

In 1909, a law was enacted requiring the board to make regulations for the conduct of jails and if these were not complied with to report the fact to the Circuit Court. If the court failed to act, the board is to notify the governor, who may condemn any jail and have the prisoners taken to the jail of another county. Under the dread of this law some officials have acted, who without it were inclined to resist the suggestions of the board.

The Indeterminate Sentence

One more reform in correctional matters remained to be made. The theory of the indeterminate sentence is that as soon as a prisoner may safely go at large, his release shall be granted. There are some persons convicted who do not need even a brief term of incarceration. To save such persons from the disgrace of the prison, the law of the suspended sentence, or probation, was applied; at first to juveniles in 1867; and in 1907 to adults, except those guilty of murder, rape, arson, burglary, kidnapping or treason.

These various changes for the better were not gained without earnest struggle. The established order was defended against the reformers by many officials and politicians, and by some conservative citizens who were neither. It must not be supposed that those who resisted innovations were all, or always, governed by corrupt motives. Prison reform always has earnest opponents. Some of these are actuated by selfish motives. But there is an underlying doubt in the possibility of the reformation of a criminal; a belief, often sincere enough, that once a thief means always a thief; that a criminal woman is beyond hope of redemption; that criminals deserve no sympathy, but are forever beyond the pale of decent citizenship.

These doubts and beliefs are cherished by those who have pecuniary interests in evil prison methods, as a justification for their selfishness. But they are often held with tenacity, by men who in other concerns of life are not unworthy citizens, and are the strongest obstacles in the way of those who strive for prison reform. And again it is only fair to remember that some reformers are impractical, unreasonable and even cranky; that some of the sympathy extended to offenders, deserves the name, so often given to it, of sickly sentimentality; that gifts of flowers and delicacies to convicted murderers, whose deeds have been sufficiently exploited in the newspapers to make them notorious, are causes of just derision by jailers and prison warders.

In the long drawn-out struggle in Indiana for justice, even to the unjust the part taken by the Society of Friends deserves mention. The society was specially strong in the southeastern portion of the state, into which there had been a considerable influx of Friends from North and South Carolina, Virginia and other southern states. This movement was largely due to the pro-slavery agitation of the later years of the eighteenth and the earlier years of the nineteenth

century. During this period, the Quakers as a body, opposed slavery and suffered for their opinions. They had to struggle for both religious and political rights.

In North Carolina many Negroes whose Quaker owners had emancipated them, were re-enslaved, by ex-post facto legislation, because certain formalities which did not exist when the enfranchisement took place, had not been complied with. The Quakers realized that they could not prosper with free labor in competition with slave labor and they migrated in large numbers to Ohio first and then to Indiana.

Slavery had been abolished in the Northwest territory, of which Indiana was a part, by the ordinance of 1787, "But there was still much pro-slavery sentiment and the final status of the state on the question was not determined until after a long and vigorous contest, in every stage of which the Friends were a factor, after they had entered the territory. They were a determining factor in the campaign of 1810 when the anti-slavery forces triumphed in the election of a representative to Congress; and expressed themselves by petitions and through one of their members who was a delegate to the Constitutional Convention"[5] which made Indiana a free state for all time.

"Their most immediate labors in behalf of slaves were, however, exerted in the activities of the underground railroad, one Friend having assisted 3,000 Negroes northward, and another expressing regret that he had only had the opportunity of assisting 2,700 when the emancipation proclamation was issued.

The Activity of the Quakers

It was natural that the religious body, which had given to the world John Howard and Elizabeth Fry, should be interested in prison reform. In 1867, the Representative Body of the Indiana Yearly Meeting of Friends appointed a committee "to organize a system for the reformation of juvenile offenders and the improvement of prison discipline." One of the first members of that committee is still with us, the loved and respected Timothy Nicholson who has served as chairman of the Friends' Committee for many years. His annual reports made to the Representative Body, now called the Permanent Board, form a comprehensive history of prison and other reform in Indiana, during nearly 50 years of wise, patient and patriotic effort.

The method adopted by the Friends' Committee was, by visits and personal observation, to learn actual conditions. Each meeting was requested to appoint a committee of "discreet friends," men and women, who should visit the public institutions in their respective neighborhoods and report the facts to their meeting. Then the members, by petition, by influence on the state and county officials and the legislature, and especially by informing the general public, endeavored to secure redress of the evils that were found; in all cases not merely criticizing, but presenting a plan of betterment.

Among the results obtained by these wise and practical means, results which were largely, and in some cases almost wholly, due to the work of the Friends, may be mentioned the establishment of the Boys' Reformatory; the Women's Prison and Girls' Reformatory; the correction of many abuses in the prisons, insane hospitals and poor asylums; the establishment of county orphans' homes, by which children were taken out of the poor asylum; the creation of the Board of State Charities; and many minor reforms. The influence of the Friends in these matters was in much larger proportion than their number. This fact is a testimony to the general respect which they gained for uprightness and unselfish public spirit.[6]

When the law creating the Board of State Charities was enacted, Timothy Nicholson was one of the first members appointed. He became chairman of the sub-committee on prisons, etc., and for

[5]The Quakers in the Old Northwest, by Harlow Lindley.

[6]An interesting and unconscious testimony to the Quaker character, is found in the colloquialism, "Quaker measure," which still may be heard in the counties where many Quakers lived. It means that the Quaker's bushel or peck is heaped high and running over.

OSCAR C. MCCULLOCH

One of the men who has been largely responsible for putting Indiana to the front in matters of state charitable policy.

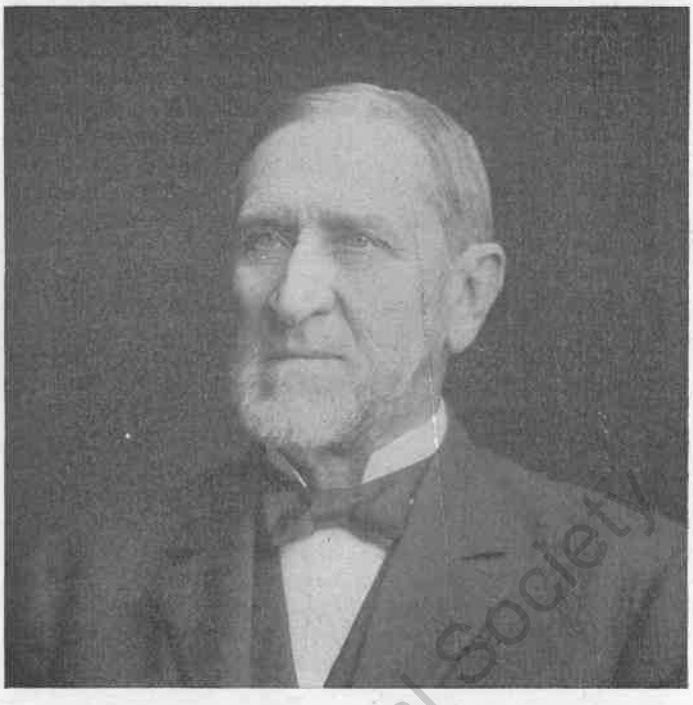
19 years thereafter, until his retirement in 1908, full of years and honors, he was an active and influential member of that board. It is a moderate estimate of Mr. Nicholson's work and influence to say that for 50 years he has been, in all matters of charity and correction, the wisest, strongest and most useful citizen of the state. To those who have worked with him, especially those employed in an official capacity by the board, he has been a wise, gentle, considerate and unfailing friend and advisor. It was said by a prominent state official, to whom Mr. Nicholson had given a faithful but gentle rebuke, "I would rather be called down by Timothy Nicholson than praised by most men."

The Care of Paupers

DURING territorial days, and the first few years of statehood, public charities were confined to outdoor relief, which was given to a very small extent, and the farming-out of paupers. The story is told of a settler who "bought a pauper" for a year, at the annual sheriff's sale. He took him home and set him at work hoeing corn. The neighbors gathered to see the "pauper" and exclaimed in surprise: "Is that a pauper? Why it's a man"!

The constitution of 1816 authorized county poor asylums. The first statute on the subject, in 1821, applied only to Knox county. It was repealed seven years later and the farming-out system resumed. A general poor asylum law was enacted in 1831, which permitted building by single counties or by county groups. Under this law, Franklin, Fayette and Union counties erected a joint poor asylum which was occupied in the spring of 1835.

Before many years each county had its poor farm, as they were generally called. At first most of these were run on the contract system by which the superintendent paid the county a rent for the farm and was paid a per-diem



TIMOTHY NICHOLSON

Said a public official years ago: "I would rather be called down by Timothy Nicholson than praised by most men."

for the support of the inmates.[7] This dangerous and often pernicious system slowly died out. By 1889, there were only 10 of the 92 counties praticing it,[8] and for many years the sensible, humane and business-like method of conducting the institution at the expense of the county, paying the superintendent a reasonable salary, and forbidding him any other pecuniary interest in the farm, has prevailed. Under this plan certain counties with productive farms, have managed so well that the pauper expense has been greatly reduced, in some even to the extent that the produce of the farm has paid the entire cost of the asylum, except interest on the investment.[9] Similar results have been obtained during certain periods in one or two other counties.

In these and many other cases, the old reproach that the poor farm is the poorest farm in the county is no longer deserved. It is noteworthy that the institutions with the best business management are usually those in which the standards of comfort and care are the highest.

At the legislative session of 1899, three useful laws, bearing on the county poor administration, were enacted. One of these provided for boards of county charities, whose functions are analogous to those of the Board of State Charities and which work in co-operation with that board.

[7]This pernicious method still prevails in some states which consider themselves to be humane and progressive.

[8]The last contract on the per-diem plan expired in September, 1903.

[9]Some years ago in Crawford county, the farm not only supported the asylum but paid all the other poor expenses of the county, including the outdoor relief and the salaries of the township physicians. Such a condition could only prevail in a very poor county, where as is usual, though it seems anomalous, there are always the fewest paupers.

The second provided for an improved system of administration of county poor asylums.

The third regulated the administration of outdoor relief by the overseers of the poor. This law introduced into the township poor system the cardinal principles of what is called charity organization, and is probably the most complete and comprehensive law of that nature on the statute books of any state. At the National Conference of Charities and Correction held in Philadelphia in 1906, Governor Hanly stated that the results of this law and various other reforms which led up to it had effected an average reduction of more than $300,000 annually since 1895, without causing any increased suffering to the poor and actually lessening the amount of pauperism in the state. This excellent outcome he credited wholly to the Board of State Charities.

As was the rule in most of the states, the early poor asylums sheltered a very heterogeneous mass of people, old and young; senile and diseased; epileptics, insane and feebleminded; veterans of labor disabled by overwork, exposure and rheumatism; and veterans of vice disabled by dissipation and disease. Many of the asylums had a detached cabin, often called the jail and strongly barred. These were probably used at first for prisoners, and when the regular jails were built served to confine the more dangerous of the insane.

Effort for Dependent Children

THE modern student of philanthropy, if confronted with an asylum with such a mingling of inmates as above described, and told to select one class to be segregated from the group and set off by itself, would surely choose the dependent normal children. It seems strange to us now that these were among the latest to be rescued from the mass. It was not until 1897, that a law was enacted forbidding children being kept in a poorhouse.

Early in the century[10] the Catholic dioceses had erected and supported orphan asylums for Catholic children.[11] The first private orphanage under lay control was the Indianapolis Widows' and Orphans' Asylum, incorporated in 1851. A few others followed. In 1875, counties were empowered to subsidize private orphanages, and in 1881 to establish county orphans' homes. But the movement to take all children out of the poorhouse gained slowly. In 1877 there was one small orphans' home in Hendricks county and others were established in Henry and Franklin counties in 1880 and 1882. The plan which prevailed in Ohio was the one first copied, the orphans' homes being organized by boards of private persons who appointed the matron, the counties paying a per-diem for each child.

When the state board began its work in 1889, there were orphans' homes in 42 counties, some owned privately, others built by the counties under the law of 1881, but all supported by the counties, in whole or part, on the per-diem plan. In theory each county home was intended as a training school in decent living and a way-station on the road to placing out in an adoptive home. But the per capita plan had its usual insidious results and sometimes children were held for the county money they earned, when they might have been placed out with advantage.

Placing Out

A few of these homes had very vigorous management and the children were placed out in large numbers. One joint orphans' home, in the northern part of the state, beginning by taking children from two counties, was broadened out until it served for ten. This from the first was distinctly a placing-out agency and took some of its children as far west as Dakota and even Idaho, placing very few in Indiana.

During the period from 1857 to 1898 a great many dependent children from

[10]The Catholic Orphan Asylum at Vincennes was opened August, 1849.

[11]It is well known that Catholic orphanages make no discrimination as to sect, yet as a matter of fact, most of their charges come from Catholic families.

eastern states, especially from New York and Ohio, and a few from Massachusetts, were brought into the state. Many of these were placed in excellent homes, from which the dependent children of Indiana seemed debarred. There is a recognized advantage in placing a child who has undesirable relatives at some distance from his former home. Most of these imported children were successfully placed and kindly treated, and there are today in Indiana men and women of character and culture who were brought as waifs from New York. But some of the work was poorly done and carelessly supervised afterwards and there were occasional abuses. In 1899, a law prescribed the registration of all children brought into the state for placement and required a bond, approved by the Board of State Charities,[12] against their becoming dependent or neglected.

In 1897 a beneficent step was taken when the state agency for dependent children was established as a department of the Board of State Charities. An excellent system of placing and of after-supervision was installed and since that was done many of the county orphan's homes have had their population much reduced and some of them have been abandoned. Yet the total number of dependent children is not much less than it was. In fact when it is remembered that children are excluded from the poorhouses and jails; that dependents are no longer admissible to the reform schools; that the general population is increasing; and that the Boards of Children's Guardians are active, it is not surprising that there are still many dependent children to be placed out and supervised.

