

**THE  
INTERNATIONAL  
CONGRESS  
OF WOMEN  
1909**

# REPORT

OF THE

## INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF WOMEN

HELD IN TORONTO, CANADA

JUNE 24<sup>TH</sup>—30<sup>TH</sup>, 1909

UNDER THE AUSPICES OF

## THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF WOMEN OF CANADA

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## VOLUME II.

CONTAINING THE FOLLOWING SECTIONS:

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INDUSTRIAL.

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PROFESSIONS AND CAREERS FOR WOMEN.

SOCIAL WORK AND MORAL REFORM.

59187

# INDEX.

	Page.
Health and Physical Training .....	1-74
How the Anti-Tuberculosis Crusade can Benefit the General Health of the Whole Community.....	1
By HER EXCELLENCY THE COUNTESS OF ABERDEEN.	
Some Aspects of Public Health Work.....	6
By DR. F. MONTIZAMBERT, Director-General of Public Health, Canada.	
The Duty of the Citizen: the Municipality and the Government.....	10
By DR. C. A. HODGETTS, Chief Health Officer of Ontario, Canada.	
Public Health in Tasmania.....	13
By DR. J. S. C. ELKINGTON, Chief Health Officer.	
Our Combined Action Against Tuberculosis in the Dominion.....	19
By DR. J. G. ADAMI, McGill University, Montreal, Canada.	
The Campaign Against Tuberculosis in Holland.....	23
By DR. VAN GORKOM.	
Alpine Resorts. ....	26
By GIULIA BERNOCCO FAVA-PARVIS, Italy.	
Vacation Colonies in Sweden.....	30
By DR. INEZ LAURELL.	
The White Seourge.....	31
Translated from Italian.	
The Health of the Child.....	34
By ELIZABETH M. HOOPER, United States.	
The Effect of Antenatal Conditions on Infantile Mortality.....	36
By DR. LOUISA MARTINDALE, England.	
The First School for Mothers in the Netherlands.....	41
By MME. VAN HOOGENHOUCK-TULLEKEN.	
A Swedish Day Nursery.....	42
By DR. INEZ LAURELL.	
Babies' Milk in Stockholm.....	44
By DR. INEZ LAURELL.	
The Copenhagen Milk Supply.....	45
By J. H. MONRAD, Denmark.	
Personal Hygiene. ....	47
By DR. MARY C. MURDOCH, England.	
School Baths in Sweden.....	53
By DR. INEZ LAURELL.	
Medical Inspection of Elementary Schools.....	53
By DR. ELEANOR LOWRY, England.	
Medical Inspection of Schools, Canada.....	57
By MRS. J. N. SMILLIE.	
Instruction in Swedish Girls' Schools in Anatomy, Physiology and Hygiene. . . . .	58
By DR. INEZ LAURELL.	
Pure Food. ....	61
By ELIZABETH R. SCOVIL, Canada.	
Necessity for the Purification of Drinking Water.....	66
By T. A. STARKEY, M.D., Canada.	
Physical Training in Denmark.....	69
By FRÖKEN ANNA BUCH.	
Physical Training in the Schools in Sweden.....	71
By DR. HEDWIG MALMSTRÖM.	

	Page.
<b>Industrial Section</b> .....	75-159
The Domestic Servants' Association and Training School in Copenhagen. By FRÖKEN MARIE PEDERSEN, Denmark.	75
Housekeeping a Backward Industry..... By MISS MADEL ATKINSON, England.	77
Thrift Among Women Workers..... By DR. KLEEREKOPER, Holland.	81
Labour Bureaux. .... By DR. ALICE SALOMON, Germany.	87
Ontario Labour Bureau..... By MR. JOHN ARMSTRONG, Toronto.	90
Remarks by Miss Wileman, Miss FitzGibbon and Mr. Edgar, all of Canada.....	93
The Recent German Factory Legislation in Regard to Women's Health.. By FR. DR. AGNES BLUHM.	93
Recent Labour Legislation in Holland..... By DR. KLEEREKOPER.	95
Specific Regulation Regulating Woman and Child Labour..... By FRÖKEN KROG, Norway.	98
Factories Legislation as it Affects Women in the State of Victoria..... By MARGARET GARDINER CUTHBERTSON, Australia.	99
Recent Labour Legislation in Denmark..... By FRÖKEN META HANSEN.	103
Recent Labour Legislation in Great Britain..... By MRS. J. R. MACDONALD, England.	105
Remarks by Mrs. Gough, Australia; Miss Hurlbatt, Canada; Dr. Salo- mon, Germany; Miss Addams, United States; Miss Pappenheim, Germany; Hon. Mrs. Franklin, England, and Miss Keyes, Canada.	106
The Dominion of Canada Factory and Shops Laws for Women and Children..... By MISS CARLYLE.	108
Unemployment Among Women..... Read by MISS HARVEY, England.	114
Remarks by Mrs. Hamilton, Canada.....	119
Remarks by Mr. Gardiner, the Principal of the School for the Blind, Brantford, Ontario, Canada.....	119
Remarks by Mrs. Dennis, Canada.....	123
The Work and Methods Employed at the Widener Memorial Industrial Training School for Crippled Children..... By MISS DOOLITTLE, United States.	123
Educational Information and Employment Bureaux..... By MRS. OGILVIE GORDON, Scotland.	128
Information Bureaux. .... By MISS BAELE, Holland.	133
Day Trade Schools for Girls in England..... Read by MISS ZIMMERN.	135
Industrial Training for Girls..... By MRS. SEXTON, Halifax, Canada.	140
The Housing of Factory Workers..... By MRS. VAN MAREN, Holland.	147
Remarks by Dr. Samson, Ottawa, on Canadian Government Annuities..	152
Local Insurance Laws..... By DR. ALICE SALOMON, Germany.	152
Sweating..... By CONSTANCE SMITH, England.	155

	Page.
Laws that Concern Women and Children .....	160-251
Minutes of Section.....	160-178
Papers Read in Section.....	178-251
I. Parliamentary and Municipal Enfranchisement of Women.....	178-185
Women on Local Governing Boards.....	179
By Miss E. C. HARVEY, England.	
Parliamentary and Municipal Enfranchisement of Women in Sweden....	182
By Miss ANIANNE THORSTENSEN.	
II. Treatment of Juvenile Offenders Against the Law.....	185-199
The Treatment of Juvenile Offenders Against the Law.....	185
By Mrs. BOWEN, United States.	
The Treatment of Juvenile Offenders.....	190
By Miss ROSA BARRETT, Ireland.	
The German Juvenile Court.....	194
By FRAULEIN DRANKHAHN.	
Juvenile Offenders Against the Law.....	197
By Miss BOURICIUS, Holland.	
III. Parental Legal Rights of Married Women and Legal Status of Illegitimate Children.....	200-223
Mother and Child: Notes on the Legal Relationship.....	200
Written by Mr. ALFRED R. KENNEDY, Barrister-at-Law, and read by Miss MacMILLAN.	200
The Legal Parental Rights of Women in New Brunswick.....	203
By Miss FRENCH, B.C.L., Canada.	
The Position and Legal Status of Woman in Tasmania, having refer- ence to Her, First as a Wife, Second as a Mother, and Third as a Citizen.....	218
By Mrs. DOBSON, Tasmania.	
Illegitimate Children.....	220
By Mrs. DARRE JENSEN, Norway.	
IV. Legal Rights of a Married Woman in Her Husband's Property... 223-237	
Legal Rights of a Married Woman in Her Husband's Property.....	223
By Miss E. GILLET, Attorney-at-Law, United States.	
Notes on the Present Position of Married Women with Regard to Property.....	228
By Mr. ALFRED R. KENNEDY, England.	
Laws Referring to Women and Children in the Argentine Republic.....	232
The Legal Rights of a Married Woman in Her Husband's Property in Norway.....	235
V. Marriage and Divorce.....	237-251
Marriage and Divorce.....	237
By Mrs. E. B. GRANNIS, United States.	
Laws Concerning Marriage and Divorce in Norway.....	241
By Fru. DREWSON, Norway.	
Divorce.....	243
By Dr. STOWE-GULLEN, Canada.	
Laws on Marriage and Divorce in Belgium.....	248
By Mlle. MARIE POPELIN, L.L.D., President of the Belgian National Council of Women.	
Philanthropy.....	252-272
Minutes, including remarks of various speakers.....	252
Opportunities for Women on Local Governing Boards in Canada.....	254
By Miss ETHEL HURLBATT.	
Minutes.....	261

	Page.
The Brabazon Employment Society.....	262
By MISS M. C. CRAWLEY, England.	
Summary of Address on "Relief Methods in Industrial Crises.".....	267
By MR. LEWIS M. HAUPT, United States.	
Minutes, containing remarks, etc.....	268
By MR. RICHARD LANE, Canada, and others.	
Professions and Careers for Women .....	273-356
Minutes—Convener's Remarks. ....	273
New Professions of Women in Denmark.....	273
By FRÖKEN ANNA BUCH.	
New Professions Opened to Women in Sweden since the Last Quinquennial Meeting. ....	274
By MISS AXILIANNE THORSTENSEN.	
Some Moral, Social and Economic Effects of Women's Entrance into Professional Careers.....	276
By MISS E. A. BARRETT, England.	
Abstract of Address on Social Service—a New Profession for Women..	280
By MISS A. M. MACLEAN, A.M., Ph.D., United States	..
Women and Science.....	281
By MRS. SEXTON, Canada.	
Women as Scientific Investigators.....	285
By MISS ANNA POLAK, Holland.	
Women as School Inspectors.....	288
By SIGNORA BERNOCCHI FAVA-PARVIS, Italy.	
The Social Value of the Professional Woman.....	289
By REV. LYDIA K. COMMANDER, United States.	
Journalism and Women.....	291
By MARY FRANCES BILLINGTON, England.	
The Development of the Study of Medicine for Women in Germany, and Present Status. ....	294
By DR. FRANZISKA TIBERTIUS.	
Women and Preventive Dentistry.....	298
By GILLETTE HAYDEN, D.D.S., United States.	
Agriculture as a Profession for Women.....	301
By HELGA SEHESTED, Denmark.	
Women Agriculturists in Sweden.....	301
By SIGRID ULRICH.	
Women in Agriculture.....	307
By MISS YATES, Canada.	
Women's Institutes of Ontario.....	311
By G. A. PUTNAM, Superintendent Ontario Department of Agriculture.	
Poultry Keeping as a Profession of Women.....	313
By MISS NELLY EDWARDS, England.	
Horticulture as a Profession for Women.....	317
By H. W. R. STRONG, United States.	
Dairy Farming and Lecturing for Women in Great Britain.....	321
By MISS HESTER F. LEAVER.	
Women Gardeners in Great Britain.....	323
By MISS F. R. WILKINSON, Swanley.	
Women in Agriculture and Horticulture.....	326
By EDWARD FIGDOR, ESQ., Austria.	
The Women's Agricultural and Horticultural Union.....	327
By MISS E. S. HOWARD, United States.	

	Page.
Women and the Forests.....	329
By JAMES LAWLOR, Esq., Canada.	
The Woman Attorney and Counsellor.....	332
By ELLEN SPENCER MUSSEY, L.L.M., United States.	
Women as Shorthand Writers and Typists.....	334
By MISS N. E. GREEN, England.	
Shorthand and Typewriting in Sweden.....	338
By MISS THORSTENSEN.	
Women Inspectors.....	339
By MISS HILDA MARTINDALE, Ireland.	
Fraternal Benefit Associations: Their Origin, Scope and Value.....	344
By Mrs. HOLLISTER, United States.	
Women in Banking.....	349
By MISS ALICE W. DEANE, United States.	
Women as Bankers.....	350
By Mrs. BUCHAN REESOR, Canada.	
Some Experiences as a Lady Horse-Breeders.....	353
By Mrs. JOHN M. CLAY, United States.	
Sculpture for Women.....	355
By Mrs. V. HOXIA, United States.	
<b>Social Work and Moral Reform .....</b>	<b>357-492</b>
The Value of Preservative Work for Girls.....	357
By MISS M. E. CREIGHTON, England.	
State Guardianship of Young People.....	361
By (Mrs.) K. A. CHIPMAN, Canada.	
Protection of Children.....	366
By FRÄ. DOHNER, Germany.	
Women's Settlements in Great Britain.....	371
By MISS ELIZABETH MACADAM, England.	
Settlement Work in Holland.....	375
By M. G. KNAPPERT.	
The King's Daughters in Settlement Work.....	378
By Mrs. B. C. WHITNEY, United States.	
Protective Work for Children in Chicago.....	378
By Mrs. JOSEPH T. BOWEN, United States.	
International Catholic Association for the Protection of Young Women.	381
By E. VAJ. ELISA AMERIGHI, Italy.	
A Report of What is Being Done to Check Vagrancy in Norway.....	383
By MISS THORA STORM.	
"The One Divine Work is to do Justice."	
By Mrs. G. E. SPENCER, United States.	
The Treatment of Women in Prison .....	387
By DR. TERESA LABRIOLA, Italy.	
Juvenile Courts .....	393
By MISS ROSA BARRETT, Ireland.	
Children's Courts Versus Reformatories.....	397
By SIGNORA BARTLETT, Italy.	
The Juvenile Delinquents' Act.....	400
By MR. W. P. ARCHIBALD, Canada.	
Juvenile Courts .....	403
By G. BOGUE SMART, Canada.	
Emigration—the Attitude of Great Britain.....	406
By the Hon. Mrs. JOYCE.	
A Report Concerning Emigration from Italy.....	413
By CONTESSA MARIA LISA DANIELI CAMOZZI.	

	Page.
The Protection of Young Travellers.....	416
By WM. ALEX. COOTE, England.	
La Protection des Jeunes Voyageurs en Suède.....	423
Par MLLF. CLARA WAHLSTRÖM.	
The Child or Girl Without a Mother, and the Mother Without a Child..	428
By MISS SADIE AMERICAN, United States.	
Immigration.....	434
By MISS M. AGNES FITZGIBBON, Canada.	
Immigration Schemes Adopted by the Commonwealth of Australia.....	440
By SENATOR THE HON. HENRY DOBSON.	
The Mother in Public Life.....	448
By MRS. HIGGS, England.	
A Plea for Mothers.....	452
By MRS. BAYFIELD, Canada.	
The Mother in Home Life.....	455
By HON. MRS. FRANKLIN, England.	
Woman as Wife, Mother and Home Builder.....	457
By MRS. GRANNIS, United States.	
The Mother in Home Life (as Nurse, Educator, Physical, Moral, Spir- itual Companion, Protector, Home-Maker).....	462
By MME. ORLANDO, Italy.	
The Education of Women for the Battle of Life—the Present and the Future.....	464
By MME. GIULIA PECCIANA, Italy.	
White Slave Traffic and Equal Moral Standard.....	468
By LADY BUNTING, England.	
Dr. Louisa Martindale's Address to Lady Bunting's Report.....	470
The Nation's Peril—a Double Standard of Morals.....	473
By MRS. K. W. BARRETT, United States.	
The Abolitionist Movement and Social Hygiene.....	475
By DR. SYLVANUS STALL, United States.	
White Slave Traffic and Equal Moral Standard in the Netherlands.....	477
By MISS A. DE HOGENDORP.	
Equal Moral Standards for Men and Women.....	481
By MRS. STRYANT BROWNE, Australia.	
The Abolitionist Movement in Germany.....	485
By FR. ELLA HAGENANN.	
The Traffic in Women in Denmark.....	489
By FRÖKEN ELIZABETH GAD.	
White Slave Traffic in Italy.....	491
By MME. TURIN.	

# Health and Physical Training.

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PUBLIC HEALTH SESSION.

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## HOW THE ANTI-TUBERCULOSIS CRUSADE CAN BENEFIT THE GENERAL HEALTH OF THE WHOLE COMMUNITY.

By HER EXCELLENCY THE COUNTESS OF ABERDEEN.

The subject of which I have made choice appeals to all, for in practically all countries a movement has arisen to combat a plague which has carried on its havoc practically unimpeded for centuries because of the widespread belief that it must be regarded as a visitation of God against which there was no remedy.

It took twenty years and more since the discovery of the tubercle bacillus by Koch, for the world to realize that the discovery meant that the dreaded disease was not, after all, hereditary and unpreventable, but that it was a communicable affection and one that is wholly preventable and capable of being stamped out.

This is too joyful a message to be taken in all at once, and at first when its import is recognized we have another danger to face in an unreasoning panic and fear of consumptives, as if they were stricken with the plague or smallpox, and we have to overcome this with the further knowledge that a consumptive who has been instructed how to take certain simple precautions is no danger to anyone, and that it is only in the final and advanced stages of the disease that isolation is the only safe course.

When once this is understood, the instructed community will proceed to take certain measures which, applied in due relation one to another, must succeed in extirpating the foe at no distant date.

What are these measures?

I need but mention them to an audience such as this:—

1. A system of notification.
2. The hospital for advanced cases comes first to provide for the proper care of the sufferers and for the protection of the community.
3. The sanatorium for the early cases and for the education of those disposed to the disease, so that they need be no danger to others, and that they may spread this knowledge on their return home.

In connection with the sanatorium, a Working Colony where patients through graduated work and exercise are prepared to take up the burden and routine of life afresh, instead of relapsing under the ordeal of the return home, as so many have done before this plan was initiated.

4. The dispensary for the use of all patients, where the different classes of patients suitable for hospital, sanatorium and home treatment can be separated, and in connection with which visiting doctors and nurses can supervise the home treatment of persons unable to go to the sanatorium, or who, being in the preventive stage, are still pursuing their calling.

5. As an alternative to the dispensary, or allied with it, the Class Method, first started at Boston by Dr. Joseph Pratt, seems to produce the most excellent results. A limited number of patients are enrolled in a class with a physician as principal and instructor, and a visiting nurse as tutor and inspector.

Certain rules are laid down and all patients allowed to leave their beds, report themselves weekly at the class, bringing with them their record book filled in daily by themselves as to food taken, rest taken, hours spent in the open air, temperature, etc. They are weighed and marks are given in accordance with advance made, the greatest number of hours spent in open air, and so on. An eager spirit of emulation is induced by the weekly class and is fostered by the nurse, who visits at the home to supervise, to encourage and cheer, and who sees that such arrangements are made as will enable the members of the class to obey orders. A shelter may be put upon the roof, a balcony thrown out from the window, a tent erected in the back yard. but however it is done, rest in the open air for the greater part of the day is considered a necessity and the results as recorded by the first class, the Emmanuel Church Class, and by its imitators, have been most gratifying, even though carried on amid the most unhopeful surroundings in the tenement buildings and through cold, bleak winters at Boston. The expenses of providing separate beds, erecting shelters and balconies, etc., and of providing nursing, nourishment, are borne either by a congregation, as in the case of Emmanuel Church, or by a Special Committee, or perhaps by a Municipal Health Committee.

I have entered somewhat in detail into the plan of the Class Method, as it is probably the most effective form of that home treatment which must be counted amongst the necessary agencies in our fight with tuberculosis. This home treatment and visiting, moreover, whether under the Class Method or in connection with a dispensary, is specially adapted to discover what are called the "contacts," that is to say, persons living with the actual patient who have either unconsciously contracted the disease, or who are in imminent danger of so doing. This is part of the preventive work towards which we must apply ourselves with unremitting vigour. These "contacts" must be taken in hand; they must have nourishing food, fresh air, a change to the country perhaps, freedom from anxiety. If children, they must be sent to an open air

camp or school, instead of to the ordinary school; they must be taught how to breathe aright; they must be enlisted to take part themselves in the fight.

Again, in this home treatment carried on under the constant ministrations of a watchful nurse, an incalculable amount of good is done by teaching the healthy members of the family the value of fresh air, and the housewives how to choose and cook nourishing food at little cost. The actual imminent danger of dirt is inculcated by explaining how dirt and refuse are the allies of the microbes which cleanliness and sunshine destroy. The value and necessity for disinfection can also be enforced.

And now for purely preventive work!

Here there are so many departments to engage our attention that we cannot hope to name them all.

We find many alluded to as in vogue in different countries in the International Council's Report on the "Health of the Nations."

Forest and open-air schools; day camps in parks, on disused barges; night camps, where delicate persons still at work can sleep in the open air; summer homes; seaside homes for children suffering from tuberculous joints; meals for school children; medical school inspection assisted by nurses; these may be grouped in one department.

Secondly, preventive work in connection with food.

Enactment and enforcement of laws regarding the purity of food supplies, an urgent question which I believe has been engaging much attention in the United States and concerning which the people need much enlightenment.

It is iniquitous that the people, and especially the working classes, should be defrauded into buying worthless and perhaps actually harmful foodstuffs under specious names. In unnutritive food supplies lies without doubt the cause of much ill-health and want of vigour. This applies with special force to the supply of milk, towards which the attention of statesmen is now being directed.

The direct connection between tuberculosis in cattle and in human beings has been and still is a question under discussion, but in the opinion of not only the British Royal Commission, but of many other authorities, the possibility of infection is considered undoubted.

Different plans have been evolved for extirpating the disease among cattle, by compulsory slaughter in some cases with compensation; by isolation in others, as in Denmark, under Professor Bang's system, whereby many herds are now free from the disease, and it is found that calves separated from tuberculous mothers can be saved from contracting it.

Whatever may be the method adopted from the veterinary point of view, there is a consensus of opinion that there must be the most rigid inspection by qualified persons of farms, cow-sheds, dairies and persons engaged in the trade of milk supply, to ensure absence of disease, cleanliness in every stage of handling the milk,

in preventing its adulteration and in preserving it intact from dirt until it reaches the customer.

In addition, many cities have now adopted a system of milk pasteurization for the destruction of harmful germs, whilst not taking away certain nourishing properties, which is the result of sterilization. Certainly the results which can be produced by the New York and other depôts established by the magnificent generosity of Mr. Nathan Straus, are all-convincing, and although the expense may seem great, the question for the community is whether it is worth while to prevent infant mortality and to stem the ravages of tuberculosis at the very fountain head.

The Pasteurized Milk Depôt in Dublin, for which Mr. Straus presented the machinery, can report most encouraging results from its first year's work.

Inspection of slaughter houses, the necessity of public abattoirs, the inspection of places where meat, vegetables, fruit and other food supplies are stored, as also of the vehicles bringing them to market and the strict prohibition to employ consumptives in the preparation of food, bread, etc., comes under food preventive measures. And instructions to consumers as to the care of food in the home is also another most necessary part of preventive work. A strict inspection of where food and milk are kept, even in the best regulated cities, might reveal secrets which could scarcely be alluded to.

Then the crimes of the rat, the fly and the mesquito are only now being brought to light. The cup of their iniquities is full and the fiat has been pronounced for their destruction.

The disease-carrying properties of these domestic pests have been demonstrated in their propagation of the plague, yellow fever, sleeping sickness, typhoid and zymotic summer diseases.

In Liverpool a systematic campaign was initiated under the Public Health Committee and their active Officer of Health, Dr. Hope, against the house fly last year, with great results. It was pointed out by house to house visitors that the breeding places of the fly chiefly existed in heaps of stable and other manure and refuse, and that if these were not allowed to collect between May and November, a great diminution of the fly, together with the afflictions it spreads amongst little children, might be expected. The citizens responded, and the infantile mortality for last summer made a surprising drop.

In Dublin our Women's Health Association are initiating a similar campaign this summer and in sixty different districts where Summer Health Talks for Mothers are being carried on, the war on the fly is being promulgated, including the distribution of simple appliances for protecting food against flies; at the same time instruction in simple cooking is being given, both at meetings and in the homes—both in connection with those special meetings and in connection with Babies' Clubs and Schools for Mothers which are being initiated and which doubtless you also are promoting.

The nourishment of poor mothers themselves, both before and after their children's birth, is yet another kind of preventive work which is being attempted in various directions, as well as enactments of all kinds regulating the employment and the surroundings of women and children in industrial employment.

Then comes another whole group of questions connected with housing, overcrowding, and provision of proper sanitary conditions affecting the anti-tuberculosis work radically.

These are questions which must remain mainly with the Public Health authorities, but they will only be thoroughly dealt with when the conscience of the nation has been stirred to realize its responsibility, when it will insist that the physical and moral welfare of its citizens shall not be imperilled for the purpose of enriching unscrupulous jerry-builders and owners of house property.

And this brings us to the greatest of all preventive measures, and that is the education of the general mass of the people and the instruction of the young in the imperative duty on the very highest grounds of understanding and practising the laws of good health. No efforts can be too great to compass this object, and official and voluntary workers who care for their country's weal must never weary in devising ever new plans and methods for spreading the light.

The success of the Tuberculosis Travelling Vans wherever they have been tried has been very marked. I can vouch for their result in Ireland, where they and in addition a travelling caravan, have visited most parts of the country and have excited not only the most vivid interest during their visit, the crowds wishing to attend the lectures being always far greater than could be admitted, but have also been productive of permanent results in the direction of open windows, the increase of cleanliness, the increase of consumption of oatmeal porridge, etc.

This is but an illustration of how object lessons, and pictorial illustrations of what we wish to inculcate, succeed when other methods fail.

In the distribution of literature, posters and handbills, with attractive pictures and colours and little stories, seem to be of the greatest use everywhere.

We in Ireland acknowledge gratefully the value of the suggestions sent to us in regard to this from the United States.

Of course this has special force when we come to deal with the children, and we *must* enlist their interest. They are joining Girls' Guilds of Good Health and Boys' National Health Battalions eagerly with us, and we are placing our surest hope of ultimate success on the enthusiasm of young friends in trying to keep the rules we put before them.

Ladies and gentlemen, I have but run over the heads of the various kinds of work we must adopt in order to make the anti-tuberculosis crusade victorious. We must attack the foe from every side, and we need the help of all sections of the community, from the medical profession, the clergy, the Government author-

ities, to the rank and file, but in return what a splendid reward is before the victors.

We have set ourselves to hunt one demon out of the world who has too long been allowed to flourish unmolested, and in carrying out our relentless hunt, we shall find we have sapped the life-blood of many another enemy of the human race, and in the end the world may bless the foe whose depredations awoke the nations to their imminent danger, and to find in their hand-to-hand struggle to escape a new and higher form of life in the cult of fresh air, simple diet, healthy surroundings, temperance and self-control.

Our crusade may appear to deal with only those influences which affect the body, but in accepting our mission as a solemn and an inspiring duty to our homes, to our countries, to humanity and to God, we shall find that we cannot separate soul from body, and that in raising the conditions and environment of physical life, new and richer opportunities for the development of mental, moral and spiritual life have been granted.

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#### SOME ASPECTS OF PUBLIC HEALTH WORK.

F. MONTIZAMBERT, I.S.O., M.D.Ed., F.R.C.S.E., D.C.L., Director-General of Public Health, Canada.

In addressing this Congress on the subject of Some Aspects of Public Health Work, one's thoughts are naturally first attracted to, and held by, the extreme—nay, indeed, the paramount—importance of woman's work and woman's influence in public health matters.

"In the beginning," said a Persian poet, "Allah took a rose, a lily, a dove, a serpent, a little honey, and a handful of clay. The rose had a thorn, the lily was frail, the dove was timid, the serpent was guileful, the honey was very sweet, and the handful of clay was a handful of clay. Yet when Allah looked at the amalgam, lo! it was a woman." And nowhere better than in the hygiene of the home can this complex creation find her sphere for energy and active work. It is to the women of a family that should naturally come the instilling into the minds of the young hygienic ideas that will remain with them through life. "Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it," is true now as it was in the days of Solomon, and applies to hygiene as well as it does to religion and morality. To the woman belongs the duty of teaching children to breathe through the nostrils, and to eat slowly; of training their daughters and sisters to protect the upper part of the chest; not to squeeze the waist; to have nothing tight below the knee; to wear thick-soled boots and skirts clear of the ground, so as not to sweep up and carry home the impurities and bacteria of the streets and pavements. Amongst other phases of domestic sanitation, may be mentioned the enforcing of proper ventilation of the home; the purity

of the milk supply; the boiling of the drinking water and that used for washing vegetables that are eaten raw, where the water supply is doubtful; the use of ice in a jacket outside and around the water jug, butter dish, etc., and not within; and the removal of dust, instead of only redistributing it by stirring it up with broom or duster.

Then, again, woman can use her influence and authority against late hours at night. There is no doubt that many of the nervous breakdowns which are becoming increasingly common, are due, in part at least, to the modern artificial life turning night into day, since the introduction and perfection of artificial light. There can, I take it, be no doubt that nature intends the hours of darkness for that sleep which restores and prepares.

Then there is to be borne in mind the possibility of the conveyance of consumption and other diseases by kissing. Against the kiss of strong affection and of love no sanitarian will waste his time in useless words. But one may possibly have a chance to obtain a hearing, with regard to other forms that might well be abolished or diminished. It would surely be an advance from the sanitary standpoint, and one not too hopelessly unreasonable, if the masculine handshake, or the Continental embrace upon the cheek, or some similar greeting, could be substituted for the formal conventional touching of feminine lips to lips which is general amongst women on meeting and on separating.

Again, the general and indiscriminate kissing of babies and young children by every friend and visitor might surely be omitted. This would not involve an overwhelming amount of self-denial, for the infant at any rate, and it would protect it from a risk to which we have no right whatever to expose it without its understanding and consent. This reform, like so many others, can be carried out only when it is accepted and enforced by women. They can see to the protection of the members of their households from smallpox by arranging for and enforcing the proper vaccination and revaccination of each one of them.

I speak of the home aspect of sanitation as being especially woman's work. And certainly in no better way can she labour for herself and for others than in sanitary work in the home. In this, everyone can do a little—if only to make one home or one room more bright, more cleanly, more wholesome. Sunlight, pure air and cleanliness, are natural enemies of disease germs. There is no sounder philosophy than is contained in the old sayings: "There is more health in a sunbeam than in drugs, more life in pure air than in the physician's skill," and that: "Sunlight may fade your carpets, but better that than have disease fade your cheeks."

In the temples of Hygeia the statue of Apollo sometimes is found standing with that of the Goddess of Health for worship. This is possibly because he was originally a God of Medicine. I like to think, however, that there may be another explanation, and that is that he is present in his character of Helius, the Sun-god; and that this placing of the Sun-god in the temple of the Goddess

of Health shows an appreciation even at that day of the health-giving effects of sunshine.

The teaching of hygiene in the school is another matter with which woman may well concern herself. The remarkable wave of interest in preventive medicine and sanitation which is making itself felt in so many ways can assuredly find a fitting outlet when directed into the channels of hygiene.\* The school should be potent in creating in the children habits that conduce to health. To take children from their homes and set them tasks which may injure irreparably their eyesight or their capacity of spontaneous interest, while placing them under conditions in which various infectious diseases may be more readily contracted, at the same time that general bodily resistance is decreased by overheated rooms, re-breathed air, mental fatigue, and cramped attitudes, does not seem to constitute the last word of civilized man on the proper rearing of his offspring. The influence of the school in the matter of hygiene should be exerted directly on the child, and indirectly on the home from which the child comes. More and more the public school is undertaking the direction of the whole child, instead of concerning itself only with the mental side; and we are gradually acquiring that precise definite information about the mental and physical qualities of school children and the necessities of common school life, without which much of the agitation for the betterment of the health of the people is mere beating of the empty air.

Then, again, in the great fight against tuberculosis, what magnificent work women may do! Primarily in seeing to the adoption and maintenance of proper hygienic conditions in their own homes, but also in missionary work abroad throughout their communities.

I am very strongly of opinion that consumption is spread mainly from the homes of those of the wage-earning classes who live under the least sanitary conditions; and that it is there that the fight against it has to be made, if it is ever to succeed, and the disease be eradicated or even markedly diminished. The hospital for advanced cases and the sanatorium are good in their way for the help of the few; but even the sanatorium only reaches at the best incipient cases, after they are already so far advanced as to be readily recognized. We must go further back than that. We must get at the homes of the incipient cases, and the younger members of their families whilst still uninjured. This can be done only by the domiciliary visit, to follow notification to the health officer, or the diagnosis at the dispensary that the cold or cough for which a cough mixture is sought is really due to tubercular trouble. Then, in addition to attention to the one sufferer, there should be the visit to the home; and the visitor should be a woman.†

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\*There should certainly be women appointed on the School Boards and women medical inspectors if women are to improve school sanitation perceptibly.—Editor's Note.

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†[Preferably a nurse, especially trained for this work.—Editor's note.]

She can talk to and persuade the house mother as no man could do. She can impress upon her the four cardinal facts, which form a silver lining to the cloud which has long overhung us: that tuberculosis is not hereditary; that it is infectious; that it is preventable; and that it is curable. Persuade her to adopt the open air life for herself and her household; get her to improve the sanitary conditions in and around the home, and to allow the younger members of the family to be examined, and the most stringent precautions carefully carried out in the case of any one of them that shows any tendency towards the development of tuberculosis. Thus, and thus only, can we hope to get at this disease, at its source and origin; and thus, and thus only, may we hope to ever stamp it out.

Again, women can help on the fight against tuberculosis by interesting themselves in many other ways in which this fight is to be carried on. They can advocate, collect for, and actively take part in movements for the establishment and maintenance of dispensaries, sanatoria and hospitals for the incurable; of day camps, night camps, and country homes for threatened children; of open air schools; and of preventatoria.

This last named weapon in the great fight, I must say, appeals to me very strongly. It is doing good work in Germany and elsewhere, and we have at least one example of it in Canada in the Brehmer Rest at Ste. Agathe, near Montreal. As, however, it is not as yet as generally in use as it should be—and doubtless soon will be—and as there may be some present to whom the idea and its working out are not familiar, it may be well that I should briefly explain it. There is, as we all well know, a constant conflict being waged between the resisting powers of each constitution and micro-organisms of such infectious diseases as are carried in the air, and in other ways, and with which we come in contact. The result of this conflict is the survival of the fittest. Either the resisting powers of the body repel the threatening invasion, and destroy the threatening invader, or this invader makes good its foothold in our systems and tissues, increases and multiplies, and causes disease, and possibly death. Naturally, the better our health is at the time, the more powerful will the defending army be; and, on the contrary, the more we are out of health and run down, the less will our powers of resistance be. Now, amongst the wage-earning classes there are very many young men and young women living in small rooms in their homes or boarding houses, and finding it a close struggle to make both ends meet. To such an one there is not the same chance, as have the richer classes, of the prolonged and lazy convalescence from the attack of any sickness, back to perfect health and perfect resisting power. Such a young person, smitten, say, by enteric fever or inflammation of the lungs, or any other acute disease, and attended most probably in hospital, will be discharged when cured; but in many cases long before the strength is fully restored. Anxious to be again engaged in earning a living he or she claims freedom at the earliest possible moment, to get back to paying work; returns to the small, possibly insanitary,

room of the poor home or cheap boarding house, and resumes work too soon; thus keeping the body with its resisting powers low, and giving the micro-organisms of tuberculosis the greater chance of establishing themselves and making a permanent settlement. Recognizing these facts, Montrealers have opened an institution in beautiful mountain air, and offer to such persons as those of whom I have been speaking, hospitality from the time they are discharged from hospital or first able to leave home, until they are fully and entirely restored to complete health and vigour, so that tuberculosis may be prevented from attacking them when they are down. Hence the name Preventorium for this class of convalescent home; an admirable form of benevolent work, one that cannot be over-estimated, and that deserves to be installed in every possible direction.

No mention of woman's work in connection with public health would be complete, without a reference to that of Lady Aberdeen, in her splendid campaign against tuberculosis; her efforts to reduce infant mortality in the larger towns; and to improve the hygienic conditions of the national schools; and her last happy idea of taking advantage of the Government plan for the reduction of coast-guard stations, and the securing of the disused station houses, with a view of converting them into sanatoria or convalescent homes; a still further instance of her untiring and unselfish labours for the good of the people.

These are but a few aspects of the all-important work in public health that can be—and is being—carried on by woman. The sum of the combined and united efforts must tell enormously towards the upraising of the general standard of health of the nation and the betterment of the people of the world.

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## THE DUTY OF THE CITIZEN, THE MUNICIPALITY AND THE GOVERNMENT.

By DR. CHAS. A. HODGETTS, Chief Health Officer of Ontario, Can.

All classes of the community are interested in the many social, economic and national questions embraced under the general term Public Health—the poor as well as the rich—while from the great masses of the world's toilers in homes, workshops, factories, schools, stores and offices, a demand is going out for more knowledge, for a bettering of homes and workshops, for the protection of our public and private water supplies, and the safeguarding in every possible way that essential of life for our babes and infants, viz., our milk supplies, as also for the greater care and physical training of the nation's most valuable asset—the children. These are but a few of the many health questions which to-day are under public discussion in every portion of the world.

Many of these problems are receiving the serious consideration of the thousands of members of the Councils of Women as represented at this quinquennial gathering—and by the fact that such

is the case, sanitariums are fully assured of the ultimate success of all that appertains to the important realm of hygiene, for with the mothers of the children lending their best endeavours on behalf of those who will fill our places, when to us time shall be no more, better and more early results are assured. The knowledge already possessed by the women of the world at large upon these matters will the sooner reach the rising generation and thereby accomplish infinitely more than an army of clamoring politicians of the same sex seeking to influence the nations of the world in legislative halls and Senates.

If the ideals of public health are to be attained, it must be primarily through the medium of the home, where the fond mother is queen, legislator, counsellor and guide not only to the infant mind, but of the body as well.

Think what we owe to our mothers at home! Why, without the mother's care none of us would be here to-day; we would have perished by the way. Given, then, the mother seized with the important methods of hygiene and practising them in her home and daily life, and carry that throughout the many of your co-workers in all portions of the habitable globe. How tremendous the influence and how great the import—Municipal Councils, Legislatures and Senates must accede to the demands for the betterment of laws having for their object the enforcement of public health.

In discussing the question of the inter-dependence of the three classes mentioned in the title, I shall begin with their duty to the infant, for in the caring for the infant are we not improving the child—and is not the child of to-day the parent of the future? And because a nation lives in its children—and the fact of their helplessness has not gained for them the interest they deserve, even in the home, we must claim it as their rights as citizens.

Canon Kingsley very truly stated, just fifty years ago, that it is our duty to see that every child that is born shall be developed to the highest possible pitch of development in physical strength, in intellect and in virtue. And if this most desirable end is to be reached, one of the chief factors must be the adoption and enforcement of all the known rules of hygiene in the home, within municipal limits and in conformity with uniform State enactments wisely and properly directed and assisted.

It is in the personal responsibility of the individual that lies success or failure in attaining all that public health means to a people. It begins with the parents in the prenatal period of their offspring, and continues with increasing import until the children in turn leave the maternal home to assume similar responsibilities.

A child may be taught at school a few of the cardinal rules of hygiene, but if he return to a home where every rule of health is ignored, what profiteth the child?

Similarly, he may be given the best of physical instruction, but much of the good is undone if the home be dark and sunless and God's fresh air is regularly excluded during the eight or ten

hours he spends in sleep—all on account of the ignorance of fond parents.

Parents must know the laws of health before sanitariums can hope for them to exemplify the same in their lives, individually or collectively. Many may know of them in the abstract, but to be of any worth they must know them of a truth and they must teach them to their children. Parents must realize the importance of the body as well as of the soul and mind. They must know that it is their duty to study all the laws of hygiene as they apply to growth and development of the body and their responsibility in the adoption of all preventive measures which will protect the child as it passes through life. They must realize the importance of the sound body as well as of the educated mind, for in life's struggle the latter will avail little if the offspring is a mental prodigy.

It will not suffice, as at present, for medical colleges and licensing boards to relegate hygiene or public health, or whatever term they choose to apply to this important branch of medicine, to a third or even second rate position. To know how to prevent illness is more important than to know how to cure a disease.

The relation of man to man requires the formation of rules of action which have for their object the preventing of one man's taking from another those rights, economic and individual, which are essential to present day happiness. Health rights are to be obtained through common action, and thereby the better is the guarantee that we shall work together not to injure either our own health or that of our neighbour.

Many are the municipal health laws, codes or ordinances—they are all similar, having been copied one from another. The powers they confer upon municipalities are often very great. Some laws are bad by reason of their not conferring upon local authorities the power to enforce the same, while others are good.

Doubtless thousands of lives are being lost every year, millions of dollars being spent on curing diseases and caring for those incapacitated from labor thereby, and millions of days are taken from industrial pursuits and in the end the working life of nations is materially shortened, because health laws are not enforced.

What law will ever stop the present waste of infantile life due to the character of the milk as supplied in all large cities? It will never be stopped—unless milch cows are healthy, dairies systematically inspected and cleanliness enforced; unless milk is kept at a low temperature (50 degrees) from immediately after milking, in the creamery, on the train, at the receiving station, in the milk waggon and milk shop, and in the home; until dealers scald and cleanse their cans; unless licenses are taken from farmers, creameries and retailers who violate the law; and unless mothers are taught to scald and thoroughly cleanse bottles, nipples, cups and dishes from which milk is fed infants. Here is a case where municipal and personal responsibility impinge one upon the other, and without both actively and constantly at work the service is incomplete.

In this country the Legislature of each Province is given full control over municipal institutions, it having been evidently thought better to leave each locality to manage its own affairs—in keeping with the old proverb, "If you wish anything well done, do it yourself." In public health matters the municipality must work out its own salvation, the common health interests of the individuals living in the municipality, both men and women, and particularly the children, being of such moment as to require the rigid enforcement of the most modern health requirements.

In regard to such an important group of questions as are embraced under the head of public health, it is essential that they should be uniform for the larger community of the people as comprised in a State, dominion or country, in order that they be efficient. And it is essential for good government, for the affording of the highest protection to the inhabitants, that the supervision and the power to enforce if necessary be vested in, and this power judiciously exercised by, the Government which enacts them; but the expense of their enforcement should be a cost chargeable to and collectable from the municipality which fails in their enforcement; otherwise it will be found that municipal authorities will readily yield up their duties to the larger and more powerful central body.

Under the third grouping of the paper a short reference is necessary to the responsibility of the national Governments in respect to all that appertains to the health of the people. It is to the National Government we look for protection as regards the health of those who seek homes in our midst. That responsibility has in part been acknowledged, but cannot we go further? What of the valuable lives born each year to the fathers and mothers of this country? Are they not a more valuable asset than all the immigrant population? Truly, the wealth of the nation is in its babies, and, being national, the Government which represents that wealth should do more in their behalf. Here in Canada the National Government has in its wisdom set an example by taking over the health of our cattle, which is a part of our national wealth; but what of the people's health?

In conclusion, Public Health is pre-eminently a national question, although requiring the assistance of state, provincial and municipal machinery and laws for the proper and efficient working out of methods and the enforcement of sanitary laws for the betterment of communities.

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### PUBLIC HEALTH IN TASMANIA.

By J. S. C. ELKINGTON, M.D., D.P.H., Chief Health Officer.

The position of Tasmania as the only Island State of the Commonwealth of Australia, and its geographical situation at a considerable distance to the southward of the great bulk of population of the mainland States, have influenced considerably its conditions of population, administration, and climatic environment.

The principal details of its demography may be thus summarized:

Estimated population .....	179,356
Crude birth rate.....	29.5
Crude death rate.....	11.14
Infantile mortality rate.....	81.09
Index of mortality.....	14.87
Crude marriage rate.....	7.86
Density of population per square mile.....	6.87
Natural increase per 1,000 of mean population.	18.22

The system of sanitary government is somewhat similar in principle to that of New Zealand, and is based on an Act passed in 1903, shortly after a severe outbreak of smallpox. Central administration is vested in a Chief Health Officer, who possesses wide statutory powers of control over the 51 Local Authorities (Municipal Councils) which administer local sanitation. The latter bodies possess extensive powers of rating and administration for sanitary purposes. Outside the largest centres, however, the local bodies seldom as yet exercise the sanitary powers in other than perfunctory fashion. For financial reasons the central department has not yet been provided with a sufficient executive staff to overcome this local inertia, and the sanitation of most rural communities in Tasmania is consequently in a very backward condition. In the cities and larger towns, and especially in Hobart, the capital city of the State, considerable progress has been made of late years, and a real spirit of sanitary endeavour appears to be growing up. This is fortunate for the State, as, owing to her great natural beauties and the coolness of the climate, great and increasing numbers of visitors from other States flock to Tasmania each year, and constitute an important item in the financial outlook.

The linked questions of water supply and sewage disposal of cities have received considerable attention of late years in the two cities of Hobart and Launceston, but are as yet in an unsatisfactory condition elsewhere. Hobart possesses a water supply of great purity, brought from the unoccupied summit and southwestern slopes of Mount Wellington, a vast mass of diabasic rock which rises behind the city to a height of over 4,000 feet. The supply is well safeguarded for the most part, and is adequate in amount. The sewage problem has been met by a deep drainage system on modern lines, now approaching completion, the sewage being treated in liquefying tanks, before discharge into the great current-swept estuary of the Derwent River. At Launceston the water is brought from the St. Patrick's River, an originally pure stream, but now in danger of contamination from an increasing agricultural population on its collecting areas. Sewage from such parts of the city as are connected by deep drainage is discharged into the Tamar River near to the wharves. A deep drainage scheme involving septic tank treatment of sewage and discharge lower down the stream has been commenced. The City Council is also considering a scheme for large-scale purification of the water supply and for protection of the gathering areas.

In the smaller centres protection of water supplies is, as a rule, much needed. Where these exist they have generally been put in with a view to economy as the basic principle, and it is only too often found that the supply is pumped from a situation liable to gross pollution. The central department does not possess any compulsory power of regulation over schemes of water supply, and local bodies are seldom open to any form of persuasion which involves an addition to the rates. Reflections upon the purity of any local water supply, in common with expressions of official opinion concerning other sanitary defects, are liable to arouse active and virulent opposition from local bodies. The usual objection made is that such revelations will "drive away tourists."