The law creating the county Board of Children's Guardians, was among the excellent legislation of 1889. This, which at first applied only to Center township, Marion county, was founded on the principle that the rights of a child to a decent life are no less important than his property rights and may equally be defended, even against an unworthy parent. This law was bitterly attacked in the courts but always sustained. It was gradually extended, first to cover the entire area of one or two populous counties and later to every county of the state. As a rule the work of the guardians has been wise and moderate and the results have been beneficent.

In 1909, children were further protected by a law which places maternity hospitals, boarding houses for infants (the so-called baby-farms of unsavory memory), boarding homes for children, and infant placing agencies, under the supervision of the Board of State Charities. They are required to secure an annual, written license from the board before they may receive any children, the license being revocable at any time at the discretion of the board.

As soon as this law became operative many institutions promptly went out of business and some were closed by the board refusing a license to those whose methods and practices were unsatisfactory.

The social progress of the state in its governmental aspects is most forcibly shown in its so-called charitable institutions. The development, from the county poor asylum, which, as in other states and countries, was the germ of institutional relief, to the present complete system of state and county institutions, is an interesting and fascinating study.

Although the system of poor relief has always been that of the township and county, very early in its history the duty of the state proper to certain classes of unfortunate people was recognized. The earliest mention of provision for the insane occurred in 1827. The capital had been moved in 1824 from Corydon, near the Ohio river, to its present location, and the city of Indianapolis had been established on land granted by Congress.[1]

In 1827, square No. 22 was set aside for the use of a state hospital and lunatic asylum. The state hospital was not built,

[12]Under this law bonds were filed by the Cincinnati Children's Home; the New York Catholic Home Bureau; the Chicago Industrial Home for Children; and the New York Foundling's Hospital, which are still in force.

[1]Advocates of the single tax must deplore the loss of the wonderful opportunity for social development that was suffered when the site of the city was peddled out to private persons, instead of being retained as the possession of the community forever.

but a log cabin on that square was used as a "crazy house" until the first buildings of what is now the Central Hospital for the Insane were ready. It is interesting that in those early days the idea was to provide for the insane with the sick rather than with criminals.

Twenty-eight years after the state's admission to the Union, Dorothea Dix, of blessed memory, came to Indiana with her gospel of humane and scientific care for the insane. One speech by her to the General Assembly of 1844, prepared for as it was by visits of inspection of the insane in almshouses and jails, within a few miles of the capitol, was enough to rouse the law makers, and they created the State Lunatic Asylum, the name of which was changed in 1846 to the Indiana Hospital for the Insane. This change of name, which indicated a more rational and scientific conception of what institutions for the insane should be, was followed in many states, notably in New York, where some 40 years later the name asylum was changed to state hospital.

The first hospital building was completed and occupied in 1848. At first, as its name implies, intended for curable cases, many chronics were kept there. In 1865 a law was enacted which required the commissioners of the insane, to take charge of and provide for the incurables in the same manner as the curables. The insane were entitled to admission on a county quota, pro rata of the population, but there was not room to take care of them all.

In 1879 a large, new department for women was equipped and for a time eased the pressure for admission. But the numbers increased more rapidly than the provision for them, and despite the law of 1865, many of the incurables were returned to the counties to make room for new and supposedly curable cases. This plan manifestly leads to much suffering and abuse. The county asylums are ill adapted for insane people. County care of the insane is seldom efficient. There are some brilliant exceptions, the most famous being that of Wisconsin, but in most of the states county care means county neglect. The Wisconsin system is really a remarkable example of state supervision and control of county institutions, guaranteed and made positive by partial state support. Such a plan is applicable chiefly to rural communities with sparse population.

A Reform Assembly

In 1883 there occurred one of those not infrequent sessions of the Indiana General Assembly when the spirit of reform seems to take possession of the members. At this time a law was enacted creating three, so-called, additional hospitals for the insane, one each in the northern, eastern and southern parts of the state. A special board of construction was appointed and a medical engineer, or superintendent of construction was chosen in the person of Dr. Joseph G. Rogers, a highly skilled alienist and a man with a genius for executive and constructive work.

Under this board sites were secured near Logansport, Richmond and Evansville, and very comprehensive plans adopted. The old and standardized plans of hospital building were considered obsolete and three new and distinct types of buildings were chosen. At Logansport the plan of two-story detached blocks, at Richmond a very complete cottage plan, and at Evansville the radiate plan (first devised for an English prison) were decided on. For many years past these three hospitals have been visited and studied by people from other states who have been charged with the duty of building a hospital.

At this time the state adopted a radical change of policy as regards incurables. No patients were to be discharged from the new hospitals, either to their own care as cured, or to that of the county from whence they came, "until their physical and mental condition justifies it." This gave rise to the popular misconception that the new institutions were for incurables, and they were often spoken of as asylums for the chronic insane.

The new law applied only to the districts allotted to the new hospitals, so that for some years there existed the anomalous condition of one law applying to 49 counties of the state and another to

the remaining 43. This was corrected some years later and the state was accurately re-districted for the insane.

The appropriations made in 1883 were merely a beginning of what was needed, and the sessions of the next few years were governed by conditions of economic stringency which prevented the prompt completion of the comprehensive plan. However, in 1888 the Northern Hospital was equipped and at once filled to overflowing with patients, not only from its own district but from other parts of the state. The Eastern Hospital was opened in August, 1890, and the Southern in October, 1890.

Even with four state hospitals of large capacity the needs of the insane were not met. The population of the state was growing and it seemed that the number of insane was increasing even more rapidly. The crowding of the hospitals, with the consequent refusal to accept patients, was so serious that Marion county in 1900 erected a county asylum for incurable insane with room for 200 patients. In other counties, the chronic insane were still found in the poor asylums.

In 1905 the state established a fifth hospital for the southeastern district, which was opened August 1, 1910. This is beautifully situated on a bluff overlooking the city of Madison, and commanding magnificent views for many miles up and down the Ohio river. An account of the admirable method which was adopted for choosing the location of this hospital, was published in THE SURVEY for December 2, 1905. Its procedure established a precedent which might well be followed everywhere and has already been followed in locating other institutions in Indiana.

Before the first hospital for the insane was erected, two other state benevolent institutions, as they were and still are called, were founded. Early in the 40's, a wealthy resident of Indianapolis who had two deaf-mute children sent East and secured a governess for them who had learned the art of teaching the deaf. At that time deaf-mutes were hardly distinguished in common thought from idiots. The fact that these two supposed idiots were to be educated because their father was rich roused public feeling for members of the same class who were poor.

This occurred during a period of struggle for a system of public education, a struggle which was greatly aided by the efforts and example of the Friends who had already established a system of primary and secondary schools of their own.[8]

For Deaf-Mutes

IT was not until 1848 that the victory was won and the idea of the common school, that every child, of rich or of poor parents alike, shall have a chance, as near as possible, an equal chance, for education, became vital in the Hoosier mind.

By a law of 1844, an Asylum for the Education of Deaf and Dumb was established and opened in a rented building in October of that year. This grew rapidly into a well-equipped school. In 1907 its name was changed to the Indiana State School for the Deaf. The first buildings were within the city limits on property which grew in value, and in September, 1904, was sold and a new site a few miles north of the city was obtained, upon which is now situated one of the best equipped and managed institutions of the country.

In 1847, the Indiana Institute for the Education of the Blind was established. Like the school for the deaf this was begun in rented property, but later a beautiful site was acquired in the best residential center of the city, and the institution built thereon is of dignified and noble architecture. Unlike the school for the deaf there are many reasons for a city location for the education of the blind, chiefly that the students may enjoy the advantages of church services, concerts, lectures, etc., which would be useless to the deaf. In 1907 the name of this institution was changed to Indiana School for the Blind.

[8] "In 1840, in the limits of the Friends yearly meeting, there were 7,651 children of school age, and of this number only 319, or 1 in 24, were not in school. In the same year one-seventh of the population of the state was illiterate." (See The Quakers in the Northwest, by Harlow Lindley.)

These institutions and most of the others which have followed were owned and supported from their inception entirely by the public. The state recognized its duty to defectives, and there was no large number of wealthy and charitable people, as was the case in older states, to build and support as charity the institutions that in the opinion of Indiana people were a matter of justice. It is interesting to see how the correctional and charitable system developed. Always a new institution was created to meet a need felt by the public consciousness. It was always a condition not a theory that confronted the people, although conditions were met by the application of theories or principles like that of public education, which the popular mind recognized as vital.

Indiana had sent more volunteers to the Civil War, in proportion to her population, than any other state. When they enlisted they were told by their fellow citizens, "If you go and fight for your country and for us, you and yours shall be a sacred charge, your declining years of disability shall be passed in comfort, and if you die your orphans shall be the wards of the state." Again this was felt to be a matter of simple justice, not by any means of charity. Soon after the war Governor Morton recommended the organization of a society to make provision for the permanent care of disabled soldiers, relying for its means of operation on popular contributions. Such a society was organized. For a time it used the Indianapolis City Hospital, but early in 1866 purchased Knightstown Springs, and on April 26 of that year opened there the Home for Disabled Soldiers. The property was taken over by the legislature of 1867 and formally opened June 15, 1867, as the Indiana soldiers' and seamen's home, for sick and disabled soldiers and seamen, their widows and orphans.

The home was divided into two departments, one for veterans and one for orphans. Ten years later the part occupied by the adults was burned and as the federal government had adopted the system of national homes, it was not thought at that time necessary to rebuild; but later, in 1895, a State Home for Veterans of the Civil War and Their Wives or Widows was established.

This was done quite as much as a duty to the wives or widows, whose sacrifices for their country had been only a little, if any, less, than those of their husbands, as it was for the veterans themselves. It was also a concession to certain of the veterans by whom the somewhat strict discipline of the National Homes is found irksome. To such an extent is this true that previous to the building of the state home many veterans actually preferred to live in county poor asylums, rather than at the National Home.

The home at Knightstown was reorganized after a second fire, in 1887, as the Indiana Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans Home, and still exists with a large population of orphans. The term "soldiers' orphans" meant at first children who were orphaned by the war, but was extended, as in many other states, to mean children born after the war, so long as their fathers had been soldiers. Now children of Union soldiers and seamen of the Civil War, the war with Spain, the war in the Philippine Islands, or in the regular service; and grandchildren of soldiers and seamen whose parents are dead or in an insane asylum are admissible.

About 1879, the then superintendent conceived the idea that the need of a home of the kind would soon disappear, and succeeded in getting the legislature to allow a part of the institution to be used for feebleminded children, expecting that in a very few years the entire institution could be devoted to them.

When, however, by the extension of the meaning of the term soldiers' orphan, this idea had to be given up, the legislature decided to create an institution for feebleminded youth. The institution was to receive feebleminded, idiotic, epileptic and paralytic children under 18, to be discharged when of age.

For the Feebleminded

At that time the feebleminded were generally classed with the blind and deaf as defectives who could be educated and then discharged as self-supporting, self-controlling citizens. But this assumption slowly gave way to the modern

ERNEST P. BICKNELL

ALEXANDER JOHNSON

Inasmuch as the editor, not the author, is writing the captions for these pictures, the men above may be described as the three reasons for Indiana's leadership in charitable and benevolent policies. Each of them would say there are many other reasons. Since its creation 27 years ago the Board of State Charities has known no other secretaries than these. Each has been president of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

AMOS W. BUTLER

idea, namely, that the defect of feeblemindedness is as permanent as blindness and deafness, but that unlike the other two classes, the feebleminded can never be properly considered capable of self-control or self-direction, while, unfortunately, unlike most of the deaf and the blind, their defect is almost certainly inheritable so that their care, to be effective, must be permanent. As a consequence of this change of opinion, after a few years the limit of discharge was removed and that of reception was lowered from 18 to 16 years. Since that change a feebleminded person once received is kept indefinitely.

Beginning as a separate institution at Knightstown the school was removed to temporary quarters in some unfinished buildings which were designed for the Eastern Hospital for the Insane, near Richmond, until a special place was made for the feebleminded at Fort Wayne. This was begun in 1887 and occupied in July, 1890; since then it has been enlarged from a capacity of 400 to one of 1,200 and a farm colony has been operated very successfully in connection with the school. A law of 1901, allowed the reception of feebleminded women from 16 to 45 by commitment and thus created a department for adult females.

With all that has been done, the provision for the feebleminded is still far from adequate, and at the present moment a state commission appointed by the governor is preparing to make a report which will be considered by the legislature of 1917, and it is hoped, will result in some increased provision.

Political Entanglements

POLITICS has always been an important part of the duty of an Indiana citizen. When the various state institutions began to require large numbers of employes, the politicians seized upon the opportunity that so many jobs offered them. The pernicious doctrine "to the victors belong the spoils" became thoroughly imbued into the political methods, with the deplorable consequences that partisan domination always brings, and the spoils evil became rampant.

One contributory cause of this was the fact that until 1882, Indiana was what was called an "October state," *i.e.*, the state election was held in the month preceding the national one. As it was also a doubtful state, the parties being nearly equal in strength, every possible effort was made by the national committees of both parties to assist the state committees, with money and spell-binders, to carry the state election. The remark was often heard in the 70's, "As goes Indiana in October, so goes the nation in November."

Every six years a redistribution of representatives to the state legislature was made, the number remaining fixed at 100 in the House and 50 in the Senate. The party which had the majority at the time of redistribution always tried to gerrymander the state so as to remain in power. This was done so successfully that several times it happened that the governor and state officers were of one party and the majority of the assembly of another. This difference in party between the governor and the legislature, though often inconvenient, was not an unmixed evil; although, it sometimes accentuated partisan rancor, it did also temper it to some extent. Certain boards of trustees were appointed by the governor with the consent of the Senate, leading to boards divided politically, so accustoming the people to consider that not all the officials were necessarily of the dominant party.

For some years the charitable, penal and educational institutions of the state were the football of politics. Almost every position under them was a matter for political reward to a party worker, and, with a few brilliant exceptions, the quality of their administration was of the low standard that such a condition must inevitably bring about. The change of date of the state election, from October to November, was made by the assembly of 1881, under the influence of a band of earnest reformers, who made that legislative year a memorable one. The change became operative in 1882.

At the subsequent elections, efforts were made to remove the incubus of partisanship. Led by Benjamin Harrison, a leading Republican, and David Starr Jordan, a leading Democrat, the reformers of both parties succeeded in taking the state university, the normal school, and Purdue University, almost if not completely, out of the political quagmire, but the benevolent and penal institutions remained submerged.

At the legislative session of 1887, charges were made by the Civil Service Reform Association which led to an investigation of the Central Hospital for the Insane, which uncovered graft, cruelty and other abuses, almost beyond belief. The condition of the public institutions, or of many of them, was probably at its lowest ebb.

This did much to lose the state and national elections of 1888 for the Democrats who were held responsible, so that it might be said that Grover Cleveland was defeated for re-election by the bad condition of a hospital for insane in Indiana—Indiana's electoral vote would have changed the national result.

The local campaign of that year was largely fought on issues of state administrative reform, although in both party platforms there were declarations of the kind. Although the state and national tickets were elected by the Republicans, the last gerrymander had been so adroit that the assembly had a Democratic majority of 22 on joint ballot. This fact with the results of the investigation mentioned above, and the declarations in the platform of each party, convinced the leaders of the majority that the time had come for a change for the better, which would redound to the honor of the party which made it. The opportunity was embraced and although some conspicuously wrong things were done by it, the legislature of 1889 has passed into history as one of the great reform sessions.

Legislature of 1889

AMONG the measures enacted in 1889, were the Australian ballot law, the law creating the Boards of Children's Guardians, and that for the Board of State Charities. A fee and salary bill was introduced and referred to a committee which brought in a successful measure in 1891. All these bills were promptly vetoed by the governor and promptly passed over his veto.

There had been a peculiarly vicious system of boards of directors for the three state benevolent institutions in Indianapolis—the Schools for Deaf and Blind, and the Central Hospital. Each had a board, consisting of two directors of its own, and a chairman who was also chairman of the other two, so constituting really a joint board of control for the three.

This chairmanship was a position greatly desired. It was always given to a faithful party henchman. It carried with it the appointment of several hundred employes, the control of monthly contracts for many thousands of dollars worth of supplies and occasional contracts for buildings and improvements. The salary was three times as much as that of each of the other members of the boards, but even then was trifling in comparison with the possibility of graft and of political power.

The advocates of a single board of control to replace the present highly successful system of an individual board for each institution under the supervision of the Board of State Charities, would do well to study what this single-headed, triple-bodied, partnership system, did to the benevolent institutions prior to 1889, and especially to read the 700 pages of testimony taken at the investigation of the Central Hospital. The conspiracy then disclosed for the looting of the hospital and the robbery of the state and the patients was fatal to the methods under which it flourished.

Before the reforms of 1889 some of the more recently created institutions had been organized with improved plans of government; the system of bi-partisan boards, with women as well as men upon them, had been introduced into the state. In 1889 the newer system was extended to all institutions, and a real reform was begun, which was greatly aided by the Board of State Charities to whose influence much of the progress that has been made since it was appointed in 1889, has been due.

New Provisions

AMONG the new provisions was a very emphatic one, placing the responsibility for all subordinate institutional appointments solely upon the superintendent, and strictly charging that no one should be appointed for any reason other than supposed merit and only proved merit should be a reason for promotion. At first this did not apply fully to all the institutions, but by a later law it was extended to include every benevolent and correctional agency of the state. It was hard for politicians, bred under the spoils régime, to believe that this law would be observed. Yet it has been increasingly observed since its enactment, and the good condition of the institutions today is largely due to this fact.

Since 1889 changes in heads of institutions for politics have not occurred. When changes have been made there has always been some other reason, although not invariably a creditable one to the persons causing or making the change. The state has never adopted technical civil service. Its merit system is based upon public demand and approval and the precise location of responsibility on the person making the appointment. Appointees have been brought from other states, the first and most conspicuous instance of this being the first secretary of the Board of State Charities, who was a citizen of Chicago when appointed. It would be today a governor of unusual hardihood who would suggest to a board of trustees that they make a place for a friend of his by removing a worthy public servant of high or low degree.

The great reforms which began in 1889 have not been accomplished without stress and struggle. Much of the success is due to the high-minded and intelligent men who have occupied the governor's chair. But the strongest influence in upholding the work of the Board of State Charities and the reforms

which it has advocated, has been the newspaper press of the state, so ably led by the metropolitan papers of Indianapolis. The three leading newspapers of the state, Democratic, Republican and Independent (with Republican leanings) were controlled by men of conspicuous ability and public spirit. They had surrounded themselves with a group of brilliant young newspaper men, as reporters, city editors, etc.[4] many of whom have since occupied distinguished positions in connection with the press and other affairs.

The newspaper group were the leading members of a literary club to which belonged the best of the younger business and professional men of the city and which exercised, in an entirely unofficial way, a great influence in politics both of the city and the state. Reform was in the air and these men were on the right side of nearly every public question. When they found a public servant, who, in their opinion, was able and honest, they helped him as only the press can help. But those who did not have the ring of true metal got what they deserved.

Next to the influence of the press in supporting the work of the Board of State Charities has been that of the State Conferences of Charities. The board has taken advantage of the opportunities of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, and has so well represented the state to that national body that three members of the board and all three of its secretaries have been elected to the presidency,[5] the present secretary having been also president of the American Prison Association. Recognizing the value of the conference idea, especially in a democracy where the work of the state is the expression of the intelligent will of the people, the board promoted the state conference. This was begun in 1890, and has had excellent fruit in harmonizing the work of public and private agencies; in raising administrative standards; in promoting reforms and in popularizing the work of the board.

Following the example of the national conference, the scope of the state conference has widened far beyond the narrow limits of technical charities and correction and now includes all forms of social effort. Recently a new departure has been made by the organizing of local or county conferences which are popular and promise well.

Incidental to and concurrent with the reforms in the benevolent and correctional affairs of the state there has been a real reform in politics as they are concerned with the institutions. While it would be utopian to claim absolute purity, yet it is no longer true, if it ever were, that "purity in politics is an irridescent dream." The leaders have taken to heart the lessons of 1888 and 1889. They have come to the conclusion that political interference with the state's charities is bad politics; that gains from patronage are so small, since for every party worker rewarded with a job several applicants are turned down and its evils and dangers so great that the rule of "let the institutions alone" prevails.

The Charities Board

As the social consciousness has developed the range of state activity has widened. Since the Board of State Charities was created, besides the institutions and amendments which have been described above, most of which, occurring since 1889, have been largely the effect of the board's work and influence, several new departments of state activity have arisen. These include a Hospital for the Treatment of Incipient Pulmonory Tuberculosis; a Village for Epileptics, which has already become famous and is being copied in other states; an extension of the colony plan to the hospitals for the insane; and last but not least, a state General Hospital in Indianapolis, made possible by the gift of Dr. and Mrs. Long and conducted for

[4] At the risk of seeming invidious I cannot refrain from mentioning with grateful appreciation in this connection the names of Bicknell, Brown, Fortune, Fuller, Hornaday, Lane and Nicholson. No faithful public servant, who served during the stressful decade from 1888 to 1898, will decry this tribute.

[5] In the matter of the National Conference, Indiana might be called the "mother of presidents," six of them in 26 years, having been from that state.

the state by the Medical School of Indiana University. Besides these there have been a host of minor reforms and improvements.

During the 27 years of the board's existence, its influence on the county institutions has been no less salutary. Allusion has been made to the poor asylums and orphanages. Many of the jails have been greatly bettered, and the hope is strong that these, formerly, "schools of vice and recruiting stations for the army of professional criminals," will soon serve a better purpose.

Besides all its effective work in public affairs, the private charities of the state have not been neglected by the board. From the beginning of its existence, it has regarded the injunction of its organic law and has studied the whole field of charities of the state. None of its secretaries has ever been heedless of an opportunity of helpfulness to the Associated Charities or other useful volunteer agencies.

The work of the State Board has been the subject of commendation by every governor who has passed upon its reports. Governor Hanley's story of the reform of outdoor relief has been quoted. Governor Marshall said, in effect, that every time the board's advice has been heeded by the legislature, the results have been excellent, and that nothing that has been done on its suggestion has been repealed or seriously amended. Other governors have expressed themselves similarly. Its history from the beginning has been a story of faithful, enlightened and successful activity.

When the first report of the board was in preparation, a program of needed reforms was incorporated in it, some explicitly and some by inference. One of its leading members, in commenting upon the proposed report, said: "Friends, if all we here suggest is accomplished in 30 or 40 years, we shall be wonderfully successful." Before twenty-five years had passed everything was accomplished and the board had to create a new program of advance.

When the eighteenth National Conference met in Indianapolis in 1891, its president was Oscar Carlton McCulloch, the author of the bills that made the Board of State Charities and the Board of Children's Guardians. He was one of the first members of the Board of State Charities. His influence greatly helped to shape its policies, and to promote its methods of reasonableness; of constructive activity; of the securing of improvements in the institutions from within, not attempting to force reforms upon them from without; of faith in the people and belief that when they know what should be done they will want to do it; of faith in the press that it greatly desires to lead the people aright.

These have been the beliefs upon which the wonderfully successful work of this useful board has been founded. It has stood for the right with absolute fairness and freedom from selfish aims, and the people have believed in it, the public men have trusted it. In speaking of the possibilities of the board's work among the people of Indiana, Mr. McCulloch said to the author of this sketch: "They are a wholesome, honest, kindly, intelligent folk; they are frank and hospitable both to new men and new ideas." He knew them and he loved them and was beloved. He died before the nineteenth conference met, but his influence is a living force today. Rarely has one man achieved so much. His greatest achievements live after him, indeed they have culminated since he has passed away. He has "joined the choir invisible whose music is the gladness of the world," but the effect of his words and work flows on in a constantly widening and deepening stream.

Indiana has still much to do. It were idle to claim perfection. The work of the counties is wonderfully better than it was in 1889, but there is still much improvement to make, much base political influence to quench. The jails are being depleted of their inmates by the state penal farm, soon they will be merely places for the detention of accused persons not for the punishment of convicted ones.

And there are betterments still to make in state affairs, better dealing with the incipient insane, psychopathic wards in every city and large town, which shall lift the reproach of putting the sick-in-mind into jail, even for a night; better

work at some of the hospitals, an improvement of medical care, and an extension of the system of occupation for its curative as well as economic value; double or treble the present accommodation for the feebleminded. One hapless class of defectives, the cripples, is still neglected, and there are other things to be done. But what has been done causes us to be hopeful, to thank God and take courage.

If the gains of the next one hundred years shall be as much greater in proportion to the time, as the gains of the past thirty years have surpassed those of the previous seventy, the millennium in state affairs will surely be due to arrive shortly thereafter.

Permanent Values in War Camp Community Service

By Charles F. Weller

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CONSIDER Xville, a composite American community through which I present experiences in several cities. To determine what permanent values should result from War Camp Community Service we must ask what values have been added to the three hundred and twelve communities—including six hundred cities and towns—organized for W. C. C. S.

A New Conception

POWERS that prey were first to prepare in Xville, in April, 1917, for the promised training camp nearby. Saloons and brothels increased their facilities. Leading citizens expressed the historic attitude characteristic of many communities when they said to a representative of War Camp Community Service: "There are many illegitimate children and diseased women in this city because of the army camp we had here a few years ago. So we know what the soldier is, and there's no use of your talking to us about fellowship between soldiers and the best people of Xville."

To which our man replied: "What of the illegitimate children and diseased women suffering now in other cities because of what your city did to those soldiers? Is it not time for Xville to be interpreted to her guests by her best instead of her worst citizens?"

This new conception swept the country. In 312 communities it has been worked out in practical details under the leadership of a community organizer, a social worker employed, trained, directed by W. C. C. S. Usually there is a clubhouse, or several clubhouses, where soldiers, sailors and marines enjoy the best facilities and fellowships that Xville can provide. The best girls, women and men of the community mingle with their uniformed guests in dances, socials, dinners, auto rides and private homes.

Saloons and brothels have been repressed—by the Law Enforcement Department of the War and Navy Departments Commissions on Training Camp Activities. Better still, Xville has set forward her best people with her best resources to welcome the strangers within her gates.

Budgets ranging from a few thousand dollars to a quarter of a million dollars for each war camp city have been approved by the national budget committee for the fiscal year ending in September, 1919. A paid staff of from one worker to twoscore workers in each community is supplemented by an army of volunteers.

Democracy

PERSONAL associations before the war were based upon distinctions as to wealth, power, culture. The big business man of Xville said to a W. C. C. S. representative: "You are foolish to talk of my taking any fellow into my home just because he is in uniform. I don't want my daughters brought in touch with the riffraff of the streets. These soldiers are mainly such men as I have employed as clerks and laborers. Even if I wanted them in my home they would not want to come. We have nothing in common. They prefer to live on a lower plane."