The disposal of organic refuse receives more or less attention in most centres of any size. Where no deep drainage exists, double-service systems of sanitary disposal have been installed in a good many towns, and these are often very well managed. Garbage removal and disposal is dealt with by the cities and by a few towns. No destructor plant yet exists in the State, tips forming the ultimate method of disposal even in the cities. The provision of a destructor for Hobart has been under consideration for several years, and as the tip-question, despite good management, is becoming acute, it is probable that a satisfactory conclusion will be arrived at before very long.

Slaughtering and meat supply receive systematic municipal attention in most of the larger centres. Hobart has recently erected a large modern abattoir some three miles up the Derwent, and a system of compulsory inspection and stamping of all meat sold in the city is receiving active consideration, with a view to early legislation. Launceston has a municipal abattoir and inspection system, as have the mining towns on the West Coast. Identificatory stamping of inspected meat is, as yet, not practised. The condition of most private slaughter houses is unsatisfactory, but these establishments are forbidden in the city areas.

Milk supplies still leave much to be desired in a sanitary sense, but of late years improvement has occurred in the city districts and those adjoining them. Tuberculin testing is seldom or never practised, and practically no supervision is exercised over milk production in country districts. A recent example will illustrate this. Enquiry was being made into a typhoid fever outbreak in a town which formed the centre of a considerable milk-producing district. It was found that, owing to the invasion of the nightsoil disposal area by a new railway, the excretal refuse from the town had been handed over for disposal to a farmer who had spread it over the surface of his land for some three months, without covering. He then at the request of the Local Authority ploughed it all in. This individual separated cream for sale and sent it to a city firm. He took an active part in the separation work as well as in the nightsoil disposal operations, despite the fact that the material of necessity contained much typhoid excreta. When the matter was brought under the attention of the Local Authority they pleaded ignorance of the fact that he was a milk producer.

In another case a milk vendor in a suburban district received his license from the Local Authority whilst he was manuring his land with the scum removed from the septic tanks, an occupation which he alternated with milking and retail milk delivery.

The adulteration of foods is practically unchecked in Tasmania. It is wholly in the hands of the local bodies. No special pure food legislation exists, and with the exception of occasional milk samples analyzed in Hobart for added water, no inspection whatever is made. Regulations exist forbidding preservatives in milk, and limiting their use in milk products, but they are not enforced. Frequent official representations have been made for obtaining legislation involving a central analytical laboratory and systematic food analysis, but as yet without avail.

Free public baths are not provided in any Tasmanian centre, although at Launceston a fine city bath offers good accommodation at relatively low prices. This establishment includes a fine swimming bath and Turkish baths.

Certain infectious diseases, including diphtheria, scarlet fever, and typhoid fever, are statistically notifiable to the Chief Health Officer, and to the Local Authority. A fee is paid to notifying practitioners.

Disinfection of premises and of infected material is practised in the larger centres, and in the cities, at least, it is effectively performed. Hobart has recently acquired a Washington Lyon steam disinfecting apparatus. An Infectious Disease Hospital scheme for the city and surrounding districts, to cost some £10,000 for 30 beds, is in the stage immediately preceding calling for competitive designs. Separate glass cubicles for acute cases, with electric light, hot water heating, a disinfecter, steam laundry facilities, and other appurtenances of a modern Infectious Hospital, are included in the specifications.

Tuberculosis was responsible for 157 deaths in 1907. 113 of these were due to consumption. Between 1903 and 1907, inclusive, 544 deaths from tuberculosis occurred in the 15 to 45-age periods, when the individual is of greatest value to himself and to the State. A subsidy is paid by the State to a small sanatorium near Hobart, but no systematic operations against tubercular disease have yet been possible. The question of rendering notification of it compulsory is under discussion by the Government, in consequence of a recommendation to that effect by the Chief Health Officer, backed by the expressed opinion of nearly every medical practitioner in the State. A pamphlet of information for sufferers and others is distributed by the Department of Public Health through hospitals and other sources. Three special tents have been acquired by the Department and are lent in suitable cases for the accommodation of sufferers. As yet it has not been found possible to arouse much public interest in the tuberculosis question, despite appeals to local bodies and to the public. Free disinfection of premises is offered by the city authorities in Hobart whenever information of a death from consumption is obtained. Anti-spitting

legislation has been enacted, but is seldom, if ever, enforced by the police or municipal authorities.

Typhoid fever is endemic to a somewhat serious extent in the northern and north-eastern parts of the State; but little systematic action against it has yet been possible. A scheme embodying systematic State investigation in the three principal endemic centres throughout a "typhoid season," with coincident stimulation of local sanitary effort, was put forward two years ago by the Chief Health Officer, but the cost (some £500) has prevented its acceptance. A low estimate of the cost of typhoid fever per case is £12 for loss of wages and direct outlay. The principal incidence is in the "working ages" at the 14 to 45 age periods, a feature which materially increases the economic loss from the disease. Between January 1st and March 6th, 1909, some ninety cases have been notified from the three endemic centres above alluded to.

Infantile mortality has received sufficient attention of late to enable the prospect of lowering the present rates to be regarded with some hopefulness. The average rate for the five years ending with 1907, has been 90.9 deaths under one year per 1,000 born, for the whole State. Low as this may appear to European observers, it is relatively high under Australian conditions, the average rate for the other States having been for the same period: New South Wales, 86.8; Victoria, 82.56; Queensland, 84; South Australia, 76.5. and Western Australia 112.7 per 1,000 born. New Zealand is considerably lower, her infant mortality rate for 1905 having been but 68, and for 1906, 62 per 1,000 born. The City of Hobart for the past five years ending with 1906, showed a mortality of 123 per 1,000 infants born, the highest rate of any Australasian capital, with the exception of Perth in Western Australia. Launceston is almost equally badly off. Neither the climate nor the social environment, afford any explanation of this relatively very high infant mortality, of which deaths from alimentary diseases provide some 50 per cent. on an average. The explanation can probably be found in defective food laws, in local slackness of sanitary effort in the past, and in maternal ignorance. A strong movement is now on foot to obtain a system of visitation by nurses in the cities to help the mother to nurse her infant in her own home after the Huddersfield method so vigorously championed by Alderman Broadbent. Early notification of births, and properly skilled direction, are recognized as essential in the scheme.

The registration and regulation of infant homes is effected by an Infant Life Protection Act administered by the Commissioner of Police. This has effected considerable improvement in the chance of survival of illegitimate and boarded-out children. The new movement is designed to help the legitimate children whose parents can support them, and who provide six out of every seven infant deaths.

A pamphlet on the Care of the Baby is issued by the Department through all Registrars of Births, and appears to have effected some good. A series of Talks to Mothers has been given for some time past by Dr. Gertrude Halley, Medical Inspector of State

Schools, with very valuable results. Attempts have been made, but as yet without avail, to institute a system of instruction in child-care for the elder girls in the City State Schools, and for young mothers, many of whom have left school only a few years before. Difficulties attendant upon reorganizing operations in the State education system have so far prevented the development of this scheme, and of one whereby elementary hygiene should be added to the compulsory subjects of instruction in State schools.

The medical inspection of State schools has been an accomplished fact in Tasmania since March, 1907. Three Medical Inspectors are employed, one (a lady) being a whole time officer. Some 7,000 children are examined annually, and the information so obtained is utilized in the interests of the children themselves. Many hundreds of physical defects interfering with education and physical welfare have been removed by timely treatment whose necessity has been pointed out by the Medical Inspectors of Schools. The work is directed by the Chief Health Officer. A course of instruction in school hygiene is undergone by the students at the Training College as a compulsory subject, and teachers in the schools are reached by lectures and by articles in the official Gazette, in addition to the direct work of the Medical Inspectors. A notable improvement in the general health and physical cleanliness of the children is already apparent, and communicable disease in the State schools has been greatly lessened since the inception of the undertaking.

Physical training in State schools is not on a systematic basis, although many individual teachers undertake work of this kind in more or less effective fashion. So far no evil effects have been noticed by the Medical Inspectors, although in a few cases it has been necessary to exclude physically defective children from such training. Physical competitions are not encouraged, save possibly in the case of a few older boys competing in the State School Championships, held at intervals by the Tasmanian Amateur Athletic Association. No apparent bad effect is noticeable from competitive athletic events amongst adolescents and young men in the State. Individual instances occur where a youth or man is physically unfit and suffers from overstrain, but after a fairly wide personal and professional association with many forms of athletic pursuits, I am of opinion, with reasonable care, their advantages far outweigh their risks.

State registration of nurses has been mooted on several occasions, but is not yet provided for by statute. The standard of the Australian Trained Nurses' Association is aimed at by the principal training hospitals, and in the case at least of the Launceston General Hospital, is amply attained. A bill introduced last year to provide for State registration and inspection of private hospitals contained a clause enabling the qualifications of nurses employed in such establishments to be regulated by the State, but it failed to obtain the approval of the Legislative Council.

Cremation is provided for by a special statute based on the general lines of the English Act. Its powers have never been called

into requisition, however, and cremation is not as yet a subject of popular interest or sympathy in the State. No crematorium exists in Tasmania.

Of other matters of sanitary interest, public buildings (including public, but not private hospitals) are regulable by the Department as regards structure and sanitary arrangements. A schedule of official requirements is issued and enforced for all new public buildings, and includes data governing egress space and facilities, ventilation, sanitary accommodation, etc. The sanitary accommodation in licensed premises is regulated by by-laws drawn up by the Chief Health Officer, and closely enforced at each annual Licensing Inspection by the police. Unless complete compliance with these requirements is secured, Licensing Benches may not issue a license. A new type of country State school building was devised in 1905 for the Education Department, together with patterns of school sanitary accommodation, and these have proved very successful in practice. A large school at Launceston has been recently built on the general lines advocated by the Department of Public Health, and school-baths on the "Rain" principle are included in the plans of a new building of modern design to be erected shortly in Hobart.

The duty of the citizen with regard to public sanitation has been pointed out whenever opportunity has offered, by means of lectures and public addresses. Consistent support has been given by most sections of the press, and so far the progress of this form of public education has been steady, though slow. An Examining Branch of the Royal Sanitary Institute (England) has been formed, and in 1908 an extensive series of lectures and demonstrations—extending over some eight months—was given with good results. Of the 25 regular students, eleven presented themselves in November for examination for the Inspector's certificate, and nine passed.

Although much of this brief summary of sanitary effort in Tasmania refers to projects rather than to accomplished undertakings, it should be recollected that Tasmania is the smallest and probably the poorest of the Commonwealth sisterhood of States. Further, the requisite statutory powers and organization for effective stimulation of local sanitary effort have been in force only for some five years, and, as elsewhere, public health is not a subject which carries vote-attracting powers, save at rare intervals under the very conditions of epidemic manifestation of disease which it is ceaselessly striving to prevent.

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## OUR COMBINED ACTION AGAINST TUBERCULOSIS IN THE DOMINION.

By J. G. ADAMI, M.D., F.R.S., McGill University, Montreal.

Invited to contribute to your proceedings a paper on the subject of tuberculosis, I confess to some little difficulty in determining what aspect of the large subject to bring before you. It would

be meet and fitting that at such an international convention, one who had been given the responsible position of President of the Dominion Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis should take as his subject the national campaign against this disease, or more exactly, the unification of the efforts made from one end of the Dominion to the other to arrest this fell plague. That would almost seem to be demanded of me—and yet I confess that the knowledge that you have Her Excellency, Lady Aberdeen, in your midst, that the main work that she has accomplished in Ireland has been essentially the unification of effort, and that the excellent results of such unification have been brought before you by Her Excellency in person, makes it peculiarly difficult for one who is not in direct attendance upon your meetings to deal with this subject. Nevertheless some considerations along these lines, appear to be demanded of me, and I would occupy a few minutes of your time by enquiring what has been accomplished in the past, and what may reasonably be expected in the future of a national Canadian association for the prevention of tuberculosis.

A national body like our Dominion association has naturally its headquarters at Ottawa: naturally also with His Excellency the Governor-General as its patron, the Premier and other Ministers among its Vice-Presidents, it has looked to influence the Federal authorities, because despite all, our Federal Government is the most powerful and influential body in Canada, and what is more, it holds the purse. Time and again we have approached the Ministers, both to introduce legislation and to afford aid in the establishment of sanatoria, etc., and our Federal Ministers, I may say, are cultured men, keenly alive to the interests of the country and to the significance of tuberculosis and of our campaign against it. But time and again we have been met with a *non possumus*.\* This line of action would trespass upon Provincial prerogatives, that suggested act of Parliament might create a precedent. The most that so far the Federal Government has been able to do for us is to give us a yearly grant of \$5,000, which grant goes to support an office to print and circulate reports and leaflets, and to pay for the expenses of our secretary and assistant secretary upon their lecturing tours. The Federal Government cannot give us aid in establishing hospitals and sanatoria in the different Provinces, because this would be creating a precedent, and the result is somewhat disastrous. When we appeal for aid to the Provinces, with certain notable exceptions, we find that they are waiting to see what the rich central Government will do in order to follow suit, and the Federal Government can do very little. The tendency has been for the individual Provinces to apologize and find excuses for doing very little to help the various local associations. As I say, there are exceptions. The Ontario Government contributes a definite proportion to the cost of tuberculosis patients in the different hospitals and sanatoria; the British Columbia Government has

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\*Note—Health regulations, with the exception of the Quarantine Service, are under Provincial control.

done nobly in the establishment of a Provincial Sanatorium at Kamloops; and even before this, the Nova Scotia Government had established its sanatorium.

Then from geographical considerations it is difficult to bring together those who are leaders in the different Provinces, however enthusiastic they may be. During the earlier years of the Association, in fact until this very year, the annual meeting of the Association has been held in Ottawa. Such an annual meeting is good to bring together a large and enthusiastic audience, representatives from all parts of the Dominion, but when we consider the vast extent of the Dominion, it will be well understood that only the greatest zeal may occasionally bring a man to travel to such a meeting either from Halifax on the east, or Vancouver 3,000 miles away on the west. Our delegates, to attend the annual meetings, have to travel as many days as the Irishman need travel hours. It will be seen that this does not make things easy. It is therefore peculiarly difficult to bring together a thoroughly representative body of delegates year after year; and here really there is very much to be said in favour of holding our meetings in Ottawa during the Session, because there we have gathered together representatives and leaders from every part of the country. Some of these Members and Senators, it is true, are keenly interested in the work, but it must be admitted that holding the annual meeting year after year at the same centre, and with much the same audience, has tended to make the meeting formal. A distinct step forward was taken this year, in holding the meeting at Hamilton, where the women workers, more particularly, have through their enthusiasm established an admirable sanatorium, just outside the city, and where interest in the campaign runs high. From what I was able to gather, the meeting there did much to stimulate further local interest in the campaign. While it would be politic in the future to hold occasional meetings at Ottawa, I am convinced that these peripatetic annual meetings are bound to help forward the cause in the different centres in which they are held.

At the present time, a main function of the Association is to affiliate and bring together the various local associations, and through its annual report, which is distributed by the thousand, to keep the different cities and regions of our Dominion informed regarding what is happening in the other parts of the country. For this annual report contains reports from the affiliated bodies, showing the advances made during the year. It is pleasant to be able to say that year by year these reports of the various associations are growing, not only in number, but in volume and evidence presented of good work being accomplished.

Why, it may be asked, have we not established generally in Canada, provincial associations which in their turn might hold yearly, if not more frequent, meetings? The answer to this question must be that even the Provinces suffer, many of them, from their very bulk. Take Ontario or Quebec, both of them rank in size with the larger countries of Europe, and both still are comparatively thinly populated, so that the important cities are, in

general, far apart. Our experience with Provincial Associations in general is, that it is not easy to get delegates together, and that at the present time we do more good by establishing active centres in the greater cities, centres which radiate an influence over the surrounding country, rather than establishing such provincial branches.

It is the influence of Toronto and Montreal, of Winnipeg and Halifax and Vancouver, an influence wielded very largely through the local members of these different centres, that so far has been the greatest influence for good in Canada.

I will not here enter into the respective merits of the different ways of combating this disease. The interesting part is that different cities and provinces have taken up the work along different lines, and gradually we are coming to realize the value of the different forms of treatment; gradually also the respective Provincial Governments are coming to recognize their duties in aiding the work.

It is a pleasure to testify to the important part played by the National Council of Women and its branches in the development of our work. Speaking for Montreal, I know full well that, while we men are the headpieces, and I suppose are the ornamental figurheads in the movement, necessary more or less, the active work and the enthusiasm, the various movements that have added to the success of our League, have one and all proceeded from those who are intimately associated with the Montreal Local Council of Women. For myself I firmly believe that our Dominion Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis would accomplish many times as much as it does at present if, instead of having its officers and delegates of the sterner sex only it had an equal representation of women upon its body. I believe that just as the success of the Irish movement has been very largely due to the Mothers' Associations which have been established throughout Ireland, so our work would grow and gain in strength were we to follow the Irish example. For myself, the more I study this question of the arrest of tuberculosis, the more on the one hand am I impressed with the vastness of the problem with which we have to deal, and on the other hand, I am glad to say, the more is it borne in upon me how much good can be accomplished by simple means. It is not tuberculosis alone that we have to fight, it is the whole problem of unhealthy living. If the generation that has grown up is already too firmly established in insanitary, I would almost say insane, habits of life, for us to be able to bring about great change, we can educate the young, and can demonstrate to them that healthy modes of life bring healthy minds and bodies, which in the majority of cases gain the power to resist tuberculosis. Above all, in this Dominion of ours, with its long winters, we want to teach that fresh air brings strength. It is painful to see that, in what should be the healthiest part of my own Province, for example, in the villages down the St. Lawrence, whole families are dropping off, member after member, from tuberculosis; and the simple explanation is that all houses are hermetically sealed in the winter time to

keep in the warmth, and that house-infection results, once a single member of the family develops active pulmonary disease. We have to teach our people the virtues of fresh air, the delight even of sleeping in the open air, and the health that this brings. Our work thus is not specialized. A tuberculosis association is, and must be, a health association; and it is in the development of personal and family hygiene that the women of Canada must be the leaders.

Thus, to conclude, I would cordially invite the Canadian National Council of Women, through its Health Section, to affiliate itself with our Dominion Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis, being confident that if these things be added unto us, our association will make rapid strides in the good that it can accomplish for the benefit of this great Dominion.

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#### THE CAMPAIGN AGAINST TUBERCULOSIS IN HOLLAND.

By DR. VAN GORKOM.

Complying with the request of the Dutch National Women's Council to give a report about the state of the Anti-Tuberculosis Campaign in the Netherlands, I have the honour to give you here-with a few outlines of this extensive movement.

Although a small country, with limited resources, Holland has accomplished rather much. During the last thirty years rapid progress has been made in general hygiene (since a law of sanitation came into force). In consequence, a marked diminution in the number of deaths from infectious diseases has resulted. But tuberculosis, although itself an infectious disease, was not included in this sanitary legislation, and but few organized efforts had been made to educate the people as to the best means of combating the malady. It is only some ten years ago, that the first really effective steps were taken to prevent the spread of consumption and the principal object of these steps was to provide funds for the treatment of consumptive patients of slender means in sanatoria in our country.

In 1898, when Queen Emma laid down the Regency of the country, she presented to the Dutch nation her estate, Oranje-Nassau's Oord, at Renkum (Gelderland), for a sanatorium, at the same time giving the sum of about £21,000 to fully equip it for its purpose.

The Queen-mother also instituted a fund called "The Queen Emma Fund," out of which is allowed a sum of 1s. 4d. to fifty of those patients unable to meet the full charges, the nursing fee being 3s. 8d. In 1897, a year before the above sanatorium was established, an Association for the Assistance of Persons of Dutch Nationality Suffering from Lung Disease was founded at Davoz-Platz, and a fairly large sanatorium built. One of the directors of this Dutch Association organized a committee at the Hague with several branches in various other parts of the country.

In 1898 the "Association for Establishing and Conducting Public Sanatoria for Sufferers from Pulmonary Troubles" was founded, and in 1902 opened its first public sanatorium at Helledeorn in the Province of Overijssel.

In 1903 the "Amsterdam Public Sanatorium" was opened at Hooglaren. Both the Helledeorn and the Hooglaren Sanatoria are supported by voluntary contributions, with a small subsidy from the Government and patients' fees. There is a private sanatorium at Putten, the founder of which (Dr. Haentjens) opened the first and largest part of the building to people of means in 1900, being convinced from the first, of the practicability and desirability of arresting tuberculosis under the ordinary climatic conditions of the country. There are at present a good many private institutions of a similar kind. Both the private and the public sanatoria boast of good results. Some projects for the founding of new popular sanatoria are at the present moment under consideration. In the course of this year a Frisian sanatorium "Herema State" will be opened.

At Harderwyk, on the shores of the Zuyder Sea, a small public sanatorium was opened in 1908 to patients of the "Christian Reformed" faith. The Roman Catholics are following their example, and have a sanatorium of their own at Groesbeek (Gelderland). Besides these, there are a number of establishments supported by private charities for the seaside treatment of tuberculous and scrofulous children. The oldest and first in rank is the Sophia-Stichting at Scheveningen, founded in 1880 by the late Queen Sophia, with 100 beds. Next in importance may be mentioned the Sea Hospitium at Katwyk-on-the-Sea, which was opened in 1908. From the foregoing statements it will be seen that a considerable number of beds are provided for sufferers from tuberculosis and for those predisposed to the disease. These are still inadequate; the free beds are too few and the prices are really too high to benefit any considerable proportion of the poorer classes.

No compulsory insurance against invalidism and sickness exists in the Netherlands. Municipalities have not yet, as a rule, made provision for sickness nor for consumptive patients. Consequently, philanthropic efforts are necessary to make these provisions. This method naturally is very uncertain, as sufficient funds are not always forthcoming.

Our present Government, however, will probably pass a new bill for sickness and invalidism insurance.

What is most urgently needed are nursing homes for the treatment of advanced cases. There is not a single institution of the kind in Holland, although in England and Wales it is held by some that the isolation of advanced cases is one of the best means for effecting a diminution of the mortality. The need of such institutions is only partially lessened by the gradually increasing number of "tuberculosis dispensaries," modelled after the methods of Calmette and Malvoz. The first object consists in instructing the patients how to prevent or minimize the risk of infection to others. In seventeen Dutch towns, local societies have already been formed

for applying these methods, with the assistance of dispensaries, known here as "consultation bureaux." In an equal number of towns, preparatory steps are being taken for establishing tuberculosis dispensaries, and it is confidently expected that through the constant and energetic efforts of the Dutch Central Association, it will not be so very long before every place of any importance will possess one. Besides these dispensaries and unconnected with them, there have been established in a few places such as, for instance, Utrecht and The Hague, separate tuberculosis clinics, under the care of specialists in tuberculosis, where tuberculin therapy is practised.

Besides all this, it was made possible by money obtained through collections, gifts and contributions, to build in the neighbourhood of several towns *revolving lying-halls*, where indigent patients might be received to follow the open-air cure.

Another effective measure, taken by the local societies, is the thorough disinfection of dwellings in which a death from consumption has taken place or from which consumptives have moved. Clothes and bedding of patients who expectorate a great deal are disinfected. The societies endeavour to educate the general public in the principles of hygiene; they send adults and children of tuberculous tendencies to the seaside and out into the country into vacation colonies, so that through the medium of good food and pure air they may have a chance of recovery.

The principal duty of the consultation bureaux, however, is to secure the prevention of tuberculosis by prescribing and enforcing the strict observance of all precautions and measures necessary for the prevention of contagion. The giving of a purely philanthropic character to this work has been carefully avoided. The Government, the town authorities, and some of the Provincial Boards, give a grant to the anti-tuberculosis movement, and, besides, private initiative is found everywhere willing to give its support wherever the matter is taken up systematically. At present there are already five places in the Netherlands where such local societies act and their example will soon be followed by others. In some places in Holland it was deemed unnecessary to establish special local societies, because there were corporations which had taken upon themselves the care and nursing of the sick in their own homes. They, too, engage in the strife against tuberculosis, and are known as "The White Cross," "The Green Cross," "District Nursing," "Care of the Sick," and similar organizations. Their fame is far spread, and their beneficial influence is felt everywhere. These bodies all unite in the same purpose. To these bodies the Government also gives grants. The smaller societies also endeavour to instil into their patients the importance of sanitary observances, and they hold classes for practical, hygienic and prophylactic supervision and instruction in the homes of the poor.

I cannot conclude this article without mentioning the Dutch Central Association for the combating of tuberculosis, of which I have the honour to be the Secretary. This is the same society which under the name of the Central Committee received the members of

the Fifth International Conference at The Hague in 1906. It underwent a complete reorganization in 1907, and is now the representative central body, wherein all the various corporations for the combating of tuberculosis are merged or, as one may say, are concentrically projected. The board of administration of this central society is principally composed of delegates from all sanatoria and local societies. The Governing Committee consists of five members, and is entrusted with the administration of all affairs. There is a paid secretary-treasurer, who is also the responsible editor of the organ of the society, the periodical "Tuberculosis," which is published four or six times a year. This publication is sent gratis to all members of the society and a large number of those interested in the movement. At present the circulation averages 12,000 copies of each issue. The members of the society pay a contribution of at least one florin annually.

The association also publishes popular pamphlets, giving advice to parents and guardians, and issues coloured picture cards which may be found, among other places, in every railway station and in every post-office. It also holds lantern lectures, which greatly help in enlightening the public mind. In a word, the Central Association concentrates all its energy upon the great work, the anti-tuberculosis education of the people, and endeavours as much as lies in its power to excite the medical profession to active interest.

Moreover, it organizes the warfare against tuberculosis throughout the land, promotes the establishing of consultation bureaux, helps in the formation of other local societies, and enjoys the privilege of being consulted by the Government as to the best means of combating the national scourge of tuberculosis. Last year the amount appropriated as subsidies for the combating of tuberculosis was 50,000 florins, out of which the Government granted 10,000 florins to the Central Association.

For the year 1909 the Home Secretary has proposed a subsidy of 75,000 florins for the joint purposes, to the Second Chamber of the States General. At the proposal of one of the members of this Chamber, this sum of money was increased, by the general vote, to 100,000 florins, of which 17,000 florins will be granted as subsidy for the Central Association.

It is confidently believed that in future public opinion will urge the Government to grant a much larger subsidy to this popular cause.

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### ALPINE RESORTS.

By GIULIA BERNOLCO FAVA-PARVIS, Turin, Italy.

Alpine Resorts, as they have been instituted in Turin, best express the evident interest in the well-being of the little ones, as they have a double aim: that of hygiene and education. If the seaside resorts receive the lymphatic and scrofulous children, the mountain ones gather in the frail, weak, anaemic little ones, to whom the mountain air may be a supreme benefactor.

Each establishment, capable of receiving 20 children, either boys or girls, is presided over by a manager or lady manager, assisted by an assistant master or mistress and a servant. For one of these establishments an income of lire Italian 1,000 is necessary. This includes the living expenses for about two months in the mountains, from the middle of July to the middle of September, and the expenses of the establishment and travelling expenses, for which the Government grants a reduction of 75 per cent. The first Summer Resort was started in 1892 by two doctors: Dr. Adolfo Piovano, Secretary, and Lorenzo Bruno, Senator and President; both real, great-hearted apostles, who in daily contact with all kinds of human misery, especially that of unfortunate infants, had thought of this as a remedy.

The Seaside Resort was begun with the very modest capital of Italian liras 600, granted by the Co-operative Society for the Children of Employees (clerks); twenty-two children had change of air, being received and lodged in the little town of Camandona, in the district of Biella (Piedmont). This Society now has half a million (liras) as capital, and sends about 600 or more children up into the mountains, among whom are two divisions sent from the town of Vercelli: the latter founded, under the patronage of the Hon. Lucea, was in 1900 dedicated to the memory of our good King Humbert I.

The committee of gentlemen is assisted by a ladies' committee which meets regularly on the first Wednesday of each month from December to June, in order to provide for the individual wants of the children, putting in order the clothing and buying all that is wanting in the way of linen, etc.; organizing fêtes, lotteries, collecting donations in money and kind.

In order to understand what is meant by a Summer Mountain Resort (Colonia Alpina) and what an immense benefit the working-people's children may obtain from it, one must penetrate into the oldest quarters of the great cities, where the working classes are gathered together in miserable little rooms, attics, or damp basement floors, without air or light; and enter these on sultry Summer afternoons, when unwholesome exhalations infect the air; and see the gasping for breath of the poor little weak chests, already more than exhausted by want of good nourishment. One must penetrate these districts when schools are closed, parents absent at factories and other places of employment, their children left to themselves or abandoned in the courts, alleys or streets, in dangerous contact with dishonesty or crime, a certain prey to physical and moral dangers. However much the improved hygienic conditions of large cities, and larger and more airy dwellings for most of the working classes, may have diminished the physical dangers of bad air and unhealthy contact; however much cities like Turin may possess large avenues, public gardens or parks, still such air is always deadly in its effects during the Summer to the poorer population, and doing good by means of public charity always appeals most forcibly and intensely when directed towards the relief and assistance of little children.

A child is like a ray of sunshine in our existence; one cannot imagine it sad or suffering. Gaiety is natural to young children, and the bitterest remembrances of after-life are the melancholy memories of desertion, brutal treatment and hunger endured in earlier years. But unfortunately misery often engenders bad habits, and both are bad counsellors for goodness and affection. That parents should desert their children or treat them badly is repugnant to our minds; and yet it does happen.

How necessary, therefore, it is that benevolent persons should give assistance to those poor, badly-treated, deserted little ones. And above all, give aid to those families which are honestly good, but who suffer, not having sufficient means of existence. These families, and there are still some, to whom it is a charity, a duty even, to give assistance and render their lives as comfortable as is possible!

See there upon one of our Fore-Alps, one of these children's resorts, in a little village overshadowed by large firs! There are from twenty to forty little ones who have but lately left the city, still pale, thin, almost phantoms; they cannot walk for long, rather they need rest, and above all, nourishment, air, liberty and sun. Oh! what a country, what sun, what greenness! Those Alps which embrace the horizon, splendid in their immaculate whiteness! They could see them a little, there, in the city when they looked out of their miserable little attic windows, dreamt of them, longed for them; but they were far away, just as in a dream. Now they see them quite close: when they are stronger and able to bear the fatigue of climbing, they may even reach an Alpine summit, touch with their little hands the snow in the middle of August, when in their town homes the air is hot and suffocating and the pavements are literally scorching.

Look at them, when in some field near the house in which they are lodged, they go through little gymnastic exercises, awakening the admiration of the country-people, little used to seeing such little soldiers drawn up in line; who at a sign from their teacher move their legs and arms as if they were but one; kneeling, rising, marching backwards and forwards, heads erect, eyes straight, unconsciously proud and pretty, just like those little athletes sent forth by Grecian genius and reproduced in the Latin race. And look at those children again after some few weeks of life in the open air and in clean houses, watched over by courageous teachers and directors, to whose abnegation and constancy in their task is united the sense of maternity, so inborn in woman; look at them running quickly up and down the slopes, wreathing their heads and necks with ivy, like little elves of the woods come out to console earthly mortals; with what excitement do they gather the wild flowers; they seek the cyclamens which cover the ground, to make nosegays to offer to their teachers or to adorn the little altar of the Virgin in the Refectory. When it rains they are assembled in the recreation rooms or under the covered porch in front of the house, learning to knit, crochet or sew some little thing, in which arts they soon become as clever as little housewives.

This simple life together often establishes a fraternal sentiment, from which much benefit may arise. They are all children of the same condition in life, working people's children, who work and who must prepare for and respect work, as the one necessity of life and holding the first place in it. To go to this Summer home, to form part of this beneficent institution, to profit by these two months' sojourn in the mountains, very often taken notice of, and petted by those ladies and gentlemen who, too, are passing the Summer in such places, is a happiness to be boasted of. The simple and affectionate life up in these heights, cared for and caressed, stimulates these children to become better, more grateful; with better health arise also better feelings; the children become less suspicious of human kindness and straightforwardness; sympathy with others is created and inclines towards indulgence, and compassion for the inevitable failures in the daily conflict against passion is aroused.

What will happen when these children, who for a time accustomed to cleanliness, politeness, nourished with good and abundant food, afterwards return to the less beautiful and less healthy daily life of the city? Will there remain in their minds gratitude for the benefit received, or this having ceased, will discontent develop in them?

Even a child's mind is a problem; but serenity of mind arises from healthiness of body, and those who strive to restore vigour to a weak organism, have the right to hope for goodness and gentleness as results of stronger and more healthy bodies, and will not the remembrance of these past two happy months act as a powerful incentive to work, to economize, so as to be able with their own savings to procure again for themselves the same benefit of a two months' rest among the mountains or in the country?

Sometimes ever such a little thing is sufficient to point the way, to suggest and strengthen a good resolution. And these little minds are often full of perception and reflection.

As the work of the Children's Alpine Resort has become understood and entered upon, it has developed and prospered and obtained much general sympathy.

The Alpine Communes grant free use of the schools during the holidays for two months; sometimes a private person leads his or her house, as well as part of the more necessary furniture. All other necessities for an Alpine sojourn, such as clean little beds, bedding and linen, are sent from Turin. The daily provisions (as established by the Sanitary Commission) are procured in the various communes or villages, chosen by a person expressly nominated, and are controlled and given out daily by the manager or lady manager. A regulation, established by the same sanitary officers, orders the hours for eating, walking and repose; there must be little or no intellectual fatigue; no schooling, but open air and gymnastics. How much better it would be if the communes of the populous cities, instead of keeping open the schools during the Summer, contrary to all hygiene and real education, would found other Alpine Resorts, giving instruction on the mountains: schools

for the study of nature, that great and inexhaustible teacher, who instructs and educates without tiring the intellect. Our Government, too, might aid the work of these large communes by inviting those smaller ones among the mountains to willingly lend their school premises as a Summer home for the poor town children, and in return grant some little subsidy to the institution, which might always be an incitement to the latter to give greater help. Although the public and private charity of our nation is almost inexhaustible, still, increasing as they do from year to year, the problem of these Alpine Resorts becomes more difficult; the necessity of finding localities adapted, and at a height suitable to the strength and age of the poor children from the plains, is very urgent. Sincere praise must be rendered to the Administrative Council, presided over by Count Gioachino Toesca of Castellazzo (who succeeded in this office the late Lorenzo Bruno), who by his exemplary uprightness and solicitude, added to his highly esteemed personal influence, every year is able to stimulate the Alpine communes to provide in time that indispensable aid in the way of the school premises, and the co-operation of the inhabitants and visitors.

There are now 26 of these Summer Resorts belonging to Turin—13 for boys, 13 for girls. Each of these bears a name which recalls to mind the benefactor, a happy event, or a national sorrow.

Thus these institutions so full of humanity, live and bear fruit in the rising generation, and the sentiment of gratitude and affection, always healthy and consoling, is strengthened among the gentle breezes of the Alps; thus preparing indefatigable workers, who demand work and peace strengthened by nature and natural capacity of man; women chaste and modest, true companions of man in the struggle for existence: and both a strong and robust people, who are inspired by healthy ideas and attain them by that firm will, that unflinching tenacity, which greater bodily vigour and more elevated education of the mind always help to give.

In conclusion, I can but long for the health of the children of to-day, who will be the men of to-morrow, and therefore agents of human civilization and progress, and hope that the Summer Resorts in the mountains may extend and intensify, both physically and morally, the regenerative work in aid of the children.

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## VACATION COLONIES IN SWEDEN.

DR. INEZ LAURELL.

Another means of improving the health of the poor children of the elementary schools very much used in Stockholm is the holiday colonies in the country.

We have in Sweden long and dark winters, when even the best situated people are in need of sun and light, but we have our revenge in our bright summers, when even the nights are light. When summer comes everybody longs to go from the town into

the country just to make as much as possible out of our short but bright and lovely summer. The summer holidays are longer in Sweden than in any other country, I think; three months they last, and all who possibly can take their children out into the country do so for that time. All the islands around Stockholm are filled up with people from the town. You can find even people of the working classes in primitive lodgings in the country so that they can get out of the town.

But those who want the country holiday the most, the pale children from the narrow streets, they have no means to leave the town.

Twenty-four years ago a lady teacher, through private philanthropy, was able to take about a dozen children with her out to an island for the summer, and her idea gained so much interest among kind-hearted people who had money to dispense, that next year eighteen such colonies were sent out. Now the number of the colonies has grown, and last summer nearly 2,000 children were sent out from Stockholm, each child for about two months. Each colony has twenty to thirty children and is directed by one lady principal. She has at her side another lady and one or two servants. The children do the rooms and the-beds themselves and take turns in helping in the kitchen with cleaning china and other things. The boys carry the wood for fire and help with other heavier things. Most of the day they are free for playing, bathing and wandering about in the neighbourhood. The colonies are generally situated on an island, so that the children every day have a sea bath; some few colonies go to the mountains.

The result of the holiday colony is splendid. Thin, pale children go out, rosy and chubby children return. That is the rule, and the improvement is not transient, nor does it disappear as soon as the child returns to its old surroundings. The physician of the school chooses the children who are to enjoy the advantage of being sent into the country. He sees the child at the beginning of the summer and at the end of the summer and also later, and all the physicians of the elementary schools in Stockholm agree on this point, that the good state of health and even of weight is of satisfactory duration. In many other towns of Sweden the example set by the vacation colonies of Stockholm is followed and we regard these vacation colonies as one of our best sanitary institutions.

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### THE WHITE SCOURGE.

[Translation.]

We are forced to admit the justice of the saying of a great physician of Paris, "Half of mankind have been, are, or will be consumptives."

The whole social aspect of this malady may be briefly stated as follows:—

1. Whatever means are taken to decrease poverty, will at the same time render less powerful the scourge of tuberculosis.

2. Any measures taken to arrest the progress of phthisis will at the same time reduce poverty.

This twofold evil calls for a twofold remedy, and above all, the great directing powers of the State should make it their duty, if not to entirely suppress poverty, at least to do their utmost to minimize its effects. Tuberculosis is the inevitable companion of poverty and vice. Dr. Darenberg writes: "Tuberculosis attacks one-quarter of the individuals in a generation and kills one-sixth of them. It is more deadly than all the epidemic and contagious diseases put together. It is the great leprosy which has preyed upon humanity for a hundred years."

This scourge is a broom which sweeps humanity and brushes away the refuse. It is aided in this work by the degeneration of the race, due to various causes, and rendered fatal by the progress of civilization and industry. The working man in the town withdraws more and more into shops and factories. At the end of the day, instead of resting, he amuses himself and drinks.

In poverty-stricken and dirty houses, in rooms where light and air seldom come, where men, women and children are in pitiable promiscuity, here it is that tuberculosis lurks, always in ambush like a hidden foe to attack the lives of the working man and his family.

Workmen, mostly given to drink, very badly nourished, living in workshops where the rules of health are not observed, worn out by work sometimes beyond their strength, are the easy prey of the terrible bacillus, which breeds in the midst of those nearest to it, women and children ignorant of all preventive measures and heedless of any resistance to the scourge which attacks their very life.

It is strange that this disease, which has ravaged every class of society, and which is justly considered the worst enemy of man, attacking as it does without distinction young and old perpetually, has not been conquered with all the means we possess to vanquish it!

If everyone knew how to appreciate the great responsibility resting on each one who is connected with those liable to, or infected with, phthisis, and if everyone could by prophylactic measures avert, arrest or cure tuberculosis by isolating the patient, in a very short time we should have practical and satisfactory results and views which could be used and spread abroad by women in the family and society at large. If every family had at its head a mother of intelligence, tact and heart, knowing the broad lines of her duty to prevent death by tuberculosis, in ten years the statistics would show a death-rate of 50 per cent. at least less than at present in every country.

The cures accomplished in spite of the tuberculosis scourge are innumerable.

Perhaps no serum virus or other special chemical substance will ever succeed in curing tuberculosis. The consumptive at the beginning of his illness, and anxious for a cure, should not lose precious time taking remedies or adopting injections and leading at the same time a life which is exhausting his strength. He

should at once adopt a hygienic course of treatment based especially on the rest cure. No other illness reminds one so much of the Arab proverb, "The progress of disease is helped by many remedies."

The extraordinary advance of real medicine is to remove from the field of action, uncertain and often injurious remedies, and in this way "health cures" have obtained a general and certain triumph. And if, with better air and wholesome food, and with rest, we cannot immediately cure the consumptive, we shall certainly cure by degrees the patient whose lungs are not completely possessed by bacilli, and diminish the cases of infection.

The war on tuberculosis may be carried on in three ways:—

1. It may be preventive, by combating the contagion of expectorations from those affected, and by diminishing, and at last abolishing, the fatal alcoholism which makes human shipwreck.

2. It may be charitable and palliative, caring for the unfortunate patients whose cases are too advanced for cure; also saving their families and especially the children from this terrible malady.

3. Well organized dispensaries and hospitals would be sufficient to undertake this useful but humble work. In the end the war on tuberculosis would be curative. Sanatoria would be built, in which not only the well-to-do classes, but the poor, could be cared for until a complete cure was effected, while their families were helped, guided and encouraged.

In Germany, Switzerland and Scandinavia, Red Cross Societies have established sanatoria for tuberculosis. In Italy what had our Red Cross Society done before the terrible earthquake in Calabria and Sicily? Absolutely nothing! In Italy we have a large number of societies affiliated with the Red Cross Society. How beautiful would be their work if all their good intentions, charitable enthusiasms and wishes to serve humanity could be limited to an effort more beneficial to those who suffer! All the lonely sufferers from tuberculosis, without any to comfort them, all the families where the ravages of this cruel disease are slowly overwhelming its victims: how grateful would these be to the ladies of the Red Cross of Italy if they would dedicate themselves like the German women of this Society to sufferers from this malady at the beginning of their illness, the only time when there is much hope of recovery!

Those who wish to prevent the spread of tuberculosis must pay great attention to expectoration. Tuberculosis is spread largely by expectorations containing specific bacilli of the disease. These expectorations are thrown on clothing or pavements, are mixed with dust, and penetrate the organs of respiration of the healthy. Tuberculosis is carried also by a cough, within the radius of a yard: particles of saliva, full of bacilli, are thrown out, which have passed into the mouth from the bronchial tubes. Therefore, in sanatoria spittoons are provided for the pocket and for all the rooms, and the patients are taught to cough as little as possible, both for their own sakes and the sake of others near them.

And in Italy, what has been done for tuberculosis? Very little by the Government, but much by learned physicians, who, without aid or subsidy from the State, have contributed (like our celebrated Dr. Maraglia) to the mass of scientific observations and discoveries, which have done honour to our illustrious compatriots. If we think that Dr. Koch alone receives 300,000 francs a year for the Institute of Medicine at Berlin, and his bacteriological researches (including the latest discoveries), while the Italian doctors, university professors, and illustrious savants, have not amongst them all one-third of this sum given to Dr. Koch, we may say that they perform actual miracles!

It is woman's work in particular, as I have already said, to gain the battle in the fight against this cruel bacillus. It is her work to establish hospitals at the seaside and fresh air homes, for poor, rickety and scrofulous children. It is her work to overcome the great scourge which is undermining thousands of lives in human society.

This bacillus may suddenly invade the blood of our children, and lurks, like a hidden foe waiting for its victims, in hospital wards, in theatres, in factories, in every spot where men work, or play, or study, or suffer, breathing too often the corrupt and deadly air, pernicious to health. This bacillus it is that women know may be conquered.

Dispensaries should increase in number in our towns. Then let all the women in the world unite to fight against ignorance and vice, no matter under what form they may be found. The white scourge strikes hardest where moral and social duties are forgotten.

Give to all men the proper conception of their individual value, of their origin and their destiny, and thus, by strengthening their characters and educating their minds, we shall perhaps succeed in fortifying their bodies against the attacks of the worst forms of death.

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### THE HEALTH OF THE CHILD.

By ELIZABETH M. HOOPER, Port Huron, Mich., U.S.A.

The inalienable right of every human being is to be well born. No child should enter life handicapped by a diseased parentage. And to paraphrase Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes' reply as to the time to begin a child's education, a child's health should begin a hundred years before its birth.

While a belief in heredity is considered by a great many as hopelessly old-fashioned, we cannot but admire a history of bravery and valiant deeds in generation after generation, while with equal horror we read the history of the notorious Juke family of England. An ancestry of robust good health is hardly less to be desired than the cherished family honour and traditions of nobility of character. Starting with the premise that the child is healthy at birth, the first requisite in the case is *common-sense*. Little children are little animals to a certain extent, and should be allowed to grow and develop normally.

The first one or two years are periods of marvellous growth and development, and at three and a half years a child has reached half its stature. The nervous system develops so rapidly naturally, that to try to hurry this in any way is a positive crime. Every three-year-old prodigy who can repeat pages of poetry should be pitied. There is a homely old saying that if we burn a candle at both ends it is the sooner consumed, and flowers forced to an early bloom are soon faded.

The infant should be clothed warmly and loosely, all clothing suspended from yoke or shoulders. As the child at birth measures nineteen inches on the average, skirts not over thirty-six inches long from the neck are more than ample. The infant should be bathed and fed regularly, its sleep should not be disturbed on any account, and all efforts to entertain and amuse baby should be postponed until the child is old enough to desire it. If the mother is not able to nurse her baby it is a misfortune, but children brought up artificially may be perfectly healthy, if care, accuracy and intelligent supervision of each individual case is possible.

An infant cannot be fed by rule, but we can only lay down general principles governing the milk supply, and its adaptation to the individual infant. Each infant must be studied by itself and the greatest measure of success will be attained by the physician or mother who can appreciate the individual needs of the special infant. The best safeguard of any infant is its ability to withstand disease, and immediate attention should be given to any evidence of departure from normal health conditions, however slight.

Infants should never be given any form of solid food until the digestive organs are developed enough to properly perform their functions. Infants should spend much time in the open air, and be cared for quietly and gently. They should not be shaken or tossed around, nor subjected to any rough handling. As they grow older the *question of health should ever precede the question of education*. We make a great mistake in hurrying our little children to school, even to the kindergartens. Personally I think six years, the legal age at which children are allowed to attend the public schools, is too young. A little longer time should be given for physical growth, and a good healthy foundation established, but this is also a question of the individual child, and his personal health and conditions.