Finally we did send to Sunday dinner in this man's house an ordinary soldier who had served six years in the regular army. Instead of the old feeling of superiority, the host found himself becoming apologetic—explaining that age prevented him from donning the honored uniform. The soldier, instead of showing any sense of inferiority or embarrassment, became the center of a new and vivid interest—in training camp methods, in the soldiers' views of the great war and in the home and group origins which this new kind of visitor represented.

Their new outreach toward democracy was vivified in a warmly human way when the host noticed that the bronzed and manly soldier was trying to conceal occasional teardrops trickling down his cheeks. "Excuse me," he said. "I didn't mean to make a fool of myself. But this is the first time in six years that I have been in any home at all. And those pota-

toes happen to be exactly like my mother used to make them."

One of the great values of War Camp Community Service has been that occasions have been afforded through which Americans have discovered each other, have learned that class distinctions are unimportant, that fellowship with different kinds of people is essential to democracy.

Sex

In the relations of boys and men with girls and women there have been remarkable developments through War Camp Community Service. Speaking frankly, and in the low terms of venereal disease, on September 28, 1917, out of every one hundred men newly gathered into army camps throughout the country, thirty-eight had venereal disease. That indicates civilian standards. Army achievements—through medical and sanitary service and prophylaxis and through the seven united war work agencies—have resulted in such reports as that from Camp Funston, where the total number of new cases of venereal disease in four months among forty thousand men was only seventeen.

Community influences are undoubtedly the chief determinants in this matter of sex and venereal disease. Is anything wiser and nobler than the way in which wholesome women and girls have offered their fellowship as a substitute for contaminating ministrations by their commercialized sisters?

This new sex attitude is expressed well by Mrs. Noble, of the Girls' Department of War Camp Community Service. To her all Xville girls must come who wish to attend soldiers' dances. To these girls Mrs. Noble says in effect:

> American girls and women have a contribution to make toward winning the war. We must strengthen the soldiers. We must guard them against women who would destroy their fighting power. These young men cannot marry now. They are going overseas. Houses of prostitution are closed to them. We have no right to arouse in these men impulses which they cannot express without weakening the army. No girl has a right to make the sex impression upon one of these soldiers even in the most refined, indirect, unconscious way—through dress, position in dancing, slight familiarities, suggestive looks or innocent flirtation.
>
> Instead, we must make these young men know, possibly for the first time, the calm strength and inspiration which a good woman's fellowship can give a man. We must send each soldier away from the dance—preferably not knowing one girl's name but having enjoyed the comradeship of a dozen girls and having found them such inspiring friends that he will be proud to risk his life for such American womanhood.

Resulting from this new teaching, a chance clerk in a department store asked a girl if the shirtwaist she was buying was for a soldiers' dance. "Then I'd advise you to buy a linen waist." More impressive still was the response of the Carnival Queens, a local organization of girls whose charm had led to their election each to represent her industrial group in the annual carnival. These girls asked for forty of the least attractive soldiers, men who had enjoyed the fewest social opportunities. To these fellows the girls gave an ideal afternoon, a picnic party with games and good fellowship and with stories from several soldiers who had interesting experiences to relate. There were no individual intimacies. Coming back together in the street cars, one of the "queens" said to Mrs. Noble: "A good many folks have told us 'you mustn't do this or that,' but you are the first who ever told us why."

Community Hostesses

In the general field of girls' and women's relationships to the community life of boys and men, Mary Wood Hinman is the best interpreter, I think, of the great change which is coming about through War Camp Community Service. To the leading women of a community Miss Hinman says something like this: "You are trained and practiced as masters of hospitality. But each of you has understood that her responsibility as a hostess is for only her own household or her immediate social circle. Now the government calls you to be hostesses for a community. You are asked to be responsible for social organization in public dances and even, if opportunity offers, in commercial recreations and elsewhere. You become responsible for promoting acceptable social relationships for all young people."

This new community consciousness is worked out in practical detail through meetings of all the women responsible for dances, socials, theater parties, picnic excursions, skating, home dinners and other forms of hospitality to the men in uniform. A new social technique develops, differing widely from that of the so-called social worker, designed rather for the amateur, for the average woman of culture and resource who is accepting a new responsibility—as "house mother" to a town. Thus women of preeminent social talent may learn to hold themselves measurably responsible for the bad hospitalities of their community and clearly responsible for organizing social contacts for all young men and women as they have previously organized them for their own sons and daughters.

Mobilizing Existing Agencies

Churches, fraternal orders, women's clubs, Rotary, Kiwanis, public schools, playgrounds and recreation systems, parks, social settlements and many industrial and commercial establishments have been drawn into social service to the men in uniform. What fundamental values are involved may be understood by considering the churches of one industrial city which have had such slight relationship to community life that the sudden increase of the city's population from forty to eighty thousand by the advent of forty thousand war workers has not changed at all either the attendance upon the churches or their activities and ideals. This is an extreme instance of desocialization but nearly all the institutions and organizations of the average city have wanted such closer gearing up to community needs as War Camp Community Service has measurably brought about in some 600 communities.

Augmented Power

Timidity and weakness in community undertakings have been superseded by a new great sense of power. The budget of the Playground and Recreation Association of America had reached the really impressive total of $150,000 annually. In July or August, 1917, Joseph Lee, our president, said: "We must raise as much as $400,000 for War Camp Community Service this year and I don't see how it is to be done." Two months later we were campaigning for $3,750,000 for our first year's expenses. For the second year $15,000,000 has recently been secured through the United War Work Campaign for the unheard-of sum of $170,500,000.

Personnel

This response in dollars has been paralleled by responses in personnel. For how many toilsome years has community service been the work mainly of the less important men and women—which entitles them all the more to America's appreciation. But how timidly, with what pathetic gratitude "for small favors thankfully received," have we lingered humbly around the tables of the great to catch their falling crumbs.

Now an ordinary social worker camouflaged as a representative of the United States government visits a city, summons several of the great ones of the community to meet him and finally nominates fifteen or twenty of the fore-

most men and women to Joseph Lee, who sends them letters of appointment from Washington. They accept the honor gratefully and work for War Camp Community Service with such efficient power as money could not buy.

Equally essential have been the employed group of 426 social workers drawn by war-time needs from schools, churches, social agencies and other occupations. Not one of these has "made anything out of the war"—has received larger compensation than formerly. Many have made financial sacrifices in addition to the painful loss of home life. And they have worked, dared, endured—joyously—like supermen and superwomen.

Movement, Not Machinery

At the climax of social values developed by War Camp Community Service I put its emphasis upon community organization as distinguished from institutionalism. All along the highway of advancing social service, like monuments bordering the Appian Way near Rome, are dead or half-dead institutions. Man has so little confidence in the divine ongoing of life that a serviceable idea is no sooner recognized than it is cabined and confined. That which was essentially movement and method becomes static, an end in itself, oftimes a drag against further progress.

Octavia Hill, collecting tenement rentals and improving conditions for the tenants, is formulated into a society which builds a few model apartments and stops there, content. Jane Addams' noble neighborliness is crystallized into a city square full of impressive structures and into several hundred social settlements throughout the world—all good but deserving to be better. The Y. M. C. A. becomes less a movement than a building with rather narrow functions. Churches, schools and the best of human institutions manifest this tendency to social arteriosclerosis or hardening of the arteries.

Against social gout, against fatty degeneration of the heart, to which sudden wealth might easily condemn it, War Camp Community Service has remained flexible, progressive, modest, teachable. This is due to many faithful servants, but chiefly to one modest, simple, deeply religious man with real genius for discovering and inspiring worthy colleagues, a resourceful enthusiast who keeps ahead of his best co-workers in his vision of democracy and his grasp of practicable expedients. Howard S. Braucher's associates in War Camp Community Service aspire to be as faithful as he to the theme that men may save their lives nobly only by losing them in service.

Community Singing

One instance of organization or social method as distinguished from institutionalism is the "community singing" or "liberty sings" emphasized by War Camp Community Service. Like other features, community singing is not an exclusive discovery, not a monopoly of W. C. C. S. But our movement has discovered that a community song leader and organizer is the best single means for stirring and coordinating community forces and for quickly interpreting community service to the average city or town.

Back to Normal

Suddenly came the armistice with peace in welcome prospect. How now shall the social values of War Camp Community Service outlast the war?

In answering that question it should be noted that this community service has not contributed to war as to something which ends with peace. Instead it is to human efficiency that our service has contributed—to such human efficiency as is necessary in peace quite as much as in war.

For nine months longer, until September, 1919, War Camp Community Service is assured and financed. Throughout these days of grace, beginning immediately, I believe we should all work to convince our countrymen that all the essential features of W. C. C. S. should continue and increase in the 600 communities now affected and should be extended to all other cities, towns and rural regions. An approach toward normal community organization is already under way in three great departments of War Camp Community Service:

First came the Girls' Department, seeking to organize all the girls of each community in a non-sectarian spirit, with a broad program of varied activities designed to keep the girls abreast of the soldiers in their development toward higher social standards.

Next is the S. A. T. C. with special community service in college towns occupied by the Students' Army Training Corps.

Latest and very recently there came to the Playground and Recreation Association of America from the United States Department of Labor, through its new Commission on Living Conditions of War Workers established by the Labor Policies Board, an authoritative call to develop War Workers' Community Service in industrial centers. Such cities as Bethlehem and Chester, Pa., Davenport, Iowa, and Rock Island, Ill., are already welcoming this new industrial community service, not only because of war workers but to meet community needs which have long been evident.

The New America

Xville, suddenly, was lifted out of its provincialism. That is possibly the greatest social value of the war. Do we realize its importance?

In more than a hundred American communities before the war I found such extreme localism, such blind indifference to the needs or achievements of other cities, such smug complacency, that I declared: "There *is* no America in the sense of a common consciousness, a national spirit." Then America was aroused by war with its international ideals—that new America of the spirit which, except in great crises, has been potential only.

To help preserve that awakened spirit we must never voluntarily go back toward the bad old days of states' rights and *laissez faire,* individualism and competition. War Camp Community Service should keep on permanently as Community Service. The United States government should continue to authorize and promote it. Local committees, in my judgment, should continue to be appointed and local funds collected and assigned as part of a national undertaking. I believe also that its paid executives should still be employed, trained, directed by national headquarters. (I speak, of course, my personal opinion, not the determined policies of the association.)

Appropriate features of community service should be taken over progressively by national, state, county, municipal, park and school authorities, by industries also, and by other agencies. But community service should carry on—pioneering in new fields and helping to maintain high standards and effective public opinion.

"When Johnny comes marching home again," the circumstances and needs of local communities will differ in only one respect from what they have been during war. There will be fewer youths away from their home towns. Otherwise human nature, community conditions, "the spirit of youth and the city streets," will call for community service as urgently in the uninspired days of peace as during the enthusiasms of war.

In only one way, as I see it, can this persistent need be met. What is it that has made possible the enhanced idealism of the last nineteen months, the augmented working power of organizations and individuals, the splendid spirit of social coordination and unselfish service? "Interest" is the one word I find in answer; a new, great, commanding interest has stirred us all. A compelling interest, dipping deeply into the subliminal reservoirs of unused power in individuals and organizations, has lifted us above our common selves.

Shall we sink back again? That natural reaction can be prevented, I believe, by maintaining such interest, such vision, enthusiasm, consecration as upheld us in the war. To President Wilson and to such congenial colleagues of his as Secretaries Baker, Daniels and Wilson and Chairman Fosdick, we must continue to look for leadership. Such men we should support openly and ardently, defending them against reactionaries, against "safe and sound" self-seekers, against the gray wolves who already are snarling at their heels.

Faith we must cherish, a determined faith, that morale will not permanently break down; that America will not take, spiritually, a long, lazy vacation; that the social needs which are obvious to us will be recognized generally; that Americans will have insight and brotherly love sufficient to recognize the average man beneath the soldier's uniform and to dignify this average man by appreciation, by expecting of him in industry such high, unselfish service as he gladly gave for the war.

Social workers, surely, will not dare to be pessimistic or reactionary. We must act as if assured that Toryism will not overwhelm the government; that the nation will assume full responsibility for preventing unemployment and for sustaining the essential standards of living. For this there must continue a large measure of governmental control of industries, and, consequently, of the community service through which the morale and efficiency of industrial workers shall be developed as War Camp Community Service has strengthened these same men while dressed in khaki. As in the great past, so in the greater future, all men and women must be sustained by consciousness that each is working not for his little private self alone, but for his larger and enlarging social self, for his community, for the international democracy of comrades.

Reconstruction and Social Advance

A New Program of Community Service[1]

By Charles Frederick Weller

EXECUTIVE SECRETARY OF COMMUNITY SERVICE FOR CHESTER AND VICINITY

PIONEERING in industrial community service, Chester, Pa., presents a new program of reconstruction and social advance. Chester, an old city of historic interest, is located on the Delaware river thirteen miles southwest of Philadelphia. Its population of about 40,000 before the war, is now estimated at 90,000 with several thousand to be added for the separate boroughs of Upland, Eddystone and Marcus Hook included in the territory of this new community service. SURVEY readers will remember John Ihlder's eloquent story, in the SURVEY of June 1, 1918, of How the War Came to Chester. Local ills have been abundantly described in his and other surveys by national and by local authorities.

Community Service

INSTEAD of another survey, a program of social advance is now presented. Community Service was inaugurated in Chester in October by a social worker who decided that criticisms enough had been expressed; that Chester's ills were sufficiently understood; that these evils are not peculiar to Chester but typical of many industrial cities—in which the importance of community activities and community relationships has not been realized; that he would say nothing which was not constructive; that every suggestion submitted should be optimistic, practicable, definite, inspired wholly by a spirit of appreciation, cooperation, democracy and good will.

Appointed from Washington by Joseph Lee, and first known in Chester as War Workers Community Service, a governing committee[2] for Chester and vicinity was organized in November. Five labor representatives were among the first members selected. The chairman is William C. Sproul, Pennsylvania's new governor, and the vice chairmen Thomas W. Allison and S. Lloyd Irving. In the necessary absence of Mr. Sproul from most of the meetings, Mr. Allison or Mr. Irving takes charge. Mr. Allison is head also of the local Rotary Club, the Red Cross and the new building committee of the Chester Club. Mr. Irving represents the local War Chest and has conducted, as chairman, the Liberty Loan campaigns of Delaware county.

Existing agencies in every phase of community service are drawn together monthly in an Advisory Council whose first meeting on November 22 was attended by thirty-five social workers who pledged—and are steadily delivering—the hearty cooperation of the Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., Knights of Columbus, Council of Defense, Boy Scouts, Council of Churches, Playground Association, women's clubs, parent-teachers' associations, parks, schools, the service and employment departments of all local industries and all other institutions and organizations engaged in social service. These meetings are already very popular as the first and only drawing together of all the social workers of the community. More than a hundred workers attended the second meeting on Jan. 20.

National authority for this new movement comes from the United States Department of Labor through its Commission on Living Conditions, of which John R. Richards is chairman. Determining helpful influence has also been exerted from the very beginning in Chester by L. C. Marshall, director of industrial relations for the Emergency Fleet Corporation with headquarters at Philadelphia.

The Governor's Program

GOVERNOR SPROUL as chairman of the governing committee outlined the purposes and methods of the new community service in a two-page statement, a sort of Magna Charta, which was unanimously adopted by the Governing Committee at its first meeting November 20. This gave authority for establishing the Advisory Council and an Executive Committee, which was instructed "to organize working committees or to make other appropriate arrangements as needed for the development of activities including community singing; club houses; baths and comfort stations; dances, socials, entertainments, dinners; athletics, games, hikes and the promotion of physical efficiency; pageants, dramatics, folk dances; girls' and women's activities and groups; larger uses of schools, parks, fraternal buildings, armory, churches, library and other resources; hospitality, auto rides, fellowship; neighborhood organization and activities.

Of historic significance, I believe, is the following paragraph from Governor Sproul's advance statement as chairman of the governing committee. The entire document indicates the progressive social spirit of one of the most warmly human men I have ever known. Oldest in length of service though youngest in years among the state senators of Pennsylvania, an industrial captain, a newspaper man and the leading citizen of Chester, Senator Sproul when he signed this declaration was governor-elect of Pennsylvania. He is a "dry" among the "wets" who have long dominated local politics. He is expected to make at Harrisburg a record for efficiency and for progressive state action in advancing human welfare. This good citizen of Chester declared: "In all committees and working groups, as in our Governing Committee itself, the industrial workers, men and women, should be strongly represented. The committee should definitely approve this policy to emphasize the fact that this movement is not something handed down, but an organization of the people themselves, representing all elements of community life, called together under the auspices of the United States government to develop popular activities and relationships which enrich and strengthen community life."

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[1]This statement has been approved by the Governing Committee of the Chester movement but not yet adopted as representing general policies of any group outside of Chester.—C. F. W.

[2]The members of the committee are as follows: William C. Sproul, chairman; Thomas W. Allison and S. Lloyd Irving, vice-chairmen; James A. G. Campbell, treasurer; Charles F. Weller, executive secretary; five labor representatives—James W. Ewing, David Heisner, Thaddeus I. Higgins, Charles Morris and E. J. Reinhart; four women—Mrs. Henry Clay Cochrane, Mrs. S. Blair Luckie, Mrs. Frank G. Sweeney and Dr. Katherine Ulrich; ten business men—John P. Crozer, C. A. Ernst, C. L. Gilliland, Edwin D. Glauser, Frederick A. Howard; L. T. Kniskern, Kingsley Montgomery, J. N. Pew, Jr., William I. Schaffer and C. H. Schlacks; the superintendent of schools, Charles A. Wagner, and the mayor, Wesley S. McDowell. The Commission on Living Conditions of the United States Department of Labor, which is cooperating in Chester, is composed of John R. Richards, chairman; J. Horace McFarland, John A. Voll and Eva White. The teaching staff for the training class for play-leaders includes J. Leonard Mason, director of the service department of the Sun Shipbuilding Company; Loren J. Keyes, physical director of the Y. M. C. A.; Edith Buchert, physical director of the Y. W. C. A.; and Edith E. Holt and Grace Johnston, specialists in industrial and community activities of the Y. W. C. A.

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Popular Music

COMMUNITY singing was the first and chief activity developed in Chester, as the best quick popular means of stirring the entire city and of drawing all groups together in community service. William B. Kelsey, an experienced song leader and organizer detailed to Chester by the Community Song Department of War Camp Community Service, has already introduced community singing into industries, moving picture houses, churches, schools and social organizations. Through the Rotary Club he promoted Christmas carols. He is enlisting volunteer song leaders to carry on the work in many centers and developing local committees or leaders for the various neighborhoods. Through Sunday afternoon sings in schools, churches and elsewhere, and through singing developed throughout the week in all existing centers of industry and of social life, Mr. Kelsey is leading toward great, all-inclusive community sings on Sunday afternoons in the biggest theater of town and, in appropriate weather, in Deshong park in the heart of Chester. For this department a budget of $6,640 is estimated for the year, to be compared with the annual budget of over $10,000 for community music in Flint, Mich., a similar industrial city.

Foreigners

AMERICANIZATION is the theme for Elizabeth Burchenal's work in coordinating foreign groups. This does not mean Americanization of the patronizing, domineering type which is based upon ignorance of foreign-born Americans and upon the conviction that everything native to the United States is superior and self-sufficient. Instead, the Greeks, Ukrainians, French, Italians, Welsh and twenty-four other racial groups represented in Chester, are being organized to interpret to themselves and to their neighbors the splendid value and spirit of their contributions to the community. Through their native folk dances, games and other characteristic activities, through their native costumes and, probably, through an exhibition of heirlooms and other treasured possessions reminiscent of foreign homes, these American citizens of foreign extraction will enlist Chester's interest in a great civic exhibition during the first week in March. Preparations for this pageant will stimulate group organizations and activities meanwhile and also prepare them for large participation hereafter in every great community undertaking, such as the promotion of Liberty loans and the celebration of the Fourth of July and other holidays. Only $4,327 is allowed in the Chester budget for this department for the first year.

Community Centers in the Schools

SCHOOL centers, a development of both public and parochial schools as centers of Community Service, is the special department headed by Anna M. Vaughan, whose experience in public schools fits her especially well to cooperate with a progressive school superintendent and the Board of Education. For a number of weeks the Franklin school has been in successful operation as a Community Service center with a great "family gathering" every Thursday evening, a class in English for Italians—the first thing requested by the Italians themselves—every Tuesday evening, with impressive dramatic performances, the dancing of the tarentella, committee meetings and the enthusiastic singing of popular Italian and American songs. In all of these the movement has already reached the stage of spontaneous combustion—the neighbors themselves pressing forward eagerly to offer their contributions and to urge the activities they desire.

Representing the Board of Education, William O. McClurg serves as chairman of the local committee which is to include the principal of the school, the president of the Parent-Teachers' Association, representatives of the teaching force and of various neighborhood groups including especially the Italians—who constitute from 40 to 60 per cent of the inhabitants of the neighborhood. French people, native Americans and other nationalities are also enjoying this popular "melting pot."

Already from the Horace Mann school and from other schools requests are coming for the development of similar centers. For colored people their Watts school is in successful operation. A year's budget of $5,880 is estimated for this department, to include necessary payments for janitor service, for evening workers to conduct special groups and classes, for some new equipment and for a guaranty fund to replace or repair any damage or losses of school property.

For and by Colored People

COLORED Organization is the special function of Sarah Collins Fernandis, a colored woman, graduate of Hampton Institute, who for fifteen years has made a notable success of work in colored social settlements, playgrounds, Red Cross and other social activities. Already the largest rooms available at the Watts school are filled to overflowing every Monday evening with colored men and women who spend the first half-hour discussing their civic needs and responsibilities. They have developed intelligent demands and some pushing power for such community projects as a new, adequate school building with auditorium, manual and domestic training rooms and proper school facilities; playgrounds; training in health and hygiene; and for other opportunities to change from liabilities to assets the leisure hours of 12,000 or more colored people who are largely gathered in two segregated, neglected neighborhoods. A dramatic club of promising size and character has been started. In community singing the colored people are taking the part to be expected from their unique contributions to American music. Forty or fifty of the city's colored leaders, both men and women, are working closely with Mrs. Fernandis with a new sense of unity and of community interdependence and responsibility. Compared with what the deadly race riots, not long since, cost Chester in money and in deaths, the budget of $3,400 for constructive Community Service for and by colored people seems an especially good investment.

Eleven Thousand Italians

FOR Italian Organization the departmental executive is Frand Casper, an Italian experienced in industrial work and welfare activities in one of the automobile plants of Detroit, who is experienced also in singing and in the organization of musical activities. Personally I feel I have learned more through my meetings with the fifty or more Italian leaders of Chester than through any other single department of our new undertaking. I have learned how useless are the methods which I and other social workers have hitherto frequently used with foreign-born groups because they have "all looked alike" to us and we have not come into close democratic cooperation with them. Such intimate, open-minded cooperation is really the only means of enabling them to devise and develop community organization and activities which suit their varied needs and their strongly individual personnel. Especially I have learned that any agency which is religious or sectarian and any method which may be suspected of being political is foredoomed to failure or to only such limited success as might deceive the ignorant.

Backing by the United States government has been especially

helpful to us in convincing fifty or sixty leaders, splendid men, among the 11,000 or more Italians of Chester that here at last is their long desired opportunity to work together as *Frattelli Uniti*—brothers united—without the characteristic deep antagonisms among Italian Catholics, Protestants and free-thinkers and without any political or other forms of exploitation to quench the splendid enthusiasm and the great spirit of patriotic public service which impels these warm-hearted, really wonderful men. Only $1,500 is estimated as the year's budget for this department, which has already brought together for community singing, dramatics, music, folk dances, classes in English and other activities about 300 or more of the Italians of Chester.

"Here Let No One Be Stranger"

HOSPITALITY, or community hostesses, or Community Service for and by girls and women is the special work of Vera A. Laing, who has been trained in public school music which developed significant community relationships. For some months before coming to Chester, she served as a community song leader in War Camp Community Service near Camp Grant at Rockford, Ill. In Chester she is enlisting existing organizations of women and developing new women's groups to give Saturday evening suppers in churches, downtown stores, fraternal buildings and elsewhere to which young men and women, especially strangers and newcomers, are attracted by the prospect of a home-cooked dinner served at reasonable rates by girls and women with whom, after the meal, games and other social activities are enjoyed.

For the 300 soldiers stationed in Chester to guard two great shipyards, and for the returning soldiers, sailors and marines, Miss Laing is organizing special hospitality. For these men in uniform and for the average men and women out of uniform, it is hoped that the social evenings will lead to acquaintance with Chester families, who will invite the young strangers home with them for Sunday dinners and for other home hospitality.

Parlor conferences are being promoted by Miss Laing, who is undertaking to hold every month during the early stages of our movement many small neighborhood gatherings where personal friends of the host and hostess will assemble for an evening conference concerning the intimate experiences and confidential plans of all departments of Community Service. Each of these neighborhood centers is expected to provide volunteers for various activities and centers of educational influence which will make Community Service popular and increasingly effective.

For the large public dances which have been conducted in the armory twice a week by Charles Morris and the band of the Chester Shipbuilding Company, Miss Laing is now organizing as hosts and hostesses some of Chester's best men and women. In democratic, self-determining groups she is also drawing together the employed girls themselves. For the whole department of hospitality, $1,800 is the total expense estimated for the first year including, as in all other departmental budgets, the salary of the evidently non-profiteering executives.

Club Houses

COMMUNITY CLUBS are being promoted under the leadership of Sergeant Chester O. Blackford who has had seven years' experience as manager or owner of successful restaurants and is now recently returned from ten months' service in the army. Funds provided by Mabel Pew, of the Sun Shipbuilding Company, together with the initiative and unselfish labor of Hy. V. Smith, have resulted in opening as a Coffee House or Community Club, in the heart of the business district of Chester, the second and third floors of an old building whose first floor is appropriately occupied by a saloon. Here, in the free and easy spirit of a saloon but without its characteristic spirits, men will enjoy opportunities to smoke and spit, to play games, run the victrola, look at papers and magazines, visit with their friends and lounge about in pleasant quarters. Soft drinks and attractive foods will be sold, together with cigarettes, candies and other articles through which the club hopes to become self-supporting. Ten-cent shower baths may be added to the free toilet facilities already provided.

On the third floor there is a lodge room which is to be rented to groups of varied kinds and to be used for suppers and other social activities including music, games and hospitality through which all classes of men and women, especially young people, will be brought together, not only helping to make the club house self-supporting but particularly helping to make it unnecessary for any decent man or woman to be a stranger in Chester. One afternoon recently the liquor dealers' association, fifty or sixty strong, was followed by a meeting to which, for the first time in Chester, all the clergymen were invited—Protestants, Catholics, Jews, Quakers and Christian Scientists. For the opening reception on January 20, the ladies of the W. C. T. U. served a home-cooked chicken supper (for sixty cents!) to eighty-two men and women representing the civic, social, educational and community service forces of Chester. Before and after the meal, one hundred and twenty-five men and women discussed community service agencies and enjoyed folk dances and games together.