Our schools require too much; too many subjects are given, till the little brains are stimulated beyond what they should be required to do. The brilliant pupil is overworked, and the mind that is a little slower is discouraged, and our healthy baby becomes a nervous, hysterical child, old before its time. The simpler way would be individual teaching, with the special capabilities and inclinations of each child considered.

The inspection of children in our public schools is an important measure, and great good can be predicted from its observance.

The health of future generations depends on the knowledge of the present one, and the energy and ability with which we use this knowledge. The public is waking up to the needs of education

along all lines that lead to the betterment of the homes, and aids the individual to care for his children.

The nations are realizing that a safe and prosperous country must be composed of healthy people and the place to begin is at the beginning, with the children.

Let us then use every care and safeguard for their health, for great possibilities are in the children.

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### THE EFFECT OF ANTENATAL CONDITIONS ON INFANTILE MORTALITY.

By LOUISA MARTINDALE, M.D., B.S. (Lond.), England.

During the last few years there has been a great awakening on the subject of infant mortality. We have realized that, in spite of all our modern sanitation, in spite of our knowledge of the bacteriology of infectious diseases and our improved methods of isolation and disinfection, which things have caused a steady and marked decline in the death rate of the people as a whole—in spite of these facts, we find no corresponding fall in the death rate of the babies. The infant mortality rate is no better than it was 70 years ago.

If we take up a table of the causes of infant mortality, as that, for instance, in the British Registrar-General's report for 1904, we find a total infant mortality rate of 145.3—that is to say, 145 children out of every 1,000 born die before they reach the age of one year.

We find further that of these—

45.79 died of wasting diseases (such as premature birth, congenital defects, injury at birth, want of breast milk, atrophy, debility, and marasmus).

31.87 died of diarrhoeal diseases.

13.65 of convulsions.

11.74 of pneumonia.

11.30 of bronchitis.

Then come the less important causes, because responsible for the fewest deaths, viz.—

6.15 whooping cough.

6.13 tuberculous disease.

2.97 measles.

1.30 syphilis.

.38 diphtheria.

.08 smallpox. And so on.

If we compare a recent table of infant mortality with one 20 years or more ago, we find a striking decline in the number of deaths from infectious diseases, but no decline at all in the number of deaths from wasting diseases; in fact, the death rate from immaturity is greater than it was—and is going up each year.

A glance at the different types of wasting diseases is sufficient to make us realize that these are one and all largely dependent on antenatal conditions, and I therefore propose to devote the short time at my disposal to a consideration of these.

In no branch of medical science is our ignorance so profound as in antenatal pathology and hygiene, and it is only quite recently that we have begun to realize that preventive medicine and hygiene, to be preventive, must be antenatal; that if the infant mortality problem is to be solved, it can only be done by the bettering of the conditions under which the expectant mother is living, and by the insistence on the importance of a healthy inheritance not only on the maternal, but also on the paternal side. The germ plasm in both the original germ cell and sperm cell must be healthy, and therefore capable of healthy development.

Amongst these "Antenatal Conditions" we find (1) Infections of various kinds; (2) Toxaemias, especially alcoholism; and (3) Prematurity and Immaturity, which, as I said before, is steadily increasing.

1. Cases have been known where the babies of women who were suffering from smallpox during pregnancy, have been born pitted with smallpox marks. Again, influenza and other illnesses involving a high temperature of the mother, are well known to act disastrously on the unborn child, and there is an ever increasing mass of evidence to show that every disease which either parent has suffered from has its influence on the health and character of the future child.

2. Of the Toxaemias, we have lead poisoning and mercurial and phosphorus poisoning, all of which are responsible for much infant death amongst the workers in dangerous trades. But by far the most important is alcoholism. No other poison is responsible for such mental havoc in the offspring as alcohol, no other vice responsible for so much misery, poverty and immorality as drunkenness, and I suppose no other train of symptoms is so far-reaching in its effect upon the future descendants as alcoholism in one or both parents.

Alcohol is a poison, and therefore, as we should expect, a very large number of the children of alcoholic mothers die before or at birth, or in the first few years of infancy. For instance, Sullivan discovered that whereas 23 per cent. of the children of sober mothers died before they were two years old, 55 per cent. of the children of alcoholic mothers died.

The reason of this is that (1) alcoholism in the mother induces a lower vitality in the child, and (2) it causes deficient lactation. It has been shown that alcohol may pass as such from the mother to the foetus. This was proved by Nieloux by animal experiment and by examining the foetal blood from the umbilical cord and after-birth of the infants of women to whom alcohol was given one hour before labour. The consequence of this is that alcohol, which acts much in the same way as other well recognized poisons, causes the birth of children, more or less malformed, or of weak vitality and stamina, or they may even be still-born or non-viable.

Dr. Clave Shawe, some time the chief medical officer of the London County Asylum, says: "We have inebriate mothers and abortions of degenerate children. The relationship between the two seems to be as certain as any other condition of cause and effect."

Then with reference to (2) deficient lactation. The milk of an alcoholic mother may be found to actually contain alcohol, so that not only does the child take milk of a poorer quality, but milk containing alcohol, with the result that pathological changes in the child's liver and other organs very soon take place. There is an old but popular superstition that stout is good for nursing mothers. Now, stout, porter and other malt liquors do stimulate for a time a secretion of extra milk, but this secretion is of a watery nature, and is therefore of inferior nutritive value to the child. As a matter of fact, cows are frequently fed upon malt grains in order to increase the amount of milk supply regardless of its quality, which is always inferior.

We have to remember, too, the indirect effects of alcohol in causing infant mortality. Much money is wasted by parents on alcohol, which money is required to buy good food and milk for mother and child, and again alcohol induces an inertness of body and mind which leads to maternal laziness and neglect, and later on illness and death.

And lastly, alcoholism in the mother leads to the over-laying of infants, an accident which, as everybody knows, happens most often on Saturday nights.

The close connection between alcoholism in the parents and mental deficiency and idiocy in the children, is too wide a subject for me to more than touch upon to-day.

Dr. Norman Kerr reports a case which is typical of paternal alcoholism.

The father and mother started life healthy; and had a son and daughter, both excellent specimens of humanity. Then the father took to drinking, with the result that the next child was mentally defective, and then, the father continuing to develop more alcoholic symptoms, the next two children born were complete idiots. In fact, only a very small percentage of drinkers' children are physically fit and mentally normal. One authority, Prof. Demme, says only 6.4 per cent. (Legraine, 17.5 per cent.; Demoor, 11.7 per cent.) Tuberculosis is also more frequent in the children of heavy drinkers. One authority, Arrivé, found that 10 per cent. of such children suffered from it, whereas only 1.8 per cent. of the children of temperate parents had tuberculosis.

Dr. MacNicholl made a careful examination in 1901 of 55,000 children for the New York Academy of Medicine. Of these he found 58 per cent. below the required standard of intelligence. Of the 6,624 children of drinking parents, 53 per cent. were reported dullards. Of the 13,523 children of abstaining parents, only 10 per cent. were dullards, but of those children who had abstaining parents, but drinking grandparents, 78 per cent. were dullards. (Vide Medical Temperance Review, Aug., 1905.)

At a discussion on this subject at the Vienna Congress against alcoholism, a medical man stated that the teachers in the wine growing districts of Lower Austria know that a supply of very bad scholars in any one year denotes a good vintage six years previously. (Vide Alcoholism and Morphinism in relation to Marriage, by Drs. A. and F. Leppmann.)

Dr. Dom Bezzola, in an address delivered before the same Congress, said:—

“Having at hand within my own community, Graubünden, 68 cases of imbecility of various grades, I undertook a preparatory investigation among these and arrived at the astonishing result that half of their births fell upon days following 40 weeks after periods of alcoholic plenty—such as New Year, the carnival, and grape gathering—that is to say, within an aggregate of 14 weeks; while the remaining half was distributed rather evenly through the remaining 38 weeks of the year.”

It was found also that the number of births was lower than the average during these 14 weeks. A detailed study of imbecile school children throughout all Switzerland confirmed the result of this investigation. This shows then that simple drinking of the parents prior to conception produces an unstable nervous organism in the children; and it is because the nervous system is developed from the portion of the germ which is the latest product of evolution, and most intricate in structure, that it is the least stable and consequently more easily deranged and injured. Robinovitch goes further and shows not only that the subjects of hereditary alcoholism have feeble constitutions and are often physically deformed, but that they often lack resistive power to infection and that they succumb easily to gastro enteritis, bronchitis, and meningitis.

I cannot leave this subject without alluding to Professor Delman's famous study in hereditary alcoholism.

Ada Jurke, who died at the beginning of last century, at about 60 years of age, was a drunkard, a thief and a vagabond. 75 years later her progeny was found to consist of 834 persons, of whom the history of 700 has been studied. Of this number there have been—

- 106 illegitimate children.
- 144 beggars.
- 64 sustained by charity.
- 181 prostitutes.
- 76 criminals, among whom were 7 assassins.

In 75 years this single family has cost in maintenance, expenses of imprisonment and interest, £250,000.

3. Prematurity and Immaturity.—There is much talk nowadays about the seriousness of the diminishing birth rate. At first sight it does not seem a very great fall—four births less in every 1,000 persons in 1905 than there were for the same number of persons in 1851, but as a matter of fact, if the birth rate were the same to-day as it was in the middle of last century, there would be every year more than 60,000 additional infants born.

Although acute infectious diseases in childhood may cause an atrophy of important reproductive organs, which later on leads to sterility, yet by far the commonest cause, both of sterility and still births and miscarriages, is syphilis.

There is an ever growing tendency to artificially prevent conception, and this again acts indirectly as a cause of sterility and premature birth.

It has been shown on good clinical evidence that this custom sets up endometritis and other uterine affections, which result later on in the mother's being unable to have a full term child.

Apart from this, there is the question of the possible influence on the character of the future child, of being "unwanted." How can we expect to find in the unwanted child, that joyousness and sureness of being welcome that characterizes the child whose birth has been looked forward to and longed for?

Alcohol and syphilis in one or both parents are responsible for the birth of children of lowered vitality, or even having malformations of all kinds.

In fact, of late years much "light has been thrown upon the whole question of malformations and monstrosities, more especially by the methods of experimental teratogenesis; and clinical observation has so far given some support to the conclusions thus arrived at, namely, that malformations are due to the causes of disease, acting on the organism during the embryonic or formative period. It is therefore to be expected that it will yet be shown that microbes, other toxins and toxic agencies, such as alcohol and lead and other poisons, and possibly also traumatism, are the ultimate causes of malformations. . . . True antenatal therapeutics will come to be the prevention of the causes of disease in previous generations, and the raising of the standard of health in marriage." (Ballantyne's Antenatal Pathology and Hygiene.)

Again, the science of teratology has shown us even that many nervous diseases are in reality the outcome of the failure in development in the nerve tissues, and as our knowledge increases there is little doubt that more and more disease can be traced to antenatal influences, and antenatal malformations, and that if a child is to be really well born, at least two generations of healthy men and women must have lived honestly and well.

There is a tremendous field of work before the educated woman, and above all, before the enfranchised woman. The educated woman can help much in the solving of these antenatal problems which mean so much to the future of the race, and which are surely of all problems, essentially those in which a woman can give most help.

The enfranchised woman, for is it not on her that the responsibility of the bettering of our social laws and beliefs must rest?

In the past there have been many superstitions with regard to "Maternal Impressions" and much false knowledge with regard to all sex questions. In the future there must and will be greater knowledge, better health and infinitely greater happiness.

## THE FIRST SCHOOL FOR MOTHERS IN THE NETHERLANDS.

MME. VAN HOOGENHOUCQ-TULLEKEN.

In April, 1908, the Women's National Council of the Netherlands took the initiative in organizing a second National Congress devoted solely to the interests of children. In the second section of the congress Dr. Kersbergen, of Haarlem, gave a most interesting address with the "School for Mothers" as his subject. He considered a systematic training of mothers and prospective mothers in the care and bringing up of infants the most important factor in the efforts being made to reduce the high rate of infant mortality. Something more than 22,000 infants die yearly in our small country and this mortality cannot be regarded as a weeding out or natural selection, but rather must we accept the humiliating fact that both high death rate and accompanying high sick rate are the result of innumerable abuses, prejudices and—above all of ignorance. Dr. Kersbergen was further most eloquent in urging the mothers of the Netherlands to take up their task with more intelligence and knowledge. The advice was at once practically seconded by Dr. Plantenga, specialist for infants' diseases, who at the close of the meeting, announced his intention of opening a school for mothers after the summer vacation at his infants' meeting in The Hague. In October of the same year the first course was opened by Dr. Plantenga with a series of theoretical lessons followed by practical lessons by the doctor's assistant and the head nurse.

Dr. Plantenga claimed the immediate attention and interest of his pupils by his introductory remarks on infant mortality in the Netherlands and more especially the high death rate in The Hague, which, together with Groningen and Utrecht, shows the most unfavorable figures of all the cities in the Netherlands, and even compares unfavorably in its treatment of its infant population with the small villages and towns of the comparatively unenlightened province of North Brabant. It is to be hoped that the knowledge of this fact will act as a stimulus to the young mothers of The Hague of all classes to profit by the mother-school and so assist individually and collectively in removing this stain from the reputation of so fair a city.

In the second lesson Dr. Plantenga compared mother milk and cow milk as food for the infant, and brought out very forcibly the advantages of the former and all the disadvantages of the latter. That 90 per cent. of all mothers are able to nurse their children seems to be a moderate estimate, and this statement was followed by a list of the usual reasons given by mothers as to their supposed inability to nurse their children. The result of a long experience showed that the light of the proper knowledge of the technique of infant feeding in most cases dispelled these supposed reasons, and with the splendid example of Queen Wilhelmina before them surely the Dutch mothers will awaken to a sense of their responsibilities and exert themselves to gain this knowledge, which means

so much to the well-being of the next generation. The technique of infant feeding is of the utmost importance to every mother, since even with mother milk poor results will be obtained if this best of foods is improperly administered. How much more unfortunate will be the results of mistakes made in the technique of the artificial feeding can be readily imagined! That the mortality of artificially fed infants is five times as great as that of breast-fed children is the best proof of the fatality of the blunders made in this direction.

After these most important lessons on the technique of infant feeding, the weaning was taken up and fully discussed. This was followed by general information on the infants' clothing, the respective merits of washing and bathing, weighing of the child and preparing its food. This brought the course of theoretical lessons to a close, but they were at once followed up by practical lessons on the last mentioned subjects.

First, the preparation of infants' food under the direction of the doctor's assistant, and afterward several practical lessons in bathing or washing and dressing one of the infants under direction of the head nurse. This last is especially instructive for the *prospective* mother. What young mother has not gone through anxious moments of nervous inexperience the first time she has undertaken to wash or bathe and dress her first born? This and many other trials, great and small, are spared her by the application of the knowledge so easily and pleasantly obtained at the school for mothers. For what avails the devotion and self-sacrificing love of the best of mothers if she has not the necessary knowledge and proficiency to do the right thing at the right time, and thus avoid the misery which is too generally supposed to be inevitable in infant existence, but which is really for the greatest part the outcome of prejudice and ignorance?

It is not too much to hope that the example of The Hague as pioneer in the movement for schools for mothers will be speedily followed by other cities of the Netherlands and that the flame of interest awakened in the movement last year through the National Woman's Council will not be allowed to die down, as long as there are mothers who are willing to learn and a battle to be waged against an unnecessarily high infant mortality.

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### A SWEDISH DAY NURSERY.

By DR. INEZ LAURELL.

One of the most important causes of the great morbidity and mortality among infants is the mother's great ignorance with regard to bringing up the baby. About two years ago a society was started in Stockholm, called "The Nursing School Society," which works to spread the idea that the ordinary education of all young girls ought to comprise practical knowledge of baby nursing. In the elementary schools there already is given instruction in many

practical things, for instance, cooking and dressmaking, and now the idea has been started of arranging at the end of the school a time of practical instruction in the care of babies.

The society has started a little institution that works in a way that I find nearly ideal. At the head of the institution is a fully trained nurse. To this institution mothers who are obliged to work out of their homes bring their babies in the morning, fetching them away in the evening on their return home. At the same time in the morning the pupils arrive. They are girls of fifteen or sixteen years, who have just finished at the elementary schools and who are now undergoing a last year's course of practical instruction. The same number of pupils and babies is received so that each pupil has one child to take care of. The pupils are accurately and carefully instructed the whole day and taught how to tend a baby. They bathe the babies, prepare and give them their food, keep the rooms clean and the air fresh, and wash the clothes used in the day, these latter belonging to the institution. The age of the children is from but a few days up to about one year.

Each group of pupils remains at the institution for nine weeks and in that time they also are theoretically instructed. I am myself the doctor of the institution and I give a series of lectures to each group.

The institution that was begun as an experiment and still of very modest size (only seven pupils and seven children are received) has, after two years' activity, given the best results. The pupils have found a great interest and pleasure in the work and the teaching and also in the children. It has seemed to me that this work among the babies also develops the best and deepest sides of the young girls' characters. The babies are very well taken care of and their health has all the time been very good, and the mothers are very grateful to have their children so well looked after.

The mothers pay a sum of about seven cents a day, and for that sum they also get the child's food for the rest of the day if they cannot suckle the baby while it is at home.

In general we try as much as possible to inculcate in the mother the great importance of the natural food and we try to encourage her to continue nursing the baby the part of the day she has it herself. Sometimes the mother has been able to use a part of her dinner rest to go to the institution to give her child the natural food and in those cases we have been able to get on with only two bottles of cow's milk a day. The advantages which this institution combines are:—

1. It gives instruction in baby nursing to young girls.
3. It gives good attendance to babies from a class where the babies are generally very badly attended.
3. It makes it possible to partially keep the natural food.
4. It has an advantageous influence on the mothers regarding their cleanliness and regularity in the nursing of the child.

5. It gives this help to the poor mothers and babies without separating mother and child.

This last point I regard as a very, very important one. When the parish has to help a poor mother with her child it so very often has no other means than sending the baby to an institution or boarding it out—that is, separating mother and child. And I believe that all women ought to look upon any way of taking care of a baby that involves taking the baby from its mother as a most imperfect palliative, which, although it may help from one point of view, yet from another, is only ruining the child and still more the mother.

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### "BABIES' MILK" IN STOCKHOLM.

By DR. INEZ LAURELL.

It is a well known fact that raw milk, a valuable food, can also be a rather dangerous bearer of contagious diseases if it is not properly handled and well controlled. In a big town the milk control is a very important question and especially is it necessary that well controlled milk, the soundness of which is quite reliable, may be bought for babies.

In Stockholm the general milk control is insured by accurate and effective rules for selling milk called "babies' milk." This milk is always sold in bottles which have the words "Babies' Milk" pressed into the glass, and which are sealed at the place of production. If any farm wishes to have the right to sell milk called "babies' milk" it must put its cowhouse and all the staff working there under the inspection of the sanitary authority of the town. In addition to this the inspection of the farm is carried out by a physician and a veterinary surgeon.

*The physician* has to inspect the sanitary conditions about the cowhouse. He examines the health of the persons working there and inspects their lodgings. He repeats his inspection twice a year and in case of suspected contagious illness among the work-people, he must immediately be called.

*The veterinary surgeon* has to inspect the cowhouse, the milking and the transportation of the milk.

The building must answer to even very advanced requirements of sanitation and cleanliness and have good ventilation. It has to contain a separate department for sick cows, a washing room for the milkers, where they wash their hands before milking and where they also can put on their milking clothes; one room quite clean and free from dust where the milk is brought immediately after the milking for cooling and distribution.

The health of the animals is carefully examined also through tuberculin inoculation. The veterinary surgeon has to inspect the cowhouse every second month and each animal has the tuberculin inoculation at least twice a year. In case of reaction the animal is immediately removed.

The milk must, during transportation, be kept cold and must not be shaken more than necessary. In the town it is brought to a central distribution place, where the families can fetch it, or it can also be directly distributed to the houses for which it has been ordered.

This milk is sold at a price about two cents higher than other milk, in order to repay the producer for his higher expenses. But the milk is very well worth its higher price, as it is quite trustworthy, and if the milk cans be properly handled and kept in the home also, the babies can use the milk without any cooking at all. In the Infants' Asylum thousands of children have been brought up with such milk quite raw. The advantage of this is evident. The raw milk is more digestible for the baby and more like the natural food. The regulation of this "babies' milk" facilitates very much the work of the milk depots, which all use this kind of milk.

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### THE COPENHAGEN MILK SUPPLY.

By J. H. MONRAD, Copenhagen, Denmark.

The "Copenhagen Milk Supply Co." was organized by Mr. G. Busck in 1878, who in truth may be said to have inaugurated the first real *sanitary* city milk supply in the world.

It was started by a few prominent disinterested men with the insignificant capital of Doll. 2,500, but there is now invested some Doll. 150,000, and it is yet run on the original semi-philanthropic plan of a limited return of 5 per cent. on the capital invested and the use of any surplus either for improving the quality of the milk, the reducing of the price to the consumers, or the increasing of the return to the producers.

The rules which were thus voluntarily submitted to by the milk producers are now, with some modifications, made compulsory by the Copenhagen Board of Health.

The milk arrives about 11 p.m. in refrigerator cars, and as the sealed cans are unloaded, women tasters sample each can; the temperature is taken and the cans weighed. If a can arrives unsealed it is set aside for butter or cheese-making. Samples are also taken for analysis and if found below 3 per cent. the supplier will hear of it. The samplers receive a premium of some seven cents for every defective can discovered, and it is set aside for butter or cheese-making. The milk is now filtered through sterilized gravel and sand, cooled to about 50 deg. F., and either bottled or filled into the distribution cans, the faucets of which project from the closed waggons, having the grade and price painted over them. These prices are worth noting, as there is no city where milk is sold as cheaply, because, though this company does not supply a fourth of the milk sold, the other companies, organized for money-making, have been compelled to meet and even go below the prices established by Mr. Busck. They are—for "children's milk," milk which is right up to the best "certified" American, and which, if

kept on ice, will keep just as long as any—5.67 cents per quart; regular whole milk, 4.6 cents; deepset skimmed milk (misnamed "half skimmed"), with not less than 0.75 per cent. fat and buttermilk, 3.24 cents; Jersey milk with 5 per cent. fat sells at 3.51 cents a pint; and whole milk and skim milk drawn from the cans, 4.32 and 2.43 cents, respectively. The buttermilk is of a special good quality and free from any addition of water, which cannot be said of that sold by other dealers. While labor and other working expenses undoubtedly are much cheaper, the land and feed-stuffs are about the same as in the nearest milk zones of our American cities in the East. The farmers get 2.7 cents per quart at the nearest railroad station, or 2.97 cents delivered in Copenhagen for market milk.

In addition to the rules now promulgated by the Board of Health and given below, Mr. Busck has the children's milk milked in the summer, as shown in Fig. III., and in the winter in a special room as shown in Fig. IV., and furthermore he has invented a milk pail in which there is a bulb filled with ice and salt, so that the milk is chilled at once on leaving the teats of the cow. A free sample of this pail he sent some years ago to several experiment stations, also Guelph, I believe; and there is no patent, as he works for the children. This company supplies the king as well as the poorest tenement dwellers, and, of course, hospitals, crèches and asylums. There are virtually only four other large companies in Copenhagen, and a good many farmers or peddlers who drive in and deliver milk; but all of them have had to follow suit more or less and improve the quality of their milk, more, I believe, owing to the example set by Mr. Busck than to the active control of the Board of Health. Indeed Mr. Busck may properly be called the "infant saver," and the effect of his work is not confined to Denmark by any means; thousands of visitors from all over the world have met a courteous reception when investigating his milk depot.

The Board of Health now claims that there has been no epidemic of any kind traceable to the milk since 1901, and while in 1880 the death of children under one year was 219 per 1,000, it has been reduced gradually to 119 in 1907; though, while much of the credit for this may be given to the improved milk supply, part of it must be credited to other sanitary improvements.

#### RULES FOR MARKET MILK.

Every cow owner from whose herd milk is delivered in Copenhagen must follow the city ordinances of May 3rd, 1904, as far as they apply to the production of milk, and in addition follow the rules here printed.

#### RULES FOR MARKET MILK PRODUCTION.

1. To let a veterinarian inspect the whole herd at least twice a month, and, after every inspection, to have the certificate signed and mailed to the Board of Health.

The owner must give the veterinarian all desired information as regards the herd, the feeding and the milk, and he must follow the instructions of the veterinarian.

2. The animals which the veterinarian points out as tuberculous should at once be removed from the herd and be sold or killed as soon as possible. Animals which are condemned by the veterinarian for other cause, and especially those which suffer from the diseases mentioned in paragraph 10 of the city ordinance, should either be removed altogether from the stable or placed in one end of it, as the veterinarian may deem sufficient. The milk must not be sent in, nor the animals take their place in the herd, until the veterinarian permits.

The owner is obliged to at once separate any animal which may show any of the diseases named between the visits of the veterinarian and immediately inform him. He must also be called at once if there is any suspicion that the disease may be of a contagious or poisonous character.

3. All feedstuffs must be perfectly fresh. Mouldy or otherwise damaged fodder must not be found in the stable or close to it.

Now as to the enforcement of all these rules and regulations, it is evident that it depends chiefly on the veterinarians paid by the producer as regards the farm end of the control. In the City of Copenhagen there is a man in each of the seven districts who among multifarious other duties also looks after the cleanliness, etc., in the milk stores, but there is only one man taking samples. Nevertheless, owing, as before said, to the moral effect of Mr. Busck's example, I believe the law is as well enforced as in cities with a much greater force of men.

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## PERSONAL HYGIENE.

By DR. MARY C. MURDOCH, England.

Hygieia, the goddess of health, was one of the deities worshipped by the Greeks, and they represented her as a beautiful young maiden, fully draped, and carrying with her a snake, which was a symbol of the perpetual renewing of youth of those who worshipped at her shrine. To bring this allegory home to us of this generation, we shall find that those who learn the laws of health and apply them in their everyday life, do not seem to grow old. The light in their eyes, the spring in their step, the wholesomeness which emanates from them, mark them out as the seeming owners of perpetual youth.

The Greeks believed that Hygieia was the daughter of Aesculapius, the god of the healing art. She did many errands for her father; swept and cleansed the homes of the poor people, taught them how to live healthily, and so Aesculapius was saved many a journey to patients whose illnesses had been prevented by cleanliness and fresh air. And even so to-day, we find Hygiene, the daughter of Medicine, sitting at his right hand and helping him to prevent disease. There is no selfishness in Hygiene; it is impossible to study and practise it without discovering that it means helping others to a higher and cleaner life. When the passion for

health spreads to the people, there will be such an unheaval of society that disease and uncleanness will be swept out of the land. Think of the joy of keeping the doctor out, and when Hygiene is known and rightly understood and applied, the only use of the doctor will be to attend to accidents.

Hygiene means progress, civilization, and when we remember that Queen Elizabeth never used a handkerchief (because they had not been invented in her day); also, that she did her hair once a month or once in three months, we must confess we have made rapid strides since then. But the amount to be done is still colossal, and the love of it must come from within. If each one of us had a high ideal of mental, moral and physical cleanliness, and not only an ideal, but a real desire to bring it down into our everyday life, the world would be a brighter and pleasanter place to live in.

The *constitution* of a person is an important factor in resisting disease. It is in part acquired and in part inherited. A strong constitution may become feeble by unhygienic environment, such as living in impure air, or in overcrowded dwellings, or by the effects of dissipation. On the other hand, a feeble constitution may become strong by careful attention to the laws of health.

The part played by *heredity* in the constitution of the race is now a much debated question, but the wise tendency is to lay much stress on environment and on the improvement of many of our deplorable social conditions.

Still, we see the expression of the features and many tricks of hand and face inherited, and in the same way many mental qualities are inherited, and the weak points are liable to be passed on to the children. Therefore, for example, we should recommend the son of a gouty father to be abstemious in eating and drinking, and to avoid in particular the eating of much meat.

Some families acquire cancer, tubercle, skin diseases, rheumatic fever, even enteric fever and diphtheria, more readily than others. Again, insanity, epilepsy, asthma and hysteria, seem to be hereditary, but they may alternate in different generations. The general consensus of opinion shows that it is the *tendency* to disease, and not any particular disease, which is transmitted, and therein lies the great hope for the race, because when any disease becomes manifest in a parent, it enables us to formulate rules for the guidance of the health of the child.

When actual disease is transmitted, which occurs rarely in tubercle, but often in syphilis, the actual infection takes place before birth from the parents. Weissmann believes that only those forces which influence the germ-plasm can be inherited, and among those forces one of the most potent is the constant imbibing of alcohol by one or both parents.

The *temperament* of a person very often has an influence in causing disease; for instance, a phlegmatic person is as a rule less liable to contract disease, while a neurotic individual falls an easy prey to any epidemic.

*Idiosyncrasy* is a "peculiarity limited to a comparatively small number of people." Thus, only a few people are liable to

hay fever, but we all inhale the pollen of grasses which is so often the cause; the smell of hyacinths is pleasant to many, overpowering to some, while it made a famous physician of Bath invariably faint away.

Some articles of diet are poisonous to some, e.g., shell-fish, lobsters, etc., may cause severe nettle-rash, and ptomaine poisoning affects some people more acutely than others.

Some drugs exercise the directly opposite effect to that intended on a few individuals. Opium, which we all know is a sedative, may cause convulsions in rare cases, and constipation may be the result of Epsom salts.

Then there are mental idiosyncrasies—strange aversions to or preferences for certain objects. We need only instance Lord Roberts' well known aversion to cats, which he cannot tolerate in the room in which he is.

By paying attention to our individual peculiarities much ill-health may be avoided.

*Age and sex* play an important rôle in the diseases to which we are prone.

In infancy and old age, extreme changes of temperature are dangerous, and greater care and protection are needed.

Infant mortality is mainly a question of feeding, and thousands of deaths are caused by giving starchy foods instead of milk, and, of course, preferably the mother's milk.

In childhood the food must be most carefully regulated, otherwise rickets may appear even in the houses of the rich, and is due to malnutrition. We have now also the frequent occurrence of infectious diseases, and the illnesses caused by dentition.

Youth is the period of rapid growth and the food must be good and abundant; young people need much more food than adults to build up the growing tissues.

Manhood or womanhood is the time when health is most equable and stable, but much depends on the previous life of each individual. Old age is the period of degenerative diseases; bronchitis, apoplexy and kidney disease carry off many victims.

It is an interesting fact that the mortality of man is greater than that of woman, except from 5 to 20 years, thus illustrating Darwin's great doctrine of the "survival of the fittest"!

We must always remember that the laws of health are inexorable, and what we sow, we mostly will reap. On this account, we ought to form careful habits of eating and drinking; our meals ought to be regular and of simple, well-cooked food, and moderate in quantity. Over-eating is quite as much a cause of disease as under-eating, and hasty eating of food and imperfect mastication is much to be deprecated. The craving for stimulants is generally a sign of disease of the nervous system: the daily amount of alcohol has to be constantly increased to produce the desired result, and the corresponding depression is inevitable. We are all better and healthier without alcohol in any form.

It is most important to pay particular attention to having an action of the bowels at a particular time each day; otherwise a

form of blood-poisoning, indigestion, headache, etc., may result. Powerful purgatives must be avoided, but fruit, brown bread, etc., must be added to the diet and a sufficiency of liquid taken—at least one quart daily—and more walking exercise must be taken every day.

And this brings us to the proper amount of *exercise* we ought to take every day. The involuntary muscles go on regularly, day and night; digestion is the exercise of the stomach, respiration of the lungs, and thinking, of the brain. The ideal condition occurs when neither muscular nor mental exercise is neglected. By healthy exercise, the nutrition of the muscles is improved and the action of the lungs is increased. If the amount of air breathed in when we are lying down be taken as 1, then when erect we inspire 1.33; when walking one mile per hour, 1.9; at four miles per hour, 5; when riding, 4.05; when swimming, 4.33. At the same time, the amount of carbonic acid gas and other impurities which we expire is increased. The taking of alcohol diminishes the output of carbonic acid, and so is avoided by those undergoing muscular training.

By muscular exercise the lungs are increased in size, and the measurements of the chest also increase. Deep breathing is an especially good exercise for increasing the vital capacity of the lungs.

By exercise, the action of the skin is also improved, and, as a rule, sensible perspiration occurs. If perspiration is induced, the bodily temperature is not increased. Chilblains, which are caused by defective circulation, can generally be cured by active exercise, warmer clothing and an abundant supply of good food.

Exercise increases the heart's action. The pulse goes from ten to thirty beats per minute quicker; after prolonged muscular exercise, care must be taken, as the temperature may fall below the normal.

The digestion and assimilation of food is aided by exercise, and the nervous system is improved in power. A certain amount of exercise is essential for a healthy mind. With sufficient exercise, both more nitrogenous and non-nitrogenous foods are required.

When *excessive* exercise is taken, sarcolactic acid accumulates in the muscles and rest is enforced. Writer's palsy may be cited as an example of excessive exercise of a particular group of muscles. Students must be warned not to undertake a too strenuous walking-tour in their vacation. Occasionally, if not carefully trained, hypertrophy or dilatation of the heart may occur in the Oxford or Cambridge crews.

When the amount of exercise taken is *deficient*, the muscles waste, as, for instance, when a leg is kept in a splint; we suffer from cold extremities, the heart and digestion are enfeebled. The nervous system is affected and irritability and sleeplessness occur. Many deformities, such as stooping, may be acquired by using only one set of muscles. Lateral curvature in girls is greatly favoured by the fact that they wear corsets, and the trunk muscles cannot be exercised.

## REST AND SLEEP.

The heart rests 6-11 of a second after each contraction, and so it rests 13 hours out of the 24. The lungs also have a period of rest, amounting to about three hours per day.

Partial rest is a change of occupation, and our muscles require less rest than our brains.

*Sleep* is general and complete rest; our muscles sleep first, then the eyes close and the thoughts wander; hearing is the last sense to go, dreaming succeeds and even dreaming may cease if the brain repose is complete. But all the time the heart and lungs continue their work.

The amount of sleep required varies with different individuals, but habitual deficiency leads to wretchedness and prostration with great restlessness. Habitual excess of sleep renders the brain less active, impressions are received less actively, and the power of will is correspondingly diminished.

The amount required varies with:—

1. *Age.* An infant ought to sleep the greater part of its life. A child over two or three years need sleep only during the night.\* In advanced age there is a return to infantile habits.

2. *Sex.* Women, as a rule, require less sleep than men; they ought to learn the man's habit of taking short snatches of sleep.\*

3. *Temperament.* The cold, phlegmatic people require more sleep than sanguine or nervous ones, but the latter sleep more deeply.

Frederick the Great, John Hunter, and Napoleon required only five hours' sleep, but Napoleon could always take short naps at a few moments' notice.

4. *The sick and convalescent* require more sleep than the healthy.

5. *Mental work* requires more sleep than physical.

6. It is important to sleep in pure air, so the window of the bedroom ought to be always open, summer and winter.

When sleeplessness occurs, no mental work should be undertaken in the evening, but a short walk before going to bed is often beneficial. No late suppers must be taken, and narcotics of all kinds ought never to be begun. The deadly habit increases, until all will-power is lost.

The most absolute *personal cleanliness* is essential for the maintenance of perfect health. We must remember that two sets of glands open by tubes on the surface of the skin—the sweat or sudoriparous, and the sebaceous or fatty glands which keep it supple. To keep their functions active, frequent washing is essential.

Uncleanliness causes:—

1. Obstruction of the sudoriparous tubes, and this interferes with the elimination of the waste products of the body by means of

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\*Some discussion arose on these points, as there were differences of opinion.

the perspiration. Too much work is thus thrown on the kidneys and lungs, and these organs rise up in revolt.

2. Obstruction of the sebaceous tubes causes an accumulation of oily secretion in the ducts, and the unlovely disease called acne is the result.

3. An accumulation of the scales of the epidermis takes place and the skin becomes scurfy.

4. The sensibility of the skin becomes deadened, when the sensory papillae become covered with dirt.

5. The tendency to chill is increased, because of the obstruction to the openings of the sweat glands.

Much soap and water and a good deal of friction are required. Hot baths are the most efficient for cleansing purposes, and ought to be taken at least three times a week. We are fast losing our time-worn prejudices about the weakening effect of hot baths.

The daily morning cold tub ought to be taken rapidly; the body ought to be well soaped first, and then a quick plunge into the cold water with good sponging. On leaving the cold bath a quick reaction and delicious glow is obtained. Cold baths increase the tone of the skin, and render the body less liable to chill.

Personal cleanliness requires also daily attention to the hair, nails and mouth.

The hair ought to be carefully brushed and combed at least twice daily, and washed once a fortnight. The nails should be kept clean, because they may convey germs very easily from one locality to another.

The mouth should be kept scrupulously clean, and all decayed teeth at once attended to and filled. They must be brushed at least twice a day, and preferably after each meal. The milk-teeth in children ought to be stopped, if decayed, so as to ensure a healthy and well-shaped second set.

It is essential to keep one's wearing apparel clean and well-brushed. Under-clothing must be frequently changed, and it is well to have washing dresses when possible, and when not possible, to have one's outer garments frequently aired.

The bed-clothes ought to be changed frequently and the fewer bed-hangings the better. The old-fashioned valances are practically a thing of the past, and curtains are fast following in their wake.

The house ought to be kept clean and free from dusty corners, where germs grow. Plenty of sunshine and fresh air in a house are indispensable.

One uncleanly habit need only be referred to, to be condemned utterly—expectoration in the street, the tram, the train, or anywhere. It rapidly dries and is carried by the winds to all the corners of the town, carrying often disease in its train.

In conclusion, I would remind you that perfect cleanliness carried out in all its details (clean food, clean milk, clean bodies, clean houses, clean everything) means perfect health.

## SCHOOL BATHS IN SWEDEN.

DR. INEZ LAURELL.

In Stockholm very much is done for the health of the children of the elementary schools. We have hygienic school buildings which have often been studied by foreigners. I will now talk about only one part of the school buildings, the bath. Each school has its bath, where each child can have a bath twice a month.

In the bath there is one big room divided off into a number of small dressing rooms. From this room the children have to go into a room heated with vapour up to about 105 degrees Fahrenheit. There each child gets a little tub with hot water and soap and then has to wash himself all over and they help each other with the parts of their body they cannot effectively wash themselves. After being well cleaned they go under a tepid shower bath to get rid of the soap, and now, after staying in the heat, they have the healthy reaction of running into a bathing tank of 68 degrees Fahrenheit. The tank generally is so big that a number of children can be in it at the same time and swim about. The child does not pay anything for the bath, only has to bring its own towel.

These baths are one of the cheaper kinds of winter baths; when 200,000 baths were given the baths cost the town two cents each. They are also very, very cleansing; they open every pore and are most refreshing and strengthening.

In the summertime the children of the elementary schools have free baths in the sea three times a week, and this advantage they use frequently. There they are also instructed in swimming.

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MEDICAL INSPECTION OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

DR. ELEANOR LOWRY, England.

In England medical inspection of elementary school children was not made compulsory until 1908, when an Act was passed making education authorities provide for the medical examination of every child at least three times in the school course.

At Wimbledon, Surrey, the district with which this paper deals, inspection has been carried out for three years previously. The medical officer visited every class at least once a term and examined any child singled out by the teacher, making as well a general survey of the class. Books were kept in each class-room in which the name of any child with obvious defect was entered by the teacher. The special points noted by the teachers were defective sight, deafness, defects of speech, mouth breathing, marked backwardness; in short, any defect which interfered with school work.

This method is kept up at Wimbledon, but in addition the children are systematically examined, notices being sent beforehand to the parents asking them to be present.

There are also 7,000 children in the schools here, and 1,000 have been so examined since January, 1909, a period of three months. About six to eight minutes are taken over each child (longer if necessary), and records kept of the physical condition of each. This systematic examination has disclosed a large number (11.6 per cent.) of cases of defective sight, many of which, being grave defects of one eye only, would otherwise have escaped notice.

About 1.5 per cent. of the children are found to be suffering from heart disease. In a few cases this condition had been unsuspected, and the children had been compelled to perform physical exercises for which they were quite unfit.

Only about 25 per cent. of the children are found free from any defect.

Three nurses are employed, one to assist at the medical examinations, and two part time district nurses, who visit each school once a week, seeing all children in school and those newly entering, with a view to excluding and dealing with uncleanly conditions.

In Wimbledon there are nine schools, showing every grade of elementary school child down to the very poorest, and there is, in addition, a cookery, laundry and housewifery centre and a special school for mentally defective cases.

Having thus briefly described the situation in one typical district, and the system of inspection being carried out there, the next point is to mention some of the problems connected with the work.

The first difficulty that confronts the Medical Inspector is to have treatment carried out when the parents are: (1) too poor, (2) too careless.

In the first case, poverty, the difficulty has been met by help being given by the Invalid Children's Aid Association. This society is doing a great work by sending such children, when necessary, to hospitals or convalescent homes, or by paying local doctors' fees, and providing spectacles or instruments when ordered.

In the second case, neglect, if notices to the parents fail, and a visit from the school nurse has no effect, and the case is bad enough to warrant it, the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children may be asked to take up the matter.

It yet remains to be seen if hospitals in the various cities can deal with the increased number of patients sent up. The establishment of School Clinics, where treatment is given at the expense of the rates, is not likely to be welcomed for some time in England, either by the ratepayers or the medical profession, nor does it seem really necessary at present.

One thing, however, is certain, and that is that some means will have to be taken for the treatment of children's teeth in cases where there is no dental hospital within reach.

Defective, decayed and irregular teeth give the largest percentage of defects (45.5 per cent.) and probably pave the way for

more illness than all the other conditions combined. It is well known that if the first teeth are decayed the decay of the permanent ones soon follows.

There are three classes of children that require special attention:—

1. Mentally defective.
2. Backward and "borderland" cases.
3. Children with a tendency to tuberculosis.

1. Mentally defective children are provided for in special schools, where they can be kept until sixteen, two years longer than normal children. They are taught in smaller classes and are given more manual training than ordinary education.

The weak point about this is, that they are free to leave at sixteen, and, though there are After Care Associations which try to obtain suitable work and look after them, very often they are lost sight of early, and little can be done for them. Mental defect in children is usually ascribed to one of three causes:

- Inherited diseases.
- Alcoholism in the parents.
- Malnutrition.

And if the last is a cause, it is surely the only class with hope of much improvement in this generation. The treatment of mental defectives presents a great problem. From a purely scientific point of view, there are *two sides*:—

- (1) Those who hope to improve mental and other defectives and bring them up to or near the normal.
- (2) Those who, believing in the inexorable laws of heredity, have no hope for the descendants of defectives, but hold that they will be defectives too.

According to the first view, no expense should be spared in the attempts to improve these children. Already, a defective child is more expensive to educate than a normal one, but there are people who would advocate State upbringing, the best of feeding, clothing, housing, and possibly the use of open air schools. According to the second view, some effort should be made to ameliorate conditions of life for defectives, but they should be *kept apart for life in asylums or segregated colonies*. Some of those who hold this view scoff at attempts to diminish infantile mortality in the lower classes, believing that they only serve to increase the number of undesirables and defectives. Much work is being done at present, but much still remains to be proved about heredity and the laws of Mendel regarding inherited qualities. If we can obtain an accurate family history of at least three generations in a sufficient number of degenerate cases, we may then be in a better position to answer the question: "Is there a class of the unfit, or can we so improve their conditions of life that they may rise above it?"

If the former, they ought to be kept segregated, but if the latter, we may hope to improve them along hygienic lines. Is it too much to expect from school medical inspection of the future that the records kept may answer the question?

In the future it may be possible, at least in country districts, when examining a child on admission to school, to be able to refer to the parents' family history and physical conditions at the same age.

2. The second class of child requiring special attention is the *backward* type. Such children are found in all the schools, but they are especially those coming from the poorer homes. These are much in need of teaching in smaller classes, and are only a hindrance to the other children and a discouragement to the teachers.

A dozen or more such children may be found in poor schools being taught in a class of sixty. Some of these are found very backward at certain subjects, frequently at reading. For example, a child who had been three years at school was found not to recognize any letters, yet could copy them fairly well, and was quite proficient at mental arithmetic.

It is interesting also to note the unusual cases sometimes met with of certain children whose various brain centres appear to be lacking in certain connections. For example, a boy who was an excellent writer and who could read well, could not write a single word correctly from dictation, but produced a confused mass of letters.

On enquiring into these cases, it is frequently found, in older children at least, that a possible cause for this backwardness is a want of sleep and over-work. Boys deliver papers and milk before breakfast, and sell papers again in the evening, while girls go out to wash doorsteps in the early mornings, in addition to doing housework at home.

3. A *third* class of children requiring special attention may just be mentioned, and that is those with a tendency to tuberculosis in its various forms. Phthisis is rare in children (about .9 per cent.) but these cases should not be confined in ordinary schools. There is a very large number with enlarged glands (13.6 per cent.) and if the theory is correct, that this is the starting point for phthisis in children, the question of open-air schools is well worth consideration. The results of such schools in Germany have been good, and several have been successfully tried in districts surrounding London. The improvement in delicate children has been marked. Dinner is provided for them, as most come from a distance, and a resting time is allowed after it, during which most of the children sleep in the open air. Probably in the future we shall have many such schools, and great advantage could be obtained by a modified form in which children could be taught during ordinary school hours in a shelter, or a partly covered-in playground. If started early in the summer, children would be able to stand the exposure well on into the autumn or early winter, but in England they probably could not attend during really cold weather owing to poor clothing and the damp climate.

The aims of medical inspection are:—

(1) To try and improve the health conditions of the children of the nation.

(2) To collect statistics in order to know if there is a physical deterioration, and, if so, what is the cause.

In addition it ought to be the aim of every one connected with this work to try and help in advancing knowledge of disease in children and making the most, in a scientific sense, of the enormous amount of clinical material. No better opportunity has ever been given for the early diagnosis of disease in children. Those who know how often cases come up too late for treatment at hospitals will best appreciate medical inspection. Valuable anthropometrical investigations may be made, and it will be interesting to compare the relative weights and heights of children living at home with those in industrial schools, where the diet is on a scientific basis. In this connection the subsequent career and wage earning capacity ought to be compared.

The interesting subject of colour blindness may be investigated also.

Finally, success depends on co-operation between parents, teachers and Medical Inspectors. It is only if the parents can be brought to see the advantage of systematic examination of their children, and if the teachers and medical officers unite together for the good of the children that the aims of medical inspection can ever be attained.

Books of reference to be recommended:—"Medical Inspection of Schools," Mackenzie; "School Hygiene," Hope & Browne; "Report of Commission on Care and Control of the Feeble-Minded," 1908; "Recent Progress in Variation, Heredity and Evolution," Lock; "Home Life in Germany," Mrs. Sidgewick (for description of first open air school); "Alcohol and the Human Body," Horsley & Sturge.

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## MEDICAL INSPECTION OF SCHOOLS, CANADA.

MRS. J. N. SMILLIE, Montreal.

Montreal is the only city in Canada with a system of medical inspection of schools that is attempting to follow in the footsteps of New York and other large American cities. In Montreal, there are sixty thousand (60,000) school children under the regular, daily inspection of seventeen physicians—one of whom is a woman. This inspecting staff is under the control of the Local Board of Health; the city bacteriologist is head of the department of work, and the expenses are met by the city, while the different School Boards—both Roman Catholic and Protestant—give consent to the inspection. A staff of four nurses is also at work, visiting daily the homes of the poorer children and thus hastening their return to school. The physicians and nurses give their full time for ten months of the year, the physicians receiving one hundred dollars (\$100.00) per month and the nurses sixty (\$60.00). Two of the nurses are paid by the Protestant School Board.

The decrease in contagious diseases, especially diseases of the skin, proves that inspection is a great benefit. A special dispensary for children has been begun, where the defects of eye, ear and throat may be attended to, and dental work is also to be done for the very poor.

There has been no serious epidemic of measles, scarlet fever, or diphtheria since the installation of regular inspection in 1906, and the system is proving to be a constant source of protection to our native population, as well as an educational factor along hygienic lines to the large foreign element in our midst. The conditions of school buildings have been greatly improved by the regular inspection; fire escapes, proper lighting and ventilation, damp sweeping, sanitary plumbing, etc., being all insisted upon by the inspectors. The schools that were found to be below the required standard are being rapidly transformed.

Halifax, in Nova Scotia, has two physicians who examine the children twice a year, with very good results; but there is no nursing staff. Vancouver, in British Columbia, has one physician doing the same kind of work.

In the Province of Quebec the lack of a uniform system of compulsory education retards the progress and proper development of the medical inspection, for no comparative record can be kept, and no valuable data given, where the voluntary system prevails. In the province where compulsory education is in use, the medical inspection has not yet been given a thorough trial.

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## INSTRUCTION IN SWEDISH GIRLS' SCHOOLS in ANATOMY, PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE.

DR. INEZ LAURELL, Stockholm.

In Sweden, Hygiene was pretty generally taught at girls' schools as far back as twenty years ago, having of late acquired more modern and practical form, more especially in Stockholm, where instruction is imparted in this subject at all the higher class schools for girls, the teacher being invariably a female physician. I shall mention the name of our first lady doctor in Sweden, Karolina Widerström, who has done a great work in advancing these matters. At present I am teaching hygienics in three schools.

This subject is always left till pupils are in the highest or next highest class, when they are about sixteen years of age. The structure of the human body is already pretty familiar to the pupils, thanks to previous instruction. As a rule one or two lessons a week are given in hygiene for about a year, and previous to each lesson the pupil usually prepares at home so as to be able to repeat what was taught her at the former lesson. This preparation at home is undertaken with the assistance of manuals on the subject, or notes taken during the preceding lesson.

The tuition embraces first the principles of anatomy, and a popular descriptive physiology is given, intended to provide the

pupils with an account of the use and function of each special organ, and how they work as a whole.

Let me now briefly relate the more important tenor of the course.

The skeleton is studied, with a human skeleton as object material, the pupils having to find those bones accessible on their own or their fellow-pupils' bodies. The structure and physiology of the muscles being thoroughly gone over, I try to make my pupils comprehend the importance of harmoniously developing the muscular system, and the vast significance of bodily exercise for the purpose of strengthening the muscles and for the general functions of the body.

One very important subject is the heart and the circulation of the blood.

In connection with the study of the lungs and their function, the importance of fresh air is dwelt on, and I return to this subject later on when touching on the sanitation of dwelling houses.

Before beginning with the digestive apparatus, we first study articles of food, not only as regards their composition but also their digestibility and value as nourishment. Then, after the digestive organs, we pass to the secretive, the skin and the kidneys, and now the interest of the pupils is easily aroused by a description of the assimilation, combustion, development of power, and regulation of heat that take place in our body.

A subject that invariably is of special interest to the pupils is the brain, nerves, and the manner in which this system works, as also the structure and physiology of the various organs of special sense.

An important subject is sexual hygiene, and I will now discuss this topic more fully, because I believe that tuition in this department is peculiarly advanced in Sweden, where our eyes have been opened to the dangers that threaten the young, and, indeed, the entire race, owing to ignorance on sexual matters. For this reason tuition in sexual hygiene is very usual; even in those schools where no regular instruction is arranged for tuition in hygiene, a short series of lectures in sexual hygienics are often given in the highest class.

When giving instruction in this subject I generally commence with a short summary of reproduction in Nature in general, beginning with the division of cells in the very simplest organisms, making the pupil recur to knowledge acquired concerning the manner in which plants form fruit, passing on to fructification and the development of the embryo in fish, birds, and, finally, in mammals. I invariably call attention to the fact that the instincts and care of the mother increase and assume far higher form, as we follow them to a higher plane of animal life. The animal series having been gone through by the pupils, they are well prepared to accept and comprehend an account of the human organs of generation. Besides anatomical preparations I here use wall diagrams representing the female pudenda, as also the egg in various stages of development. A brief and popular description of the growth of

the egg and development of the foetus then follows, and in conclusion an account of delivery is given. The development of the mammary gland during pregnancy is demonstrated and in this connection I find it of special importance to advocate the vast influence of the child's being given its natural nourishment. I also avail myself of the opportunity to try to awaken the slumbering maternal instincts by relating how the infant is the most helpless of creatures, and needs the most loving care; also the importance of every one who is likely to have charge of an infant at any time, even as a young girl, learning how to properly care for infants. Instinct in this respect is no longer sufficient; civilization has killed it, if it ever had existence, and now we have to learn how to care for the young. Then there remains only a relation of the physiological causes of menstruation, after which I explain the hygiene which a woman should observe both during its course and that of pregnancy.

When studying each special organ I explain what should be done for the due care and preservation of that organ, i.e., the anatomy and physiology of the organ is accompanied by its special hygiene. For instance, the anatomy and physiology of the skin is followed by a description of the care of the skin, the effect of various kinds of baths on the skin, and on the regulation of heat, etc., etc., in the body. Each organ having been duly studied, general hygiene is taken up. This includes dress, house sanitation, drinking water, the necessity of exercise and work, of rest, and a regular life being led, etc., etc.

Then I give an account of the nature of tuberculosis and the more important hygienic measures for protecting ourselves and our race from this terrible disease. A couple of lessons are devoted to alcoholism, and, as my pupils belong to the educated classes, personally I prefer to lay chief stress on alcoholism from the point of view of national economy. A brief description of disinfection, and the more simple treatment of wounds is undertaken if the limited time allows.

As object material during the lessons not only wall diagrams of the various organs and parts of the body are used, but also, as previously mentioned, a completed skeleton and preserved preparations of all the inner organs of man. It might be supposed that these young girls would show decided signs of distaste when viewing the heart, brain, or liver of a human being, but this is far from being my experience. I feel inclined to explain this by the fact that this sort of sensitiveness is not favoured among the girls of the twentieth century, the desire for knowledge having become paramount. Much depends on the manner in which the subject is treated and on whether the instruction be imparted as simply and naturally as possible. Even if a girl at the beginning of the course exclaims: "Is it really a human heart?" on one being shown, by a brief, casual: "Of course," she will be convinced it is a very natural thing, that calls for no exclamation. During the time I have imparted instruction, about 200 girls having been my pupils, I have never experienced the least disadvantage from this kind of

object material. On the contrary it has proved an excellent means of awakening the most eager interest in the pupils, being, moreover, by far the best manner of viewing the structure and appearance of the various human organs. Another very good object material for instruction may be obtained from the fresh organs of animals, e.g., the lungs of a calf, the kidneys of a pig, which during the lesson may be dissected.

Having now given a brief account of the tuition imparted in hygiene at the higher girls' schools in Stockholm, let me add that the topic has invariably excited great interest, and I have repeatedly heard the pupils declare that it is the most interesting subject in the entire curriculum.

In the higher educational establishments for the training of female teachers for girls' schools, instruction is imparted in hygiene two hours each week during the scholastic year. The preliminary knowledge being greater, and the pupils far more developed, the study of the subject may naturally be made more thorough in every department of the science.

Among the Board School teachers as a whole, a very lively interest has been evinced of late for studies in hygiene, which subject has hitherto not been compulsory for the due education of the staff. This interest and the need of an increased number of teachers of hygienics has brought about a two yearly course being arranged for the teachers at the Board Schools of Stockholm. The first year the course is held once a week, with two hours' laboratory work, and an hour's weekly lecture during the scholastic year, while the second year there are more lectures and fewer hours spent in laboratory work. The first year is devoted to hygiene, physics, chemistry, physiology and anatomy; the second to hygienics proper, school hygiene and temperance.

The very best teachers from the Medical High Schools are engaged for this course, which has just concluded its first year of work. The applicants have been numerous (240 applied though but 100 could be admitted), and interest intense. The result to be expected from this course is that tuition in hygiene will be arranged in all the Board Schools of Stockholm.

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## PURE FOOD.

ELIZABETH ROBINSON SCOVIL, New Brunswick.

Food is one of the most important elements in our lives. The body is the instrument of the mind and soul. It is through it that the treasures of the intellect and the aspirations of the spirit become known to others and bear fruit for their benefit. The perfection of this instrument, its fitness for its office, depends in a great measure upon the food that is consumed daily to upbuild and strengthen it.

Hence food becomes a matter of prime importance as affecting far more serious issues than mere physical well-being. The imperfectly nourished body cannot properly do its work in the world

and in turn reacting on the mind unfits it for the clear judgment, the quickness of perception, the unselfish devotion that render it able to help its fellow-men.

We have the right to demand that the food offered to us in the markets of the world should be the best obtainable, exactly what it purports to be and free from any harmful ingredient. It is to secure this result that all the so-called pure food laws have been enacted.

The adulteration of food is no new thing. Pliny, writing in the first century of the Christian era, refers to it. In England as early as the 11th century the vintners, brewers and bakers were guilty of this corrupt practice. Unsound wine is referred to in the annals of the corporation of London in 1364. Alum was used in bread by the bakers in the time of Queen Anne. Human nature seems to have been much the same through all the ages. The opportunity to make a fraudulent profit undetected has always been too much for the virtue of the weak. It is to strengthen their feebleness by the probability of detection and the certainty of punishment if discovered that legislation is necessary.

I shall endeavour to state briefly what has been done in Canada, first to ascertain the conditions actually existing as regards the adulteration of food in our own country, and secondly what steps have been taken to enforce a higher standard in the preparation of food products.

It is the duty of women to inform themselves upon this subject because on them rests almost exclusively the preparation of food for their families—and hence for the nation—and on them devolves in a large measure its purchase also. They should be able to discriminate between the varieties offered to them and to decide which should be rejected.

As an eminent writer has said, "Wholesome and palatable food is the first step in good morals and is conducive to ability in business, skill in trade and a healthy tone in literature."

This being so, we should, as mistresses of households, set about in all earnestness the task of qualifying ourselves for the work that is entrusted to us.

Housekeeping is a profession not less intricate and exacting than agriculture and infinitely more important than medicine or law. If women understood the science of sanitation and were thoroughly versed in dietetics the doctors' practice would dwindle until surgery would be its chief bulwark against extinction.

Courses in domestic science offer every opportunity to those desirous to learn both theoretically and practically. A housewife who cannot cook, who does not know how to make good bread, light biscuit and digestible puddings, who is unable to utilize every scrap of a joint of meat so as to extract from it its last ounce of food value should hide her diminished head and begin to study her profession.

As has been well stated, "Good-tempered, temperate, highly moral men cannot be expected from a race which eats badly cooked food, irritating to the digestive organs and unsatisfying to the

appetite." We are in the most real sense the builders of the nation; let us see to it that we do our work well, not despising the humble labour of the kitchen when we have to do it ourselves, nor scorning the thought and care that is necessary to produce satisfactory results when we are obliged to delegate the manual part of it to others.

As the responsibility of purchasing pure food rests so largely with us it is well to inform ourselves what means exist in the Dominion of Canada for the protection of the consumer and how we are to ascertain whether they have been complied with before we buy any article likely to have been adulterated.

Attached to the staff of the Department of Inland Revenue at Ottawa is a chief analyst who is the final authority on all questions of the purity of food submitted for analysis, and he has a number of persons possessing competent medical, chemical and microscopical knowledge to assist him in his work.

The country is divided into districts, in each of which is a food inspector whose duty it is to make purchases in the open market and to have them analysed by a duly qualified analyst.

A full report of these analyses is published in bulletins sent out by the Laboratory of the Inland Revenue Department, Ottawa. Anyone who is anxious to inform herself as to the purity of any article of food used in her household cannot do better than to send for the bulletin relating to it and she will receive it free of cost. Each bulletin opens with a short report to the Deputy Minister of Inland Revenue, often containing very interesting information.

Food stuffs differing as widely as pickles and ice cream have come under inspection. It is gratifying to notice that in many cases it is stated that an improvement in quality has taken place in the whole number of samples since a previous examination, and in some that a high standard is observed. This shows that the stringent laws upon the subject are becoming increasingly effective.

*Ground pepper*, a most tempting substance for adulteration and which it is sorrowfully remarked, "still remains one of the most badly adulterated foods in Canada," nevertheless shows a marked improvement. Only about one-quarter of the samples last examined were adulterated, while the work of twenty-eight years past shows an average of 50 per cent. adulterated during that time. Sand, flour, corn starch and cocoanut shells cannot be considered desirable additions to any condiment and their discontinuance is a distinct gain.

*Ground spices* offer peculiar facilities for adulteration. In 142 samples of ground cloves analyzed only 74 were found to be genuine. Many of them did not contain the proper proportion of the volatile oil which gives the spice its characteristic flavour and these had probably been made from "exhausted cloves," that is, the flower buds of the plant from which a part of the volatile oil had been removed by a previous process.

The use of coffee in the Western world is of comparatively modern origin. The first mention of it in English literature is in Burton's "Anatomy of Melancholy," published in 1621. He says:

"The Turks have a drink called coffee (for they use no wine), so named of a berry as black as soot and as bitter, which they sup as warm as they can suffer, because they find by experience that that kind of drink, so used, helpeth digestion and produces alacrity."

It evidently soon won its way into popularity for Pope in the "Rape of the Lock," written in 1714, speaks of "Cofee, which makes the politician wise, and see through all things with his half closed eyes."

In January of this year 449 samples of ground coffee were reported upon by the Chief Analyst at Ottawa; of these only 10 per cent. were found to be adulterated. In four of the fifteen inspectoral districts, New Brunswick, Manitoba, Calgary and Victoria, no adulteration was present in any of the samples collected. In the other cases it consisted of the addition of roasted cereals and chicory. The latter is a plant with a root like a carrot, which, when cleaned and dried, is roasted and ground and used extensively to mix with coffee. The grocers allege in defence of their use of it that many consumers are accustomed to using coffee containing small percentages of chicory and would be likely to complain did the grocer fail to add it. Hence he considers himself as doing no more than habit and duty require in adding an ounce or so of chicory to a pound of coffee.

*Butter* as an article of daily use and as entering into the composition of many dishes is a subject of great interest to the housewife. Last year 295 samples of butter collected throughout Canada were examined and reported upon. What is known as the Butter Act prescribes 16 per cent. as the limit of water that may be contained in butter exposed for sale. Excess of water was found in only three samples. No adulteration with foreign fats was discovered. The chief analyst remarks, "It is quite apparent that butter is essentially genuine and of high quality as offered for sale in Canada."

*Lard* is another article which is very favourably reported upon: of 129 samples 93 per cent. were found to be unadulterated. Those that did not meet the test imposed contained cotton seed oil or beef fat. Neither of these, if pure, are injurious to health, but the Department refuses to permit them to be sold as lard.

Good *cheese* is made from whole, fresh milk, curdled by rennet before the milk sours. An inferior quality is made from skimmed milk and in the absence of cream contains less fat than it should. In what is known as filled cheese, the butter fat is replaced by lard or cotton seed oil. Cheese is a valuable article of diet, one pound being estimated to contain as much nitrogenous substance as a pound and a half of beef as purchased. In a collection of 237 samples of cheese tested last year only two samples of skim milk cheese were present and no foreign fat was found in any of them. This is pretty conclusive evidence that the so-called filled cheese is not known in Canada.

The many varieties of canned meats are of great interest to housekeepers because they are convenient to keep in store to meet the emergencies that sometimes arise in the household. Their mode

of preparation renders them peculiarly open to suspicion. The last report upon 76 samples of tinned meats states that, with the single exception of one potted pheasant, they were found in a perfect condition of preservation. The Chief Analyst remarks, "The exceptional sample being game may be in such condition as the consumers of the article prefer."

In February of last year six samples of canned salmon were taken from each of the inspectoral districts from Nova Scotia to Victoria, making 90 in all. These were found to be in good condition and true to name, that is, actually salmon as they purported to be.

Two years ago extensive investigations were undertaken into the composition of the various kinds of *cereal* breakfast foods so common in the market; 41 different brands are reported upon. The analyst seems to consider the claims made for them by the manufacturers as extravagant and also says, "It is not easy to get at the price of these articles per pound, owing to the indefinite and varying weights contained in the packages, but it seems to amount from 5 to 23 cents per pound. Since oatmeal or wheaten flour is retailed at from 3 to 4 cents per pound, it becomes a question how far the extra price is justified." It does not appear that many of these breakfast food samples have been prepared from oats, because only four of the 41 contain such an amount of fat as would indicate that origin, and all these bear the word oats in the title.

Ellen H. Richards, who is the instructor in sanitary chemistry in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, referring to breakfast foods, says, "In order to furnish the heat and energy for a day's work or pleasure at least eight or ten ounces of carbohydrates and three ounces of fats are needed. These flaky materials occupy space but have little weight compared with more solid food. Therefore the consumer is apt to be deceived as to the quantity eaten. These goods are partly predigested, so that they pass quickly into the circulation, giving a satisfied feeling which soon passes, leaving hunger behind. The truth about breakfast foods is that the housewife saves time and trouble at considerable cost to her pocket."

In this connection it is perhaps worthy of mention that the addition of salt to oatmeal porridge increases its digestibility very greatly and also that long cooking renders even rolled oats a much more delicious food than when it is hastily boiled for a short time. Porridge made in the evening and cooked in the double boiler is a very appetising breakfast dish, much more economical than any of the so-called breakfast foods.

The question of artificial preservatives as affecting the purity of foods and their effect upon the public health has received much attention from the Department. Preservatives of some kind to enable food to be kept longer than would otherwise be possible have been in use from the earliest times. Wood smoke in curing hams and bacon, common salt, sugar, vinegar and alcohol are familiar examples. To these have been added in recent years many chemical preservatives, the chief of which are boracic acid, salicylic acid

and formaldehyde. The solution is diluted to various strengths and sold as a preservative for milk chiefly and to a less extent for other foods.

Dr. W. M. Wiley, who conducted important experiments at Washington in 1902 and 1903 as to the effects of borax and boracic acid given in the food, says, "It appears therefore that both boric acid and borax when continuously administered in small doses for long periods, or when given in large quantities for a short period, create disturbances of appetite, of digestion and of health."

Dr. Wiley says of salicylic acid, the active principle of which is derived from the bark of the willow, "That it is a harmful substance seems to be well established by the data taken as a whole. It is, however, a harmful substance of very minute virulence."

An English Parliamentary Commission which made an extensive report in the year 1900 upon the subject of food preservatives especially condemned formaldehyde, but as it is efficient and convenient it will probably continue to be used until prohibited by law.

It is argued that if chemical preservatives are prohibited altogether the cost of foods will be greatly increased and foods rendered impossible of use by the poorer classes. Many kinds of food, however, can be effectively sterilized by heat alone and if chemical preservatives were forbidden the ingenuity of the manufacturers would probably find a way to overcome the difficulty of keeping food in a saleable condition. To authorize their use is a serious matter for, as is justly stated by our own Chief Analyst, "When we consider that the excretion of most of these substances falls upon the kidneys and recognize the fact that disease of the kidneys of one kind or another is a main cause of loss of vitality in middle life and indeed figures largely in mortality records, we cannot but feel that the legalizing of potent germicides in food products is a matter of the most serious kind."

In conclusion it may be stated in brief that the Canadian law tries to fully safeguard the public health and provide pure food for the nation, by Acts regarding the adulteration of foods, the sale of such foods and the attachment of false labels. Heavy penalties are enacted for all such offences.

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## NECESSITY FOR THE PURIFICATION OF DRINKING WATER.

T. A. STARKEY, M.D., Montreal.

Available information with reference to sources of water supply reveals a very important fact, viz.: over 90 per cent. of places throughout Canada utilize some form of *surface* water for potable purposes. Of the remaining 9 per cent. more than three-quarters utilize a subsoil water, which, although it might be quite pure at its source, is exposed in canals, ditches, or open conduits, to surface contamination. Hence you see what a small proportion of places have the inclination to procure a water which shall not be exposed to surface pollution.

At this juncture I would like to make a statement of some weight. No surface water of any description, or water exposed to surface contamination, even under the most careful protection, can ever be relied upon in its raw state, without previous filtration, not to cause trouble in the way of disease to the consumers thereof.

I would ask you to dwell upon the importance of this statement, for on it hinges much of my argument. I am fully aware, none more so than myself, how often such a statement is called into question—how many people confront me with the fact that their own community has been consuming a certain surface water for many years with never a cause of regret for so doing. Such an argument does not invalidate my statement in the least. We have only to study these communities in the aggregate, and we soon realize that they are going down like a row of ninepins—one after the other—and it is only a question of time when the survivors have to go the way of their predecessors. The following list of towns or communities, with their respective sources of water supply, *which have given rise to disease*, will show what is happening:—

1. Nova Scotia:—(a) Lake water, (b) lake water.
2. New Brunswick:—(a) River water, (b) river water, (c) river water.
3. Quebec:—(a) River water, (b) spring water in open conduit, (c) river water, (d) river water, (e) spring water in reservoirs and open conduits, (f) river water, (g) well waters, (h) river water from lakes.
4. Ontario:—(a) River water, (b) river water (c) river water (filters break down), (d) river water, (e) river water (changed to lake), (f) river water.
5. Newfoundland:—(a) Lake water.
6. Manitoba:—(a) River water.
7. British Columbia:—(a) River water from springs, (b) river water.

These are some of the cases which have come under my own personal notice during the last five or six years and they seem to be occurring more frequently latterly. This list does not represent all the cases in Canada.

Other countries, where raw surface waters are used for drinking purposes, are going through precisely the same experience. The United States is suffering in this respect even more markedly than Canada, and this for the simple reason that the population is thicker than in the former, and hence pollution more imminent.

A remarkable fact brought out in the table is the vast preponderance of cases in which *river water* has caused trouble to the consumers, 17 out of 23; lake waters, three instances; springs, two; and wells, one. This preponderance of river waters is due entirely to these being far more available than any other kind, without involving trouble and expense. At the same time rivers are the natural lines of drainage for a countryside, and into them must flow or drain, inevitably, the proceeds of domestic or municipal

waste, in varying conditions of purity, according to whether or not these wastes have been treated by some method of sewage purification, either artificial or natural.

It is this inevitable tendency of rivers and streams, and also to a less extent of lakes, to become polluted by accretions of contaminating material, which renders them so risky to consume as drinking water in their raw unfiltered state. The danger lies essentially in the *microbes which drainage or sewage contains*, and it is to them and the conditions favouring their existence or even propagation that we must direct our best attention, in order to combat disease.

This is quite apart from all considerations of soluble chemical substances which may happen to be present in certain trade wastes, and which would preclude the use of waters receiving such from being used for drinking purposes. The objections in this case are too apparent.

The problems before us can be expressed in a few words:

1. To free our drinking water of all dangerous microbes by some means of treatment.
2. To prevent as far as possible the access of microbes (e.g., those contained in sewage) to waters which will eventually be used for drinking purposes.

The first problem can be disposed of very briefly. It reduces itself to *some form of filtration*, as this process is the only one which has proved at all satisfactory. There are, it is true, some chemical and electrical methods of treatment, but these have not up to the present proved themselves as good and reliable as filtration.

It is quite unnecessary to go into details concerning filtration schemes: suffice it to say, that filtration when properly carried out, rids a water of practically all germs, and especially dangerous germs. All our drinking waters are derived from *one of two sources, either underground or surface waters*, and it is probably well known to you that underground waters, especially deep ones, do not require treatment by filtration, because as a rule these waters are particularly free from bacteria. But has it occurred to you to ask the reason why these waters enjoy such freedom from microbes? Briefly, it is because these waters have undergone a most thorough filtration in nature. Originally derived from rain, falling on the ground, the water slowly percolates through the soil, travelling in this fashion many miles.

You can readily understand therefore the magnitude and completeness of Nature's filtration plant—a filter bed of such dimensions as mortal man can never attain to in his artificial scheme; but if well advised he tries to imitate nature as far as he is able, by constructing sand bed filters. Having this scheme of filtration in nature constantly before his eyes, it is astonishing when we think how many years, in fact how many generations, it took before man realized what was taking place under his nose. And it is equally astonishing to find so many people nowadays who are not yet convinced of the benefits to be derived from the filtration of water supplies.

From what I have said, it appears then that surface waters are the ones calling most urgently for filtration. And it is not surprising, seeing that these waters are most liable to pollution in a variety of ways. It is impossible to guard these waters from contamination and especially from sewage matter. The bacteria in sewage are extremely numerous and many of them dangerous; we cannot, therefore, without paying the penalty, allow a water, polluted with sewage, to be consumed in its raw or unfiltered state.

This brings us to the second problem: What can be done to guard against pollution, i.e., sewage?

First, we can *alter the sewage* to such an extent as to *make it no longer a good breeding-ground* for bacteria and so prevent the flourishing of any dangerous microbes which the sewage may contain. This is done by means of an efficient *sewage purification plant*. The effluent from such plants ought to be nearly as inviting, regarding its appearance, as ordinary clear drinking water, but nearly all sewage plant effluents contain many bacteria. However, although not safe to drink, a properly purified sewage effluent is an infinitely safer article to turn into a stream, which is to be used for drinking purposes, than the original crude sewage; for, as I have already pointed out, the purified effluent contains no food upon which bacteria can feed and flourish—to say nothing of sewage by itself causing a nuisance and rendering a water useless for potable purposes when it reaches such proportions as to be detectable by the ordinary senses.

In the second place, attempts have been made to purify these sewage effluents of the *microbes* contained therein, but up to the present the process has proved too costly to be practicable.

Such then in brief outline are the methods pursued to-day for minimizing pollution of surface waters, and the purification of them, before being consumed by the public.

It is needless for me to recount to you the up-to-date countries in which such sanitary counsels are the rule. You are all aware how in Europe, especially in England, Germany and France, the legislatures carry out these tenets more rigorously, preventing pollution, and insisting on sewage purification and water filtration. They find it pays handsomely to do so; their death rates from typhoid fever, the great disease due to consumption of polluted waters, are almost insignificant compared with those prevailing on this continent. Still our people are slow to understand these momentous facts, and it is therefore a public duty to every one to enlighten the public and induce them to realize the dangers which surround them.

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## PHYSICAL TRAINING IN DENMARK.

FRÖKEN ANNA BUCH.

In Denmark physical training has in the last years made great progress both in schools and among adults.

Already in the Education Act of 1814 gymnastics was made a compulsory subject in the boys' schools, but at first it was of no

great importance. The motive for the introduction of gymnastics was a military one: the boys were to become good soldiers; nobody therefore thought of the girls until later, when people began to see the importance of a sound mind in a sound body. The first attempts, however, were not very successful; not until the eighties did gymnastics begin to be common in girls' schools, and not until 1904 was gymnastics made compulsory in girls' schools in the towns, while, owing to want of teachers and drill halls, the authorities have not yet found it suitable to demand gymnastics for girls in the village schools; in many places, however, it is nevertheless introduced.

It is very strange indeed that it should be so long before the authorities as well as private people understood that a healthy body is as necessary for girls as for boys, and that it is of the greatest importance for the State that the mothers of the future generation get as good a physical development as possible.

A new legal provision of 1907 that the State refund to the municipalities half of the expenses of drill halls and playgrounds is of great importance to the physical training, especially in the country, where the want of good halls has in many places been a hindrance. Also in other ways the State has of late years shown its interest in the physical training of the people, by giving a better training to the teachers, by sending out special inspectors of gymnastics, etc.

Besides gymnastics, foot-ball and several other games are played in the schools, and swimming is taught as a compulsory subject to the boys in seaside towns; in Copenhagen it is compulsory even for girls in such elementary schools as are not too distant from the sea. In the summer holidays teachers are present at the bathing establishments certain hours of the day so that the children can come and bathe if they like, and an increasing number avail themselves of this permission.

Even before the authorities private people had got their eyes opened to the importance of physical training, and a great many adults, men and women, young and old, go in for gymnastics or play some kind of game in athletic associations. To help as many women as possible to this recreation the Copenhagen Women's Gymnastic Association, which is affiliated to the National Council of Women, has very cheap evening classes for working women such as shop assistants and clerks, seamstresses, dressmakers, servants, etc. As many of these have sedentary work they are specially wanting the bodily as well as the mental recreation which an hour of gymnastics together with good companions can give. Both this and other Women's Associations practice different kinds of games, swimming, etc. Among the men football is the favourite game, and in the last years it has been so well practised that Danish players have been able to compete with the best English teams.

Well worth noticing is the interest in physical training in the country, and I am sure that in no other country so many peasants and peasant girls go in for gymnastics. This is mostly due to the People's High Schools and to the Shooting Unions. To these High

Schools thousands of young men and women flock every year; there they learn to appreciate physical training, and when they have returned to their homes, the Shooting Unions which, besides shooting, have gymnastic classes also for girls, give them an opportunity to continue what they have begun. It was especially the introduction of Ling's Swedish gymnastics that brought forward the movement, and most instruction in Denmark now is based on his system.

In many cases these country people attain a high standard. At the Olympian Games in London, 1908, a class of young peasants, picked out from the whole country, made a great success because of their excellent bearing and training.

On the same occasion a class of young ladies from a Copenhagen association were highly applauded.

An impetus to still greater ardour, and means to spread the interest in physical training, are given by displays of gymnastics and games of which many smaller ones are held every year in different parts of the country. Now and then great national or even international meetings are held; these are genuine people's festivals and have a great educational influence.

Upon the whole we may look with satisfaction on the progress of the interest in physical training and it may be hoped that it will still increase and bring health and strength to our people.

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## PHYSICAL TRAINING IN THE SCHOOLS IN SWEDEN.

DR. HEDWIG MALMSTRÖM.

Among the many absorbing topics engaging the attention of women all over the world the question of the physical training and development of our young people must ever take a prominent place.

Health, strength, beauty of form, harmony, grace of movement and a well-balanced mind—these are young people's contribution to the making of a nation. We claim that our Swedish system of gymnastics, Ling's great system of physical education, produces not only these but also higher mental and moral qualities such as nerve, composure, self-control and endurance.

I know that in these very qualities the young girls and boys of the new world are not lacking, but I hope I shall not be considered over enthusiastic if I say that I consider that the young people of Sweden at the age of twenty are stronger, more enduring, more self-reliant than those of some other European countries. Their nerves are in better order, they are physically stronger and at the same time more graceful.

How is all this achieved? By a careful and most scientific system of physical education founded on a profound study of anatomy and physiology and built up on the soundest pedagogical lines. This system begins in the gentlest and most attractive way in the kindergarten or with the child's first year of school life. In Sweden we do not consider children of that tender age unsuitable for ordinary drill or gymnastic work. For the first year or two physical exercises consist of easy games at ball, etc. Balance exer-

cises, steps and little dances—all these play a very important part in the training of the young as they gradually develop the spirit of order and discipline, the sense of rhythm and of ordered movement. These preparatory exercises gradually prepare the child for the first stage of gymnastic education, which begins at eight and lasts up to the end of his or her school life.

In all the Elementary Schools (Folkskolor) of Sweden all classes have gymnastic training at least three times a week for 30 minutes. During the long Swedish winter the work is done in spacious gymnasiums perfectly fitted with the latest gymnastic apparatus, for we consider that scientific physical education is of the highest importance to the nation and we never spare expense where that is concerned.

For about four weeks in the spring and autumn these children have out-of-doors exercises and games instead of ordinary gymnasium work. The boys in the upper grades of these schools have military drill and target practice at least three times a week during the months of May, June, August and September. Each lesson lasts 45 minutes. Occasionally the military drill is exchanged for out-of-door games as foot-ball, long-ball, "perk," and other games.

In High Schools for girls a good deal more is done. Here the girls have gymnastic lessons from 30 to 45 minutes a day, from three to six times a week, all the year round, and on certain days in the spring and autumn, when the weather permits, part of the time is devoted to out-of-door games.

In the boys' Secondary Schools (Elementarskolor), which include the Primary and Latin Schools, which take the boy from the age of ten right up to the University, the boys have 45 minutes' gymnasium work at least four times a week from the middle of September to the middle of May. The eight grades of these schools are usually divided into five gymnastic classes, depending on the greater or lesser number of pupils. Every gymnastic class usual numbering from 60 to 80 boys is divided into small divisions, squads (rote) of 10 to 14 boys, each one with its own squad leader (rotmästare) who holds the command over his own troop under the supervision of the teacher. Fencing is practised in the highest grade twice a week, 45 minutes each time, during the whole school year. In the four highest grades they have military drill and target practice during three weeks in the autumn, making 60 hours altogether. The instructors in physical training in these schools are officers of the Swedish army or navy who have been through a course of training at the Royal Gymnastic Central Institute of Stockholm.

In large schools for girls the physical training is usually in charge of a properly qualified woman teacher, who has received a specialist's training at the same Institute.

In isolated country schools this is of course impossible, and here the children have the same instruction in physical training given to them by their own class teachers, who pass through a most thorough training in theoretical and practical pedagogical gymnastics during their four years' course at the Normal Schools.

In the Normal Schools the four grades of students have regular gymnasium exercises thirty minutes a day six times a week. They also have instruction in folk-games and song-dances. During the months of May and September the gymnastic exercises are often exchanged for out-of-door games. Besides their own gymnastic exercises the students of the three upper grades have practice in leading the gymnastic exercises in the elementary schools under the supervision of regular teachers of gymnastics.

Even in the schools for the blind, deaf and dumb and other schools for defective children gymnastic exercises are practised daily, or at least four times a week. These teachers of gymnastics are also specially trained for this kind of work.

A typical feature of Swedish cities and even the villages are the Playing-fields (*Idrottsplatser*), fine open spaces built up by our athletic associations and reserved at certain hours a day for school children of all classes who have their out-of-door gymnastics and games in these playing-fields.

In the schools the gymnastic work is a labour of love on the part of the teachers and our children are enthusiastic about their physical exercises, which are carried out with that spirit of joy and gladness of which Ling was such a strong advocate. A good gymnastic teacher thoroughly trained holds a class of 60 to 80 children as perfectly in hand as an experienced rider does his horse, at times he lets them go, but perfect order and discipline are re-established in a moment. The effect on the physical development of our children is excellent. They are well set up and well developed as a rule.

At the Universities gymnastic exercises are provided for the students of both sexes if they wish to avail themselves of this privilege. Of voluntary athletic associations we have a great number both for men and women. Even the smallest community has its athletic club. Here physical training is practised regularly twice a week during the winter months.

And now a word as to the instructors of our athletic nation. Nearly all the teachers of physical training, men and women, are graduates of the Royal Gymnastic Central Institute of Stockholm, Sweden. This great Government College, founded by Ling in 1813, provides a free gymnastic education for men and women between 20 and 30 years of age. Both male and female students have to be possessed of good health and physical fitness for the work. The women students must possess a Swedish High School degree or its equivalent, the men must have passed their "student" examination or matriculation. The male students at the Institute are, as a rule, young officers from the army and navy picked out from different regiments and sent to the Institute for a course in pedagogical and military gymnastics. The women have to send in applications for admission to the Board of Trustees.

The Swedish gymnastic system founded by Ling embraces four great branches, pedagogical, military, medical and aesthetic gymnastics. Apart from the military gymnastics, male and female students have the same theoretical and practical training. This includes the study of anatomy, which is taught very thoroughly.

Every pupil of the Institute has to do a certain amount of dissecting under the supervision of medical men. They study physiology and pathology under the same teachers. They also are thoroughly trained in the theory of movement, which is one of the most difficult subjects they have to learn. During their two years' course at the Institute the students have an hour's daily practical instruction in pedagogical gymnastics. We never lose sight of the fact that our students are training to become teachers. From the very beginning of their course they have practise in teaching. Large schools send their pupils to the Institute for physical training and this furnishes opportunity for the students to obtain experience in teaching.

All school children are examined in their own schools by medical men and women who decide whether they are to take part in the ordinary routine in the gymnasium or whether they are to be drafted into what we call "svagrote," classes especially adapted for those physically unfit to take the general course. Those suffering from curvature, deformities or any organic disease, do no gymnasium work, but are sent to the various clinics for medical gymnastic treatment. Here our students have a wide field of activity opened for them. Patients of all ages and both sexes come to the Royal Gymnastic Central Institute to receive treatment at the hands of the students in the spacious clinics set apart for this purpose. The students work under the supervision of physicians, who examine each patient and prescribe medical gymnastics and massage treatment according to individual needs. Thus the students learn how to handle the patients and acquire an insight into the treatment of disease.

In the limited time at my command I am only able to give the briefest and most imperfect sketch of what the Royal Gymnastic Central Institute of Stockholm is doing to-day for the physical development of our nation. I may add that its benefits are not confined to Sweden alone but that a limited number of places is reserved every year for pupils from other countries who can produce the necessary qualifications of age, health, strength and education.

We do not claim perfection for the Royal Gymnastic Central Institute, but we do claim that it is at present the best institution of its kind. We also claim that our Swedish system of physical culture is the soundest, because it is based on absolutely scientific  
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At the time of going to press it had been found impossible, owing to various reasons, to obtain for publication certain papers and addresses given in this section. Their omission is much regretted both by the Convener of the section and by the Editor.

[For the programme of the Joint Sessions on Monday morning with the section on "Professions and Careers for Women," and on Monday afternoon with the sections on "Education" and "Social Work and Moral Reform," see under "Joint Sessions," Vol. 1.]

## Industrial Section

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THURSDAY, JUNE 24TH—MORNING SESSION.

Convener—Mrs. O'SULLIVAN.

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After a few words of welcome by Mrs. O'Sullivan, a paper was read on

### THE DOMESTIC SERVANT'S ASSOCIATION AND TRAINING SCHOOL IN COPENHAGEN.

By FRÖKEN MARIE PEDERSEN, Denmark, Member of the Committee of the Domestic Servant's Association.

"The Copenhagen Domestic Servant's Association" was founded in 1899 by Marie Christensen, a servant girl, with the object of helping servants to enlightenment and domestic training and through that to better conditions of life.

We have a committee consisting of seven servant girls. Our treasurer and accountants are servants too.

By means of public meetings and a fortnightly paper we are setting forth our programme:

1. Work at a fixed time.
2. Leisure at a fixed time.
3. Good accommodation.

The hours are from six in the morning till seven in the evening with a break of one hour in the middle of the day. Work after seven is paid extra.

Every other Sunday is free from two o'clock, and two weekly evenings from seven.

In order to exact the fulfilment of these demands we have contracts to be signed by the mistresses as well as by the servants.

The association was looked on with distrust by the greater part of the housewives. Some, however, sympathized with the movement, and supported it with yearly contributions. This money was the beginning of the "Fund for Training School and Home."

More and more servants joined the association, and after two years we were able to take a set of three rooms, which were used for employment office in the morning and teaching in the evening. The servants were taught Danish literature and composition as well as English, singing, cutting out and sewing.

But what grew more and more evident to all parties concerned, was the necessity of a domestic training school for servants.

The housewives demanded trained servants, if they were to give them high wages and fixed leisure.

Supported by the press, we arranged in the following years some festivals, which procured money.

Further, a co-operative loan fund was founded, to which both mistresses and servants contributed.

This, together with our original fund, enabled us in 1906 to open our Training School for Domestic Servants. We have a large, well-equipped kitchen, as well as rooms for washing and ironing; further, dining-room, drawing-room, employment office and lecture hall.

The Principal of the school is Marie Christensen, the founder of the association. She is assisted by four teachers, two of whom are certificated cookery instructresses.

Twenty girls between 16 and 20 get six months' gratis accommodation and training at the school. They are taught cooking, baking, domestic work, sewing, washing and ironing, as well as a little nursing. Further, we have for servants between 18 and 40, a shorter, more advanced course, for which a fee is paid.

During the two years and a half the school has existed, 232 girls have been trained.

This spring we have opened a dressmaking establishment through which we hope to reform the servant's dress besides getting a new source of income.

The income of the school is chiefly derived from sale of food prepared by the pupils and from laundry work.

The school has grants from the State and from the Town Council of Copenhagen of 4,000 Danish crowns, or \$1,060 in all; that is, one-eighth of the budget of the school.

There is one thing left, which we hope to get in years to come, and that is a home for old servants.

Before closing I may be allowed to mention that our association has twice influenced the legislation.

Originally the women got votes and eligibility for local councils and church councils, the original bills excluded the servants. By public protest, meetings, and petitions to the Government, we succeeded in getting this altered and now servants and housewives go to the poll together.

In the "Servant Commission" nominated by the Government to inquire into and propose reforms in the conditions of servants all over the land, our leader has got a seat.

Mrs. Symes Thompson then spoke on "The Domestic Servant and Girls' Friendly Societies in England."

In the discussion which followed, the following took part:—Mrs. Sexton, Halifax, Canada; Mrs. Torrington, Toronto, Canada; and Miss Marris, England. Mrs. Sexton said that 40 per cent. of the women workers of Canada and the United States were domestic servants. The three speakers agreed that the chief objections to this class of work were (a) lowness of salaries, and (b) general uncertainty of arrangements between mistress and maid as to work, leisure, and privileges. A more definite contract at time of engagement was suggested as a remedy.

The morning's session closed with the reading of a paper by Mrs. O'Sullivan on

### HOUSEKEEPING A BACKWARD INDUSTRY,

Written by Miss Mabel Atkinson, Lecturer at King's College, London, England.

Within the last hundred and fifty years two agencies have transformed the face of civilization. These agencies are indeed related and interdependent, but they work in different spheres, and therefore it will be convenient for our purposes to consider them in their relation to the household apart from one another. The first is the enormous expansion of industry, which has resulted from the application of machinery and mechanical motive power to the processes of manufacture. This tendency, combined with the allied improvement in means of communication, has immensely widened the market, the area within which manufacturers compete with one another, and therefore has made possible a specialization and complication of industry which to our forefathers would have appeared absolutely miraculous. Consider for instance the changes which have taken place in the production of cloth. Once spinning and weaving were purely domestic processes, carried on by the women of each household, as cooking and cleaning are now, not for sale and profit-making, but simply for the benefit of the members of each separate family. Then slowly came the system of domestic manufacture, by which cloth was made not primarily for use, but for the market, but was still spun and woven in the home by the members of a special family, the man (as described by Defoe) doing the hardest parts of the work, the women and children helping in the easier tasks of spinning and carding. Now cloth-making is carried on in great factories, employing huge armies of skilled and specialized workers, who tend marvellously delicate and intricate machines, the motive power of which is supplied, not as formerly, by the force of human muscles, but by steam or electricity.

Compare with this development the case of the household. It is true that in some small respects improvements have been made. The source of light is usually now produced outside and furnished to the household by means of pipes or wires. Drainage and the hot-water supply and (in some countries) the heating of the rooms are the product of modern engineering skill; but the processes of cooking and cleaning—processes which lie at the very foundation of all healthy life—are still unchanged from mediaeval methods. The tools are the same; the level of skill has not risen. Indeed in the working classes there is evidence to show that it has distinctly fallen. There is practically no provision of mechanical motive power to lighten the heavy burden of purely muscular toil. Housework, in short, is still, as compared with factory work, carried on by mediaeval methods. The philosophic mind, when contemplating a row of small houses or a block of small flats, and remembering that in each separate household one woman each day carries out in isolation and with the most primitive tools, cooking, dish-washing,

sweeping, potato-peeling, etc., will wonder what is the reason why modern progress has thus swept on and left that most important institution, the home, in a backwater.