As this first Community Club develops successful or significant experiences, it is hoped that other clubs may be established in strategic centers throughout Chester. The first sub-committee officially appointed by the Governing Committee has been organized to finance, manage and promote such club houses.

Games and Physical Efficiency

A TRAINING Class for Playleaders is in successful operation under the direction of Carleton B. Sanford, chief scout executive of the Boy Scouts of Chester and vicinity, assisted by a teaching faculty including the whole executive staff of Community Service and local helpers. Seventy men and women, white and colored (and the number promises to grow much larger) are meeting every Wednesday night for training which will enable them to promote games without apparatus in the afternoon and evening hours upon the vacant lots and other available spaces throughout the various neighborhoods of Chester. Through a fee of twenty-five cents per lesson and through the fact that the teaching faculty and the director serve gratuitously, this important training class requires no support from the Community Service budget.

Mr. Sanford is a volunteer but we hope soon to employ a staff worker who will give his entire time to a special department of physical efficiency, athletics, games and larger uses of vacant lots, school grounds, parks and other spaces. This department will work in the closest possible cooperation with the Chester Playground Association, which has for nine years conducted, during two months each summer, eight or ten playgrounds for children, largely in public schoolyards. Including part-time workers serving between five and ten P. M. and averaging possibly, in winter, twenty weeks, three evenings a week, two workers each evening; and, in summer, thirty-two weeks, four evenings a week, four workers each evening, this department is expected to cost $4,080 for the year.

A Powerful New "Machine"

SOON we shall have developed and alert for service a powerful, responsive organization representing all phases and factors

of civic and social life. Around each of the nine departmental executives an appropriate committee or group of committees is being organized. All of these together will soon comprise a force of several hundred men and women, leaders in local neighborhoods or in special lines of community service, who will form an intelligent public opinion with methods and habits of effective self-expression. These people will probably help, if necessary, in financing some of our Community Service undertakings. They will promote civic advance by municipal, school and park authorities. They will encourage and sustain public representatives who serve the people's interest.

Necessarily there have been omitted from the preceding brief outline of Chester's program a good many plans—such, for example, as the suggestion that a motion picture machine be purchased for use in many places and to be made self-supporting.

Welcoming returning soldiers, sailors and marines will be emphasized in all appropriate activities and especially in the Sunday afternoon sings. A Roosevelt Memorial Community Assembly is now in preparation.

Children, unless accompanied by their parents, are now excluded from the activities of all departments. By spring or summer we hope to reach the boys and girls of Chester and to serve them adequately. Meanwhile, we know that unless we concentrate exclusively upon grown men and women our activities are likely to be overcrowded by children—whom it is always easy to reach for recreational occasions—and the more difficult adult will conclude that ours is simply another nice little playground movement for the youngsters.

The rental of four office rooms in the Crozer building, their equipment, together with stenographic service, printing, telephone, telegrams, postage and other essentials are estimated to require $4,785 for the year.

The Leadership and the Spirit Necessary

COMMUNITY Service such as our nine departments represent could not have been started in Chester and it is not likely to be adequately maintained and advanced without the initiative and leadership of a national representative trained and directed by national headquarters. He can work only through local groups and their object must always be to have appropriate activities taken over as rapidly as possible by city, school, park, playground and other public forces and by privately supported agencies, but such a national representative is essential to withstand the political upheavals and local reactions which are to be expected and to bring constantly to the service of the local community the best experience and the most progressive inspiration available, through national headquarters, from all other communities throughout the world.

In addition to the $32,412—possibly more—which will be needed for the first year's budget of those nine organic departments of Community Service which have been outlined above, there must be systematic promotion of such independent developments as the establishment of public baths and toilets by the municipality; the maintenance of a great central community club in Deshong park or the armory or elsewhere; an increased budget and extended functions for the local Playground Association; and the development of a humanely-useful memorial—possibly a "Liberty center" to Chester's soldiers, sailors and marines. It has even been suggested that our entire Community Service, with its nine departments costing $33,000 a year, might be adopted, after fuller demonstration, as a public department sustained by city, county, state and national funds.

All of this Community Service will be realized very rapidly and further advances not yet conceived will be easily practicable if we can succeed in developing a great commanding enthusiasm for Community Service. As the War Spirit passes away, America must develop a Community Service Spirit to take its place—to prevent the people from sinking back into selfishness, to enable them to recognize the average man beneath the soldier's uniform, to inspire them to do for average men and women in average communities what war has taught us is essential for the development of human efficiency.

Social Reconstruction

Proposals for federal legislation affecting education, civil rights, probation, health, country life, conservation, labor, housing, pensions, public works and budget

By

Edward T. Devine

C. C. Carstens *Samuel McCune Lindsay*

L. A. Halbert *Arthur J. Todd*

COMMITTEE ON NATIONAL PROGRAM

The Conference on Social Agencies and Reconstruction held in New York on November 29-30, 1918, agreed upon certain resolutions and created a general organizing committee to promote the purposes for which the conference was called. By authority of the organizing committee a smaller committee was appointed late in March, to bring together in a "national program" the measures of immediate importance involving action by the federal Congress or by the executive departments which might be expected to command the sympathetic interest of social agencies and social workers throughout the country. This Committee on National Program respectfully submits the following report.

May 27, 1919.

WHETHER the peace treaty delivered to the Central Powers in Versailles becomes effective in its present form or not, whether the League of Nations for which it provides comes into existence or not, it is obvious that the future welfare of other nations, as well as our own welfare, depends in an exceptional degree upon the strength, the prosperity, and the resourcefulness of the American nation. Our common humanity and the immediate interests of our own people thus unite to put upon us a unique obligation and to give us an unprecedented responsibility.

For food and raw materials, for financial credit, for transportation facilities at sea, for progress in science and the arts, for the maintenance of international obligations, the world will inevitably look to us as never in the past. This implies no superiority on our part as individuals, and is not to be attributed to our superior institutions, however well adapted they may be to our needs. It is the inevitable result of circumstances which no one among us foresaw and of which no one can as yet see the outcome.

The world situation increases our obligation to establish justice, to maintain standards of life, to increase productive power, to release pent-up capacities, to safeguard health and morals, to devise a sound educational system, to remove the causes of industrial discontent, to promote the happiness and welfare of all and especially of those who have heretofore had least opportunity for the pursuit of happiness and fewest reasons for contentment. These obligations arise both because it is possible for us to do these things as it may not be for others who have lost more heavily in the great war, and because the very future of civilization demands that we steadfastly hold high the standards which are so grievously threatened in many nations by the destruction of wealth and by social disorder, that we do not fail to apply in our own way such lessons as may be learned by the observation of desirable or undesirable changes elsewhere and of experiments which we may have made under the pressure of the emergency of war.

Social workers have long taken a creditable part in state legislation and in the efforts for improving local administration. Without neglecting these, our wider horizons now call for a more active participation in national affairs.

The Peace Treaty and the Covenant of Nations, tariff revision and the encouragement of foreign commerce, and similar questions, are not considered in this statement, for the reason that social workers are assumed to have in them only the same interest as other citizens. The restoration of peace and of international good-will is indeed the most urgent of all social problems. The speedy ending of all the lesser wars still in progress, and prompt action by the nations or the society of nations to heal the wounds of the great war, are most devoutly to be desired.

Internally the most pressing of all social problems are those of industrial and governmental reconstruction. Social workers have some evidence to give in both these fields. We have more reason than most for realizing their importance. Dealing with individuals and families on the margin of subsistence, with less than normal resisting power, we are concerned with the bad effects of overwork, overcrowding, inadequate income, irregular employment, inefficiency, thriftlessness, unorganized industry, and industrial unrest. We are concerned also with the bad effects of inadequate governmental machinery; lack of adjustment between obvious social needs and the means of meeting them; scarcity, inefficiency, or underpay of teachers, probation officers, public health nurses, and others who in any branch of the public service—from the highest rank to the lowest—are responsible for public education, health, and morals. From our point of view, the present situation in the administration of the war risk insurance act reveals the need of a reorganization in the federal government which does not fall short of the President's cabinet at one end, while it extends at the other to such technical details as serial numbers in the army and the filing of case records.

It is true that industrial reforms, under our system of government, lie more often in the field of state legislation and in

what are regarded as the private relations of employers to workers, or of voluntary cooperative effort, than in national legislation. The spirit of industrial democracy, however, has a legitimate place in national legislation. Industrial democracy, however hard it may be to define it, signifies an attitude which it is generally easy to recognize, and which is at least as clearly understood as political democracy. Fundamental democracy pervades the measures enumerated hereafter, whether they may happen to deal with education, health, housing, country life, pensions, the budget, public works, or the framework of the government itself.

Although the present statement deals only with measures requiring action by the federal government, it is not intended to express any tendency towards centralization or political socialism. There is no proposal for curtailing either voluntary initiative and responsibility or the responsibility and activity of the state governments. The emphasis is on the relative importance of the social as compared with other recognized activities of the government.

I. Insurance and Pensions

THE confusion and virtual break-down of the early administration of the Bureau of War Risk Insurance, when public interest was centered mainly in the sending of allotments and allowances to the families of soldiers and sailors, seemed, happily, likely to be succeeded by a better administration of the law in the period in which the compensation and insurance features became more prominent. The failure of the appropriation bills at the end of the Sixty-fifth Congress and personal controversies have unfortunately thrown the whole Bureau again into a confusion which seems to approach the dimensions of a national disaster.

Certain changes in the law, aside from those of a technical nature, have been shown by experience to be necessary. The rate of compensation for injuries requires revision. The difference between the flat rate of $100 a month allowed for the loss of both arms or hands, both feet or legs, both eyes, or for becoming actually bedridden, and the minimum of thirty dollars a month allowed for total disability arising from any other injuries—as, for example, the loss of the entire right leg and right arm—is obviously too great. The provision relating to court appeals by dissatisfied claimants also requires modification, since as it stands an appeal is decided, necessarily, according to the established rules of legal procedure, while the Bureau, in making the original award, is expressly allowed by the law to admit informal evidence.

The greatest need however is for a permanent and independent status for the administration of the compensation and insurance system. It is now obvious that it should not have been established as a subordinate bureau in an already overgrown Department. It took England two years to discover that a Ministry of Pensions was necessary and we failed to profit by her example. If we were establishing, as we thought, a method of providing for soldiers and their dependent families superior to that of any other nation or of any previous period in our own history, we ought the more clearly to have seen that we were creating an institution which called for administrative ability of the highest order. Its head should not have been made subordinate to a secretary or assistant secretary already fully occupied with the most weighty financial responsibilities which have ever devolved on a human being, to say nothing of his extra duties as head of a Public Health service, a coast guard and a secret service. Nothing is plainer, moreover, than that there is no inherent difference between compensation to world war veterans and pensions to Spanish and Civil war veterans and that there is no logical justification for placing the one in the Interior Department and the other in the Treasury. The union of the two services in an independent department would give the opportunity to correct the faults, in the administration of both and to put this most conspicuous of the social welfare activities of the federal government on the plane where it belongs. A Secretary of Insurance, Compensation, and Pensions might not need to be an expert on the technical problems of insurance, but it would be indispensable that he have administrative capacity and appreciation of the social bearings of the War Risk Insurance Act.

II. Public Education

FEDERAL aid to elementary, secondary, and higher education is a practical necessity, and is amply justified on every consideration of justice, political theory, and expediency. The nation has quite as direct an interest in the preparation of its citizens to fulfill their national obligations as have the states in their preparation for local citizenship. This involves not merely ability to read and write, but also fitness as workers, as parents, as self-governing members of a free and progressive nation, as men and women who know how to use their leisure and to live a good life.

We have already liberally subsidized certain kinds of higher and vocational education. We must now begin farther back, by cooperating with the states in abolishing illiteracy, increasing the pay of teachers, insuring a modicum of professional preparation for teaching, lengthening the school year, making easier the path of those who want more than an elementary education, promoting the use of school and public libraries, standardizing and unifying our whole educational system—while leaving the states free as heretofore to develop their own plans, to learn from their own mistakes and from the experience of one another.

Not less than $100,000,000 should be appropriated for elementary education alone for the first year, and this amount should be increased year by year until some approach has been made to a national, comprehensive educational system. Two-thirds of the whole cost might be borne by the states.

Various bills calculated to accomplish these purposes will be introduced in Congress. The one which represents the views of the National Education Association provides for federal aid through a federal department and carefully safeguards the powers of the educational authorities of the states. There are great advantages in combining the provisions for state aid with that for cabinet representation. The spokesman for the cause of education in the national government should not be in a subordinate bureau. He should have an educational policy for the whole nation, and should command the widest and most respectful hearing in announcing and advocating it.

About half of our adult foreign-born male population in 1910 was unnaturalized, the increase in the number of unnaturalized aliens in ten years having been 147 per cent. The war has given an opportunity to catch up in some measure with the task of assimilation. The temporary cesssation of immigration has coincided with an intensifying of the process of Americanization, and at the present moment there are very few who have not had to face consciously many times, under pressure from their neighbors and the authorities, searching questions as to their loyalty and allegiance, their permanent home, their ideals of democracy. Community singing, Liberty loans, Red Cross drives, food and fuel conservation, even the discussion of the current news of the day, have been so many

mutually reinforcing elements in the education of prospective citizens.

Financial assistance to elementary education, both for adults and for children, is the best possible contribution which the federal government can make to the process of Americanization. The various groups of the foreign-born might advantageously be represented in the administration of all such funds. Foreign-born children as well as foreign-born adults present special problems which have been too much neglected. The public schools and other educational agencies have the main responsibility for teaching foreigners. Through a special office of the Bureau of Education, the Department of the Interior is engaged in stimulating this work and supplying material for it. The government might have skilled field workers constantly at work securing the cooperation of the foreign-born in a mutual exchange of cultural wealth. The purposes of the nation should be made clear to aliens through trade unions and the numerous societies which exist among the foreign-born. Immigrants should be enlisted in the effort to interpret the aims and ideals of America to their friends at home. Pending the creation of a Department of Education, cooperation between the Department of Labor and the Department of the Interior in the working out of a coherent program of Americanization is desirable, and the provisional organization in the Bureau of Education should be continued.

Americanization does not mean forced conformity to a single type; and the learning of English, essential as it is, does not constitute an education. To think like an American is an even more important objective in Americanization than to speak and write English. If there is any one national characteristic above all desirable, it is appreciation of individuality. Freedom to think and the possession of something to think with are the most precious gifts of fathers to sons. To comprehend ideals of democracy and self-government; to have respect for the rights of others, including the rights of minorities and of individuals; to have a worthy ambition to render a creative service to society with hand and brain rather than to remain a social debtor or bankrupt; to become actually skillful somewhere—in mine, shop, office or home, on railway, farm, ranch or range; to know how to save and invest as well as how to work and to work with fellow-workers—are all involved in the process of Americanization.

The obligation is not one-sided. It involves adaptation by Americans to one another in a constant process of better utilize their special gifts to the common advantage. The first condition of the Americanization of the alien is that we shall get acquainted with him. The first condition of the education of the American is better preparation and better status for the teachers.

III. Restoration of Civil Rights

UNFORTUNATELY the wholesome process of Americanization has been in some measure impeded by the suppression of civil rights, by interference through the censorship and otherwise, under the plea of national safety, with freedom of the press, freedom of speech, and freedom of assembly. In some instances, foreign-born naturalized citizens and unnaturalized aliens have been subjected to mob violence and lynch law at the very time when well-meaning people have been striving to "Americanize" them by means of public addresses and newspaper appeals. Without entering into any controversial question as to the necessity for a dictatorship during the war, it is clear that the Americanization which is now most urgent is the restoration of the ordinary and traditional rights of the individual. If we would persuade the strangers within our gates and our native sons to respect the laws we must make sure that their duly appointed guardians respect them.

The exceptional war measures, as enforced and interpreted, have prevented not only treasonable and seditious actions, but also wholesome criticism and discussion. When it was forbidden to question the acts of nations with whom we were associated in the war, even though they were not allies, when ferocious sentences were imposed for slight offences, a lamentable state of insecurity and uneasiness arose, especially in the foreign populations, even among those who were wholly patriotic and law-abiding. No one knew at what moment some old statute or some new regulation might be invoked to "get" some individual or group who might be regarded as undesirable. Cowardly concealment of opinions, blatant hypocrisy, or sheer stagnation of thought, have been the natural result. If we would avoid the diseased psychology which is said to prevail in central and eastern Europe, we must now remove all such unwholesome restraints on honest thought and speech, and must take pains to let it be widely known that they no longer exist.

The persistence of any spirit resembling that of the alien and sedition laws of a hundred years ago would be one of the most certain means of fomenting that disloyalty and unrest which it would be its professed aim to combat.

Negroes as well as white citizens and aliens are entitled to protection from mob violence, and they have suffered far more from the lack of it. A movement to make lynching a federal offense has recently been initiated, and if protection cannot be secured by a change in local public sentiment resort must be had to federal action, even if this involves amendment of the constitution. Not only in this elementary right to life and to their day in court, but in all measures for social reconstruction, provision for Negroes should be scrupulously included, and their cooperation in carrying out such measures secured.

IV. Federal Probation

IT is surprising that the system of probation, as now generally practiced in the state courts, has not been extended to the federal courts. A law to accomplish this is urged by the National Probation Association, and bills similar to the measure which passed both houses of Congress in 1917 will again be introduced. It is hoped that such a law will indirectly advance adult probation in the states which have not yet adopted it. No arguments are needed to convince social workers that this proposal should be supported.

V. Public Health

THE Public Health Service, like the Bureau of Education, should be enlarged and promoted to the dignity of a federal department, with a seat in the cabinet. This service is now lodged, along with such strange company as the Coast Guard and the Bureau of War Risk Insurance, in the much congested Treasury Department. There is no adequate reason for its being there, and no possible advantage to the public health.

The American Medical Association, much the largest national organization of practicing physicians, has long been on record in favor of the establishment of a Department of Public Health. There are numerous health activities scattered through other departments than the Treasury which would naturally be brought together under the administrative direction of the Secretary of Public Health when the new department is created. There are other health needs to which

proper attention would immediately be given as soon as they became the personal concern of a federal official of the rank of a cabinet member, with the professional standing and the sense of responsibility which this implies.

The whole nation is now aroused by the issues of the war to a sense of the importance of health, of physical vigor, of freedom from remediable physical defects. Under responsible leadership the states and municipalities might be expected to engage in an effective campaign of sanitation. Within constitutional limits, the department might contribute to improved housing, food inspection, the prevention of water pollution, physical examination of school children, instruction of mothers in pre-natal care and in child hygiene, health insurance, the prevention of accidents and occupational disease, the better control of the communicable diseases, garbage and sewage disposal, more accurate mortality, morbidity, and natality statistics. Even if the Secretary of Public Health did nothing more than to arouse the public to an appreciation of the importance of public hygiene, the establishment of a department would be justified; but in fact the federal government is already engaged in administrative and educational work in the field of health on a scale which, if the activities were assembled and coordinated, would be found to be very impressive. Scattered as they are, and unfamiliar to the general public, they are not impressive, and they are therefore, from the educational point of view, the less effective.

Pending the establishment of a Department of Public Health, the existing Public Health Service should be enabled to carry on several of its activities on the expanded scale of the war period. The creation of a special Division of Tuberculosis, the expansion of the work in rural sanitation in cooperation with state and local public health authorities, and the vigorous prosecution of the campaign against venereal diseases, are the three measures for which the Public Health Service is asking special appropriations, and they are precisely the three measures which all social agencies throughout the country are naturally ready to support with every influence at their command.

The war has accentuated the national problem of tuberculosis and has made it less than ever possible to ignore it or to throw its solution unfairly on particular local communities in which, for racial or other accidental reasons, the disease is especially prevalent, or to which, for climatic or similar reasons, a large number of those who have the disease resort. It is a national problem, and the nation must bear its generous part in dealing with it. The tangible expression of the intention to do so is the recommendation for a special division in the Public Health Service, made not only by the Public Health Service itself, but also by the National Tuberculosis Association—the authoritative voluntary agency which for fifteen years has been waging unintermittent and effective warfare against this disease.

Rural sanitation, for obvious reasons, develops more slowly than urban, but epidemics, infected milk, impure water, unwholesome foods, and ignorance of the elementary facts of personal hygiene, are as dangerous in a small town or on an isolated farm as in a city tenement—rather more dangerous, in fact, in the present situation, with public and voluntary agencies active in the cities and comparatively scarce in the country. There are numerous ways in which the Public Health Service can stimulate and strengthen local efforts to abate nuisances, remove unsuspected sources of infection, and spread abroad knowledge of the essential facts about health. This is a part of any comprehensive program of Americanization, and a part of any creditable system of public education. Special provision for rural sanitation is needed only because this is the part of public sanitation which has been most neglected.

During the war many communities have had the benefit of an exceptional control of venereal diseases because of their relation to military camps. With the mustering out of the army these special activities of the War Department naturally come to an end, although they will leave their mark on state legislation and on methods of local administration. The Public Health Service has no such time limitation. If it has the necessary funds it can aid the local authorities materially in handling this most persistent and most difficult of all health problems. No community can afford to be without this assistance. No nation can afford to suspend or hamper any approved and tested means of protecting the public morals and checking the ravages of these diseases.

VI. Country Life

THERE are rural as well as urban social problems. Programs devised for the cities cannot, however, be applied indiscriminately to meet the needs of farmers. Rural education, rural sanitation, have been grievously neglected, but there may be a social danger in the sudden discovery of this fact. The farmer must be allowed to solve his own problems in his own way. One of the principal civic virtues of town dwellers, from the farmer's point of view, is a willingness to pay such prices for food products as will enable the food producer in the country to maintain a decent standard of living. Both producer and consumer are naturally interested in preventing waste and exploitation in the process of distribution, and in such control as has been shown to be necessary for example in the meat packing industry.

The farm worker, like the industrial worker, needs primarily sufficient income to maintain health and comfort for himself and his family. Like his fellow-citizen in the towns, he has other needs also, such as education, recreation, social organization, easy means of intercourse with neighbors; but these are dependent upon good markets for his produce and upon stable prices for staple products. In a progressive farm community, the results of educational, moral, and sanitary improvements become of course cumulative, contributing to higher standards both directly and by increasing income but it is a mistaken impression that farming necessarily ensures a surplus income to all who work hard and live sober lives. A sound policy toward the workers on the land—owners, tenants, and laborers—is as essential in a national social program as a sound policy toward capital and labor in the industrial world. Fortunately agriculture, like labor and business, but unlike education, health, and engineering, is represented by a well supported and influential federal department, with a Secretary of Agriculture at its head.

The several activities of the Department of Agriculture are primarily directed toward discovering the elements of a national policy of farm life and carry them into effect. The Smith-Lever act, administered through the Cooperative Agricultural Extension Service, is a most important instrument for getting information to farmers and their families and promoting the application of the best scientific and practical processes. The federal and state governments are expending this year about sixteen million dollars in this extension work, of which $5,670,000 is a special federal appropriation on account of the war. The Secretary of Agriculture is asking Congress to continue this additional annual appropriation of $5,670,000 for extension work in the agricultural counties of the nation. Of the sixteen millons needed, a little over one-third comes from

the Lever funds and nearly one-third from state and local appropriations.

Social workers naturally appreciate and support in every way possible this federal-state extension work, as a means of aiding farmers and their families in crop and animal production, in the marketing of products, the making of the home and its environment more comfortable and more healthful, and the promotion of a broader and more satisfactory life. It is through this extension work of the States Relations Service that boys and girls, through clubs, competitions, and other educational devices, are initiated into the more ambitious and profitable kinds of farming.

This involves also encouragement and support of the necessary subordinate means to this end, such as the scientific work of the Home Economics Office, which supplies material to the field workers in the Extension Service, and to related activities even in other departments, as for example the thrift campaign in the Treasury. The Bureau of Markets, through its news services and its local market reporting service, and the Farm Labor Service, supplementing the Federal Employment Service, have also a very direct bearing on social welfare. The speeding up of highway construction, through the cooperation made possible by the Federal Aid Road act, is demanded in the interest of both urban and rural life.

The reorganized Bureau of Farm Management and Farm Economics will prosecute scientific inquiries into the actual costs of farm crops and into many other aspects of the business and social economics of agriculture. For this work the Department of Agriculture will need $500,000, which covers among other things, the cost of the studies in farm finance, of the farm life studies, and research in the best methods of land utilization, including the problems of land settlement, ownership and tenancy. Such inquiries should eventually contribute substantially to the solution of the central farm problem: viz. how to make farming pay, how to make farm life permanently attractive.

The plan of enabling discharged soldiers and sailors to acquire a farm, through the Reclamation Service of the Department of the Interior, is entitled to the sympathetic consideration of those who are accustomed to scrutinize such plans with an eye to their effect in the long run.

It would not be reasonable to give a farm for the asking, regardless of farming ability or experience and regardless of cost; or to pay a fancy price for poor land which the present owners would like to sell; or to make an enormous addition to the farming population; or to bring extensive areas of new land under cultivation at excessive expense; or to attempt to do away entirely with tenancy, which under some circumstances may be a wholly normal and desirable method of enabling farmers without capital to become farm owners; or to segregate all the ex-soldiers in farm communities under federal control. The colonies, in any case, would probably not need to provide, at the outside, for more than ten per cent of the farmers' sons who were in service.

What is proposed is that the Reclamation Service shall have an appropriation of $500,000,000 for a period of three years, with which good land already under cultivation or easily to be brought under cultivation may be purchased, to be sold under contract in farms of appropriate size, on a plan which will enable the purchasers to pay for them from their labor, after an initial payment of five per cent of the sale price. The purchaser may borrow not to exceed a fixed sum, at a low rate of interest, for equipment and building materials. He must actually live on the farm, and he may not sell, lease, or otherwise dispose of the holding for a fixed period—probably ten years—and then only in case his contract is fulfilled and the land fully paid for. Exceptions may be made on account of illness or for other substantial reason.

Obviously this is not to be advocated as a great scheme for reclaiming "waste" land, although valuable land at present neglected or not fully utilized may be included. The sites selected may or may not be swamp land which requires draining, or arid land which requires irrigation. They are more likely to be cut-over or brush land, which the settler can aid in clearing. While this preliminary work is being done the prospective owner may be paid wages, which however would re-appear in the price of the land for which under his contract he would afterwards pay full value. While there is nothing to prevent the purchase and sale to ex-soldiers of isolated farm sites, it is probable that, if the general plan is approved, the Reclamation Service will encourage, especially in the southern states, the development of planned rural communities, as being more attractive to prospective farmers and their families and as having a valuable educational influence on the whole rural life in the states in which they are located.

It is recognized that a successful farm community does not depend merely upon soil and location; that it depends upon the character of the people who compose it, even more than upon the physical resources at their disposal. The problem of country life is one of social cooperation, of doing everything possible to enable the community to secure the essentials of a normal life for themselves and their children, to encourage the mutual principle of association. This does not mean tutelage, but it does mean information, cooperative institutions, and protection from exploitation.