And the same thought presents itself when we turn to another line of development which has been a mark of the nineteenth century. During that century there has been a greater advance in hygiene and sanitary science than in any thousand years preceding it. The growth of chemistry and physiology has thrown great light on the problems of food and dietetics. The appearance of the science of bacteriology has for the first time demonstrated the real nature of dirt and the value of cleanliness and fresh air. But the new discoveries are almost never turned to any practical use within the household. Hospitals and schools are carefully and scientifically planned in order that they may be easily kept in a state of thorough and absolute cleanliness, and in order that their inmates may receive the maximum of fresh air and sunlight. Their plumbing is of the latest type. Their bathrooms and sanitary conveniences are placed in annexes so designed that there can be no passage of air between them and the main building. Doctors, nurses and teachers receive an elaborate scientific training. Public opinion and the growth of administrative science turn institutions where the sick are tended and the young are trained into palaces of hygiene. But meanwhile, save in the case of very wealthy or very exceptional people, the private household remains almost precisely where it was fifty or sixty years ago, or if there is some advance it is slight indeed compared with the improvement during the same period in hospitals and schools and other public institutions. Indeed Mr. Bernard Shaw asserts that in all essential respects a sixteenth century house is a more convenient place to live in than a twentieth century one. And certainly the work of caring for the house and providing food, shelter and comfort for its inmates has declined in public estimation. Lip service is still paid to the domestic arts, but among the working classes, a factory worker or a typist is held in higher respect than the servant, and in the intellectual classes the purely domestic woman has a far less interesting and exciting life than the teacher, doctor or journalist, and is recompensed for her services on very unsatisfactory methods. Such a position is, of course, absurd. Housekeepers do some of the most important work in the community. Doctors cure our diseases, but the competent housewife preserves those under her care from falling ill at all. The teacher trains children, but the housewife has to furnish the setting wherein is lived the life both of children and of adults. The satisfactory provision of proper food, of the means of cleanliness, of a shelter warm and fresh and arranged with comfort and beauty is a *sine qua non* if a higher social and intellectual life is to be reached; nay, is in itself a part of that higher social and intellectual life.

The situation I have described is recognized more or less by many people. And most expect to cure it by the perpetual reiteration of little moral maxims. Mistresses are told that "home is the woman's true sphere," and are exhorted to cease from striving to

attain social and political privileges for which, it is held, they are not fitted. They are ordered to become more diligent and more competent. Working-class girls are assured over and over again that the life of a servant is far more suitable for them than the life of a factory worker or elementary teacher, and this in the face of statistics which make it clear that the moral dangers attaching to domestic service are very considerable. It is supposed again that the servant problem can be solved by urging mistresses to be on more friendly terms with their servants. But such superficial moralizing merely betrays a complete lack of comprehension of the situation.

The household is not backward because of the deficiencies of those responsible for its management. Servants are perhaps irresponsible and incompetent, but it is safe to say that the average woman gives too much, rather than too little, time and thought to her domestic matters. The household is backward because it stands at present out of the main currents of human development. It is not on the one hand acted on by the forces of competition which compel even the ignorant and inefficient to keep pace, on pain of becoming bankrupt and of being driven altogether out of the race. One manufacturer is constantly on the alert to keep his machinery and methods on the same level as those of his rival. But Mrs. A. need not care at all what improved plans are adopted by Mrs. B. Each household works in isolation; and each woman, no matter whether she has a genius for her duties or loathes them with all her heart, keeps on her way in separation and isolation from all others. A housekeeper never makes a fortune, and, on the other hand, never becomes bankrupt. There is no pressure of competition forcing her to adopt new methods and up-to-date ways; and usually, with the innate conservatism of the human mind, she remains content to do things as her mother did them before her, unless indeed her intelligence and interest is directed into other channels, where she not unnaturally falls even below the standard of earlier days. And the rare woman who has ideas and desires reforms finds herself faced by almost insurmountable obstacles. If she desires to introduce the machinery which, in the shape of pneumatic sweepers, or electric irons, or boot cleaners, is already on the market, she finds that it is frequently too expensive for profitable use in a single household. An electric knife cleaner deals with knives by the dozen; and involves no manual labour. But it costs £15, and a household using perhaps two dozen knives a day finds the old-fashioned board, or the newer rotary machine, large enough to deal, to use commercial terms, with its small output of cleaned knives. The small scale of the ordinary household successfully prevents any extended employment of machinery. If each family still spun and wove all the cloth needed for its own use, there would have been no advance in textile engines. Some machines, however, can be used satisfactorily in the small scale household, e.g., the electric iron. But they require care and intelligence in the workers and in domestic servants, save in large households where specialization is possible, those qualities are at a discount. Another

reason why modern mechanical inventions are not adopted is that not infrequently they require a readjustment of the fabric of the house, which the landlord, ignorant and prejudiced, or perhaps merely unprovided with sufficient capital, refuses to carry out. The tenant, expecting to leave the house at the end of a short lease, cannot herself put in the tiled sink, central heating apparatus, vacuum cleaning machinery, windows which can be cleaned from inside, or power supply of electricity, for which her soul longs. And therefore the household remains in respect of machinery hopelessly backward.

And for somewhat similar reasons the technique of house-keeping does not receive the same attention as do such professions as engineering, medicine, nursing, or agriculture. In all these branches of work there is now a definite training in scientific principles given by universities or hospitals. There spring up technical journals, societies and conferences, and in reference to the work of each of these divisions of industry, there arises a spirit of general interest and progress, which keeps alive the professional self-respect of those who practise it. Yet housekeeping is much more important than most of these professions. It is calculated that in England alone over six million women, either as paid servants or in their own homes, perform the duties of house-managers. No other single industry amounts to more than a fraction of this sum. And the health and strength of the country absolutely depend on the cleanliness of its homes and a due provision of properly cooked food. Public health is now one of the most important branches of administration; but medical officers of health, enthusiastic for the progress of hygiene, find themselves confronted with houses so furnished as absolutely to promote the spread of tuberculosis, and with dietetics which might seem deliberately calculated to give rise to digestion troubles. The housewife should regard herself as one of the most important custodians of the public health. But, unfortunately, the present position of the household, its isolation at once from the progress of pure and applied science, from the esprit de corps which inspires members of learned professions, and from the healthy spirit of competition which gives rise to commercial advance, makes inevitable the backwardness which we have described.

How is improvement to come? We have only to open our eyes to see that it is coming, though slowly and spasmodically, and in some instances disapproved by those who regard themselves as the custodians of home life. In several universities instruction in the sciences underlying housekeeping is now provided. Chicago has honourably distinguished itself by establishing one of the earliest courses and now King's College, London, has followed suit. In the women's department there, there are now two sets of courses which offer to women technical instruction in housekeeping. One lasts for a year and leads to an examination open only to graduates or others with special qualifications. The students are instructed in the chemistry and physiology of food, and in the chemistry of cleaning materials. A well-known expert lectures on hygiene, and

the present writer on the special economic factors affecting the household. The other course is designed to cover three years and is intended for the ordinary undergraduate who has passed the London matriculation examination or any similar school leaving examination. In the first year instruction is given in elementary science, together with practical work in cooking and cleaning. Later on the special principles affecting housework are studied and demonstrated in greater detail. Students taking these courses are expected to become teachers of housewifery in schools, social workers in settlements, or managers of large institutions. There is already a demand for their services greater than the supply.

On the other hand there are in various quarters practical attempts being made to replace the isolated household by groups of associated households, the work of which is to a considerable extent carried on in common. There is one experiment at the Hampstead Garden suburb and another at the Garden City, Letchworth; and throughout London and other large towns very wealthy people can live in luxury in residential flats or private hotels in complete freedom from the worries of housekeeping. So far, however, no plan has yet succeeded in providing for the household of the struggling clerk or underpaid professional man earning £200 to £500 a year. Children are unfortunately excluded from practically all the existing schemes of co-operative housing. And the problem immediately before us is to work out a method of organization which shall make possible the various improvements which would immediately result from the institution of housekeeping on a larger scale and to some extent at least on a commercial basis without detracting from the privacy of the home. It is no doubt a hard task and will require very careful preparation and administration, but until we are successful in it, housekeeping will, by the inevitable working of economic laws, continue to be a backward industry.

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#### AFTERNOON SESSION.

Chairman, Mrs. O'SULLIVAN.

The first paper of the afternoon session was on

#### THRIFT AMONG WOMEN WORKERS.

By Dr. Kleerekoper, Holland, read by Miss Drucker.

The Industrial Section of this Congress gave out as one of the subjects to be treated: "Thrift Among Women Workers." This subject covers a very large ground, and I wish to confine myself to making some observations on the causes which induce married women to do paid labour, and on some of the circumstances connected with it. An exhaustive treatment of this subject would require extensive studies of wage and labour statistics, which would be out of place here, but I trust that the general remarks I have to offer may not be devoid of interest to the hearers.

For some years the question of "labour of married women" has been urgent in Holland. Workmen's unions made inquiries into the advantages and disadvantages of married women's labour and the desirability of putting a stop to it entirely. Among teachers and employees in post and telegraphy the question of the dismissal of married women is the order of the day. I shall restrict myself to the working woman, female labourers.

According to the last census of occupations there are 97,000 married working women in Holland.

In 1903 the National Dutch Bureau for Woman's Labour conducted an investigation into the work of the married agricultural working woman and more specially into the causes which gave rise to it.

For the particulars of this paper I am chiefly indebted to the above mentioned and other investigations, to which I have added such details out of my own experience as a factory inspectress as I thought might be interesting.

If we consider the causes which force married women into paid labour we notice that most of them may be brought under one head, viz.: economic necessity, at least taken from the women's point of view. They try to make up for the deficit in the weekly income of the family; the wages of the man are not sufficient to provide for the wants, either because he earns too little or because he is ill or temporarily absent (in prison, in military service); or he is a drunkard, or he does not give the whole of his wages to his wife; then he may have left his wife, or the woman may be a widow.

In industrial centres there is always an abundant supply of married women willing to work; in agricultural districts, however, the women are difficult to get, according to the results of the inquiry by the National Bureau for Women's Work. It often happens that a man is taken on only on the condition that his wife engages herself to lend a hand in busy times. The report does not give any figures showing to what extent this cause works, what proportion it bears to the economic necessity mentioned above; and yet these figures would be indispensable for the forming of an opinion as to what significance must be given to these phenomena.

The conditions of female agricultural labour are on the whole not so well known as those of female industrial labour; the latter is regulated by a strict labour legislation, and is under the constant supervision of the labour inspectors.

The enquiry of a factory inspectress in Brabant comprehended 663 married women, the greater number employed in the ceramic and cigar industries, who were all of them personally interviewed. In 43 per cent. of the cases the reason alleged for going to the factory was irregular or insufficient wages of the husband; in 24 per cent. of the cases the husband was dead, ill, in prison, intemperate or had left his wife; which makes 67 per cent., or more than two-thirds of the cases, in which there was not a husband who could provide for the wants of the wife and children. In 17 per cent. of the cases illness in the family, debts, too many children and the care of other relatives, sent the women into the factories, whilst

15 per cent. of the women were childless or had their children provided for by other relations.

I myself have come across women whose motives for going to the factories were slightly different; amongst others that while the husband's wages were sufficient, it is true, to procure the bare necessities of life, the coarsest food, consisting of bread, potatoes and a little butter or grease, the women preferred working too, in order to render the circumstances of life a little easier, a little better. The factory hand in the district in which I am appointed seldom earns so much that he can feed a wife and some children at all decently; meat is an unknown luxury or is enjoyed on Sundays only. It is considered impossible to spend any money on clothes, or on anything except just housing, food, fire and light. If they want anything besides the wife has to earn wages too. When the children grow up, however, and can start working too, the circumstances are altered; then, until they get married themselves and leave home, they lift the load off their parents' backs and the family lives in comparative ease; especially when there are many daughters, as it is general that girls give the whole of their wages to the mother, whereas boys generally pay for board and lodging and have a right to keep the rest of the money. It also happens that boys, when they begin to get higher wages, go and board with other families in order to enjoy greater freedom.

The women labourers without children occupy a special place; they form a considerable percentage of the female factory labourers, not only because they have little or nothing to do at home, and so are free to take some work to raise the standard of life, but more especially because they want to save for their old age. There are no old age pensions by the State in Holland, and the habit of insuring their lives in one of the private life insurance companies is little followed by working people. For one thing, in the present state of wages, they could scarcely hope to be able to pay at all regularly the money due on an insurance policy. In these childless families, then, the women often go to the factory in order to save for their old age, as they have no children to feed and house them when they are old.

Relatively few are the women, but they do exist, who prefer factory work to home work, because they think it more agreeable and healthy; they say it gives them more distraction than the monotonous round of work at home and they feel stronger and better in the rougher, harder work at a factory.

As I said before, wherever there is a demand for married women's labour, there is an ample supply. In the centre of the textile industry, there is a good deal of female labour and comparatively much labour of married women. In a few towns, however, married women are not employed. The prevailing opinion among manufacturers and workmen is that a married woman ought to stay at home. This opinion goes together with the fact that industry has not absorbed all male labour force yet; these towns certainly contain large factories and workmen's quarters, but they have a certain rural aspect, a part of the population earn their

living by agriculture and a great many of the workmen's wives augment the slender means of the household by tilling a small plot of ground, or doing some agricultural work. In these towns the men's wages are, if not lower, at least no higher, than in the purely industrial towns, where the married women are wage-earners too. This is another instance showing how many factors cooperate in the determining of wages; the prevailing notion is that the labour of married women keeps the wages down; but here in one and the same industrial centre, with one and the same industry, wages in the towns where married women are excluded are by no means higher, but perhaps lower, than in the neighbouring towns where married women find plenty of work.

Another curious fact is that the standard of life immediately adjusts itself to higher wages and that the latter seems to increase wants rather than to produce a surplus to be laid aside for times of illness and old age. The married women working in factories declare as a rule that it is impossible to save anything and they seem to have the same difficulty to make both ends meet at the end of every week as their sisters who live on the husband's wages only. Now there are people who live among them that accuse them of being self-indulgent, pleasure-loving, thoughtless and great drinkers and maintain that working people are shiftless and stupid and do not deserve to earn higher wages.

To me this judgment is stupid in its one-sidedness; I believe that, as it is a psychological impossibility to live on four dollars a week when one has five to spend, so it is next to impossible, or at least unspeakably hard, to live on six dollars when one has seven to spend. A great many of us know from experience what it is to keep house on too small means; also that as soon as the income increases, be it ever so little, a crowd of wants, which we did not allow ourselves to realize, spring up; all the things we had to deny ourselves and those dear to us force themselves upon our notice with this result that, though we are richer, we scarcely feel so, for wants have a curious knack of keeping in advance of means.

And what about a woman who has seven dollars to spend instead of four, who lives in that station of life where "want" are still very near to necessities? Is it thriftlessness which makes her get decent clothes for her children, boots on Sundays instead of wooden shoes; makes her give them some extra pieces of bread with a little more butter on them, or makes her get a little bacon for her dinner or some more fuel in winter? And all these items rise to an alarming amount.

It is true that the round of what is indispensable has risen with the wages; but I, for one, am quite prepared to believe that the seven-dollar standard is the true one, and might be inclined to put it higher still. If ever it is thought expedient to prohibit married women's labour in factories, it is those households that will suffer most in the transition stage.

This type of household is to be found chiefly in the densely populated industrial towns; in the smaller towns I have come across women who had managed to save enough out of the double earn-

ings to buy a small house of their own or a small piece of land, or who had a small sum of money laid by in the postal savings bank for times of reverses or illness.

There is one more particular form of labour in the textile industries called "noodwerk" (temporary work). The married women are employed in times of pressure or they substitute for sick women. A great many women like this kind of employment; they have children to look after, so they do not wish to be away from home regularly, but they do not object to occasional extra earnings. Others are substitutes only so long as they cannot find regular work.

In many factories there is a rule that women are dismissed at the birth of their first child. In other factories they are kept on, and the mothers board out their children with other women, who by this work earn a few shillings a week. This necessary consequence of the mother's absence from home is the great argument against married women's labour. Only the mother can look after the children properly and a woman's continual absence from home does harm to her home-life and her children, it is said. But it is to be considered if the harm done to the children by the harder and less careful treatment is not made up for by the better food and clothing. Sometimes the factory women have their mother to help who, if she is not too old, can take care of the children and the house. That system seems to work very well. In other cases it is often a choice between plenty of love and not enough to eat and plenty to eat and not enough love. When a woman has three or four children the cost of their board counterbalances the amount of the wages earned by the mother, and the mothers have to stay at home. Then follow the hardest years in every family during which a great many contract debts or suffer nothing short of want or poverty, till the eldest child reaches its twelfth year and can enter the factory in its turn and bring its wages home.

In the brick works the conditions differ widely from those in the industrial centres. The brick works in the district in which I am appointed generally lie in the midst of fertile agricultural ground and so the relations between employer and employed are just the opposite; the women object to working in the factories, and the manufacturers often have to exercise compulsion to make them do so—direct coercion by only engaging those men whose wives promise to work too, or indirect coercion by offering, on advantageous terms, homes in or near the brick-work grounds to those workmen whose wives lend some help. In spite of these measures married women's labour in brick-works is steadily decreasing; the women themselves consider the work too heavy and not fit for women. The manufacturers are forced to take on men or boys instead of women, which they do unwillingly, as the women's work is irregular, sometimes for a great many hours at a stretch, sometimes a few hours in a day and only during the summer season. They cannot be satisfied with that and require regular employment at least during the whole of the summer, even if in the brickyards themselves there is no work.

The next kind of labour to be considered, which is often performed by married women and which is at present the subject of universal interest, is that of the home industries. In name a woman plying some home industry is at home with her family, but in reality there is no question of her looking after her house or children. For lower wages than women employed in factories she has to work throughout the day and part of the night, and if she wishes to make anything like a living for herself and her family she has to make the children take part in the work too. A woman stripping tobacco leaves for twelve hours a day can make not quite two dollars.

It is not necessary to enlarge upon the subject of home industries itself; the exhibitions of Berlin, Frankfort and London and the extensive good literature published as a result of them, have thrown sufficient light on the horrors of the system. In Holland an exhibition of home industries is being prepared and a thorough enquiry is being conducted now into the conditions and wages of home industries, the results of which will be published at the time of the exhibition. It will certainly be very enlightening on the subject of woman's labour, as home industries are principally in the hands of women and children.

As a general rule women earn lower wages than men in the public industries, or rather, the kinds of labour generally performed by women fetch lower wages. If, however, men and women perform the same kind of labour as in the large industries, the wage standard is the same. But it does happen, that in weaving mills, the women handle a smaller number of looms than the men, so that, as the wages are wages by piece, they amount to less than the men's at the end of the week.

In the home industries it is chiefly women, and especially married women, that are employed, as the wages are so low that even amongst the women themselves they are considered as a contribution to the means of subsistence of a family rather than as a regular living.

Other ways are open to women who wish to earn a small sum of money besides home industries. I mean going out as charwomen, going out to work, taking in small washings, taking care of other people's children and such like. But these kinds of labour are not easy to find and do not secure regular daily wages and a great many women object to the irregular hours, which have a bad influence on the home and the children. The conditions of these branches of labour of married women are quite unknown yet. Among the factory women, some of whom come from the ranks of charwomen and washerwomen, the prevalent opinion is that the factory work is preferable to their former occupations, which meant much harder work and smaller pay. Another reason for their preferring factory work may be that the latter is not attended by any of the irksome conditions which are unavoidable in all "service": I mean in all work done in other people's houses and which is remunerated partly in money and partly in food. But, as I say, it is impossible to judge of the question; the conditions are largely

determined by traditions and habit and connections, and differ according to towns and districts.

These are my observations about the labour of married women and some of the prevailing opinions on the subject. A good deal of strenuous work will have to be done before the state of the question is quite clear and before it will be possible to weigh the arguments for and against. Within not too long a time the enquiry made by the factory inspectresses will be published. I hope it will throw some more light on the difficult questions of the desirability of restrictions by law of the labour of married women.

The first paper on "Labour Bureaux" was read by Fräulein Dr. Alice Salomon, of Berlin, Germany.

#### LABOUR BUREAUX.

Unemployment is more and more recognized as a subject of vital importance in all parts of the world; and these last years, with their decrease of industrial development, have made it clear to everyone that the unemployment of a great number of people is not only a danger for the unemployed themselves but for the whole community.

We know that the unemployed man is prone to become unemployable, that his health fails if he has no means of subsistence, that he is tempted morally if he lives in the street, compelled to knock at the doors of the better class, and if he experiences the most degrading feeling of being wanted nowhere we know that he loses his professional dexterity if he is unemployed during a long period.

Amongst the German methods of dealing with the unemployed the organization of labour bureaux is considered to have been rather successful. It must be acknowledged, however, that they only help in certain cases of unemployment. They cannot find opportunities and new openings for workers during a national, or what is worse, during an international crisis, when there is a general decrease of work. But they are able to centralize the offer of and demand for labourers, and to balance them as far as possible. They have to recommend to the employer the fittest worker and to the worker the most adequate situation, and they ought to control the labour market of such a large district and the offers and demands of so many persons as to put openings before the unemployed that he could not have found by himself—neither by means of advertisements nor by personal enquiries in factories or workshops in his own town.

During the last two decades the principle has been generally resorted to in Germany that the organization of Labour Bureaux must not be left to private individuals who carry on the business for the purpose of gain, and take a high fee from the unemployed, profiting by their distress just at a moment when they are quite unable to resist exploitation. We have come to the conclusion that Labour Bureaux ought to be managed with due regard for the common benefit; and we think that it is the best way to industrial peace and welfare, if they are not maintained

by either employers or workers only, but by both parties, by representatives of workers and employer, under the direction of a neutral chairman. Such a neutral agency seems to be more advantageous than the bureaux of trades unions and employers' societies; for it prevents the labour exchange from being used as a weapon in the struggle for mastery. If Labour Bureaux are controlled and maintained by the employers' unions they generally have an unfavourable effect on the conditions of work and on wages. If, on the contrary, they are managed by the trades unions only, employers dislike to make use of them, and do so as little as possible; especially in time of depression, when the workers need them most, they will not be used by the employers at all as they have just then a chance of finding workers without the help of the agency.

It is due to these causes that the trades union bureaux have not been developed to any very great extent in Germany, though some of the employers' unions, I am sorry to say, have succeeded in monopolizing the labour market through their agencies, especially in branches of the textile and metal trades. If competition between workers and employers is not checked it almost always ends in a defeat on the workers' part. We are therefore convinced that Labour Bureaux ought to be looked upon as a public institution as part of the civil administration, that the organization of these agencies must not be left to one of the parties concerned, because the success of one of them always damages and interferes with the independence of the other. The German Government is trying to bring about the establishment of such neutral bureaux in all larger towns, not starting them itself, but rousing the interests and the initiative of the municipalities, leaving them a free hand as to the form of the management. In the southern parts of Germany the municipalities have established and organized such bureaux on their own account; in the north they have been founded by philanthropical associations. The management is, however, the same everywhere—at least where the agencies have been successful. It consists in a neutral board composed of representatives nominated alike by the employers and the workers, who carry on the business under an impartial chairman, and this combination helps to secure the confidence of both parties.

These bureaux do not apply to special trades only, as the trades unions' agencies generally do, but they meet the needs of workers of all trades. In larger towns there is a special department for men and another for women workers, the latter being directed by a lady superintendent and often assisted by a committee of ladies or of women workers. There are also special sections for certain important skilled trades that are similarly managed by a committee of their own.

In most of these "public" agencies no charge is made, in some a very small entrance fee must be paid, the purpose of which is to facilitate the survey of the number of the unemployed.

One of the most important problems in the work of the Labour Bureaux is how to act at the time of a strike or lockout. Are they

to continue their work, to send blacklegs to the factories, or to discontinue it? Whatever they do, in any case it means taking one side, it means a rupture with the idea of impartiality. If the bureau is suspended the workers are helped in their struggle with the employers. If it continues to send workers to such a factory the employers are supported against the workers. Only one way out of this difficulty has been found by the bureaux up till now, and that has its place in most of their standing rules: that is, to continue their work, but to let the workers know if there is a strike or lockout, so that they may decide on their own account whether they are willing to compete for a post under these conditions. This practice finds the approval even of the trades unions: and though they do not support the neutral Labour Bureaux, yet they no longer fight against them, but acknowledge their great importance. These public agencies are most successful in dealing with unskilled workers, but in some parts of the country, especially in Bavaria, it has been proved that their methods are equally adaptable to skilled workers.

During the last decade a complete change has been brought about and the work of the bureaux has been extremely successful in Southern Germany, since the agencies of whole provinces have been linked together and since railways have been systematically used for communication between the different towns in order to balance the demands for and offers of posts. All the bureaux in a province exchange their lists of vacancies daily or weekly, and make telephone arrangements with a view to placing suitable candidates in towns where they are needed. If a man who finds no vacancy near his domicile obtains, with the help of the bureaux, a post at another place, he is only charged half the usual railway fare, the telephone charges being defrayed by the Government for the bureaux.

The organization and the linking together of labour agencies throughout the whole country is very successful in times of unemployment caused by fluctuating prosperity in special trades or in parts of the country. Workers are diverted from an unfavourable industry to a prosperous one, and young and unmarried workers leave a place of economic depression and settle in a promising district. Wherever the centralization of Labour Bureaux is complete in a province there is a steady increase of filled vacancies by means of an interlocal adjustment of offers and demands.

Some of the bureaux are of considerable importance for women workers, the number of places filled being very large. The Berlin Bureau found 15,000 posts for female workers during 1907.

As regards the interlocal service of the bureaux it seems to be of less use to women than to men. But this is easily explained. Girls cannot be sent to other parts of the country as easily as young men. They do not like to leave their homes and their relations. They only do it under the pressure of absolute necessity, in times of the greatest distress. This aversion arises partly from sound and natural conditions. But there is another and a very deplorable cause for it. It is the fact that usually girls get wages

too small to enable them to exist without the help and support of their parents. This makes work unprofitable for them and compels them to live away from home. In the long run the widespread habit among girls of looking at their professions only as a temporary and provisional arrangement prevents their making full use of the advantage of an interlocal service of labour agencies. For it checks their endeavour to earn better wages, to attain a higher standard of life in consequence of a rise in their profession that frequently cannot be attained but by means of taking up work at a distant centre.

The organization of Labour Bureaux can only prove its full importance for women in connection with the women's movement of our day—their great educational power that teaches women to look at their professions not only as a means of living, as a cruel necessity, but as a right and a duty, as a means of making their lives worthier and truer and richer.

A paper on the

#### ONTARIO LABOUR BUREAU

Was read by JOHN ARMSTRONG, Secretary, Toronto.

The Labour Bureau of this Province was instituted in 1900. At first it met with small encouragement. As years passed by its usefulness gradually became apparent. During the last two years its work has developed in such an encouraging manner that the annual returns have more than doubled in number; and the scope of the questions asked have also been extended to meet new conditions continually coming to the front. The clerks of municipalities, embracing cities, towns, incorporated villages and rural townships, answer such questions as the following:—Name and nature of industries started in your locality during year? Do you own or operate any public utilities, such as water-works, lighting, street railways, etc., their cost and value? Are there any openings in your locality for new industries, if so, of what character? Number of buildings (public or private) erected during year, and their aggregate cost? Amount expended on permanent improvements, such as roadways, sidewalks, etc.? Amount expended on sanitation, including sewers? This information, coming from such reliable authority, greatly assists in showing the prosperity or otherwise of the Province. During 1907 returns from 682 municipalities were capable of tabulation. They report 12,623 new buildings erected at a cost of \$36,062,579; on permanent improvements \$4,678,805 were expended and \$1,468,322 on sanitation. These figures are very satisfactory, as showing the growing prosperity of our Province. A new feature in municipal government which is fast taking hold of the people of Ontario is the ownership and control by municipalities of public utilities. The information thus obtained through the Bureau's endeavours is of great interest and much appreciated, showing a capital expenditure of nearly thirty million dollars on water-works, electric lighting, gas-works, street railways, power plants and telephone systems. The attainment of these objects is substantially encouraged by the Provincial Government.

Schedules were also sent out to the labour organizations, and there were 320 returns compared with 271 and 157 in the previous years. The replies from the secretaries are given at length and are also tabulated. The first table gives the names of the presidents and secretaries of the various local unions, with their post-office addresses and their nights of meeting. The second table gives the average wages per week and hours—the hours of labour for the first five days, for Saturdays, and for the whole week; also the average number of days idle and the period of wage pay. This information is obviously calculated to be of much use both to the wage-earning population and to the community at large. The secretaries are also invited to make any suggestions in the interest of their trades and these are published in the Report, many of them giving useful hints for our administrators and legislators. Labour organizations are recognized and protected by Provincial laws, such as the Trades Disputes Act and Insurance Act. It might be here mentioned that all Government contract work carries with it a clause specifying that the union or prevailing rate of wages and hours of labour must be recognized. Of course there are laws protecting the individual workman, such as the Mechanics' and Wage-earners' Liens, Master and Servant's Act, Act to Facilitate the Adjustment of Disputes between Masters and Workmen, Act Respecting Safety of Railway Employees; Factories Act, regulating the age of child labour, length of working hours per week, air space and sanitation in factories; Shops Act, of a similar nature; Workmen's Compensation for Injuries Act, Act Respecting Stationary Engineers and Mines Act. The Bureau is in close touch with many of these ordinances, particularly with the settlement of industrial disputes. Mediation, conciliation and arbitration are the most humane methods of settling these differences. Best results are always obtained when a settlement in these disputes is secured before separation takes place between employers and employees. The principle of arbitration is making commendable headway throughout Ontario during these immediate past years in the adjustment of industrial differences. Eight and nine hours may be said to be the standard work-day in most of the large industrial centres of the Province, brought about principally by mutual agreements between employers and workmen, and these agreements are in many cases entered into for terms ranging from two to three years. Where both sexes are employed at the same trade women generally receive the same wages as men.

The manufacturers' schedules call for the amount of capital employed, number of days in operation, gross value of product; amount of taxes, insurance, etc., paid during year; number of employees, total amount paid to them, and their daily wages: increases or decreases and their percentage. These returns numbered 592 from all parts of the Province in 1907, a fair criterion to judge from. Of this number 536 were capable of tabulation. These establishments employed 42,636, male and female workers. The average number of days employed was 154,905, as compared with 113,434 in 1906, and 43,718 in 1905. The product was \$100,097,507

as against \$83,198,546 in 1906, and \$18,473,139 in 1905. The average wage-rate per day was \$1.60 as compared with \$1.52 in 1906 and \$1.48 in 1905. The average proportion of wages to profit was 25.34 as compared with 19.06 in 1906 and 23.33 in 1905. The increase in wages was 8.77 per cent., affecting 22,294 work people in 1907; 33 establishments reported unspecified increases and 241 the same wage-rate as the previous year. A few decreases of small amount were experienced, but in no case was there an average decrease in wages in any of the classified industries. The figures I have been quoting refer to the years 1907-06. In 1908 the world-wide depression had some, but comparatively little, effect in Ontario. There were some slight decreases in wages, especially in the factories; but on the other hand there were some increases. The returns now coming in show signs of this depression of 1908, but give indications that the normal progress for some years past is being resumed.

Two years ago the Government in their wisdom deemed it advisable to establish four Free Employment Bureaus in as many cities, subordinate to the head office in Toronto, for the purpose of receiving applications from all classes of persons seeking employment and applications from all those desiring to employ labour. While this step was a new adventure, and is still, it might be said, in an experimental stage, results have been most gratifying. The creation of Free Employment Bureaus under the auspices of a government is fast becoming a necessity in industrial centres. It is the most satisfactory method to prevent fleecing the unemployed of their (in many instances) last dollar for information which, in too many instances, is unreliable, and results in loss of time and money. The benefits obtained from these free branch bureaus have more than compensated for the outlay from the assistance thus received by the out-of-work people. An equalization of the unemployed in nearby cities is also obtained, as one bureau communicates with another on short notice with this object in view. As workmen become less restless when employed, the voluntarily distributing of the unemployed by this means minimizes idle periods, thus inducing workmen to continuously remain in their own Province.

The annual report is sent to all Bureaus of Labour in the British Empire, Continent of Europe, Japan, United States and South America. Many libraries and educational institutions in these countries also receive them. Six thousand, three hundred, were sent out in the Province of Ontario last year. There were also mailed last year 587 letters giving information required. Personal interviews with callers at the Bureau requiring knowledge of the labour laws, rates of wages, industrial statistics and kindred subjects, and deputations from labour organizations concerning questions affecting matters of interest to their respective callings—all receive due attention. Many students of both sexes from the University take advantage of the Bureau in quest of information to aid them in their studies in political economy and the prepa-

ration of papers in this line. The good offices of the Bureau are frequently sought in an amicable settlement of labour troubles.

Miss Wileman, Secretary of the Women's Work Bureau in Toronto, said that the Bureau had been maintained by the Local Council of Toronto with some assistance from the city. During six months 747 women had been enabled to obtain regular daily occupation, and 119 domestic servants had been placed in situations.

Miss FitzGibbon, Toronto, stated that she had found positions for 1,400 domestic servants. Labour Bureaus managed by individuals were, she thought, much inferior to Government Labour Bureaus.

Mr. Edgar, of the Dominion Department of Labour, explained that whenever any public work is to be done, an application is made to the Department of Labour for a fair wage scale. A list of employees is submitted, and a fair wage officer is sent to where the work is to be done to ascertain the usual wage paid in the locality.

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#### FRIDAY, JUNE 25<sup>TH</sup>—MORNING SESSION.

Chairman, Mrs. O'Sullivan.

The subject for discussion was *Recent Labor Legislation in Several Countries*. The first paper was read by Fr. Dr. Agnes Bluhm, Germany.

#### THE RECENT GERMAN FACTORY LEGISLATION IN REGARD TO WOMEN'S HEALTH.

Before I give you some facts about our factory legislation, let me tell you that there is to-day no longer in the whole German Women's Rights Movement any woman who opposes special legislative protection of working women. The German women have recognized that there are physical differences between man and woman not to be denied, which require necessarily a special Factory Act for women. As long as women alone, and not men and women, bear children, the legislation must take women under protection during pregnancy and childbed. This protection is required, not only on account of the mother, but also of the child, the coming generation, that means the future of the nation. All objections of our opponents, that women in this way will remain forever second-class workers, that the female industrial work must suffer by it, are of no consequence. In Germany experience has taught us, that notwithstanding the special legislative protection of women, the number of women working in industry has grown enormously, relatively far more than the population, and that women's wages are only therefore lower than men's wages because women do untrained work. The greatest good of the nation is endangered by insufficient protection of women and mothers, and therefore the German Women's Rights movement considers that in the present factory legislation too little has been done for women, and not too much.

The legislative protection of working women began in Germany in 1878 with a decree, which authorizes the Bundesrat (Federal Council) to limit women's work for reasons of hygiene and morality. But not till 1891, by what we call the "Gewerbenovelle," real importance was given to this protection. This Act gave us the interdiction of night work for women working in factories, the eleven-hours work-day, and the first real protection of women in childbed. To these general orders have been added in course of time several particular orders which prohibit or limit women's work in particularly dangerous trades. These are especially industries where workers have to do with great heat or with poisons.

At the end of 1908 our legislative corporations agreed to a new additional bill, called "Novelle für Gewerbeordnung," which comes into force on the first of January, 1910, and which means in many respects progress concerning women's health.

Instead of eleven hours, women now are allowed to work but ten hours daily, and eight hours instead of ten on the day preceding Sundays and holidays. This is of special hygienic interest, because now these evenings can be used for cleaning the lodging, etc., while formerly the much needed Sundays' rest was shortened by this work. Seven work hours less in the week are by itself a hygienic gain. Equally to be rejoiced over is the definition of night work, which agrees with the Berne Conference. Till now night began at half-past eight in the evening and ended at half-past five in the morning; now it lasts from 8 p.m. to 6 a.m.

It is to be regretted that these relatively propitious orders undergo a certain limitation by the concession of overwork, which is allowed on fifty days in the year until a twelve-hours day is reached.

Beyond these special orders concerning overtime, still other exceptions are provided for with regard to industries where work is done with perishable materials; e.g., the Brunswick manufacture of preserved fruit and vegetables.

Still more doubtful than this concession of over-work appears to me a new order, which allows that under certain circumstances women may take work home with them. The danger of this order lies in the absolute want of control. I must consider this concession as a regrettable reactionary measure.

There is no doubt that women possess less muscular strength than men, and without special orders women have been excluded from such work as required special physical strength. But there was some work done by women for which their strength was not sufficient, and which endangered their health after a certain time. Such work included transport and loading work overground in mines: from both women are now excluded. They are only allowed to separate and wash minerals.

The most important progress of the new "Novelle" lies in the greater extension of the protection of childbed and in the attempt of a protection of pregnancy. A respite is arranged, of which at least six weeks must be after the confinement; two weeks may fall before this time. When we from the hygienic point of view

persist in the demand of the six weeks respite after confinement, we think of the fact, that not before this time is childbed really finished. Not before the complete involution of the organs concerned may fatiguing factory work be done without disadvantage to women's health. At least as important as this protection of childbed is, in my opinion, with regard to the child, the protection of pregnancy. It is a fact not to be denied, that the number of still-births is much greater if the mother works till the end of pregnancy than if she leaves her work some weeks before the confinement. Further, German as well as French authors have shown that there is a great difference in children's weight if mothers have not stopped work before the birth, or if they have done so. That the weight of the new-born is of great importance for his later development is a well-known medical fact. I demanded, therefore, as much as fifteen years ago the legislative exclusion of pregnant women from all factory work from four to six weeks before the confinement.

The German legislation contained till now no protection of pregnancy. In 1903 permission was given to the Mutual insurances against sickness (Krankenkassen) to indemnify women during six weeks from a loss of wages caused by pregnancy diseases. It is clear that only very few insurance companies have made use of this permission.

If I said that the new "Novelle" of 1908 tries to create a legislative protection of pregnant women, I must add that I myself do not believe that this attempt will have much success. By the verbal expression of the law, that at least six weeks of the eight of rest must lie after the confinement, the needed protection is not at all secured. It is quite impossible to fix the day of birth so exactly that a foregoing fortnight's respite may be secured. Therefore we must demand that women be excluded from industrial work ten to twelve weeks, of which six must fall after confinement. Further, we must demand that women receive during this time their full wages. This leads, as the present insurance companies against sickness are not able to pay such sums, to what we call in Germany "Mutterschaftsversicherung" (that is, insurance for mothers).

I should have many things still to say about the protection of working women, but my time is past. Let me but utter one other request. Those of you, ladies, who have opposed till now, certainly with the best intentions, the demands of your countrymen and of the Berne Conference, do study zealously physiology, hygiene and the industrial diseases of women. I am sure you will give up your doctrinarianism and will earn the gratitude of the mothers, children and grandchildren of your nation.

A paper on

RECENT LABOUR LEGISLATION IN HOLLAND,

Prepared by Dr. Kleerekoper, was read by Miss Drucker.

A survey of labour legislation in Holland during the last five years shows that, generally speaking, it has progressed along the same lines as in the five preceding years. No new principles have

been introduced, no striking reforms made; still some of the new measures taken are interesting enough to be discussed for a moment.

The principal Dutch labour laws are the one called the Labour Act (i.e., Women and Children Employment Act), and the one called the Safety Act (i.e., Factory and Workshop Act). The latter Act secures safe and hygienic conditions of labour in factories and workshops where more than ten persons are at work, and prescribes some precautions to be taken in specially dangerous kinds of labour. To this Act was added the Workmen's Compensation Act or Accident Act, in 1901, forcing employers to insure their labourers against damage incurred through accidents in factories and workshops (partly State insurance). It would be premature to pronounce a judgment on the working of this Act; details are continually being regulated or modified by special royal regulations, but no radical reforms have been made or meditated yet. Criticisms are directed against the unwieldiness of the huge body of the State insurance bank, and against the fact that compensations often retard the recovery of the victims of an accident; but it will require another decade at least to enable the Government to form a judgment. There has been a tendency of late to require of the State the including of industrial diseases and invalidity by old age in the Accident Act, but the realization of this does not seem to be imminent.

It should be mentioned here that a bill for the insurance of workmen against illness is being prepared. But the old adage, "Prevention is better than cure," maintains its truth in labour legislation too. The universal interest in and the study of industrial diseases, have had their influence already, as is shown by the Caisson Act of May 22nd, 1907. Its aim is the protection of "labourers in building works under higher air pressure than the atmosphere," in order to minimize the danger to health or life. The regulations of June, 1905, under this Act insist on strict medical examination of labourers before they are admitted to the works; on short hours and frequent rests; on the use of sluices or locks for the gradual increasing and diminishing of the pressure; on the passage of the labourers to or from the works; on a supply of non-alcoholic drinks for the labourers issuing from the sluices; on the presence of medical aid for labourers who are taken ill; on well-aired and lighted compression sluices for their treatment.

It is to be hoped that the extensive studies recently made in the diseases occasioned by white lead and other lead compounds will result in general medical supervision of all industries in which lead is used.

The regulations of 1906 under the 9th article of the new Mining Act of April, 1904, contain measures for the greater safety of labourers in mines. Most of the articles are technical, regarding the making and supporting of galleries and shafts, the carrying the labourers up and down, the use of lights and fire and such like.

The labour law (or Women and Children's Employment Act) still retains its original form of 1889, except for a slight modification of the wording of the fourth article in April, 1906. This

article and the regulations under it are of the greatest importance. It lays down the principle that "certain kinds of labour may be conditionally or unconditionally prohibited for women and children, because they are dangerous to life or health." The wording, however, was so ambiguous that the highest court of justice decided that some of the most rigorous regulations made under the fourth article were not valid in law. After its alteration in 1905, the Factory Inspector in Limburg insisted on their being obeyed. Limburg is the centre of the ceramic industry, and the regulations in question (now valid) bear upon those industries in which lead and other poisons are used and enforce very strict precautions, medical examination of the women, short hours, cleanliness, special over-dresses, and so forth. The employers declared themselves unable to continue work under the circumstances and threatened to close the factories, which would have thrown thousands of labourers out of work. After a while the excitement subsided, however, and the employers gave in; but the incident attracted the attention of all women workers and again raised the question, if special protection of women in factories and workshops does not mean ultimate exclusion of women altogether. An instance of this is supplied by the effect of the so-called Women and Herring Works Act of 1903, where elaborate precepts are given for night labour of women in the Zuidersee fishing towns. The greater part of the employers dismissed the women after some time, and preferred working with men, who demanded three cents an hour more and worked less quickly, to being troubled to such an extent. The women themselves are generally little grateful for the protection, but in spite of that, things tend more and more to the restricting of women's labour and the exclusion of married women from labour. Perhaps, when in civilized countries women shall take part in legislation, they will find that they have to proceed in the same direction; but it will be quite a different thing. There is a great difference between being protected and protecting ourselves, being restricted and restricting ourselves.

"In truth the prison unto which we doom  
Ourselves, no prison is."

Very soon new regulations under the fourth article will come into force; they promise to be stricter still, and to extend over all places where a woman or a child works. They have been restricted to places where not less than ten persons were at work; they prohibit some kinds of labour for children and for married women, and decrease the kinds of labour allowed to women or children in industries which present the danger of lead poisoning.

The latest and greatest measure, which, though not a part of labour legislation proper, but an alteration of some articles of the civil code, still spreads its influence over all working people throughout the country, is the law regulating the labour contract. Germany. Switzerland. Belgium, preceded Holland in this direction, but the Dutch law is the most general of its kind; it does not recognize different kinds of labour, but does away with the distinctions between services, manual labour and other labour. It regulates the

relation between employer and employed. Its obvious aim is to strengthen the position of the latter, and to take away some of the inequality which exists in the relation between the employer, who demands the labour of another person, and the employed, whose whole existence is determined by the labour he gives and the conditions under which he works.

The law does not require every labour contract to be a written one, but it notes clearly all the things that are understood in every oral contract. Before the making of this law the relation of employer and employed was determined by numerous habits and customs protecting the latter from the caprice of the former. Every housewife knew that one gave one's servant notice six weeks before the end of the quarter; all good mistresses nursed their servants in illness and paid them their wages, and hired a substitute during a reasonable time. All these things have been codified now, and have become the right of the employed, and every employer is bound by the law "to do and leave undone the things that good employers do or leave undone."

The law regulates the payment of wages and abolishes systems of curtailing the wages by the employer. Any rules an employer makes in his factory or workshop are binding for the employed only if he has read them and accepted them; not orally only, but in writing. Then the law institutes a collective labour contract, an agreement made between one or more corporate bodies of work-givers and one or more corporate bodies of labourers, about the labour conditions to be observed at the making of contracts.

This law, like all others, will prove to have its faults and drawbacks; but it has one great advantage, owing to the very comprehensiveness of its subject. The words in which it is laid down had to be vague, which leaves greater scope for the individual insight and sense of justice of the judge than does any other existing law in Holland, and which in the greater number of cases will give security for the justness of the verdicts given under it.

Miss Drucker added that in Holland protection appeared to be harmful for women, because there were no great factories or workshops, and women had been forced out of the trades of dressmakers, milliners, etc., by the law that women might work only during certain hours. The men in that country usually helped the women with their household duties after both had returned home from their factory labor.

Frøken Krog, Norway, then gave a sketch of the  
**SPECIFIC LEGISLATION REGULATING WOMAN AND  
 CHILD LABOUR.**

By FRØKEN KROG, Norway.

The provisions regulating woman and child labour are to be found in the Factory Inspection Law (Fabriktilsynsloven) of 1892.

Children who have not yet reached the age of fourteen years shall not be employed in factories; but with the special permission of the official Factory Inspection Commission children between

twelve and fourteen years may be employed during six hours of the day at such light work as is not detrimental to their health and does not check their growth. Besides, it is necessary to provide a physician's certificate to the effect that their state of health does not make them unfit for the work in which they intend engaging. Young people between fourteen and eighteen years must not be employed more than ten hours a day in factory work, and when they are between fourteen and sixteen years of age, only in such work as is not detrimental to their health. In the forenoon and in the afternoon children and young people shall have a rest of one half hour at latest four and one-half hours after they have begun working. When the work lasts more than eight hours young people shall have one hour for lunch. During the rest period they must not be allowed to work and as a rule not to stay in the working room. Children and young people shall not work before six o'clock in the morning nor after eight o'clock in the evening. Such persons as have not yet had a complete school education may be employed in factories only with great limitations.

Women are not allowed to work during the first six weeks after their confinement, but with a physician's certificate they may work after four weeks.

In mining industries women and children may not be employed underground; nor at dangerous factory occupations, such as running steam engines.

In Norway protection of married women in factories is not so necessary as in some other countries, as there are comparatively few married women employed in that way.

Dr. Bluhm said that she thought men needed protection as well as women.

Dr. Tibertius, Germany, thought that women should have a voice in such legislation as that under discussion.

Miss Chrystal MacMillan, Scotland, defined the distinction between protection and restriction, advocating the first and condemning the second.

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## FACTORIES LEGISLATION AS IT AFFECTS WOMEN IN THE STATE OF VICTORIA.

By MARGARET GARDINER CUTHBERTSON, Senior Inspector of Factories, read by Mrs. Gough, Australia.

This paper will only deal with factories legislation as it affects women and children in the State of Victoria. Had time permitted, I should have liked to give a general outline of industrial legislation in the Commonwealth of Australia; but in the six States which constitute the Commonwealth, each State has its own Acts, with entirely different provisions from those in force in the others.

I have therefore chosen to deal with the Victorian Factories and Shops Acts, as they are much more far-reaching than the Acts in other States.

I do not intend to deal with the subject from an economic standpoint, but simply to tell you under what conditions women and children are called upon to labour in the manufacturing industries and shops of the State of Victoria.

The objects of the Victorian Factories and Shops Acts are, that to those persons working under them shall be secured by the State what tends to promote health and comfort while they are working, and a fairly adequate remuneration for their labour, so that health may be maintained, and if the worker is careful and industrious, some slight provision made for the future. It does not seem a great deal to ask in a Christian land, but not many Acts of Parliament have met with such determined opposition, particularly as far as the last portion is concerned.

The argument continually advanced against these Acts was that such measures may be needed in the crowded manufacturing centres of the Old World, but in a young country like this, where manufacturing is still in its infancy, and where crowded and insanitary conditions do not prevail to any great extent, such stringent measures are quite unnecessary.

Strong proof was given by Royal Commissions, the Factories Act Enquiry Board, the Anti-Sweating League, and the investigations of Factory Inspectors, that, notwithstanding these arguments, insanitary conditions did exist and sweating did prevail, and that reforms of a drastic nature were urgently needed. These reforms came gradually until the Acts were brought up to the present stage. Further legislation is contemplated, and I have no doubt will be accomplished in due time.

Factories legislation in Victoria dates back 24 years. Many Acts and amendments have been passed since then. I shall not attempt to deal with them in detail, but shall deal with the principal provisions affecting women and children as they are now, and in doing so will put them into three divisions—health provisions in factories, legislation dealing with shops, and Wages Boards.

A factory is a place where four or more persons are working manufacturing articles for trade or sale. This includes laundries and dye-works. All factories must be registered, must be provided with 400 cubic feet of air space for each individual, 12 square inches of inlet and outlet ventilation for each person working; and proper lavatory and sanitary accommodation must be provided for both sexes, the approaches to which must be separate, distinct and satisfactory.

All factories must be kept in a cleanly condition and lime-washed every 14 months. Proper means of egress must be provided in case of fire, and all stairs and passages kept clear. These provisions are rigidly enforced.

No girl under the age of 15 years may be employed in a factory. No girl under 16 can be employed in certain factories without a certificate of health, nor before 6 a.m. in the morning nor after 6 p.m. in the evening. In certain unhealthy trades no girl under 18 can be employed.

No woman or girl can be employed in any factory for more than 48 hours in any one week, nor for more than 10 hours in any one day, nor after 9 o'clock in the evening, except under special circumstances.

When employers are given permission to work overtime, tea money must be paid each evening that overtime is worked, workers earning weekly wages must be paid at the rate of time and a half, and pieceworkers threepence per hour in addition to their ordinary earnings. Under no circumstance is permission given to work more than nine hours extra in a week, and special reason must be shown for the extension of time before the application is considered. At least half an hour's interval after five hours' work must be allowed for a meal.

All dangerous machinery where women are working must be fenced and guarded to minimize the possibility of accident. Dressing-rooms for female employees, where they are required to change their clothes, must be provided. A minimum wage must be paid to all employees, no premiums can be taken from girls in certain trades, and employees must not be paid in goods. Employers are also prohibited from taking employees as lodgers. I have included that among the health provisions, for though it does not seem to be quite in its proper place at first sight, a closer scrutiny and knowledge of the way in which some employees are fed by employers, makes me think its inclusion here is right.

These are the principal health provisions. Shops are divided into two classes: ordinary shops, and those included in the Fourth Schedule. The shops in the Fourth Schedule are chemists', confectioners', restaurants, coffee houses, fish and oyster shops, fruit shops, booksellers' and news agents', and tobacconists'. The women employees in these shops are not permitted to work more than 56 hours per week, and must be given a half-holiday from 2 p.m. on one day other than a Sunday in each week. In all other shops employees must not work more than 52 hours in the week, and be given a half-holiday from 1 p.m. on one day in each week. In all shops tea money must be given when overtime is worked, except in certain Fourth Schedule shops, where a meal may be substituted for tea money. Employees must also be paid at least sixpence per hour for all overtime worked.

Seating accommodation must be provided in all shops, and all employees must be permitted to use it at all reasonable times. I must admit that it is difficult to find many employers who consider any time reasonable. No premiums can be taken in shops. Proper means of egress and ingress must be provided. An Act has just been passed and comes into force on May 1st of this year, providing that all shops within the Metropolitan District (an area of 10 miles from Melbourne) must close on Saturday afternoon. Outside the Metropolitan District shopkeepers are allowed to choose their own day of closing.

These are the principal provisions of the Act with regard to shops.

Power is given in the Acts to appoint Wage Boards, consisting of an equal number of employers and employees, with an independent Chairman, to fix the wages to be paid to persons working in certain trades. Six trades in which gross sweating was proved to exist were chosen for experiment. These trades were the bread, boots, furniture, clothing, shirt and underclothing trades.

The necessity for something of the kind was made very apparent before such a radical change in the principles of factories legislation was decided on. In due time these Boards produced their determinations and they became law. Directly after these determinations came into operation a clamor was made for the extension of the Wages Board provisions to other trades; and as a consequence of hard work and combination on the part of employees, co-operation on the part of many fair employers, and active, sympathetic public opinion, 55 Boards have now been constituted, and have for the most part completed their determinations, which are in operation.

The majority of these Boards have fixed a wages rate only, but some have drawn up most elaborate scales of piecework rates. The items for which the Men's Clothing Board has fixed piecework rates number about 3,000.

It may interest a Congress of women to know that a woman is Secretary of this Board, and has been since its inception in 1896. She is also Secretary of the Woollen Trade Board, the Cardboard Box Trade Board, the Paper Bag Trade Board, the Millinery and Dressmaking Boards. Another woman is Secretary of the Shirt Board, and of the Underclothing Board, and report says that they have not been the least successful secretaries appointed.

Women are also members of the various Boards for the trades with which they are connected. They receive the same fees as men, and have done some remarkably good work, both as employers and as employees.

The powers of the Boards are fairly wide. They are given power to fix a minimum wage, and if necessary a piecework rate, which must be based upon the minimum wage. Power is also given to fix the hours of work for which the wage is to be paid, to fix the number of improvers who may be employed, and the wages to be paid to apprentices and improvers. As an instance, the Clothing Board has fixed 21 shillings as the minimum to be paid to a woman with five years' experience at the trade. The rates for female apprentices and improvers vary from 3 shillings in the first six months to 19 shillings in the last six months of the fifth year at the trade. Some of the Boards have fixed lower minimums, others much higher, the highest fixed by any Board for women's work being 32 shillings per week of 48 hours for wire mattress weaving.

Provision is also made for the registration of all workers in clothing trades who do work in their own homes. These workers must be paid at piecework rates only. By this means all persons working in these trades are brought under supervision, and evasions of the Act checked. The objections, apart from economic

ones, most actively urged against the Wages Board system, are that under it the old and slow worker has no place, that the home worker is done away with, and that it places all workers on a level, whether they are smart or otherwise, by the minimum wages becoming also the maximum. With regard to the first objection, provision has been made in the Acts for the issue of licenses to old, slow or infirm workers. These licenses are only granted after careful enquiry. A good number of them are in existence, and complaint is rarely made of any abuse of them.

With regard to the home workers, it is a well-known fact that many of them are people who could just as well work in factories as in their own homes. Many of them have been compelled to go into factories where their hours are regular and short. The factories as a rule are much cleaner and better kept than their own homes, and the wages earned there are undoubtedly much higher. The absurd idea advanced by so many opponents of the Acts, that the minimum becomes the maximum, is being refuted every day. In the clothing trade, statistics were obtained of the wages earned by 3,065 women and girls, the average earnings being 22s 5d. These statistics were compiled when the minimum wage for women was 20 shillings per week. Practically the same may be said of every trade, and in none of them has the minimum become the maximum. Nor, as far as I can see, is there any danger of this taking place, as the Victorian employer is just as eager to get good men and women as any other employer, and the Victorian employee has just about as fair an idea of his or her own value as any other employee on the face of the earth, and is not at all likely to work for the same wages as one who does less work.

These are the principal provisions of the Acts, and it has been abundantly proved that the conditions laid down by them have immensely benefited the women and children of this State by giving them a fair number of hours to work, improving the conditions under which they work, and giving them a fair remuneration for the labour done. Such health conditions not only tend to benefit the individual, but the nation, and the fair remuneration given ensures the worker proper food and a reasonable amount of comfort in living.

The Wages Boards have been the means of checking sweating, if not of absolutely preventing it, and I am quite sure the people of Victoria, having once become thoroughly alive to the evils of it, will never again tolerate its growth in their midst.

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#### RECENT LABOUR LEGISLATION IN DENMARK,

By FRÖKEN META HANSEN, Assistant in the State Statistical Bureau, was read by Fröken Marie Pedersen.

The first law for protection of labourers dates from 1873, the present from 1901.

Both laws only regulate the work in factories; for work in small industries or in the homes no law exists.

The principal contents of the law of 1901 are the following:

Inspectors appointed by the State have to take care of the ventilation in the working rooms, to see that the working rooms are not overfilled, that the ceilings and walls are frequently cleaned, that the light is sufficient, that the rooms are warmed, that the labourer's health is not exposed to danger.

The law forbids children under twelve years of age to work in factories; children from twelve to fourteen years may only work six hours a day, and only in the time between six in the morning and eight at night, and in these six hours they must have a break of half an hour.

Young men and women from fourteen to eighteen years may only work ten hours a day, between six in the morning and eight at night, and they must break off for two hours in a day.

Children from twelve to fourteen years have to get a bill of health from a physician before they are engaged in any factory.

If possible, children and young women shall not work or have their meals in the same room as men.

For women there is a paragraph in the law that they must not work the first four weeks after childbirth, except when they have got a medical certificate that they can do it without any danger to themselves or the children.

The assistance given by the public funds to these women in these four weeks has not the effect of poor law relief. This law is to be revised next year.

In 1907 an Act was passed dealing with clubs for unemployment (Arbejdsløshedskasser). These unions are for men and women having the same trade, and will secure them from want in times of unemployment. The members pay a weekly sum of money; the State gives its quota; and when the member is out of work he can get a weekly sum of money. The causes of unemployment must not be: strike, lockout, sickness, drunkenness, intolerableness, imprisonment; and the member must not be under the poor law.

On Sundays and other festivals factories and shops must be closed, except bakers' shops, confectioners' shops and restaurants. The last Closing Act dates from 1904.

Mme. Bernocco, Italy, now addressed the section on recent labour legislation in that country.

Miss Thorstensen, Sweden, said that in that country legislation provided that women must have eleven hours' rest out of the twenty-four. This was opposed by the working women, because they feared that they might not get work.

Dr. Salomon, Germany, condemned night work for either man or woman.

## AFTERNOON SESSION.

## RECENT LABOUR LEGISLATION IN GREAT BRITAIN,

By Mrs. J. R. MacDONALD, London, England, read by Miss Harvey.

Several important laws affecting the conditions of labour in various departments of women's industry have been passed in Great Britain since the last meeting of the International Congress at Berlin in 1904.

The Act to provide for the early closing of shops, which was passed in 1904, has not proved very effective in practice, since it depends upon the voluntary adoption of the Act by agreement amongst the shopkeepers, and such elaborate machinery is involved, with so many possibilities of its being blocked, that it has benefited very few localities and very limited trades in those localities. The Government has promised to bring in more complete protection to Shop Assistants, and such a measure was foreshadowed in the King's speech in February of this year (1909), but it has not yet been introduced; and as the time of the House of Commons this session is very fully taken up with the new developments included in the Budget, it does not seem likely that any very contentious measures can be carried through into law.

In 1905 no Acts were passed with regard to women's labour conditions. But with the advent of a new Parliament and a fresh ministry in 1906, more activity in industrial legislation was shown. In that year two measures affecting working people, both men and women, were passed; one the Notice of Accidents Act, making the necessity of reporting industrial accidents more stringent; and the other an Act to consolidate and amend the law with respect to compensation to workmen for injuries suffered in the course of their employment. This Act strengthens the existing legislation for workmen's compensation in two directions. It made compulsory more definite and more liberal compensation in case of death or injury, and it extended the Act to a much wider range of employment.

A workman, and in law this term includes workwomen, must receive a weekly payment not exceeding half his or her average weekly earnings with the maximum of £1 during incapacity or illness; whilst in case of death his or her dependents will receive a sum equal to the earnings during three years, but this sum is to be not less than £150, nor more than £300.

A "Contract of Service" is the basis of compensation, and the Act therefore covers as wide a range of industries as possible, including domestic servants, clerks, teachers, etc., etc. It also operates in certain cases of disease due to the nature of the occupation as well as to accidents. In its administration the Act is chiefly worked through insurance societies, with which the employers make agreements. It has been a great boon to many women workers, and prevented the worst monetary difficulties involved in absence from work owing to accident or illness.

In 1907 the chief legislation affecting women workers was that of amending the Factory and Workshop Act, with regard to laundries. This introduced a daily limit of hours of work in laundries, but left this open to so many variations and modifications for different departments of the same laundry on different days of the week, that it did not satisfy those who believe that such Acts need to be simple in order to be effectively administered. The Act also brought charity and institution laundries under legal regulation and inspection for the first time, and also laundries attached to hotels.

A small measure called the Employment of Women Act was passed the same session, to bring this country in line with the resolution of the International Conference on Labour Legislation, in favour of prohibiting all night work by women in protected industries. Practically in Great Britain such work has long been prohibited, but this Act repealed two small clauses which might have allowed such work in official circumstances in flax mills and in the surface work in connection with coal mines.

Last year (1908) no law was passed which directly affected the conditions of women's labour. This session the Government has introduced a Trade Boards Bill to establish Boards, including representatives of employers and employees in certain industries where sweating conditions and home work are very prevalent, such Boards to have the power to fix minimum rates of wages which shall be legally enforceable. This Bill is now before a Standing Committee of the House.

A resolution was passed by the House of Commons in March of this year, altering the working of the Fair Wages Clause, which is inserted in Government contracts. Hitherto there has been much ambiguity about this, and consequently much evasion. In the case of women there is special difficulty in insisting upon a standard wage, since they have so little organization amongst themselves, and no such standard really exists; but it is hoped that the Government will in future pay more special attention to the wages paid to women employees by their contractors.

There was considerable discussion after the reading of this paper.

Mrs. Gough, Australia, said:—"I am strongly in favor of legislation for women in their employment, for this reason, that the selfishness of the employers and their desire to make the most out of the money they have invested, is not the safest thing to trust to in the employment, particularly of women. Women look to marriage principally and they do not look upon their work as a life work as men do. If the women would insist that equal pay should be given for equal work and make it a legislative movement, they would devote themselves to the trades that belong to women and which they ought to hold as women. Until it is recognized in all countries that sex does not determine the wage of work—equal work determines it—then we must go on asking for legislation and representation for women."

Miss Hurlbatt, Canada, said women perform a service to the State in the bearing and rearing of children, which they alone perform. Because of the performance of this special function, it is imperative for the future of the race that women, and through them children, should not suffer from the unrestricted evil conditions of modern industrial employment. But since special restriction of women's labour may place them economically at a disadvantage, is it not just that the State should, while restricting their labour, see that they do not alone bear the economic burden of that restriction? One method adopted in Germany and Denmark is to provide by "Sick Insurance" contributed to partly by the employer and partly by the employee. In such a method as this women should not be specially burdened by being required to contribute more heavily than men—or if in respect of insurance a heavier premium must be paid, either the State should pay the difference or provide in some way that the burden shall not fall upon women.

Dr. Salomon, Berlin, Germany, who has had much experience in this line, said that in her country there was a law which made the employer and the rest of the employees of a factory or shop contribute a certain amount to a woman's support for two weeks before she gave birth to a child, and six weeks afterwards. Each employee as well as the employer must pay from 1 to 3 per cent. of their individual salaries towards the support of the mother who is incapacitated from work on this account, and I think the law admirable. Each member of this great Council should do her best to have such laws passed in their respective countries, for they do a great amount of good.

Fröken Krog, Norway, said that housework is woman's real sphere, but that much of what was once done as women's own work, housework, is now done in factories. In going into manufacturing industries women are not taking away men's work; they are merely resuming the industries which they formerly carried on in the home, such as weaving.

"Although my subject is 'Working Girls' Clubs,'" said Miss Addams, Chicago, "I am much more interested in that of legislation for women. We have had great difficulty in our country in obtaining proper protective legislation for our working women. In the old days women did as much work as they do now; they spun, canned goods, wove cloth, sewed, laundered, etc., but they did it at their leisure almost, they were not confined by a bell with which they started and stopped work. The strain nowadays is not muscular alone, but a tremendous amount of nervous energy is wasted. Women should be protected by legislation, if only because they are the bearers and rearers of children. One of the ways in which we are trying to aid them and alleviate the strain under which they labour is to form Working Girls' Clubs. The first one in Chicago is still in existence at Hull House. We formed it of 30 working girls who clubbed together in 24 single and four double rooms besides a kitchen, parlor and drawing-room. The

girls were of seven different nationalities, and people said we could never have harmony with these different peoples; then they said, Well, with different religions, you cannot have harmony. There are three separate and distinct religions among the girls of this club, and still they live amicably together. The girls in the club are from factories in the neighbourhood of Hull House. This club started through a strike in a shoe factory and the forming of a trades union. We also have social entertainments, and we encourage the members to invite their male friends.

Miss Bertha Pappenheim, Germany, founder of a Working Girls' Club, first received her idea of starting a club from a visit to Miss Turnbull's club in England. It could not be as successful as the others were, owing to the fact that the girls often had to work till ten or eleven o'clock, especially before a holy day. Even with that handicap, they were making great progress. They had social entertainments, etc., and altogether were doing a great amount of good, she hoped.

Hon. Mrs. E. L. Franklin, Great Britain, described the work done in her sister's club, which has just been mentioned. A country house is run in connection with the club, and the girls are given two weeks at it, always with somebody in charge. In the club the girls learn all kinds of work, laundering, sewing, book-keeping, stenography, etc.

Miss Keyes, Toronto, said that the introduction of labour-saving machines had made it possible to perform in a few minutes the work which had hitherto taken hours to complete. The great question to ask is, why, if this is the case, does the worker still remain a slave of industry? Please think of that question and answer it.

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## MONDAY, JUNE 25TH—MORNING SESSION.

Chairman, Mrs. Willoughby Cummings.

### THE DOMINION OF CANADA FACTORY AND SHOPS LAWS FOR WOMEN AND CHILDREN.

By MISS CARLYLE.

The close of the last quarter of the last century will mark the period of the greatest advancement of women in the industrial world. Notwithstanding the great number of females now employed, it is doubtful whether, in reality, the factory system has materially changed the importance of women's work. Within the past generation, however, inventors have made machinery almost human, needing direction only and little manual strength. This has opened to women new and wide fields of labour. In many cases it has made female preferable to male labour in the production of many articles. These articles are now factory products, and the family can buy them more cheaply than they can be made at home. This is not so much a matter of choice as of necessity, growing out

of the displacement of hand work by machinery. A study of the present situation brings us to the conclusion that women have been gainers by the change. Factory laws restrict the hours of labour and proper sanitary arrangements must be made in the establishments where they are employed. It is not necessary for me to enter into any extended comment as to the necessity or value of factory inspection, because the practical results of these years of effort in that direction under laws improved and amended from time to time show that such supervision was needed.

We have at the present day enacted in Canada many laws beneficial to the community. Great Britain in her Factory Acts led the way. In Canada, she was followed by Ontario in the year 1897, followed closely then by the Province of Quebec, by British Columbia in the year 1900, by Nova Scotia in 1901, by Manitoba in 1902, by New Brunswick in 1905. Up to the present time, as far as I am aware, the other Provinces have not enacted factory and shop laws.

Too strong a plea cannot be made for factory laws. It is a fact that, after all, legislation is the practical channel through which all reforms are secured, and the more general the legislation, the better the results. All these laws were framed with the definite object of protecting the health of young people, particularly of those of the weaker sex. It will be remembered that in the nineteenth century began an era of steam. From this time onward, a gradual but complete revolution took place in the industrial world, causing new conditions to arise which made factory legislation an absolute necessity.

As public sentiment demanded, commissions were appointed to investigate and report, but not until practical and independent Inspectors were appointed did any success attend these enactments. The duties of these Inspectors were to inspect factories at regular intervals, with full power to see the law enforced and also to report to the Government.

Among the laws which the Inspectors are now called upon to enforce are the following:

The term "factory" applies to any building, workshop, structure or premises, mentioned in a lengthy schedule appended to the Act, which exhausts practically every variety of industrial establishment.

The term "factory" does not apply to any place in which not more than five persons are employed in the manufacture or adaptation of goods for sale, nor to a private dwelling-house, no steam or mechanical power being used, and the only persons engaged being members of the same family. Inspectors, male and female, are appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, with the usual powers of entry, enquiry and examination, and can command the production of any registers or documents.

Wilful obstruction of an Inspector in the prosecution of his duties is an offence. The position of a Factory Inspector is a responsible one. Through the conscientious discharge of official

duties he is the friend of the manufacturer, the employee and the public.

The occupier must notify the Inspector within a month of entering into occupation of a factory and forward particulars of the work to be carried on therein. The usual notices must be affixed showing the provisions of the Act, address of the Inspector, hours of work. A register of all the women, young girls and children employed in the factory must also be kept by the employer. No child under the age of fourteen must be employed in any factory, except in the business of gathering in and preparing fruits and vegetables for canning or desiccating, prior to the operation of cooking, during the months of June, July, August, September and October. Such children must work in a room separated from any other wherein the cooking process is carried on. Women and young girls may not be employed for more than ten hours during any one day, nor for more than sixty hours in any one week. Women and girls must be allowed not less than one hour at noon for dinner.

If the Inspector so directs, the employer shall not allow any young girls or women to take meals in a room wherein a manufacturing process is carried on. The Inspector may further call upon the employer to provide a suitable eating-room for the employees. The working-day shall not be later than 6.30 p.m., except by a special permit from the Inspector of Factories.

Women and girls may, during the months of June, July, August, September and October, be employed to a later hour than 9 o'clock p.m. for not more than a total of twenty days. When a woman is so employed under this section to a later hour than 7 p.m., forty-five minutes must be allowed for an evening meal between five and eight p.m. When, through any accident, the factory cannot be worked regularly, or where the customs or exigencies of certain trades require that girls and women shall be employed for a longer period than above provided, the Inspector at discretion can grant such exemptions. The hours shall not exceed twelve and one-half in any one day, nor more than seventy-two in any one week, and shall not comprise more than thirty-six days in any twelve months. No woman or girl shall be employed before 6 a.m. or after 9 p.m. In addition to the noonday meal, forty-five minutes must be provided for an evening meal. A notice must be affixed with particulars of the exemption. Notice of hours of employment affecting women and young girls must be hung up in all factories. Overtime records must be kept by the employers and entered in a daily register. The employment of girls under 18 and boys under 16 years of age may be prohibited by an Order-in-Council in any factory the work of which is deemed dangerous or unwholesome. No woman or girl may be employed where permanent injury to health is likely to result. No woman or girl may clean mill-gearing or machinery while in motion. No woman or girl may be allowed to work between the fixed and traversing part of any self-acting machine while in motion.

Young girls and women in factories must wear their hair

closely plaited or in closely fitted caps during working hours. Factories must be kept by the employer in a clean and sanitary condition. They must be ventilated in such a manner as to keep the air reasonably pure, and as far as practicable all gases, vapours, dust or other impurities generated in the manufacturing process must be carried off.

The Inspector has power to order provision by the employer of mechanical means for dealing with injurious inhalations. Overcrowding is not permitted, three hundred feet of room space per employee being prescribed. Drinking water and proper drinking cups are supplied. The employer shall heat and regulate the temperature so as not to be injurious to the health and comfort of the employees. In no case shall the temperature be less than sixty degrees Fahrenheit. The Inspector has power at his discretion to require the employer to provide a sufficient number of spittoons and place the same in different parts of the factory. Suitable and separate sanitary conveniences must be provided for both sexes, such conveniences kept in good repair with separate approaches to the same, the recognized standard being one closet to every twenty-five persons employed.

No boiler may be used that is not insured in some boiler inspection company duly authorized, or that has not been inspected within one year by a competent certificated engineer.

All dangerous machinery, mill-gearing, vats, reservoirs, doors, openings in floors or walls, as far as practicable, must be securely guarded. Precautions must be taken against fire. Main doors must open outward, and doors leading to the main entrance of the factory must not be locked during working hours. The owner of every factory over two storeys in height, when deemed necessary by the Inspector, must provide the factory with a system of fire-escapes and keep the same in good repair. We have in Ontario in many of our factories a system of fire drill, at no particular stated times. Very recently, when inspecting a factory in the western part of our Province, I was asked if I would like to see one of the drills. Of course I was pleased to accept the invitation. This was a three-storey building with 375 employees; when the fire alarm was given, they emptied that building comfortably without any crowding in 1 $\frac{3}{4}$  minutes.

All accidents causing death or bodily injury must be reported to the Inspector and notice given of any explosion, whether or not bodily injury has resulted from it.

All elevators must be properly protected.

#### SHOPS ACT.

It had gradually become apparent that legal restrictions for the protection of the employed are as necessary in mercantile as in manufacturing establishments. So far as concerns limiting the age for children, providing seats for women, arranging sanitary requirements, regulating hours of labour, a very great deal has been accomplished in some of our large mercantile houses since the amendment to the Shops Act.

The term "Shop" applies to any building, portion of a building, stall, booth, or place where goods are handled, exposed and offered for sale; also to any building, portion of a building, stall, booth or place where goods are manufactured and to which the Factories Act does not apply. The provisions of the Act do not apply to a shop where the only persons employed are members of the same family.

The Legislature in their wisdom recently amended the Shops Act and increased the age limit from ten to twelve years. So that now no person under twelve years of age shall be employed in any shop, and no child shall be employed in any shop during the hours of holding school, unless the said child shall have furnished to the employer a certificate issued in accordance with the provisions of the Truancy Act permitting the absence of the child from school.

No young girl or woman shall be employed in or about a shop on any day of the week other than Saturday, or the day before a statutory holiday before the hour of 7 o'clock a.m. or after the hour of 6 o'clock p.m., and on no day later than 10 o'clock in the evening.

There shall be allowed to every young girl, woman and child not less than one hour for the noonday meal, or when employed after 6 o'clock in the evening, not less than 45 minutes for an evening meal.

From the 14th to the 24th December, the provisions of this section are suspended. When a child, girl or woman is employed partly in a shop and partly in a factory, the total number of hours worked in both places must not exceed those defined by the Factories Act.

A register must be kept in every shop showing the names and addresses of all children, young girls and women employed.

Seats must be provided for females, and where the Inspector directs, the employer may be called upon to supply a suitable eating-room.

Shops must be kept in a clean and sanitary condition, properly ventilated. Separate and suitable sanitary conveniences must be provided for employees of both sexes. Fire-escapes must be provided and kept in an efficient condition.

The usual notices containing provisions of the Act must be posted.

Out work is regulated very carefully in the clothing trade in Ontario. Every person contracting for the manufacture of clothing either in a complete or an incomplete condition must keep a register of the names and addresses of out-workers. The register must be prominently posted up in the office of the person giving out the work. Every article so made, altered and improved must bear a label giving the registered number of the worker by whom the same was given out for manufacture. No person may sell articles manufactured thus, or made in any dwelling-house, tene-

ment house or building without a permit from the Inspector stating that the place is thoroughly clean and in a good sanitary condition. Unclean articles in an unclean or unhealthy condition may be impounded by the Inspector and disinfected by the Local Board of Health at the expense of the owner.

The sweating system in its literal sense is not extensive in Canada, although in some parts of it are a few shops, some small and some large. I firmly believe that no country has its clothing manufactured under better or healthier conditions than has Canada.

In all these enactments are to be found wise and salutary provisions. I believe that the provisions of our own law are now in the front rank with respect to legislation for the improvements of the conditions surrounding the employed. It is an accepted fact that a measure of publicity in the transaction of affairs is salutary, whether for nations, corporations or individuals.

The long hours of labour and the vitiated atmosphere of many of the workrooms were producing their natural results in straining the nervous and muscular systems of thousands of the working people, and the custom of putting children yet in their tender years under the control of harsh and careless task-masters was bringing forth the fruits of ignorance and illiteracy.

We do not pretend to say that all these matters have been entirely remedied and reformed, but it is safe to assume that the laws already enacted and their enforcement by Factory Inspectors appointed under the Act have been a vast and important element in improving the conditions of the workers.

I am proud to state that in Canada we have many manufacturers who go even beyond the mere requirements of the law, and who provide clean workrooms, good ventilation, well appointed sanitary arrangements, good dressing-rooms, cloakrooms, washing conveniences, dining-rooms with matron in charge, library and recreation room with piano. There are manufacturers who allow their female employees to leave earlier than the male employees so that there may be more room in the street cars. The grounds surrounding the factory are kept as beautiful and as attractive as many of our parks. In short, they provide everything that will make life pleasant for the employees.

In conclusion, let me say to the members of this Congress and to all interested in the work of factory inspection that Ontario will ever be found among the foremost in any work wherein labour and all that pertains to labour is benefited. Her representatives bring to you her greetings and good-will, and will bring to her any good which you may individually or collectively suggest.

On Monday afternoon a joint session was held with the sections on "Laws" and "Philanthropy," for which see "Joint Sessions," Vol. I.

TUESDAY, JUNE 29<sup>TH</sup>—MORNING SESSION.

Chairman, Mrs. Hoodless.

UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG WOMEN,

Was read by Miss E. C. Harvey, England.

A Royal Commission was appointed in December, 1905, to enquire into the various means which have been adopted outside the Poor Laws for meeting distress due to want of employment, particularly during periods of severe industrial depression; and to consider and report on any changes in administration or on any fresh legislation that may be desirable for dealing with distress.

The report of the Commissioners early this year gives us most valuable statistics as to unemployment both generally and among women as apart from men.

The Commissioners found that whilst the moral causes contributing to unemployment have not changed, the chief causes of unemployment now are economic rather than personal, and are due to material influences regulating employment and industry which have changed both in character and scope during the last 80 years.

It has been noticed since the latter end of the 18th century that the general industry of the country has suffered from cyclical depressions of trade, taking roughly about ten years for the ebb and flow from depression to active trade and back to depression again.

This is accounted for by the fact that the essential feature of the present day system is that almost no one makes goods or renders services for his own consumption or support, but risks his fortune or his livelihood on catering for the wants of others, taking the chance of their buying the goods; and this production is so highly organized, so much divided up and specialized, that the greater part of the supply is brought forward in anticipation of the demand. Then, if there is a change in the demand as to the amount required—possibly from a change in fashion—or as to the channel through which it is procured, there comes a check to the supply, beginning with the retail shop, and spreading to the merchants, manufacturers and the transit trades. Then, some workers in an industry are put on full time; they spend their wages in shops, the shops buy goods from the merchants, who set the manufacturers to work, and a time of brisk trade returns.

It was found that pauperism (which in the main is due to unemployment) follows the cycle of unemployment, but about two years later. The statistics of those in receipt of poor law relief are interesting, therefore, from the point of view of unemployment.

It was found that of the persons relieved on Jan. 1st, 1908, apparently half the number were women; but from the year's figures the ratio to the population was nearly the same for men, women and children. This shows that the average duration of relief is longer amongst women than men, and probably the principal

cause of this is widowhood when the death of the husband leaves the wife with a young family whom she is unable to support. The excess of the rates for women over those for men diminishes from the ages of 45 to 55 (when the number of men relieved increases) because the able-bodied widows become self-supporting or are otherwise maintained.

Women's earnings are regarded for the most part by employers and employed as supplementary to those of the father or husband, and the rate of their wages is fixed on that assumption. Consequently women's wages do not allow them to support dependents, and widows with dependent children are obliged to apply for relief.

The case of a single woman unencumbered and unable to earn her own living—often a very wretched one—is rare, and the number of these women in the casual wards is infinitesimal.

Distress from unemployment, though periodically aggravated by depression of trade, is a constant feature of industry and commerce as at present administered, and the mass of men, women and children suffering from the effects of unemployment amounts to hundreds of thousands, and in years of depression must exceed 1,000,000.

Among other economic causes of unemployment beyond the cyclical depressions of trade, are the seasonal nature of some trades which only employ workers for part of the year, and inventions in machinery or fresh modes of production, which displace workers trained to special processes at an age when they find it difficult to turn to other methods. This leads to under-employment or casual labour, which as a further result turns some of the workers into the class of the unemployable. Another cause is unemployment among men, which forces their wives into the already overstocked labour market, especially into the unskilled trades. With this exception the last censuses show a growing tendency for the most part for married women to leave the wage-earning class and devote themselves to domestic duties.

The Minority Report states that of all causes predisposing to unemployment, the most potent, the most certain and the most extensive, is the method of employment in odd jobs; not so much low wages as under-employment.

This report has a separate section on unemployment among women, in which the Commissioners first distinguish the four kinds or classes of the unemployed due to:—

1. Loss of permanent situations;
2. Discontinuous situations (the workers who do not in any case remain long in one situation, but who work at a succession of jobs, passing from one job or employer to another every few weeks or months);
3. Under-employment—those who never earn a full week's wages;
4. The unemployable.

The Commissioners then report that women are to be found in all four classes, but they could not get any statistics as to their

number, as they form only a small fraction of those who apply to Distress Committees, probably because these Committees have hitherto afforded them very little help, and because able-bodied women without husbands or young children are scarcely to be found in work-houses, and only a few are in receipt of outdoor relief.

In Class 1 the majority of women are in domestic service or are employed as charwomen in regular situations at weekly wages in offices, shops and restaurants. These women are seldom in distress from unemployment, except occasionally between situations.

In the second class there is no trade, like the building trade, for men, where women suffer from discontinuous employment, with the exception of the seasonal engagements of women as hotel servants.

The women suffering from unemployment belong practically to Class 3, the under-employed, and to the kind due to seasonal fluctuations rather than cyclical, suffering in this respect even more than men. It is not the case that in seasonal trades the earnings during the times of brisk trade are always higher than in other trades. There are many hundreds of thousands of women in factories and workshops who only earn six or eight shillings a week at full wages, and are paid at a still lower rate for home work; and these women have often no husbands or husbands out of work and children dependent on them.

The fourth case of the unemployable does not come within the scope of this paper.

There is not time to do more than briefly enumerate a few of the remedies suggested in these reports for dealing with the unemployment of the able-bodied—remedies which are by no means new, but which are put forward as practical suggestions with a certain amount of official authority.

Both reports agree that the unemployed who are permanently incapacitated, the sick, the mentally defective and the aged in receipt of old age pensions, should be dealt with by the Health, the Asylums and the Pensions Committees of the County and the County Borough Councils, with which voluntary aid and charitable societies and institutions could co-operate. But while the Majority Report would make a committee of the same authority deal, as a rule, with the unemployment of the able-bodied, the Minority Report urges that provision should be made simultaneously in ways suited to the various needs and deserts of all the sections of the unemployed by one and the same authority, and that the authority must, therefore, be national under a Government Department.

The chief remedies suggested are:—

1. A well managed national system of labour exchanges, such as already exist in Germany, which would enable those out of work to find at once where workers are wanted or are likely to be wanted in other places and at comparatively little cost, because the national telephone and telegraph could be used without payment by a State department.

Under the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905, the central (unemployed) body of London has established 25 local exchanges to

cover the area of the County of London, except the City of Westminster, which preferred to retain its own Labour Bureau. None was established in the City of London, but residents in the city were allowed to apply to their nearest exchange

All classes of workpeople except indoor domestic servants are registered, women at different hours from men, no fees are charged to employers or to workers out of employment or under notice of discharge. The superintendent of each local exchange posts a return of the day's work to the Central Exchange every evening. These exchanges, which are kept quite separate from those dealing with unemployed applicants seeking relief from the Distress Committees, supplied women as well as men with work, as can be seen from the following figures:—

	1 Jan.-30 June, '07.		30 June, '07-30 June, '08.	
	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.
Number registered.	7,330	33,096	20,127	74,223
Situations offered..	4,879	9,096	10,275	17,683
Situations filled...	2,202	6,701	5,864	14,164

2. Insurance against temporary unemployment. This is already provided for in certain highly organized trades unions. Trades unions as a whole insure their members against accident, and it is calculated that about one-sixth of the benefit funds provided by them are out-of-work benefits. Some also by their superannuation funds insure against unemployment due to age, but this is not in the trades employing women nor in the unskilled trades, as these cannot find the extra contributions necessary, which are calculated at 9 pence a week.

Insurance is urgently needed for unskilled and unorganized labour, and is of such national importance as to justify, under special conditions, contributions from public funds. The Commissioners think that it can best be promoted by utilizing the agency of existing trade organizations or similar ones which may be started with the hope of participating in public contributions. But they are unable to recommend for general adoption any scheme brought before them.

3. Insurance against unemployment due to invalidity. As this unemployment arises from the organization of industry adopted by the nation, which makes it difficult for a man to obtain work after his prime, the insurance against it should be secured by contributions from employers, employees and the State.

4. To regularize work. Employers, local authorities and Government departments should, when possible, regularize work by spreading it more evenly over the whole year, thus employing fewer workers casually and more workers regularly. Some employers use their workers and machinery for two kinds of seasonal work, dovetailing them in one with another.

5. To keep girls (and boys) longer out of the labour market. It is suggested that it should be made compulsory to keep girls at school till 15 and then half their time till 18, either five hours each day (morning or afternoon), or 10 hours on alternate days in trade

schools, where they get physical and technological training; that it should be made illegal for employers to employ them more than 30 hours a week, and compulsory on them to see that the girls' names are on the roll of some public trade school. The girls would learn in their education various branches of domestic economy and household management, including the rearing of babies.

6. Emigration for those who have received training at a farm colony.

In times of exceptional distress from unemployment, the able-bodied will need exceptional help; and it is suggested that this should be given at some industrial institution or labour colony with a detention colony for those who refuse to comply with the regulations of a voluntary colony.

Widows and other mothers with young children and not being unworthy to have it, should receive adequate home aliment on condition that they devote all their time and energy to the care of their children.

Women's workrooms. It may be of interest to mention a temporary expedient which has been tried for three years in London by the Committee for Women's Work of the Central (unemployed) Body of London.

The Committee has established three workrooms for women at (a) the Browning Settlement in Camberwell; (b) 143 Drummond Street in St. Pancras, and (c) the Ethical Hall, Poplar, employing 40, 36 and 40 women, respectively.

Each application is first considered by the Borough Distress Committee and the names approved are sent to the Women's Work Committee, who make the final selection. These women must be dependent on their own earnings, i.e., must have no husbands, or if they have any, these must be incapacitated by health or legally separated from, or have deserted, their wives. (I was told by the superintendent of the St. Pancras Workroom that the women there were all married, with children dependent on them, or if unmarried, they had mothers or sisters dependent on them).

The women at St. Pancras are employed in tailoring work, chiefly boys' suits, and at the other two rooms at plain needlework or knitting by machine. Each woman is employed for 16 weeks at 10 shillings a week, and is given a plain dinner to the value of sixpence, and works 44 hours a week (eight daily and four on Saturday). Fares to the workroom are paid above the twopence which the worker must pay, and an allowance is made of two shillings a week for the first child under 14, of one shilling and sixpence for the second, and one shilling for every additional child, the total wage in no case exceeding 17 shillings and sixpence.

During the first year some of the work was taken for the requirements of the Emigration and Working Colonies Committees, and sold to the guardians of workhouses; but the sales were much hampered this last year because these Committees did not want the work and the Local Government Board would not allow the Committee to tender for work for the guardians, and yet threatened to

give no further grants unless the Committee could sell the clothes! The workrooms are financed by grants partly from the Local Government Board and partly from a Voluntary Board.

The recoupment by sales has been 46½ per cent., which is the highest percentage for any department of the unemployed body.

From the opening of the rooms (Camberwell, July, 1906, the others September, 1906) to Feb. 28th this year, 2,097 applications were sent in from the Distress Committees, and 841 women were given work from 16 to 24 weeks (generally 16).

The Women's Work Committee has been anxious to start a farm colony with work such as fruit-farming, with fruit-preserving factories attached, poultry-rearing, egg production and dairy work as a more hopeful training; and the result of enquiries made among the women applicants to the Distress Committees showed that women are ready to go to the country, if opportunity be offered them. But want of funds has hitherto proved an insuperable barrier to establishing such a colony.

Workrooms have also been established at Manchester and recently in Glasgow and West Ham.

These workrooms, however, are only transitorily helpful. It is good for the individual women to be improved in needlework, and it is surprising to see how well they work when one considers how old they are to begin to learn; but they only find an overcrowded market when they come out of the workrooms. From all rooms women have found work on leaving which they would not otherwise have obtained, and especially those who have been through the tailoring workroom, where they learn a skilled trade.

But for a permanent remedy for unemployment we must look to some of the larger national schemes, such as those that have been recommended in the Poor Law Report.

Mrs. Hamilton, Toronto, spoke on Industries for the Blind in Japan. Out of a population of fifteen millions, 4,282 are blind, and of these only 119 attend school. There are three Government schools, 36 private schools, and two other schools. Massage is an ideal employment for the blind. There are two classes, the untrained and the trained; the untrained receive from two to three cents per hour, while the trained class get from 5 to 10 cents per hour.

Mr. H. F. Gardiner, the Principal of the School for the Blind, Brantford, Ontario, spoke of the work accomplished there.

He said that the scientific definition of blindness is the absence of light perception, and the practical definition of blindness is a state in which no occupation can be followed for which vision is required. At an examination by the oculist of 111 of the 123 pupils enrolled in the Ontario institution, it was found that 24 had no perception of light; 16 could tell light from darkness with one eye; 16 had light perception with both eyes, making 53 who were for practical purposes in total darkness; 22 had limited vision with one eye, and 36 had limited vision with both eyes, the range of vision in these 58 being such as a person of normal vision would

have in twilight, in moonlight or in starlight, but in no case sufficient sight to read ordinary print or to work like people with normal vision. In 23 cases the blindness was caused by optic atrophy; in 22 by ophthalmia neonatorum (infantile blindness); in 16 by cataract (congenital and lamellar); in eight by injury of one eye followed by sympathetic ophthalmia in the other; in five by injury by powder explosions; in three injury by other means; five aniridia and coloboma; five interstitial keratitis; four retinitis pigmentosa; four degenerated eyes (cause unknown); three keratoglobus; three refractive errors; two microphthalmus; two albinism; two brain fever; one undeveloped optic nerves; one intra-uterine keratitis; one scarlet fever; one pneumonia. In six cases there was evidence of inherited syphilis. Besides the dynamite and powder injuries, there were cases of damage to the eye by scissors, by wire, by a stone thrown by a careless boy, by a cane in a workshop, by a gunshot, etc. The prevention of smallpox by vaccination has greatly reduced blindness, but experts estimate that 40 per cent. of the existing blindness is avoidable, and to this end the intelligent interest and action of the National Council of Women is required. Blindness is rarely, if ever, hereditary. Of the 800 pupils who have attended the Ontario institution, not more than three had a blind father or mother, while hundreds of blind parents have children with perfect sight. It is inadvisable for a blind person to marry one who is sightless, not because there is risk of blind offspring, but because every house needs at least one pair of eyes. The influence of the Council should be used to prevent the intermarriage of cousins, which is a prevalent cause of blindness, deafness and other physical and mental defects. The marriage of degenerates and diseased persons should be restrained and prevented as far as possible. Knowledge of the proper treatment of newborn infants should be disseminated. If every physician, every midwife, and every nurse, understood the necessity of examining the eyes of the infant, wiping away the yellowish matter with a dry rag, and applying a drop of two per cent. solution of nitrate of silver, the sight of hundreds of children would be saved and the sum of human happiness would be appreciably augmented. The influence of the Council can be advantageously applied to the prevention of "accidents" in mining, railway building and other occupations in which sight and life are needlessly endangered.

Members of the Council, in their individual capacity, can help the blind by advising parents to send their blind children to the school at Brantford. The institution is a school for the education of children and youth of both sexes, under the age of 21. It is not a hospital, it is not an asylum nor a home. Children whose intellects are defective are not wanted. Adults are not wanted, for the experience of all the schools has demonstrated that the admission of adults to schools intended for children does much more harm to the children than good to the adults. Advise parents of blind children to send them to the school at once—better at five years of age than at 15. The separation is generally harder on the parent than on the child, but the good of the child should be the deter-

mining factor. Many of the children, on account of their affliction, are over-petted and spoiled at home. They are waited upon and convinced that they are helpless; they get little exercise and become weak, flabby and dependent; selfish and ugly dispositions are fostered. At the school they are soon taught to dress themselves, to eat properly and speak politely, to walk and run and play without a guiding hand. They find that other children have rights which must be respected, that the way to obtain kind treatment is to be kind to others, and in a community where all are alike afflicted, each one is happier than would be possible for the blind child surrounded by a group of sighted children, in whose work and amusements he could have little part. Regular sleep, regular meals and regular exercise, with enough but not too much work, bring health, comfort and contentment, so that the pupils are always willing to come back to school when vacation is ended.