VII. Natural Resources

THERE is a general and well-founded impression that the principle of national conservation has been successfully established. Legislation is however still to be enacted to apply this principle in several directions—among others to the great remaining fuel resources of the nation. Measures will be introduced for the leasing of coal and oil lands and also for the leasing of phosphate and mineral lands, as well as all water power, retaining federal ownership in all cases.

Much of the coal, oil, and mineral land of the country that is developed is worked by a lessee under leases conserving the rights of the owner of the fee. The same principle might be applied to all such lands owned by the United States.

When the United States grants water rights for irrigating its own land, or develops systems of irrigation, it should retain title, to prevent exploitation and preserve the rights of the users. When waters are stored to prevent floods and for the drainage of marsh land, the land so improved should be acquired by the United States and leased upon such terms as will protect the rights of occupiers.

The reclamation of waste land and the actual development of unutilized resources are of social importance because of the increased openings which they give for the better distribution of population and for the employment of labor in a way that is profitable to the worker.

VIII. Industrial Life

THE separation in 1913 of the Department of Commerce and Labor into two coordinate departments was an impressive recognition of the responsibility of the national government for the human as distinct from the material or technical side of trade and industry. The existence of the Department of Labor enables the nation, without undue interference with the prerogatives of states or with the responsibility of

private business, to respond promptly and generously to the new spirit of industrial democracy.

Underlying the varied activities of the Department of Labor, there is constant if tacit recognition of such principles as those of the eight-hour day and the maximum forty-eight hour week; of the one day rest in seven; of the living wage both for men and for women; and above all, of the axiom that workers are not to be regarded merely as "hands," but as men and women, entitled to a human interest in their occupation and to an effective voice in the control of its conditions.

Among the most generally lamented of the items in the appropriation bills which failed in the closing hours of the sixty-fifth Congress was that for the federal Employment Service, which is conducted by the Department of Labor. The public spirit of the service itself and of individuals and civic agencies of all kinds in the various states has bridged over the critical recess period. This service should now be put on a legitimate statutory basis and the appropriation for which the Department of Labor asks should be made. Experience indicates that the main responsibility for a free Employment Service should be left to the state governments, supplemented by financial aid and by a unifying and standardizing service in the federal government. The federal service should act as a clearing house among the states, and may temporarily supply the need in the states which have no free public exchanges. Within a fixed and comparatively brief period, however, the federal service should simply cooperate on a dollar for dollar basis with the states which have created a state service. Pending this development, the federal Employment Service must continue for one or two years to carry a large part of the burden.

Besides the Children's Bureau, which is perhaps the only federal activity ante-dating the war which was established on the direct initiative of social workers, and the federal Employment Service, there are special activities of the Department of Labor developed during the war which cannot be allowed to lapse with the coming of peace.

Foremost of these is the Woman in Industry Service—a branch of the Department of which the need was clearly recognized long before the pressure of war conditions made it imperative. The formulation of standards of employment in all industries in which women are engaged in large numbers, even though the enforcement must depend on state legislation or on their voluntary acceptance by employers, is as desirable in peace as in war. The appropriation requested for this Service in the appropriation bills which failed to pass the last Congress will no doubt be asked for again, with confident expectation of favorable action.

Since January, 1918, the Secretary of Labor has had the great advantage of the advice and assistance of a Director of Negro Economics. So important and so numerous are the questions affecting the relations between white and colored workers and between Negroes and their employers—questions relating not only to placement, wages, and conditions of labor, but also to health, housing, savings, and education—that it is very desirable that this arrangement also should be put on a permanent basis, and that appropriations should be made available for it, either as a special service or in connection with one of the other services of the Department.

Other special services, such as Investigation and Inspection, Working Conditions, and Training, although established from emergency appropriations to meet war needs, are not in any proper sense war activities. The war has not created, but only revealed or emphasized, the need for them. Either as distinct services or as part of some older bureau, they should be continued.

The National War Labor Board, whose powers of compulsory arbitration virtually came to an end with the armistice, has shown that there are more effective methods of dealing with industrial disputes than those heretofore employed. The representative character of the Board and its relative permanency are features which might be retained in some peace agency for arbitration. Advantage should be taken of the experience gained during the war to reorganize the Division of Conciliation in the Department of Labor in such a way as to make it a more potent influence in settling disputes and removing their causes.

When the sixty-fifth Congress adjourned a bill prohibiting immigration for four years was on the House Calendar, and measures for restriction are likely to be introduced in the course of the special session of the Sixty-sixth Congress. The National Committee for Constructive Immigration Legislation has a plan for adjusting the number of immigrants admitted each year in proportion to the number of naturalized citizens of the same racial or national group already in the country. Among other arguments, it is hoped that the adoption of some such formula might solve the delicate questions in regard to immigration from the orient.

The selective immigration law which became effective May 1, 1917, has not yet had a trial under normal conditions. The war not only reduced the number of immigrants to an almost negligible quantity; it even recalled to Europe from abroad the able-bodied male workers to serve in the ranks. Until the American army has been brought home, the arbitrary limitation on immigration imposed by the lack of steamship facilities will continue to operate. Whether thereafter, with the present law in force, there will be a sudden restoration of the inflow with which we were familiar before the war, is at least doubtful. European nations will be in sore need of labor for the reconstruction of farms, mines, factories, and homes. Real wages will be higher than ever before. Probably the attempt will even be made to prevent emigration by law.

Amendments to the immigration law, unless to remedy administrative difficulties, might therefore be postponed until the regular session of Congress in December.

IX. Housing and Home Loans

WHEN in 1917 the federal government was faced with the need for greatly increased production, it found that it must take into account the housing of workers and organized a Bureau of Industrial Housing and Transportation in the Department of Labor. Later the United States Housing Corporation was chartered, to build and manage groups of dwellings and industrial villages, while the Bureau, under the same officers, continued its work of securing accommodations and improving conditions in existing dwellings.

When the armistice was signed the Housing Corporation stopped work on all developments where houses were not nearing completion and where there was not great need for additional dwellings, basing its action on the salvage value. Any attempt to force the sale of these properties in the interest of real estate speculation should be resisted. Those which the government does not retain for purposes of demonstration should be sold at their real value to limited dividend corporations to manage on a cooperative basis, or to individuals. When practicable, such developments may well become self-governing municipal corporations.

The Bureau of Industrial Housing in the Department of Labor should be continued as a bureau of research, information and advice in regard to housing and town planning. The Bureau has exceedingly valuable information in its possession

as a result of the experience of the past two years, and this should not be lost. The re-planning of towns and cities is essential to correct blunders already made. If we are not sufficiently sensible and courageous to attempt this essential work, we may still be wise and intelligent enough to control future growth more nearly in accordance with recognized principles of community planning and to set standards for housing which will prevent the development of new slum areas. For either purpose a national advisory housing bureau, which can be secured most easily at the present moment because of the fact that the government has actually been engaged in extensive building operations, would be of great value.

Bills will be introduced in Congress for the establishment of a Home Loan Bank, financed not by public funds but by private resources obtained through local Building and Loan Associations. Such legislation will be a practical means of stimulating the building of houses while the present shortage continues, and will put the construction of houses in constantly greater measure in the control of those who are to occupy the houses. The effects of the present housing shortage upon health, morals, and efficiency is matter for serious concern. The work of the Building and Loan Associations has been of great benefit. The proposed legislation promises to extend their usefulness.

X. Federal Budget

THE substitution of a budget system for the present uncordinated hodge-podge of general and special appropriations is required in the interest of economy, honesty, and intelligent national administration. Until we have a budget we shall not be able to carry on a consistent program of social measures through a period of years.

This elementary reform underlies all governmental reconstruction measures. Every other modern government has a budget system. The President and several of his predecessors, the leading political parties in their platforms, both houses of the last Congress by independent measures, the industrial and commercial interests of the country through the United States Chamber of Commerce, have all urged the adoption of such a system.

Only under a budget can the Chief Executive and the executive departments be held to a rigid accountability for the expenditure of the public funds, and only under a budget system can the people hold both legislative and executive branches responsible for the performance of their functions. The adoption of a budget system will ultimately correct a multitude of abuses and anomalies in the accounting and financial methods of the government and reveal the particular places where riotous waste and inefficiency prevail, thus releasing funds for constructive social work. The present moment is opportune for carrying through this belated reform, with all its logical consequences.

The Central Bureau of Planning and Statistics was formed to meet a distinct, although somewhat similar need. This Bureau, responsible directly to the President, has served during the latter part of the war as a clearing-house for plans involving more than one department, and has reported to the President weekly in detail on the progress of various executive projects concerning which knowledge is obtainable and of current interest.

Through such a bureau, if it should be made permanent, or through some other designated agency, methods of research and statistics might be standardized and correlated. This function might even extend to the better correlation of federal planning and statistics with those of state and local governments, so that duplication might be avoided and a national system, based on voluntary cooperation, gradually developed. Vital, educational, industrial, criminal, and other social statistics would thus become more easily comparable and more reliable. Progress has already been made in this direction in some fields, but the establishment of a permanent central bureau, even if with advisory powers only, would greatly facilitate such progress. Federal subsidies for education, employment service, etc., give a suitable opportunity for standardizing both the methods and reports of local social agencies.

XI. Public Works

JUST as organized farmers discovered the need for a Department of Agriculture, organized business for a Department of Commerce, and organized labor for a Department of Labor; just as teachers now rightly demand that there be established a Department of Education and doctors that there must be a Department of Public Health; just as veterans of the world war may be expected to see the propriety for a Department to administer the War Risk Insurance Act; so the engineers have already begun an agitation for a Department of Public Works.

They are quite right. In the great war the engineers have won complete recognition as a fundamental element in military operations and their place in the national economy of peace is quite as important. The federal government is constantly engaged in large engineering enterprises and it is obvious that efficiency and economy would result from a single technical administration. The flourishing and successful government printing office supplies on a relatively small scale an analogy to the service which a Department of Public Works might render to all the departments in which construction is undertaken.

In a period of unemployment such a department could be of incalculable assistance by expediting legitimate public work and distributing it in such a way as to take up the slack places. The establishment of the budget system, if this should take place first, will almost inevitably lead to the creation of a department of public works simply as a result of bringing together in an intelligible form the plans of the various departments for new construction or reconstruction.

XII. The Cabinet

NOT as a substitute for concrete recommendations already made, but as a means of carrying them into effect, it might be advantageous—in view of the numerous duplications now existing; in view of the illogical location of several bureaus and services; in view of the necessity for an early decision about the continuation of the special services created during the war; and in view of the fact that no less than seven new federal departments have been proposed, at least four of which have gained serious support—that a joint committee of the two houses of Congress should be appointed, to survey the whole organization of the executive departments, and to recommend a simplification and such rearrangement and expansion as are required by experience and the probable needs of the future.

Possibly, with the enlargement of federal activities, the time may have come when the cabinet should no longer include the heads of all the executive departments. Certain allied departments might be grouped together for purposes of representa-

tion in the cabinet; or, if that should prove easier, departments might be enlarged to include two or more coordinate subdivisions, as has been suggested for Health and Education. A due sense of proportion would no doubt lead to a similar grouping of the Army and the Navy, with their air services—one military adviser to the President obviously being sufficient if the League of Nations serves the purpose for which it has been created.

The Food Administration and the Railroad Administration have illustrated the advantages and disadvantages of independent services responsible directly to the President. Perhaps the President's council room cannot easily accommodate more than ten chairs; but it is certain that in the United States government at the present time there are or should be twice that many administrative positions of the highest rank. A fundamental reconsideration of the relation between cabinet membership and executive administration is essential in the interests of the general welfare.

The measures above enumerated—affecting education, health, country life, industry, housing, compensation and insurance for soldiers and sailors, and public works—amount in effect to an initial program of social readjustment as far as this fairly devolves upon the national government, although it has not been our purpose to compete with academic or comprehensive schemes of reconstruction. Each proposal has been carefully considered on its merits and all those which have been included have serious support either from the department or bureau in the government most directly concerned or from some association or group of competent experts who have given continuous and public spirited attention to the problems involved.

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COMMITTEE ON NATIONAL PROGRAM

OF THE

CONFERENCE ON SOCIAL AGENCIES AND RECONSTRUCTION

[CALLED BY THE SURVEY, NOVEMBER 29-30, 1918]

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MAY 29, 1919.

Those who find themselves in general sympathy with the purposes of the Committee on National Program, as indicated in the accompanying report, are cordially invited to form in their own community one or more local groups for the further study of the problems of social reconstruction.

It is proposed to use the term RECONSTRUCTION FORUM for any such local group—in order to emphasize the fact that they are not primarily for propaganda, but rather for open-minded study and interchange of views. The present committee, until some better means are discovered, will be glad to act as a center of inter-communication for such community groups, and to keep them informed as fully as possible concerning the progress of legislative proposals and concerning opportunities for cooperation.

A Reconstruction Forum may consist of a half a dozen members or half a hundred, as may be most convenient. It need have no constitution or by-laws. It need adopt neither platform nor program. Meetings may be as frequent and as informal as its members desire. The only stipulation is that some representative of the group be designated to act as correspondent, and that this member keep in communication with the Committee on National Program.

In a large city there might be several independent groups if that is preferred, although in that case they should naturally communicate with one another as well as with the national committee.

We consider the present report only one step in the making of a program of social reconstruction. The time may yet be distant when anything which may properly be called a comprehensive program is possible. On the other hand, developments may come rapidly. Our hope is that a net-work of independent but cooperative Reconstruction Forums will help to keep the program, as it takes shape, both in touch with reality and responsive to our best national impulses.

As soon as a Reconstruction Forum has been formed the Correspondent is requested to notify the Committee on National Program at the address given above.

EDWARD T. DEVINE,
Chairman.