Some of the pupils who come to Brantford have attended public schools before losing their sight, and those are graded according to their acquirements. The little ones are placed in the kindergarten, where they learn to use their hands and heads. They are taught to read, with the touch of their fingers on letters composed of raised points—Mr. Gardiner exhibited books and cards in point print—they learn arithmetic (chiefly mental), geography by dissected wooden maps, object lessons with stuffed birds and animals, and in time they go on to grammar, history, literature and physiology. They sing in the kindergarten, at roll-call and in the vocal class, and some have special instruction in voice culture. Music lessons are given on the piano and the organ, and some become very expert performers and qualify for organists and music teachers. Several have passed the examinations of the Toronto College of Music and received diplomas from that institution. Point writing is taught by means of a "slate" and stylus, pencil writing with a grooved card, and type-writing with the ordinary machine. The music is written in point, on a system which enables the performer to read with one hand while playing with the other. Staff notation is taught with a plank in which the lines are grooved and the notes and characters indicated by metal castings. Literary and musical cards and books are printed without ink in the institution, and some of the blind lend assistance in portions of this work. In their bead-work the children learn to use their hands and to count, and many of the articles made by them, under the instruction of a blind teacher, are useful as well as beautiful. The girls are taught to knit and crochet, to sew and to darn, as well as the rudiments of domestic science. The boys are taught to make willow baskets, to net hammocks and tune pianos. The last-named is the most profitable trade, but only a percentage of the pupils are capable of becoming expert and successful tuners. The pupils require and receive the care of teachers and officers 24 hours in the day, seven days a week, and the teacher who has not an abundant store of patience and self-denial is out of place in a school for the blind. In proportion to their numbers, there are as many grades of ability among the blind as among the sighted. Ex-pupils of the

Brantford school have taken degrees in Arts and Theology, have become lawyers, osteopaths, masseurs, merchants and commercial travellers; others can make baskets, brooms, brushes and mattresses, but men who work in the dark are not on equal terms of competition with those who work in the light; therefore, with just enough exceptions to prove the rule, the blind require care, sympathy and assistance from the cradle to the grave.

Many people, immersed in their own affairs, do not think of this or understand it. At first they are surprised that the blind can do anything, and loud are the expressions of wonder and admiration from visitors at our school. Later, they assume that because a blind person has been taught in the school for the blind he can paddle his own canoe as well as a person with sight, and if one fails to earn a living and goes to the poorhouse the management of the school is criticized. How many people with sight make only a bare living, and some less than that. Let the successful business man, or the educated woman, shut the eyes, empty the pockets, cut the acquaintance of friends, and estimate how much he or she could earn per day in that condition. It is not fair to say that, because the Legislature supports a school for the education of the blind, the good people of the country are thereby relieved of personal responsibility for the welfare of the blind. Statistics compiled in various States correspond so closely that it is safe to apply them to any other State or Province similarly situated. Thus we know that 90 per cent. of the blind in New York State are over 20 years of age; that 45 per cent. are between the ages of 20 and 49, and that 70 per cent. of these became blind after reaching the age of 20. What shall be done for the able-bodied adults who become blind after passing the school age? What for the graduates of the schools who for lack of capital or business ability cannot profitably employ themselves?

Presumably there are in the Province of Ontario more than 2,000 blind persons, of whom 200 are of or under school age. There should be shops where, under sighted supervision, the adult blind could be taught to work and be supplied with steady employment, the State making up the loss, if any, of the enterprise. Such shops are found in Michigan, in Wisconsin, in Massachusetts and in many parts of Europe, and it is within the power of the National Council of Women to secure their establishment and maintenance in Ontario. The sighted boy does not learn his trade along with his grammar and arithmetic, but enters upon his apprenticeship in the shop after he leaves school. The workshop for adults should be entirely separate from the school for children, preferably in another city. The chance to work, as compared with moping idleness, is of inestimable value to the blind man or woman. If the members of the Council could read the letters on file at the institution in Brantford, from and on behalf of the adult blind, pleading for a chance to be taught to work, no argument would be required to demonstrate the need for such shops. The women of Massachusetts have a well organized and very useful system of home-teaching

for the blind. The women of Brooklyn, N.Y., maintain a Home for Blind Babies, which is doing a world of good in a quiet way. Pennsylvania has a field officer, who travels through the State, hunting up the blind, teaching them to read and to work, and incidentally locating and canvassing such children as are eligible for admission to the schools for the blind. The Misses Holt in New York City organized the Association for the Blind, which has its headquarters, offices and salesrooms at 118 East 59th Street, with a factory for blind men and a special committee for the prevention of blindness, the motto of the association being "Light through work." The first step was to secure an accurate census of the blind of the State. The ladies of Massachusetts, to quote a speaker at the Boston Convention of Workers for the Blind in 1907, camped on the steps of the State House until they secured a permanent commission, maintained by the State, in the interests of the blind. The achievements of Mrs. E. M. Chapman, in Dayton, Ohio; of Mrs. Blalock, in Spokane; of Miss Harriet Rees, in St. Louis, on behalf of the blind, show what women can accomplish when their interest is aroused. The detailed story of these achievements could be read in the reports which Mr. Gardiner had brought with him for the perusal of those interested. He was proud of the work done by the schools for the blind, but it was not enough. Legislators are human and they do not meet trouble more than half way. They will act when they are pushed by public opinion, and it takes the ladies to create public opinion and make it felt. The lines of work he had suggested were worthy of the best efforts of the best women in this or any country. They would not find the ability of a Helen Keller in every blind girl, nor the genius of Homer or Milton in every blind man. In some places they would encounter ingratitude and lack of appreciation. But if it is true that the way to be happy is to make others happy there is abundant recompense in store for those who labor to bless and uplift the blind, and he would unhesitatingly recommend it to the members of the Council of Women as one of the paths to be followed when they go about doing good.

Mrs. Dennis, Halifax, told of the work carried on in Dr. Fraser's School in Nova Scotia. 167 children were on the register last year. Children attend school as young as six years of age and are allowed to stay in the school for seven years after they are ten years of age. An adult may attend school for three years. The school is supported by the Government. \$180 is paid per pupil, the actual cost being \$225 per pupil. All branches of work are taught, especially music.

A paper was read by Miss Doolittle, of Philadelphia, on the work in the Widener Memorial School for Crippled Children.

#### THE WORK AND METHODS EMPLOYED AT THE WIDENER MEMORIAL INDUSTRIAL TRAINING SCHOOL FOR CRIPPLED CHILDREN.

Ladies of the National Council of Women of Canada, Quinquennial Congress, International Council of Women:

I have been asked to give an account of our work at the Widener Memorial School and will not take all of the time allowed for the work, feeling sure that a shorter talk with more time for questions will be more satisfactory.

The Widener Memorial Industrial Training School for Crippled Children was erected and endowed by Mr. P. A. B. Widener as a memorial to his wife, Josephine, and in memory of his son, Harry K.

The school is situated in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on North Broad Street.

The grounds consist of thirty-two acres of lawn, gardens, woodland and playgrounds.

The buildings are of the Colonial style of architecture. There is the large central hospital building with four cottages built around, two at either end of the main building. Two cottages are for the children, one for boys and the other for the girls; one cottage is for the nurses. The fourth is for industrial work, school-rooms, sewing-rooms, brace and shoe shop, and in the basement there is the large power-house, furnishing heat and light, including refrigerating and ice-plants.

On a different part of the grounds and some distance from the main building is the Isolation Ward. There is also a cottage for the head gardener, another for the chief engineer, together with stable and cottage buildings.

The following are the conditions upon which the children are admitted: Special days for examination of applicants are appointed. The Board of Surgeons and Physicians give each case most careful consideration. Dr. DeForest Willard, Professor of Orthopaedic Surgery in the University of Pennsylvania, is the chief surgeon-in-charge, coming one day each week during the winter to perform such operations as he considers necessary for the improvement of the pupils in the school. In some cases several operations are necessary before the desired result is reached.

The next condition for the consideration of admission. Is the case really worthy; do the parents need to place the child away from home? The object of Mr. Widener is to care only for poor children—no charge being made.

On admission they must be between the ages of four and ten years. Parents or guardians must sign an Indenture binding the child over to the Trustees of the Institution until it shall come of age. It must be of good mental condition; feeble-minded or backward children are not eligible. It must be a permanent cripple as a result of disease and not of accident, and giving promise of improvement under treatment. A child that does not present evidence that it could become at least partially self-supporting, is not eligible.

The children are first admitted to the Isolation Ward and remain there for three weeks in order to prevent carrying infection to the children in the school. From there they are transferred to the Hospital Department, where every possible improvement is made regardless of time and effort required. In the daytime go-

carts or stretcher-beds are provided, enabling the children to be with the other children out of doors, in the dining-room, and in some cases, even in school.

One little girl was admitted suffering with paralysis of both legs, resulting from spinal caries. This little one was kept constantly in the open air, day and night, for over a year. After the long tiresome treatment this little girl of whom I speak is now up with body and head brace, going to school at nine years of age for the first time in her life, and is in very good condition; although the cases of this nature are hard to bring to maturity and are usually very frail.

Many of the apparently helpless and hopeless cases following infantile spinal paralysis are wonderfully helped by surgical operations, after which massage and electricity are employed with gymnasium work and the help of apparatus and braces to strengthen and support.

Not one, but many, of our children tell this story when asked about their trouble: "No, I did not walk before my operation, but I can now."

The very best hygienic conditions are essential for good results, as many of the children are tubercular, and others are frail from poor food and unhealthy home surroundings. Many of the children sleep on open porches. Only in acute illness are the children confined to bed and the ward proper. Fresh air, plenty of good nourishing food, regular hours for study, play and sleep, keep the children in good health and the resident physician and the trained nurses find very little medicine necessary under these conditions.

As soon as the children reach the age required and their health will permit, they are advanced from the hospital to the cottages, where they receive the direct care of a house-mother, who is expected to maintain as far as possible the conditions of home life; to train the children to be orderly, older girls to care for their rooms and clothing and be helpful one to another.

The school work is started when the physical condition of the child permits. Kindergarten work is taught to the little ones. The grades correspond to those in the Philadelphia Public Schools, and every pupil will secure a good common school education.

All children receive instruction in singing and sight-reading. The better voices have been organized into a choir for the Sunday services. Some of the girls who have shown special talent are being taught to play the piano and the organ. A brass band of fifteen instruments has been under instruction for over a year and has made wonderful progress. The object of the band is not alone for pleasure, but it will be used as a means of livelihood for many of its members, and is part of the Educational Department. Children showing sufficient talent will be given a musical education. Manual training is commenced later on in the school course. Classes in Sloyd, reed, raffia and beadwork, caning and chair repairing and the elementary manual department are all that are being held at present. The more advanced trades have not been

started, as our oldest pupils are but fourteen years of age and the school has not been open three years.

Trades will be selected from the following: farming, gardening, floriculture, care of poultry and stock, dairying, carpentry and wood work, use and care of machines and engines, operation of elevators, leather work and making of shoes, brace-making, tailoring, dressmaking and millinery, stenography, bookkeeping, telegraphy and literary work, printing, and cooking, housekeeping and laundering.

Wages will be paid to advanced students, who will then be charged for board. In this way the value of money will be learned—which is hard for children brought up in an institution to acquire in any other way.

A saving fund has been established to cultivate habits of economy.

The pupils will remain in the school until the age of twenty-one, when it is hoped that they will be wholly or partially self-supporting.

Mr. Widener's object is to make all of the pupils proud of their connection with the school and not to shun it in after years. For this reason he spares no expense in their care and upbringing. They are not dressed alike. Each child is given individual consideration in the selection of becoming clothes. Dresses are made in pretty styles. Suits are made to fit. Special clothes are provided for Sundays and festivals. One of the greatest punishments for one of our girls is to deprive her of her white dress on Sunday. Great care is taken of the children's hair, which in the case of some of our little girls is really beautiful. A barber comes two days in each month to cut the boys' hair, keeping it in perfect order. The school dentist comes each week, giving careful attention to the children's teeth. In fact everything is done that can be to make the children healthy and attractive under their sad physical conditions. The result is all that can be desired.

When I was showing visitors through the school not long ago, one said to me:—"I notice such a remarkable condition compared with other homes. Here are these little children with everything to make them sad, and instead of discontent, I find the merriest set of children that I have ever seen in any place, and so helpful one to another."

The boys have a baseball team and the little ones a goat and cart, swings and merry-go-rounds, speeders, express wagons and everything the most exacting child could wish for.

One question I have been so often asked: "What will become of these children when they are ready to leave? You have taken them from homes of poverty and brought them up in a condition of almost luxury. Must they go back to their old surroundings?" Even in this emergency Mr. Widener has looked after the future of the children he has cared for so bountifully. An inn or boarding house will be erected on the grounds for the children not sufficiently self-supporting to have the necessary comforts and home

life, and for all who care to remain, making it their home, paying a certain per cent. of their wage-earning capacity.

Another feature has developed with Mr. Widener's plan to elevate the children and one hardly looked for with such marked result. It in every case is educating the parents and brothers and sisters. Mothers who brought the children in a ragged, dirty condition to be admitted, come to visit them every Sunday afternoon and in a very short time a change is noticed in the brothers and sisters who visit them; they are clean and better dressed; the mothers are more gentle and the children quiet and orderly.

One mother told one of our nurses just a few days ago that she had noticed such a change in her boy's language, and that he had helped her very much. The children are taught to study and work, to be able to help their parents when their schooling is over.

The school is non-sectarian. The principles of the Christian religion are taught. Grace is said in concert at the table; the Lord's Prayer on retiring at night. On Sunday evening a short service is held, which all attend. The larger boys and girls are taken on Sunday mornings, when the weather permits, to church services nearby. Roman Catholic children are permitted to attend their own church at certain times.

Every measure is employed to make the children's life as nearly as possible like that of normal children, and to give them pleasure and recreation as far as is consistent with their work and discipline.

During the summer all the children are taken three or four times to one of the summer parks, several special cars being provided by Mr. Widener for their use. Many of the children are taken in rolling chairs, others are carried. Dinner is served at the park and the children are taken to all the different amusements, including a boat ride on the lake.

At all times the children are most carefully watched and cared for by trained attendants, not being left alone at any time. Graduate nurses train the under nurses in their duties and every night, Sunday excepted, the children are given a warm tub bath. The hair is washed every two weeks and in this respect we have absolutely none of the usual trouble.

In every way the children have the most careful attention and in a short time a great change is noticed.

One little girl was taken in and as chicken-pox developed during the isolation period, her mother did not see her for six weeks after her admission to the school; when she did, she did not know her, and asked the nurse where her little girl was. On being told, she said: "Oh, that can't be my little Cecilia. She is so pretty, I did not know her." The arrangement of the hair, a pretty ribbon and cleanliness was the magic used.

Another little girl, on being told she would perhaps have to leave the school, as her parents intended returning to Italy, and Mr. Widener did not wish to use his prerogative under the indenture to detain the child in America, came in great distress to ask if she must go. When her father found how attached the little

one was to the school he gave up his wish to return home. That night the little girl said to the nurse when she was having her bath: "You see, if I had gone home, I would not have had this nice bath. I did not get bathed at home." I remember so well her day of admission, how frightened she was when put in the bath, and as she spoke little English it was hard to understand what caused her alarm.

Do not understand that all the attention is given to the bodily care of the children. Really more time and care is spent in developing the mental and spiritual side, although the result of this training is much slower, and we often become discouraged. It is not an easy task, nor light responsibility, to take ninety children from their homes, where their discipline has been lax, if any, and in each case, try faithfully to treat each child as nearly as possible as if the child was one's own. To make the children want to try to be helpful requires a vast amount of energy and years of time. If left unassisted, untrained, and uncontrolled, many cases would grow up dependent upon the charity, either of their own family or of the State. Even in these three short years much improvement has already been shown and all connected with the work feel greatly encouraged by the individual progress of practically every scholar.

The Widener Memorial Industrial Training School for Crippled Children has furnished the suggestion for several prospective institutions of like nature, both private and public, in America and Europe.

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#### AFTERNOON SESSION.

Chairman, Mrs. Hoodless.

Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon gave an address on

#### EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION AND EMPLOYMENT BUREAUX.

The foregoing generation saw a great philanthropic movement for the building of hospitals and institutions for the care of the sick; but we of the present generation, while recognizing that the sick will be always with us, and endeavouring in every way to alleviate suffering, are making strenuous efforts to reduce their number and break up the old-time association of poverty and sickness. Given good housing and sanitation, good water and wholesome food supply, poverty need never in itself be a contributory cause of sickness, even in large cities. In our large municipalities a Public Health Department is now occupied in an organized movement to provide fit and proper conditions of existence for all, and there is little doubt that in time public health will be safeguarded in every direction. The success of any movement of social reform depends ultimately upon the enlightenment of the people, and all workers for the public good realize that the chief hope for the future centres in the proper upbringing and education of our children. Their minds are to be the vehicle for giving effect to reform,

and the best laws are of no use on paper unless the children in the homes and in the schools are being brought up in the habit and spirit of such laws. Fuller knowledge of social weaknesses has led us to a number of reforms in connection with the schools, such as the medical inspection of school children, the introduction of courses of manual training and domestic teaching, the care of the mentally defective or slow children in special schools, the institution of continuation classes and trade schools in order to supplement the workshop training of our boys and girls by systematic teaching and practice along lines useful to them in their various careers. The particular point to which I wish to draw attention is the usefulness of supplying to our boys and girls on leaving school some expert advice and guidance as to the kind of work for which their school record and their special bent seem best to fit them, and also to assist them in being put into touch with employers under whom situations are vacant.

The ages from fourteen to eighteen are all-important, not only for the moral development of the boy or girl, but also for his success as a citizen and as a worker in this vast economy of our nations.

An outstanding weakness in our present system of local government is its lack of adequate provision for moral training and disciplinary control for the individual units after they leave the elementary school. We treat our young population in bulk: in an impersonal, far-off way, quite unsuited to the immature minds of boys and girls at fourteen years of age. At that age the majority are unfit to endure the scorching tests and temptations of industrial city life. Their range of experience is limited, and their tastes and opinions, so far as they have any, are those of their companions and surroundings. In the springtime of their lives, overridden with young impulses, passions and emotions, they require individual care and consideration, and also to be allowed time and opportunity to develop themselves physically and mentally.

Of course the care and attention of the parents is far beyond any other that we may hope to supply, but in a young country like this the parents have not always sufficient leisure to give full consideration to the choice of careers for their children. Moreover, the parents may rise rapidly in the social scale and the children look to future careers which were not within the bounds of the parents themselves. In such cases those parents and the boys and girls themselves, are undoubtedly the better of some guidance, some consultation with those of wider knowledge, who have particularly educated and trained themselves to be experts in the matter of the careers open to young people.

There are, of course, many industries and trades which cannot be entered by a boy or girl until about sixteen years of age. In the home country boys and girls leave school in large numbers at fourteen to sixteen—I believe the number here is rather fewer—and possibly engage as messenger girls or boys, or newspaper sellers or in some form of trade. A certain proportion of the boys continue in the newspaper selling traffic by becoming, as it were, large

employers of younger boys. It may interest you to know that in Glasgow recent statistics showed that seventy-five per cent. of the boys engaged in street trading afterwards landed in prison. In Toronto you have a Newsboys' School which has done excellent service, in which these lads may continue their work under control, and efforts in this direction have recently been made in the home land.

In the Old Country we find that the majority of our young people avoid anything like apprenticeship, partly because of a certain amount of limitation upon their free-will involved, and partly on account of the protracted period of small wages before the journeyman's wage can begin. In the early years the wage of the unskilled factory worker is higher than that of the apprentice to a trade: but at twenty or twenty-one the boy labourer in a factory can only become a man labourer at a low wage for an adult and insecurity of employment, whereas the apprentice has the secure future of a skilled journeyman. We frequently find that the parents even encourage their boys and girls to take up occupations which are not skilled and which do not lead to skilled work, in order to bring in a larger weekly wage. The difference is sometimes as much as one or two dollars a week in favour of the young boy labourer or unskilled factory worker over the apprentice at a skilled trade. Factory work is now done largely by automatic machinery which has simply to be fed by these unskilled workers and demands little intelligence. It becomes extremely monotonous, and a factory worker in hours of leisure is all the more apt to break out of bounds. If a lad continues in unskilled work for a few years at this period of his life the result may be disastrous to his prospects, unless he has taken the precautionary measure of continuing attendance at evening school and fitting himself to take up some higher class of work.

There is nowadays a great deal of semi-skilled work, arising from two main causes. One of these is that after entering on apprenticeship, many boys tire of it and drop out before they complete their trade training. Some lads go from one master to another, tempted by an occasionally larger wage at a time of pressure in any large works. These lads acquire a certain amount of skill, but can never hope to enter the ranks at the maximum wage given to skilled workmen. They can only remain as semi-skilled workers at a wage somewhere between that of the unskilled workman and the trained journeyman. The other cause is a real demand for the semi-skilled worker owing to the increased use of machinery in nearly every trade. Whole trades have had to be reorganized in consequence. A paper box making machine, for example, will now do work that would formerly have required thousands of hands to accomplish in the same time. The more intelligent and industrious boys and girls entering a factory may raise themselves to be in charge of a machine and to get wages as semi-skilled workers.

We are face to face in every industrial town with an increasing crowd of semi-skilled and unskilled workers who, if systematic guidance had been furnished in early youth, were capable of better

efforts and results. Their lot would be improved if from the ages of fourteen to seventeen habits of thrift and moral rectitude could be impressed. A more hopeful future would result also if they were still given some mental stimulation and interest; if the class work at Continuation Classes were made popular and attractive, producing greater efficiency of the individual in his daily occupation, and a more intelligent grasp of his responsibilities as a citizen. Under present conditions of factory labour some provision for recreative influences of a healthful kind is especially called for, and this could be grafted into a broadened scheme of Continuation Class work.

For five years I have been putting before the public of Great Britain and before our affiliated National Council of Women a proposal to establish in connection with our schools some bureau or special department for information and employment to which the boys and girls might turn for some advice and guidance on leaving school. The director in charge of such a bureau would be on the one hand in touch with the schools and the teachers and in a position to know the individual bent and aptitude of the scholars, and on the other hand would keep in touch with the local employers and workshops, and be an expert in the matter of the local industries. He would be able to consult with the teachers or parents or both, if desired, and would use all means in order to advise the boy or girl in the choice of a wage-earning occupation likely to prove congenial, so that every boy or girl should really be given the best of chances in regard to his or her future. Up to the present time we have had a large amount of haphazardism in the matter of selection of careers. There should be in our school system a recognized department known to the teachers, to the scholars, to the parents and to the public, where boys and girls would go as a matter of routine as they leave the school, and could be given accurate information on the various occupation\* and wages given, the demands for such work in the locality, and farther afield, the technical classes that might be attended, etc.

The Bureau would also serve as an Employment Agency to which employers might apply for their younger employees, and they would no doubt be willing to pay a small fee to an authorized bureau. By means of scholarships given at Continuation Classes deserving boys and girls could be helped to enter apprenticeships or to pursue any commercial or other courses specially desired. And in the case of boys and girls whose school record showed exceptional intellectual attainment, the University would be in view.

Accurate statistics would be kept in the Bureau regarding local trades, industries and professions, the openings in each, the remuneration, best means of training and cost of such, whether such trades were crowded or not, etc. Cheap pamphlets might be circulated covering the following groups:—

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\*Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon published in 1908 a "Handbook of Employments," giving all such information for Scotland. (Rosemount Press, Aberdeen, Scotland, 40c. post free.)

(a) Skilled trades and occupations involving apprenticeship, the wages during that term and afterwards.

(b) Less skilled trades and occupations or factory work, where the beginner does not serve an apprenticeship, but learns the work in a comparatively short time, with the wages given to beginners and experts.

(c) Unskilled labour connected with almost all trades and industries; the demand for boy labour; its relation to subsequent employment. The influence of the Bureau would be in the interests of the boys and girls, and would discourage the wastage of early youth.

(d) Casual labour and local occupations of quite temporary character for young boys and girls, ceasing at definite ages, such as the delivery of parcels, selling newspapers, etc. A systematic knowledge of local conditions in these occupations could not but be advantageous and helpful to the local authority.

This Bureau work should be managed by the school authority and the boys and girls reached before they leave school. The Bureau would secure the sympathy and co-operation of employers, increase the feeling of responsibility of parents and employers for the welfare of young workers, and bring the methods of teaching in Continuation and Technical Classes more into touch with actual requirements of workshops and offices. There should be a General Committee in connection with the Bureau, comprising representatives from such bodies as the Board of Trade, Trades Councils, Technical Institutes and voluntary organizations for social work. The work of the Bureau would include a certain supervision in the interests of the scholars over the terms made by employers in the various trades and industries; and it might also advise as to possible careers in professional and Civil Service work. By means of exchange of information between Bureaux conditions of congestion or scarcity of labour could be avoided.

The Hon. Winston Churchill, on the second reading of his "Labour Exchange" Bill in the British Parliament, proposed to co-ordinate the Labour Exchanges for adults with Employment Bureaux for young workers conducted by the local education authorities. Mr. Churchill, in this proposal, supports the point of view which I have all along advocated—that the education authority is in the main responsible for the proper training and due development of the boy or girl up to the age of eighteen.

The work before us is a very great and very important one, probably the widest and most responsible field of social work that has yet been opened before public-spirited men and women; and the future well-being of our industrial population and of our country depends upon its being done fully, systematically and ungrudgingly.

Mr. James L. Hughes spoke in discussion on this paper, advocating the thorough training of all sides of the child's nature.

Miss Baelde, Holland, then read two papers on "Information Bureaux for Women."

## INFORMATION BUREAUX.

It is now about fifteen years ago that on the instigation of Mrs. Boddaert (one of our delegates at this Congress) and Mrs. Van der Laan, our first Information Bureau for Women was founded. Both ladies were hardworking members on the Executive of the General Society for Women. This society, bearing the name of one of our well-known women of our Golden Age, the 17th century, was founded to help women who had had an education but no money, or had lost their money in later life, to find a livelihood. It then occurred to those ladies that it was not only a position most of the women were wanting, but also good advice; and they soon found that it was not only those who wanted help, but also those who wanted to help who needed advice. As this society has its branches all over the country they tried to find a lady who would direct an information bureau in every branch and give a monthly report of her work to the General Bureau. Some of the ladies set to work with great enthusiasm, and it is especially in our larger towns than these bureaux have done, and do still, a great deal of work. At first they were only professional, but by and by we found that good advice in time is half the work; and so very soon these bureaux have become educational as well as professional. Surely the best teacher is experience. The lady directors of these bureaux soon saw how many unskilled women wanted work, and how often the least educated thought themselves fit for everything. As the society is existing through annual contributions of the members, it was thought best not to spend money on new buildings or schools, but rather to pay the expenses in whole or in part of the education of those girls who showed intelligence and zeal and to send them to already existing educational institutions. Of course we found gaps, and many of our ladies helped to erect new professional schools. We also began courses for different professions; that for nursery governess, for instance, proved a great success. It is now about fifteen years since I myself began to direct the bureau at Rotterdam, and I can hardly tell how interesting this work proves to be. Of course it takes a great deal of time, but it certainly makes life worth living. We are greatly helped by the teachers of all the schools. In the last years, now that our continuation schools prove such a success, many girls find their own way easily; but still a great many parents want advice, and it is mainly through personal contact with girls and parents that we work.

This is the great difference between Tesselschade's Information Bureau and that founded by Marie Yunguis some time after the Exhibition of Women's Work in 1908. We at first thought that it would be double work for the same aim, but on the contrary it has proved that these bureaux supplement each other. While we work more individually, the National Bureau works more in general and issues lists that everybody can study for herself. This Bureau, under control of the National Society for Women's Work, is now under the direction of Miss Anna Polak.

The National Society for Women's Work wishes to attain its purpose, the extension of the sphere of women's activity in the Netherlands and Colonies, principally through the National Bureau of Women's Work, which, as a continuation of the National Exhibition of Women's Work (held in 1898) intends to be a centre of information with regard to all women's work in our country.

This Bureau gathers and registers all information about professional instruction, wages, and other conditions of women's work in the different professions, about the numbers of women working in each branch, etc.; and it gives advice and information as to those matters.

Especially on the subject of professional instruction the Bureau has made extensive inquiries, the results of which were laid down in statistical lists and booklets. Since the establishment of the Bureau in November, 1900, such lists were made for: Pharmacy and assistance in pharmacy; gardening; hygiene, gymnastics and massage; housekeeping and cookery: nursery work; arts and crafts; architectural drawing.

Many other inquiries were made by the Bureau, generally on the subject of the conditions under which professional work is done by women, and on the practical results of labour legislation concerning women. The results of those inquiries were published in the following books:—

- I. Full account of the data about wiring and stringing herrings on pens by women.
- II. Married women in field work.
- III. The professional information-book: extract of the professional statistics of 1899. (This book contains the number of married and unmarried women in each profession in 1899.)
- IV. Ten years' practice of the labour laws. Extract from the reports of the labour inspectors referring to the substitution of women in the industry; the results of an inquiry by the Bureau on the same points.
- V. Women's work in the brick industry.
- VI. Statistical review of the professional labour of children.
- VII. Data about the question of lead-poisoning in potteries.
- VIII. Education of orphans in private families, paid by boards of charity.
- IX. Women's work in the communal telephone service in the Netherlands.
- X. Some data about the results of the articles in our labour law, containing the prohibition of women's work in industries during four weeks after confinement.
- XI. What do the Netherlands do for their working women in childbed?
- XII. Some remarks referring to the conditions of shop employees.
- XIII. House-nursing (general and maternity-nursing, assistance in housekeeping, etc.) in the Netherlands and in other countries.

The library of the Bureau, containing a considerable number of publications concerning women's work and emancipation, political economy, social legislation, etc., etc., continually receives valuable books, reports and statistics from the Government, from the Central Statistical Office, from corporations and private persons. The Bureau also daily receives about 90 newspapers from which all notices about women's work are cut out and registered.

On three different occasions when the Government was going to make special clauses for special classes of working women, e.g., women preparing herrings, women in the brick industry, women in potteries, the Bureau made extensive inquiries, the results of which were published and sent to the members of Parliament. These inquiries and information had a beneficial influence on these laws.

A large number of women asked and got advice from the Bureau about Professional Instruction, its cost, the time required and the prospects; about conditions for special branches of work, etc., etc.; and numbers of women got good advice regarding their plans for the future or for making their talents productive.

When, however, addresses are to be sent to the Government, in order to ask for better conditions or laws for special classes of working women or to claim more rights for women, it is not the Bureau but the Committee of the National Society for Women's Work that acts; as the Bureau is only the offspring of this Society.

The Society and the Bureau both hope not only to enlarge the sphere of women's activity and to ameliorate the conditions of women's work, but also to strengthen the working women's consciousness and self-respect and to heighten the men's appreciation for their female fellow-workers.

The Bureau is also the Editor of a most useful little calendar in which every information or indication concerning women's institutions or women's societies is to be found.

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### DAY TRADE SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS IN ENGLAND,

Was read by Miss Zimmern.

According to the figures of the last census, rather more than one out of every three females over 10 years of age in London, or, to be exact, 37.3 per cent., were working for a weekly wage. Yet the importance which women workers have assumed in the industrial world seems hardly as yet sufficiently realized. Old-fashioned people still talk as though the one skilled trade open to women were that of housewife or domestic servant. This is, of course, ludicrously untrue of women as a class; but it is not even true of married women. Whole departments of male workers, as the recent Poor Law Commission has revealed, are exposed to constant fear of unemployment, against which they are unable to insure. So long as this is so, thousands of girls when they marry must still contemplate the possibility of having to earn their own livelihood; and it is not surprising to find a fair proportion of married women and widows (8.8 per cent. of the women over 10 years of age) at work for weekly wages.

It is to promote the industrial efficiency of all these women wage earners that the movement for Day Trade Schools for Girls in London has sprung up.

The movement originated in some investigations undertaken by the Women's Industrial Council into the condition of women in the various skilled trades. Inquiry showed that though the lower branches of such trades were overcrowded with inefficient workers, the higher departments were not adequately filled; there was a real dearth of intelligent women with sufficient originality and initiative to qualify for the more responsible and better paid posts.

There are several possible methods of dealing with this situation.

An attempt is being made in one direction by means of the traditional system of apprenticeship, which has been somewhat revived of late through the energies of the Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association and other similar bodies. But they have very great difficulties to contend with, owing to the growing subdivision of labour. It is becoming harder every year for a young worker to obtain a good all-round training in the workroom. Many firms concern themselves only with two or three minor departments of their trade, and clearly cannot satisfactorily undertake the training of apprentices, to whom an all-round knowledge of every important branch of their craft is necessary as a safeguard against the ever changing industrial conditions.

Another disadvantage of this system of training is the long hours of work, often the full 10½ allowed by the Factory Act, which frequently prove very trying to girls of 14 years of age straight from school. It is a common experience for those interested in these young people to find that as a rule their general health suffers when first they go out to work: they get pale and anaemic and it is sometimes years before they get over the effects of their first plunge into the rush and stress of workroom life.

A second method is that of evening Trade Classes. But these, though they have done so much for men workers, have not been very successful in furthering the industrial skill of women. For women are rarely in a position to take advantage of them. Their long hours of work, unregulated by trade unionism, make them disinclined to continue working at their trade in the evening, and it is doubtful whether their physique would permit the strain, even if they had the time and inclination to do so. It must also be remembered that the home makes a greater demand upon the woman worker than on the man; there is housework to be done; there are clothes to be made and mended; there are children to be looked after and occupied after the day's work is nominally over—duties which all fall to the share of the woman, married and unmarried alike.

It was with these considerations in mind that amid much scepticism and with many misgivings the Governors of the Borough Polytechnic, aided by a small grant from the London County Council, began the experiment of a day trade class in waistcoat making, which started in October, 1904, with 11 pupils. On the completion

of the first school year the success of the new class was sufficiently assured to justify the extension of the principle, and similar classes in dressmaking and upholstery commenced work in September, 1905. It is, however, chiefly owing to the appointment by the London County Council of a woman organizer of trade classes, and at the same time to the co-option on to their Education Committee in March, 1905, of a woman who made trade schools and trade instruction for women her especial care, that the movement has made such progress.

Before going any further it may be well to explain that the English Trade Schools for Girls are still confined to London. Several other towns, notably Brighton and Bradford, have been considering the matter, but none of them has as yet taken action.

In March, 1909, there were in London five Trade Schools at work, three under the immediate control of the London County Council, and two at Polytechnics. They are the Central Trade School for Girls now at Westminster, but soon to be moved into new premises specially built for the purpose at Bloomsbury, and the Trade Schools in the Paddington and Shoreditch Technical Institutes and the Borough and Woolwich Polytechnics. The nine different trades taught in these schools are dressmaking at four centres, ladies' tailoring and upholstery each at two, the designing and making of ready-made clothing, waistcoat making, corset making, millinery, laundry work and photography at one centre each. In April, 1909, a new Trade School at Hammersmith was opened with classes in dressmaking, millinery and upholstery, and a new class at the Woolwich Polytechnic in ladies' tailoring, thus showing the rapid progress made in the work from year to year.

The schools are open from 30 to 35 hours per week for 44 weeks in the year, and the course of instruction extends over two years; about two-thirds of the time is devoted to definite trade instruction under a trade teacher who has worked her way up through all the various grades of the trade, and the remainder of the time to continuing the general education of the pupils. The subjects selected vary slightly according to the school and the trade. English, including history and business correspondence, arithmetic, drawing and physical exercises, are common to all; embroidery is taught to the dressmaking, ladies' tailoring and millinery pupils; figure drawing and black and white to the photography pupils, and elementary chemistry and bookkeeping to the laundry pupils. While in some cases hygiene, cookery or general domestic subjects are also taught.

The trade instruction is thoroughly practical in character. The pupils are taught one definite skilled trade by teachers in intimate relations with workroom conditions. In one case, for example, the dressmaking teacher keeps in close touch with the varying requirements of the trade by going back as a fitter for two afternoons a week to the firm in which she was previously employed. But though the work is specialized, there is not the same minute subdivision of labour as in the workroom. The dressmaking pupils, for instance, are equally capable at skirts, bodices and sleeves; the

upholstery pupils work at every branch of the trade from drapery to leather work; the photography pupils have experience at every stage of their art, from developing and printing to spotting and retouching. The Trade School pupil carries through a piece of work from start to finish; she has the pleasure of the craftsman in complete achievement and is saved the dull monotony which is so impossible to avoid in the workroom, and which is apt to fall especially to the share of the young worker. When once a simple process has been mastered the pupil passes on to some new difficulty, and she can be given responsible work demanding skill and intelligence in a way that would be quite impossible in an ordinary workroom.

Another notable characteristic is the connection between the schools of the different trades. The plan adopted has been to group several trade classes together in one building, so as to form one Trade School, rather than to open isolated classes for separate trades in many different districts. Thus the pupils in one section have the opportunity of seeing the work of another section, gaining an insight into the requirements and possibilities of another trade and incidentally broadening their mental horizon in a way that would not otherwise be possible. It is useful, too, as facilitating the sifting of students. A pupil not doing well in one section can be transferred to another trade for which she may be more suitable; for instance, a girl fond of needlework, but too heavy-handed for millinery or dressmaking, may be very successful at ladies' tailoring or upholstery. The Trade School may thus do much to prevent the disaster of a girl being placed in an unsuitable or uncongenial trade, which later on she may be unable to risk giving up.

An essential feature of the Trade School is the Advisory Committee of trade experts, who generously place their technical knowledge at the service of the school authorities. They select the trade teacher, inspect the work of each pupil at regular intervals, and determine the course of the technical instruction. It is thanks to this constant supervision of employers in the trade, that the work of these schools is entirely free from any trace of amateurishness. This is still further ensured by the fact that as far as is compatible with a thorough and systematic training of the pupils, these schools accept orders. On the other hand, they cannot be said in any way to compete with the trade, as in every case the work is subordinated to the worker; her training is the primary object, and everything else must subserve that end; a customer who is not willing to wait three months for her dress and select its material and style according to the necessities of the school curriculum, must go to an ordinary dressmaker and not to a Trade School.

Though good work rather than speed is the first consideration in the Trade School, it must not be imagined that the girls are allowed to get into a slow habit of work. Every piece of work is timed, and the number of hours spent on it noted on a label, time tests are set at intervals during the two years, and during the last three months the pupils are speeded up as much as possible, so

that they may not feel the change to the hurry and rush of the workroom more than is absolutely necessary.

The school year begins at Easter, so that the pupils leave at the beginning of the busy season. Up to the present there has not been any difficulty in finding suitable openings for all the pupils trained.

Admission to these schools can be obtained in three ways. More than half the students are holders of trade scholarships awarded by the London County Council as the result of a competitive examination in English and Arithmetic, and a qualifying examination, where necessary for the trade, in needlework and drawing. These scholarships are tenable for two years, and entitle the holder to free instruction and a maintenance grant of £8 the first year and £12 the second year. Candidates must not be less than 14 or more than 16 years of age on the 31st of March preceding their entrance into the school, and if they come from a public elementary school they must be working in the sixth or a higher standard. 126 of these scholarships were awarded in 1908, and the number has been increased to 168 in 1909.

Pupils are also admitted by payment of the school fee of 10s per term or £1 10s a year. Candidates must in this case be at least 14 years of age or have obtained a certificate of exemption from attendance at the Elementary School. There is no upward age limit for paying pupils.

Free places are also awarded by the London County Council and the Polytechnic Governors.

During the year ending April, 1909, 361 pupils were attending the different Trade Schools; of these pupils 191 were holding County Council scholarships, 86 were paying school fees, and 85 had free places. The number of pupils in the various trades was as follows: Dressmaking, 146; upholstery, 56; ladies' tailoring, 45; the designing and making of ready-made clothing, 39; corset making, 22; waistcoat making, 15; millinery, 15; photography, 12; laundry work, 9; in the last three cases the classes were only started in April, 1908, so that the numbers quoted were for first year girls only.

In England the Trade School movement is still too young to admit of any definite conclusion as to its success in promoting industrial efficiency. The first waistcoat makers left the school in the spring of 1906, the first dressmakers and upholsterers only in the spring of 1907. So far the results are distinctly encouraging, but it will be some time before it will be safe to point to any conclusive results. As a rule the pupils have taken positions as young assistants, experience showing that it is better for them to begin in a comparatively low position where they will be able to learn workroom methods without any burden of responsibility. Their school training should enable them to pass through the various stages more rapidly than would otherwise be the case, and they should ultimately rise to the higher branches of their trade where inquiry shows there is a demand for intelligent and responsible workers.

A few words may be said as to the prospects of the movement. Progress may be looked for in several directions.

Firstly, arrangements could be made for "old girls" to return to the school for longer or shorter periods of training in the slack seasons. Where the "old girls" are kept in touch with the school by means of evening clubs or even more irregular social gatherings, this ought not to be difficult to organize.

Secondly, new trades could be included among the number taught in these schools. A movement is just now on foot to organize the training of girls as nurse maids in some similar way.

Thirdly, the movement may be expected to extend its area from London to the Provinces. It is surely not too much to hope that it may soon be possible for every girl, in whatever part of the country she may be living, to qualify herself, by a period in a Trade School, for industrial life. Women trained in this way will not only improve their own position as individual workers, but will raise the whole standard of work in their trade, thus benefitting not only themselves but their trade and the nation as a whole.

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### INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FOR GIRLS,

By MRS. SEXTON, Halifax, Canada, was read by Mrs. Dennis, Halifax.

Industrial education is a subject which to-day is receiving very wide and careful attention. That point in the development of human activities has been reached where it becomes necessary to adequately prepare boys and girls to earn their own living in the various vocations open to them.

Let us consider a few of the influences that have been at work during the last fifty years to make it necessary for us to face this question just now.

Many, many years ago an educational system was planned, whose aim was to turn out useful and intelligent "citizens," to "fit young men for life." At that time, and for many years, no trade instruction, or vocational training, was thought necessary, because two strong aids to the school existed—the apprenticeship system and the home. The apprenticeship system taught boys their trades; the home taught the girl her trade. Steadily and unceasingly during the last fifty years, production, manufacture, has passed from the home to the factory. Machinery has supplanted hand labor, the apprenticeship system has faded away, and a young man, instead of being apprenticed to a cabinet maker or what not, to learn his trade from A to Z, is now put into a large workshop or factory to learn one small, simple portion of a trade, to operate a machine which does the skilful work he formerly did. He seldom has a chance to learn his trade in its entirety, and his chances of advancement are small.

What of the home, the trade training school for girls? Life has drifted from the country and farm to the city, and our cities

have become tremendous centres, swarming with human life. Women in the home no longer are the producers, the manufacturers, the centres of industry. They no longer spin the yarn, weave the cloth, cure the meats, make their soap, their candles and all the necessary commodities of life. Formerly the daughter of the house was taught to do all these things, aided her mother and in turn made her own home. All this manufacturing is now done in factories. The manufactured, ready-made articles must be bought. It becomes a question of going outside the home to carry on the industries, thereby earning the money to buy the finished article. It is not that women are now beginning to work—they have always worked, but the place in which they work and the conditions under which they work have vastly changed.

The conditions of life, then, in the last fifty years have changed. The three factors that together gave a boy or girl both training in the liberal arts and vocational training, have dwindled to one. The apprenticeship system and the home (considered as the place in which the girl immediately found the occupation which was her living) have vanished; and yet the Public School system remains the same, or very nearly the same. In England, Scotland, Ireland and the countries of the Continent, vocational training has been and is being more and more incorporated in the Public School system, but in the United States and Canada we are only just beginning to realize the question. Steps in the right direction were taken when Manual Training and Domestic Science were introduced into the schools; but no boy or girl yet has been able to obtain employment, has been able to call himself competent in any money-earning trade, as a direct result of training in these subjects as we give them.

The Public School furnishes no training which will enable girls and boys to step from the school into industry for the purpose of earning their living. (We must here except some commercial courses, normal training and Technical High School training. These all reach a very small percentage of girls, and always girls who can afford the time and money to spend several years beyond the end of the Grammar School.) No substitute has ever been given for the old apprenticeship system, and the industrial training furnished for girls in the home.

In the United States the whole question of Industrial Training is being carefully considered. The Massachusetts Commission has been hard at work on the subject and now the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial and Technical Education is engaged in a solution of the problem. In Canada we are just awaking to the importance of it. In my own Province of Nova Scotia the Government has recognized the need of Technical Education, the need of training men to enter the industries as efficient, intelligent, well-trained workmen, and has established a comprehensive system of Technical Education for boys and men. There the Technical Schools are supported by the city or town and the Province together. The city furnishes the building and one-half the cost of

the teachers, and the Province furnishes equipment and the other half the cost of teachers.

In this system, however, no provision has as yet been made for girls, and this fact has led our Local Council of Women in Halifax to consider the whole question of Industrial Training for Girls, more particularly, of course, applied to our own community.

In undertaking this work, we have no idea of encouraging girls to leave the regular Public School and to enter industrial classes, but we must fairly face two facts: 1. That thousands of girls in every large city are obliged to work outside their homes for their own living or to aid in the family support. (In the United States it is estimated that there are between five and six million women between the ages of 16 and 25 in gainful occupations.) 2. Our educational system does not furnish these girls with the best possible equipment for their battle with life.

The method of procedure for all places interested in obtaining industrial training for girls is about the same, so you may be willing to hear how we are working in Halifax and some of the things we found out. We are indebted for much of our general information to Bulletin 4 of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, prepared by Miss Florence Marshall, of the Sub-Committee on the Industrial Training for Girls, and to various articles by Miss Marshall and Miss Woolman, Director of the Manhattan Trade School for Girls. We obtained specific information from enquiry into and study of conditions in our own community.

Each place must ascertain the number of children between the ages of 14 and 17 leaving school each year, the number who enter gainful occupations, what occupations they enter. A careful study of the industries employing women should be made, and particular attention paid to those holding promise of advancement, which are clean and healthy and which will surely not unfit a girl for her ultimate task of home-making. The attitude of the trades themselves should be discovered, and information obtained from employers, from girls already in the trade; and if the community is not too large, a canvass may be made of the parents of the girls intending to leave school, to ascertain their attitude toward such a school.

Within certain limits, certain facts seem to be true of almost every place. Of all girls in the Public Schools, less than one-third in the best places, and many times less than one-sixth, ever enter the High School, far less complete that course. More than two-thirds of the girls leave school below the High School grade, many as low as Grades V. or VI. This means that less than one-third of our girls step from Grade VIII. into the High School, and they are well prepared for the step. They will be obliged to study a foreign language, Algebra, Geometry, etc., and they have been taught just the branches that will enable them to appreciate these and to progress. But what of the 70 per cent. of girls leaving school before this point? What preparation have they had for their next step? They must use their hands in some definite industry. They must take their place in a world of labor, quite incomprehensible to

them. They must take care of their bodies and their morals under the most adverse conditions. You will agree with me that their exact preparation, their opportunity to progress, is sadly lacking. The United States and Canada are spending each year enormous sums of money to offer free High School training for less than one-third of its girls, and those the very ones who can best afford to partially, at any rate, train themselves.

Now, what becomes of the vast majority, the two-thirds of our girls who leave from the middle grades? From 50 per cent. to 75 per cent. of them go into the industries, the other half stay at home, either because they are needed, or because they are too lazy or too proud to work. These girls entering industries are at the most critical age of a girl's life, between 14 and 17, when they are most susceptible to every influence. No employer will take a girl of 14 or 15 years into a good paying position. The children, for that is what they are, drift about into the cotton factories, paper, cordage, twine factories, all employed in the most unskilled portion of the work. Some go into confectionery or food manufacturing industries, as dippers and packers. 19 per cent. of all women in the manufactures do just this class of work. Some girls become cash girls in large stores, some enter inefficient domestic service; anywhere, they just drift about.

They work sometimes under the most unfavourable conditions—conditions leading to incipient tuberculosis, curvature of the spine, to all kinds of physical harm. Gradually, however, factory inspection is being carried on, and manufacturers are beginning to realize that an up-to-date, well-equipped, healthy, comfortable factory is necessary to excellence of production. The lack of inspiration, the hopelessness of factory work for the girl, must, however, remain. Men may rise to work demanding some skill in the factory, and to positions of responsibility, but to the young girl, untrained in all directions, the factory opens only work of the most mechanical, monotonous and unskilled sort.

Some—those who have had the most common school training—may find steady employment after three or four years. Later they marry. And what kind of homes can we expect them to make? How can we expect girls who have had so little of common school training, many not more than Grade V. work, and have never been able to learn an honest trade, never been taught to control their hands, to care for their bodies, to do anything well? We marvel that they get on as well as they do.

But beside the thousands of girls at work in factories, thousands more are engaged in clean, healthy workshops, where there is hope of advancement for women, if they are skilful, intelligent, have speed and endurance and "know the business"—in positions where a trained bright girl may earn a good wage, at work promising some interest and more wage. It is to prepare girls to enter these skilled trades, as soon as they must earn their living, that industrial training should aim.

Now we certainly feel that all girls need a thorough elementary education, such as is given in the common schools. But just

as the High School stands waiting for the very few with money, desire and ability to pursue an academic training, so we think that at some point in the common school work, perhaps at the end of the Sixth or Seventh Grade, a Trade School of one kind or another should stand ready for the many girls who must shortly work in the industries and have no preparation therefor. It is true that many girls would not take even a year in addition to the compulsory time, although it is probable that nearly 70 per cent. of them could. It is also true that many are mentally unable to profit by such training, but each year offers large numbers from which to choose.

Now, what trades should be taught in such a school depends entirely on the demands of the community. 16 per cent. of all women wage earners enter agricultural pursuits. In some communities Schools of Agriculture are needed, and are to a limited extent being established. 10 per cent. of women enter trade and commerce, stenographers, clerks, etc.; for them good provision is made. Nine per cent. of all women enter the professions, teaching, nursing, etc., and for them ample provision is made in the High Schools, Colleges, etc. But for the vast majority, the 65 per cent. who enter either domestic service of one kind or another, or the manufacturing industries, practically no provision is made.

Regarding the training of girls for domestic service, which offers employment to over 40 per cent. of women who work, no schools have so far been successful, except a few experimental schools on a very small scale, run by Young Women's Christian Associations. The Trade Schools of which I shall speak later are willing to try them, but the girls themselves are unwilling for the following reasons to attend such a school:—

1. Small chance of promotion compared with other trades.
2. Irregularity of hours.
3. Uncertainty of rest hours.
4. Lack of freedom.
5. Uncomfortable rooms.
6. No place to entertain friends.
7. Obligation of side entrance.
8. Uncertainty of attitude of mistress.

As to which manufacturing industries we should train girls to enter, we may be guided by a few general principles.

The occupation should not deaden the natural powers of a girl, it must not make a woman part of a machine. That is, it must not be an unskilled occupation, demanding only mechanical and endless repetition of the same piece of work. It must not be the cotton, cordage, twine factory work, and the various packing industries which come under this head. It must not be physically or morally detrimental, as much of the factory work surely is. It must be able to develop the kind of efficiency which will be of value to women as home-makers, and should offer a fair wage, with hope of advancement. The desirable occupations are chiefly ready-made clothing industries, boot, glove and fur manufacture, and pre-eminently the sewing industries, dressmaking, millinery, etc.

Where there is any demand for them, the applied arts industries, decorating, stencilling, jewelry making, etc., are excellent for women, and meet the requirements. There is not much demand in the United States for workers in these industries. Perhaps if there were trained workers there might develop the industries. Dress-making and millinery, with domestic service, are, you see, essentially woman's occupations, in which, ultimately, she will surely have use for all the training we can give her.

Regarding Domestic Service Schools, I would like to see the experiment tried in many different places. What might be true of Boston and New York might not be true for other places. In our own city of Halifax, for instance, there are not many large industries calling girls, living conditions are particularly pleasant, and we feel by no means hopeless of the success of such a school.

Trade Schools in which the sewing industries, and clothing and straw machine operating are taught, we know to be possible, and we have some in the United States that have been most successfully carried on.

There are such Trade Schools in London and in all the large cities of Europe, and nearer home there is one in New York and one in Boston. Last year I visited the one in Boston, and you may be interested to hear a little of their work.

The school is supported wholly by means of private subscription and is free to pupils. It has been run largely to prove the necessity of such a school, and it is now hoped that the Government will establish similar schools. Only girls between the ages of 14 and 17 are admitted. A girl may select one of the four trades: dressmaking, millinery, clothing machine operating, and straw machine operating.

#### DRESSMAKING.

The work in dressmaking is graded, beginning with the making of children's garments, giving practice in hand and machine sewing, including the use of the electric power machine, then advancing to white work, underwear (using finer material), and the construction of garments. The work then passes to the making of fitted linings, plain dresses and shirt waist suits, and the last three months are devoted to work on costumes, giving work in skirt finishing, waist finishing, sleeves, collars, etc. The girls are not taught to cut and fit, for no dressmaking establishment would ever trust the work of cutting and fitting to girls under 17 years of age. That is the final stage of the trade and comes only after experience in the other branches. Now this training occupies about 12 months, and at the end of that time the girls are able to take places in the large dress-making establishments, at a wage that they might have attained only after years of sitting in the shop and pulling basting thread, and they are able to do work that they might never have been able to do without this training.

#### MILLINERY.

The course in millinery is similarly graded, starting with plain sewing, and including all branches of hat making, from the various

fancy straws, braiding, felt, velvet, satin, and silk, including work with the trimmings. There again they are not allowed to do the actual trimming. That must come after years of experience, and is only for girls of natural aptitude.

The courses in clothing machine operating and straw machine operating include plain sewing, and garment making, aprons, underwear, kimonos, waists, and children's clothing on electric power machines, and the use of button-hole and tucking machines. The straw work includes use of coarse and fine braids, shaping of made hats to blocks, studying braid combinations, etc.

All the children must take classes in spelling, business forms and business English, textiles, industrial conditions, color study and design, personal hygiene and gymnastics, and cooking.

Great importance is attached to the work in applied art, the placing of trimmings, the adaptation of new designs to new purposes, copying garments, combining color attractively.

The cooking is taught all the girls in a very attractive and practical manner. The girls are divided into groups to prepare the daily lunch. They set the table, cook some nutritious dish to supplement the cold lunch the girls bring from home, and serve it themselves. Meanwhile the teacher gives short talks on the best foods, and how to shop, the girls eagerly entering the discussion.

The spirit of the school is excellent. The girls are neat, happy and industrious. They have already formed an Alumnae Association, and the girls in the trade who attended the school help the younger girls just beginning. The school has also demonstrated its usefulness to the trades. Employers willingly take the Trade School girls, at advanced wage, and the school could fill many more positions if it only had the room to train the girls.

Lately classes for training sales-girls have been started, with the co-operation of the big stores. All the work of the school has met with the greatest success, and industries are anxious to obtain graduates. They also support the school most substantially, giving both money and machines.

The Manhattan Trade School for Girls in New York is even more comprehensive in its work. They teach the making of the various art products, stencilling, perforating, etc. The use of the pencil and brush, sample mounting, making of pocket books and card cases, jewelry cases, and boxes of various kinds.

While millinery is a splendid trade in Boston, it is not so good in New York, but the machine operating and novelty work is splendid in New York. So it is seen that each community must study its own case.

Now, besides the girls from 14 to 17 whom we might keep in school longer by such training, and whom we would permanently benefit by such training, there are in every large city thousands of girls between the ages of 14 and 25 already working. Many of these are engaged in the various needle industries, and in domestic work, and see chances where they might step a little higher, obtain more congenial work, if they only knew a little more, only had a little more skill. For such girls, evening classes in the de-

sired branches should be carried on, more advanced work being possible with these girls since they already have some experience.

We would wish, then, by means of Trade Schools, to put into the hands of every girl enough knowledge and skill, so that she might enter a clean, healthy, profitable employment for which she has some natural aptitude, at a point far in advance of the point she could have reached after many years of profitless knocking about a city at all kinds of unskilled work.

But such a school does more than this. It develops a girl's character, it teaches her reliance, it raises her ideal of companionship, it makes her competent, it gives her ideas of economy, it gives her a certain respect for herself, as part of a system of which she has some understanding.

Our ancient ideal, to educate our girls to be good citizens, capable and intelligent home-makers, is still before us; but must this not be done by making them first capable, efficient, skilled workers, of use to themselves, their homes and their community?

Miss Florence Marshall, Director of the Boston Trade School, and now acting on the National Commission for Industrial Education, says:—

“We shall have better homes when every woman is trained to be a thoroughly competent teacher, designer, dressmaker, cook or what not, just as we shall have a better nation when every man is trained to be a thoroughly competent doctor, mechanic, barber, or bootblack, because through training, habits of industry, and definite aims and purposes, will be developed which will make a finer type of character in both man and woman.”

Miss Rose Sommerfeld now gave some account of the Clara de Hirsch Trade Training School, New York. This school gives much the same trade training as those already mentioned, but demands no school requirements.

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### WEDNESDAY, JUNE 30TH—MORNING SESSION.

Chairman, Mrs. O'Sullivan.

#### THE HOUSING OF FACTORY WORKERS,

Written by MRS. VAN MARKEN, Holland, was read by Miss Van Ewyck, Holland.

Schon seit vielen Jahren besteht in den Niederlanden ein Streben die Wohnungsverhältnisse durch Selbsthilfe zu verbessern, und es ist in dieser Hinsicht, ernst und tüchtig gearbeitet worden, während gleichzeitig freilich auch in weiten Kreisen noch grosse Gleichgültigkeit herrscht.

Im Sommer, 1901, ist von beiden Kammern der Volksvertretung ein Wohnungsgesetz angenommen worden, mit dem Zweck strengere Staatsaufsicht zu befördern in Bezug auf Einrichtung der Häuser, Anlage der Abtritte, Zuführung von Licht and Luft,

Feuergefahr, u. s. w., sowie staatliche Teilwirkung einzurufen zur Verbesserung vorhandener Gebäude, wo sie nothwendig ist. Gemeinde und Staat erhielten das Recht zur Neubau bezüglich Verbesserung von Wohnungen, Kapital zu niedrigen Zinsen und bequemen Rückzahlungsbedingungen darzuleihen. So sind die niederländischen Baugenossenschaften in die Lage gekommen mit staatlicher und kommunaler Hilfe in vergrößertem Umfange die Arbeit fortzusetzen, die sie 32 Jahre lang aus eigener Kraft geleistet haben.

Die erste Baugenossenschaft wurde in Amsterdam errichtet und am 17ten Dec., 1869, staatlich genehmigt. Diese Genossenschaft vermietet ihre Wohnungen an Mitglieder; durch einen kleinen Zuschlag zur Wochenmiete erhält man Gelegenheit Eigenthümer zu werden. Die Genossenschaft ist noch jetzt thätig, wenn sie, auch, im Laufe der Jahre, ihre Statuten etwas geändert hat.

Die zweite, ebenfalls noch bestehende Genossenschaft dieser Art, entstand 1872 in Leeuwarden, unter dem motto: "Helft euch selbst."

Im Jahre 1876 wurden die rechtlichen Verhältnisse der Coöperativen Vereine durch Gesetze geregelt. Als bald wurde in Haarem die erste Coöperative Baugenossenschaft gegründet. Da durch das Gesetz die unbeschränkte Haftpflicht aller Mitglieder festgesetzt ist, konnte das ganze Kapital für Grunderwerb und Bau zu den Bedingungen einer ersten Hypothek beschafft werden. Die ersten Häuser sind seit 1877 bewohnt und etwas theurer als Arbeiterhäuser, mehr was man in den Niederlanden "Bürgerhäuser" nennt.

Es giebt in den Niederlanden jetzt ungefähr hundert Baugenossenschaften, wovon 77 mit staatlichem Vorschusz arbeiten und nur wenige nicht coöperativ sind.

Manche der Baugenossenschaften sind für spezielle Kreise errichtet worden.

Die meisten Baugenossenschaften, indessen, haben Arbeiterwohnungen gebaut, wovon die wöchentliche Miethe in kleinen Orten zwei Mark, in grösseren Städten drei bis vier Mark beträgt.

Als Regel gilt und ist in den Statuten festgelegt, dasz in der Miethe begriffen sind: Zinsen und Tilgung des Kapitals, Steuern, Feuerversicherungsprämie und äuszere Instandhaltung.

Das, in 1901, in Kraft getretene Baugesetz, hat natürlich, durch örtliche Verhältnisse, in den verschiedenen Gemeinden, eine specielle Anpassung gefunden, was den Unternehmern nicht allen in gleicher Weise befriedigt.

Mehrere und hauptsächlich die Kleinere unter ihnen bleiben deswegen um günstigere Veränderungen beim Staate anhalten.

Was nun das Privat-Unternehmen von Fabrikanten betrifft, die Wohnungen für ihre Arbeiter gebaut haben, sind dafür nicht viele Beispiele in den Niederlanden vorhanden. Einige wurden durch Entfernung der nächste Stadt dazu gezwungen; es giebt jedoch nichts besonders darüber zu erzählen.

So wurde mir auch speziell die Aufgabe gestellt eine Beschreibung zu geben wie es bei uns um die Wohnungsfrage für die Arbeiter steht, und wie mein Mann\* diese, in seine Delfter Unternehmungen, entgegen getreten ist.

Einiges möge hierüber folgen:

EIN PRAKTISCHER VERSUCH ZUR LÖSUNG DER WOHNUNGSFRAGE AN DELFTER FABRIKEN.

Der praktische Beitrag zur Lösung der Wohnungsfrage für unsere eigene Fabrikarbeiter ist unternommen worden in der Provinzstadt Delft, zwischen den Großstädten Rotterdam und Haag gelegen, wo mein Mann, Herr T. C. van Marken, der Urheber dieses Versuches, durch die Gründung einer Kleinen Fabrik, den Grund legte zu den mächtigen grossindustriellen Unternehmungen, an deren Spitze er 38 Jahre als ältester Leiter gestanden hat, bis der Tod ihm in 1905 an dem so theuer gewordenen Arbeitskreis entrückte.

Seit dem Anfang des Unternehmens, ist die Zahl der 30 Arbeiter, welche unter der persönlichen Leitung des noch sehr jugendlichen Direktors van Marken die erste Wiener Hefe herstellten, allmählig auf tausend gewachsen und hat sich die Fabrik das Recht erworben sich die grösste Hefefabrik der Welt zu nennen. Dazu entstanden in Delft, wenn auch nicht auf ausschliessliche Initiation, so doch unter thatkräftiger Mitwirkung meines Mannes, neben jener Hefefabrik, eine Oelfabrik, eine Leimfabrik, und eine Buchdruckerei, welche jetzt ebenfalls mehrere Hunderte von Arbeitern beschäftigen. Obwohl jede für sich eine selbstständige Aktiengesellschaft ist, sind sie durch das Band, das man im Staate eine Personalunion nennt, mit einander verknüpft.

Diese Geschwisterschaft der verschiedenen Unternehmungen findet besonders ihren Ausdruck in den Wohlfahrtseinrichtungen, welche, im Lauf der Jahre, für das Personal jener Fabriken geschaffen worden sind. Die meisten dieser Wohlfahrtseinrichtungen, wie z. B. ein Vereinsgebäude, eine Bibliothek, Lesesaal, Turnhalle, verschiedene Vereine, werden von dem Personal dieser vier Unternehmungen gemeinschaftlich benutzt und verwaltet, obwohl auch andere Vereine für jede Fabrik selbstständig organisirt sind.

Zu den Wohlfahrtseinrichtungen der genannten Delfter-Fabriken gehört auch Herrn van Markens praktischer Beitrag zur Lösung der Wohnungsfrage. Grund und Boden, neben der Hefefabrik gelegen, wurden dazu persönlich von ihm angekauft um ein lang gehegtes Ideal, eine Arbeiterskolonie zu stiften, in Ausführung zu bringen. Nicht jedoch in dem Sinne dass jedes Haus das persönliche Eigenthum eines Einzelnen werden sollte, sondern derart dass die Miether aller Wohnungen zusammen im Laufe der Zeit Eigenthümer des ganzen Unternehmens werden sollten.

\*Mrs. Van Marken's husband was, in his lifetime, the director of several large industrial enterprises in Delft.

Nachdem die nöthigen Vorbereitung getroffen und möglichst genaue Kostenanschläge gemacht worden waren, fing man an die Wiesen durch Wasseranlagen, Teiche und Brücken, kunstvolle Gebüsch, Rasenplätze und Blumenbeete in einen schönen Park zu verwandeln. Sodann wurde in diesem Parke unsere eigene Wohnung gebaut und rings umhin, nach dem bekannten Cottage-System, Wohnungen für ungefähr hundert Arbeiterfamilien. Je vier bis sechs Familienwohnungen mit je besonderen Eingängen, Treppen, u. s. w., sind unter einem Dache vereinigt, jede mit einem Gärtchen versehen.

In jenem Parke, der meinen Namen erhielt (Agneta-Park) wurden nun, im Laufe der Zeit, in der Nähe der Wohnungen, ein Vereinsgebäude, einen Kindergarten, eine Fortbildungsschule, Verkaufsmagazine für Konsumartikel, Kleidungsstoffe, Steinkohle, u. s. w., ein Sommer-Casino und ein Musik-Kiosk errichtet.

Alle diese Wohlfahrtseinrichtungen musz ich jetzt auszer Betracht lassen und weise nur auf sie hin, um die Reize nicht zu übergehen, die auszerdem an den Wohnungen verknüpf. sind.

Der Agneta-Park ist ohne Zweifel der lieblichste Teil Delfts, wo er an allen Einwohnern einen freien Spaziergang gewährt, nebst einem billigen erfrischenden Trunk und kühlem Ruheplatz im Sommer-Casino. Die Liebhaber des Rudersports finden, auf den Teichen, die Gelegenheit zu rudern.

I. Die erste Frage ist nun: Wie ist dieser Eigenthumsübergang und die ganze Unternehmung organisirt?

II. Die zweite: Wie steht es mit dem Erfolg nach fünf und zwanzig Jahre?

Ich will also mit der Beantwortung der ersten Frage anfangen.

Es wurde eine Aktiengesellschaft gegründet, mit einem Kapital von 160,000 Gulden, unter dem erklärenden Namen, "Aktiengesellschaft Gemeineigenthum."

Die erste baare Einzahlung von 32,000 Gulden (mindestens 10% ist gesetzlich vorgeschrieben) leistete der Gründer, gegen Übernahme von ebenso vielen Stammaktien (320 zu je hundert Gulden) und überliesz gleichzeitig der Gesellschaft den Grund und Boden mit Anlagen, gegen die Summe von 29,000 Gulden. (Das flüssige Kapital auf welches die Aktiengesellschaft disponiren konnte, betrug also nur 3,000 Gulden.)

Die Bausumme von 128,000 Gulden, zur Herstellung der Wohnungen, wurde durch Obligationen (zu 4½%) aufgebracht. Freunde und Aktionäre der Fabrik übernahmen diese Obligationen.

Als Miethzins wurden nur 7½% der Herstellungssumme berechnet; aus dem Gesamttertrag dieser Miethzinse wurden die Verwaltungs- und Erhaltungskosten bestritten, dann die Obligationen mit 4½%, danach die Stammaktien mit 5% verzinst, und zuletzt die Sparaktien (worüber Näheres) mit 3%.

Von dem Reingewinn wurden weiter 10% dem Reservefonds überwiesen und der Rest zur Amortisation verwendet.

Mit der Amortisation sollten die einzelnen Miether in den Besitz der Aktien kommen, indem der bleibende Gewinn, in Verhältnis ihrer Mieth, ihnen nicht ausbezahlt sondern gut-gesch-

riehen wurde. Hierdurch wurden sogenannte Sparaktien geformt. Hat der einzelne Sparer hundert Gulden gut gehabt, so erhielt er eine Aktie, die ihm 3% Zinsen eintrug, eine sogenannte Sparaktie. Nach Amortisation der Obligationen sollten erst die Stammaktien und danach die Sparaktien eingelöst werden.

Der Gewinn der Verkaufsläden, obschon theilweise ausbezahlt, war ebenfalls, auf Erwerb von Aktien eingerichtet. Hier waren es jedoch die Käufer denen der Restgewinn im Verhältnis zum Totalbetrage ihrer Einkäufe gutgeschrieben wurde.

II. Auf welche Resultate dieses Strebens können wir nach einem Zeitverlaufe von fünf und zwanzig Jahre zurückblicken?

Leider haben wir in mancher Hinsicht grosse Enttäuschungen erleben müssen, nicht jedoch in erster Linie unbefriedigender finanziellen Resultate der Wohlfahrtsunternehmung wegen, sondern des geringen Verständnisses und Beifalls wegen, derjenigen, für welche die Unternehmung gegründet wurde. Solidaritätsgefühl wird so selten gefunden! Und das in Aussicht gestellte Ziel war gewisz auch zu entfernt um die Arbeiter recht dafür zu begeistern.

In der That sind wir selbst jetzt überzeugt dasz bei der Entstehung des ganzen gutgemeinten Planes, dem allen Menschen angeborenen Eigennutz nicht genügend Rechnung getragen ist und dadurch einige Grundfehler gemacht worden sind, wovon wohl der Grundzug hieran liegt, dasz kein Teil des Unternehmens in den Köpfen und Herzen der Arbeiter selbst entstanden war, sie haben um nichts Sorge gehabt.

So war es ebenfalls eine Thatsache, dasz die Delfter Arbeiter zur Zeit der Gründung unserer Aktiengesellschaft noch nicht genügend social gereift waren für die Idee dieses Gesamtunternehmens.

Die Idee, die zur Gründung des Agneta-Parks Anlass gab: nämlich, dasz das Glück jedes Einzelnen in der Wohlfahrt der groszen Gemeinschaft zu suchen ist, brauchen wir nicht aufzugeben, wenn es uns auch praktisch erscheint, einige Änderungen in diesem liebevoll ausgedachten und bezweckten Plane nach dem Tode des Gründers einzuführen.

So haben unsere verschiedenen Fabriken jetzt miteinander die Gesamt-Aktien für den ursprünglichen Betrag eingekauft, und alle Verantwortlichkeiten der Gesellschaft weiter auf sich genommen.

Damit beabsichtigen diese neuen Aktionäre, selbstverständlich, keinen finanziellen Vortheil für sich. Sie wollen nur eine Befriedigung für ihre Arbeiter herstellen, was ihnen dadurch vollkommen geglückt ist.

Die Miethe der Wohnungen liefert ihnen fast keinen Gewinn auf, die jährlichen Kosten der Parkanlagen werden jetzt durch Fabriksmittel bestritten, während die coöperativen Läden am Jahresschluss, die Zinsen in baares Geld mit ihren Käufern pro rata ihrer Einkäufe abrechnen.

Von Nachahmung unseres Strebens abzuschrecken ist nicht der Zweck dieser Zeilen, sondern zu belehren. Niemand kann sehnlischer wünschen, als wir, dasz das Delfter Beispiel, mit Hinsicht auf den sozialen Prinzip, der ihm zu Grunde liegt, auch in

der Zukunft noch viel Nachahmung finden möge; dabei mögen dann unsere praktischen Erfahrungen zu Rate gezogen werden.

Ich bin mit meiner Aufgabe zu Ende und möchte gern schließen mit der Darlegung der Grund-Idee, welche meinen Mann zu seinen socialen Organisationen geleitet hat.

Hiermit gebe ich seine eigenen Worte wieder:—

“In der heutigen Gesellschaft durchläuft die menschliche Existenz drei Etappen.

Zuerst verlangt der Mensch das *tägliche Brot*, die Mittel zur augenblicklichen materiellen Existenz für sich selbst und für die Familie, die nach den Gesetzen der Natur, er das Recht hat zu gründen.

Dann sucht er das tägliche Brot, die materielle Existenz seiner Familie, unter normalen Verhältnissen, so wie bei unvorhergesehenen Ereignissen des menschlichen Lebens, zu *sichern*.

Wenn die materielle Existenz gesichert ist, verlangt er und hat er das Recht, mehr zu erlangen: *die Verschönerung des Lebens*, die Erhöhung des moralischen und geistigen Niveau's—die *Erholung*.

In der heutigen Gesellschaft ist es für die grosse Masse unmöglich die letzte, zu schwer die zweite, oft sogar die erste, Etappe zu erreichen.

In der heutigen gegenseitigen Stellung von Kapital und Arbeit, scheint es mir ein Pflicht des Mannes, der durch günstige Umstände, oder durch seine Energie, eine Anzahl Männer als Mitarbeiter für das gleiche kommerzielle oder industrielle Ziel um sich gesammelt hat,—es scheint mir die Pflicht des Arbeitgebers seinen Untergebenen mit allen Mitteln über die er verfügt, mit seinem Herzen, seiner Intelligenz, seinem Gelde, zu helfen, um zu dieser letzten Etappe zu gelangen, die allein das Leben lebenswerth macht.

Meine Überzeugung ist, dasz, wenn er dieses thut, der Arbeitgeber kein Opfer bringt. Aber müsste er dieses selbst von materiellem oder moralischem Standpunkte aus thun—möge er es innerhalb der Grenzen seiner Kräfte thun! Es ist seine heilige Pflicht.”

A. VAN MARKEN,  
Matthes.

Dr. Samson, Ottawa, then explained the system of Canadian Government Annuities; 4 per cent. compound interest is given on deposits, small or large; \$50 is the minimum, and \$600 the maximum annuity allowed.

#### AFTERNOON SESSION.

Two papers were given, one on “Local Insurance Laws,” by Dr. Alice Salomon, Germany, and one on “Sweating,” by Miss Constance Smith, England.

#### LOCAL INSURANCE LAWS.

The labour market is no place for disseminating the ideas of mutual love, sympathy and justice. It is a place of competition;

the field on which the struggle of life, the battle between employees and employers is fought. There some people work and compete for gain, with the purpose of accumulating more and more money—others struggle for and work for their daily bread in return for a mere living wage, for nothing else. Yet there are many men and women who don't get even that.

A living wage! That does not only mean *pay* that is sufficient to feed and to provide for the worker during the period of his toil. It means a wage that will also keep him in times of unemployment, whether this arise from illness, from old age or from an industrial crisis. Moreover, it must enable him to support a family, to bring up several children, members of the next generation that is to do and carry on the world's work at a time when his strength is faded and gone.

Every trade or industry that fails to secure such a wage to the workers is a parasitic industry. It takes more from the workers than it gives to them. It takes their strength, their health, their energy, their capacities and abilities; it takes their lives during the period when they are able to work; and leaves it to others who don't take, who don't receive anything from them, to provide for them during the unproductive period of their lives.

We know that there is only a small number of workers in most countries who earn as high a wage as to enable them regularly to lay aside a sum for a rainy day. Trades unions and friendly societies, as well as insurance companies, all measures indeed for mutual help and support, never reach those grades of society where help and support are most needed. Untrained and casual workers who, more than others, need a wage that enables them to get on in times of unemployment, get a low price for their work—just enough to keep them from starving as long as they have work. These and similar reflections led to the social insurance laws in Germany, to the idea that measures must be taken in order to provide for working people in times of ill health, infirmity, old age and unemployment in consequence of an accident. Everyone who has honestly worked for some years is not to have to depend upon charity or the Poor Law Board, when he is without employment on account of one of these reasons. We want to give him a right, a legal claim to support. The insurance laws have been in force for about 25 or 30 years. They are based on the idea that a small percentage of the workers' wage and a small contribution from the employers as well must be paid weekly to the Insurance Boards or authorities, thus making the accumulation of funds absolutely independent of the workers' good-will and foresight. This gives an opportunity to help and support not only the better class workers, who take an interest in provident schemes and who are willing to help themselves, but to embrace even those who live on the very margin of poverty and distress.

There are three different laws referring to unemployment: (a) on account of illness, (b) of accidents, and (c) old age or infirmity.

The Ill-health Insurance Act embraces all workers and employees in factories, workshops and offices, not earning more than a certain small wage a year. It does not, I am sorry to say, include agricultural labourers, domestic servants and workers in home industries. There are different societies, private institutions as well as friendly societies or local unions formed by workers and employers together, that are recognized instruments or agents of the insurance law. They have the right to manage affairs for themselves as soon as they fulfil certain minimum demands of the law. These are the obligation to exact contributions amounting to 3 per cent. of the worker's wage, these contributions having to be paid partly by the employers and partly by the worker. This fee gives a claim to free medical treatment in the patients' homes or in an hospital, free medicine in case of illness for all insured people. Besides, if they are unable to work on account of ill-health they get support amounting to half their wage if necessary, for a period not exceeding 26 weeks.

Working women get the same support as well for six weeks after confinement, that is the time of compulsory non-employment enforced by the labour laws. In case of a member's death the relations get a sum supposed to cover the funeral expenses.

This very successful and satisfactory law that has enormously helped to improve the health of working people and to prevent destitution and poverty in Germany, is supplemented by the Accident Insurance Act. Only factory workers and agricultural labourers are insured against accidents, the cost of this insurance being exclusively borne by the employers. Though a smaller number of workers fall under this act, it is supposed to be better and more efficacious than the others. This being the case, because it helps not only the injured worker but also his family in a most thorough fashion. The law grants full compensation for the damage, be it hurt, mutilation or death caused by an accident. The compensation consists in free medical treatment and support till the patient has recovered or in payment of an annuity till death if he proves incurable, or of an annuity to his family if he dies of the effects of the accident. The annuity generally amounts to two-thirds of the worker's pay, if he is unable to do any work, a smaller sum if he is no longer able to do the same kind or amount of work as before the accident. He is free to spend the annuity wherever he likes, and that makes it possible for a worker in a large town to settle down somewhere in the country or in a village where an income of 60 or 70 sh. a month enables him to live pretty comfortably. In case of his death a widow with two children gets about the same percentage of his income, which renders it absolutely advantageous to a woman of the working classes, if her husband dies from an accident—not a natural death, though it is quite absurd to think of it from such a standpoint. Matters will not be changed in this respect till we get an insurance law for widows and orphans which was promised by the Government when the last tariff bill made the cost of living dearer, but which has not yet been brought before Parliament.

The greatest number of workers—about fourteen millions—is provided for by the Insurance Board for aged and invalided people. Everybody who earns less than 2,000 sh. a year as a wage-earner in factories, workshops and domestic service, as a trade or shop assistant, as an agricultural labourer, falls under this act as soon as he has reached the age of nineteen. That means he gets an annuity, however small it may be, as soon as he is unable to work on account of permanent ill-health or without regard to his fitness for work from the age of 70. Workers, as well as employers, have to pay a small contribution that is fixed in proportion to the worker's wage and amounting to ? ? ? ? weekly. The annuity that old people above 70 and invalid people, however young they are, may claim, differs according to their wage and rate of subscription as well as according to the length of time they have been insured. amounts to from 110 to 150 M. a year. In case of an illness lasting more than 26 weeks and not liable to be cured, at the expense of the Ill-health Insurance Board the patient may be sent to an hospital or sanatorium by the Insurance Board. Very often long and expensive treatment is able to prevent permanent infirmity. It helps the patient and is at the same time a saving to the Insurance Board. Though large sums have to be paid for the patient's cure at once it does away with the obligation of paying a life-long annuity that in most cases would be more expensive in the long run.

Though these laws are still very imperfect, though the annuities are low, especially for invalided and aged people, though there are still many who have no claim to any support from these authorities, we have a strong feeling concerning the success of these laws. Whoever remembers the great change that they have brought about for the provision of the poor, whoever remembers the thousands of desperate cases when people objected to beg of the Poor Law Board or when the help that could be procured by charity organizations and philanthropists was in no way sufficient for the needs cannot doubt that the social insurance laws are a blessing for the whole country. They give a legal claim to support to those who work, and even in a nation where the gulf between rich and poor still yawns to a dangerous extent they furnish a proof of the power of the conception of justice and responsibility and the strong desire of the nation not only to secure peace with other nations. but to secure it at home as well!

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### SWEATING.

By CONSTANCE SMITH.

There has recently been a great stirring of the general conscience on the subject of sweating in industry. That drowsy organism, if not actually broad awake, is moving restlessly in its sleep; it is having bad dreams: it is even making spasmodic efforts to rise and attack the nightmare which disturbs it. Exhibitions of sweated industry, the efforts of such organizations as the Anti-Sweating League, the Christian Social Union and the

Women's Industrial Council to make known the facts of the case, coupled with steady and persistent support of these efforts by at least a part of our press, have had an educational effect upon public opinion. There is much less sensational writing and speaking than followed upon the startling revelations of the Report of the House of Lords Committee on Sweating published twenty years ago. But the sense of a need for action, the conviction that in moving to the destruction of the sweating system we move against a danger threatening to our national life, is far stronger than in 1889. Its outcome is the Bill at this moment before the British House of Commons—a Bill which proposes to attack the system at its root by the establishment of a minimum wage in certain notoriously sweated trades.

The reason for this new concern is to be found partly in a clearer apprehension of our social interdependence, and of the scientific truth of the assertion that if one member of a body suffer, all the other members suffer with it, partly in the gradual realization of the widespread existence of an evil which many people had till lately supposed to lurk only in a few dark corners of the national existence. Thanks to inquiry and investigation, official and unofficial, truth about sweating has become matter of common knowledge. We are aware that, in its essential features of acute underpayment, excessive hours of labour, and bad conditions, it is to be found all over the United Kingdom—in small country towns as in great cities, even in peaceful-looking English villages and the lonely cabin of Irish peasants. An unthinking passion for cheapness has helped to foster the disease, especially in the clothing trade; the manufacturer and the shopkeeper ministering to and in some cases creating the demand among the poor for inexpensive imitations of the elaborate garments worn by the rich, have increased the downward pressure upon wages; but we have discovered that costly things may be sweated as well as cheap ones, and that the payment of a good price for the finished article is not necessarily a guarantee that the workwoman who made it has been fairly remunerated. There were some who had dreamed that a vigorous Exclusion of Aliens Act might free us of our reproach; but plainly it is not in this direction that we must look for salvation, seeing that sweating is found rampant in trades employing exclusively British labour, and in localities where no alien has been known to set his foot. Employers we see to be to a large extent helpless in the presence of the economic forces that have created sweating. How shall the best intentioned employer maintain a just rate against the merciless undercutting of unscrupulous trade rivals, in industries where no standard wage exists, and the workers, ignorant, unorganized and in deadly terror of losing their employment, submit without a struggle to every reduction imposed upon them? Again, we have learned that sweating is not confined to the least skilled industries or the poorest class of workers—that large numbers of girl typewriters, clerks, shop assistants, labour daily under sweated conditions; working for miserable pay during very long hours in surroundings injurious

to their health. Once, sweating was supposed to be confined to the home. Inquiry has shown that, as far as the wages are concerned it often prevails equally in the factory. Here are women in clothing factories, food factories, box factories, toiling year after year for a wage varying from 5s. to 7s. 6d. a week, often reduced by excessive and fantastic fines and deductions; girls carrying home work to be done, contrary to law, after the factory day is over, because the sum earned within the factory walls is not sufficient to keep body and soul together.

The position of the home worker under this system is, doubtless, the most cruel, because the most helpless. Her 1½d. or 2d. an hour for trouser-finishing or shirt-making may not fall, in some cases, far below that of the factory girl, but her wage is more subject to frequent fluctuation, her chance of employment is more uncertain, and she has outgoings from which the other is free. Gas or kerosene for the lamp, fire to keep warm the paste or glue or to heat the pressing irons, hire of machine, cost of tram or omnibus journeys to and from the factory make terrible inroads on her slender weekly income. Add to this the fact that she is, for the most part, outside the scope of the Truck Acts, and that fines and deductions for imperfect work and for materials used in work may therefore be levied upon her at will, even the slight protection of the "fair and reasonable" clause being denied her, and it is hardly surprising that her case should have attracted the special attention of social reformers. We have also to remember that it is in her case that the results of sweating are most clearly and immediately visible, going before to judgment. There is the poor comfortless home, made additionally comfortless by the inability of the woman who is working 12 or 14, or even 16 hours a day for a bare pittance to spend any time or care upon it. There are the neglected children, dying as infants—is a high rate of infant mortality to be wondered at, when factory inspectors have such tales to tell as that of the blouse-maker found sitting up in bed hard at work six hours after her baby was born? Or worse, growing up to recruit, inevitably, the army of the unemployed and unemployable, the sad population of workhouse and hospital and gaol. There are the child workers pressed prematurely into the service, the little makers of matchboxes, the tiny carders of hooks and eyes, the six-year-old lace finishers of Nottingham, working even in the dinner hour and eating their scanty meal on the way back to school. There is the casual labour sustained by and sustaining sweated home work, so that the two are almost always found together, revolving in a vicious circle. Not only the workers themselves, it is seen, suffer from their sweated conditions; their families suffer now, the nation and the race will suffer hereafter. And meanwhile the community pays for this state of things. Sweated workers are permanently underfed; but they rarely die of starvation. The charitable organization, the Distress Committee, the Poor Law step in to prevent that final catastrophe, with doles which act practically as a rate-in-aid of wages. Thus directly, as ratepayers, as well as indirectly, as consumers, we maintain the system we condemn.

Perhaps it is the painful consciousness that, in our character of consumers, we all profit by the labour of sweated workers which most powerfully impels us to seek a remedy for sweating. This consciousness that, do what we will, our houses, our garments have been infected by the touch of the abhorred thing—that, for all our pains, we cannot escape from the network of circumstances which compels us to make use of brushes fashioned by women whose average wags is 7s. a week “sitting at it every day and all day,” and hooks and eyes carded in Birmingham by children of three and four years old. This it is which prompts the demand for White Lists, and draws together Consumers’ Leagues. But the evil is too deep seated to be cured by such slight and partial remedies. White Lists, in the complicated conditions of modern trade, are frequently misleading and scarcely ever quite fair in their operation; Leagues may serve some purpose in helping to create a higher standard of public feeling—they are powerless to protect either the good employer or the helpless worker in the fierce conflict. More and more plainly has it been shown that it is as citizens rather than customers that we have to take action. The whole nation, not one division of it, is responsible for the existence of sweating; and by a national movement alone will sweating be killed. Since the workers in sweated industries are too weak, too ignorant, too timid and—where they are home workers—too isolated to organize on their own behalf, the community must act for them, through the State, by means of legislation.

In deciding that this legislation, to be efficacious, must take the form of regulating the wage, the Home Work Committee acted in strict accord with the evidence tendered it by factory inspectors, employers and employed. All the testimony gathered into the two thick Bluebooks which contain the Committee’s proceedings goes to show that the evils which accompany sweated labour may be traced back to an insufficient wage. Mere licensing of home workers would not, could not, offer any cure for them. It might offer greater security to the public, whose clothes are now often made under conditions far from wholesome, but to the home worker it could bring no substantial benefit, while under a system of licenses the factory worker’s case would be left altogether out of account.

The Government Trade Boards Bill before Parliament embodies the recommendations of the Home Work Committee, together with certain among the provisions of the Sweated Industries Bill, read a second time last year by the House of Commons without a division, and reintroduced this year by a private member. Both Bills have been drawn with visible reference to the Wages Boards legislation of Victoria, which, by common consent, has immensely diminished, if it has not completely killed sweating in that State. In both it is proposed that the Board to be set up shall consist of employers and employed in equal numbers, with an outside Chairman; that there shall be separate boards for different trades, with power to fix both time and piece rates; and that penalties shall be imposed for the non-payment of the legal minimum rate. The Government Bill gives discretionary power to the Board

of Trade in the matter of making the rate obligatory, and limits the application of the Act, in the first place, to the trades included in the schedule—ready-made and wholesale bespoke tailoring, cardboard box making, machine-made lace and net finishing, and ready-made blouse making. (It is probable that one or two other smaller industries, of a compact local character—and therefore specially valuable for experimental purposes—may be added to this list before the Bill assumes its final shape.)

The measure is frankly tentative and a little timid, but, if adequately administered by competent inspectors, it should serve as the first step in a great reform. The example of Victoria, even when full allowance has been made for the differing circumstances of a new and an old, a small and a large country, is full of encouragement. In Victoria, as we know, not only from Victorian official sources, but from a witness so little prejudiced in favour of Wages Boards as Mr. Aves, the Commissioner sent out by the British Home Office to report on their working, the Boards have grown steadily in public favour as they have grown in number from six to fifty (in eleven years), the fixing of a minimum wage has not been found to increase the cost of production of the article in trades previously sweated, nor does the minimum show any sign of becoming the maximum. The fear that establishment of a minimum wage in sweated industries will increase unemployment is not, I believe, well founded. Better paid workers will have more to spend, and this increase of purchasing power on the part of a large class will create more work. The few who may be thrown out because of their incapacity to earn a living wage by reason of mental or physical infirmity are those who are now only supporting themselves in part, and whom the State would do better to maintain entirely rather than permit them to keep down the average rate of payment for the vast number of workers capable of becoming self-supporting. Enough has been said on the position of the sweated worker to show that, in the intervention of the community for her protection, there is no question of interference with an existing freedom of contract; into the contracts made by such as she no idea of freedom enters, or can enter. Finally, we have the advantage of knowing that in this matter other countries are prepared, or preparing to move with us. In France, in Germany, in Australia, the sweating problem is as acute as in Great Britain. Already a Bill has been introduced into the Reichstag on the lines of our Sweated Industries Bill; already inquiries are afloat under several Continental Governments having for object the ascertainment of facts on which it may be possible to base an international agreement regulating the export of goods made under sweated conditions. In these circumstances, we feel justified in proceeding with our task of stimulating public opinion—that public opinion on which all measures of reform depend in the end for success. And I would appeal to this great International Council of Women, whose members can do so much in their own countries to make the international agreement I have alluded to a matter of practical politics, to “speak unto us that we go forward.”

# Laws That Concern Women and Children.

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Convener—MRS. O. C. EDWARDS.

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The subjects discussed in this section were: Parliamentary and Municipal Enfranchisement of Women, Treatment of Juvenile Offenders Against the Law, Parental Legal Rights of Married Women, Legal Status of Illegitimate Children, Legal Rights of a Married Woman in Her Husband's Property, Marriage Laws and Divorce.

During the Congress there were eleven sessions held, one every morning from 10 a.m. to 12.30 p.m., and one every afternoon from 2 p.m. to 4.30 p.m., with the exception of one afternoon when this section met jointly with the Industrial and Philanthropy Sections on June 28th, and one session in the evening, held jointly with the Industrial and Social Work and Moral Reform Sections on June 29th.

The following notes of the meetings of this Section were taken by Mrs. Lydia M. Parsons:

Thursday, June 24th. Subject for discussion: Parliamentary and Municipal Enfranchisement of Women. Chairman, Dr. Augusta Stowe-Gullen, President of the Canadian Suffrage Association.

The great interest taken in the question of the enfranchisement of women was shown by the crowd that thronged the hall and corridor. It was evident that a larger place was necessary to accommodate those seeking entrance. The large west hall of the main building was secured and the meeting adjourned to it. On the platform were the chairman, Dr. Gullen, Mrs. Edwards, Dr. Shaw, Mrs. Avery, and others.

Dr. Gullen, after expressing her appreciation of the interest shown in the cause of woman suffrage, introduced Mrs. Rachel Foster Avery, of the United States, to the audience as one of the four great women who organized the International Council of Women and one who had been engaged in work for the enfranchisement of women for thirty-one years.

Mrs. Foster Avery pointed out in a strong address that most women need kindergarten methods to learn foundation principles. Thousands were not interested in suffrage, but they were interested in cleaning up a city from tuberculosis and other ills

and in unravelling tangles; they ignored or overlooked the fact that suffrage is the only door that opens the way to betterment. Under existing conditions women can only do things by indirect methods, and she advised, for a few years at least, that women should hold their hands from charity and philanthropy, for these things, though good in themselves, now only patched up matters.

What we want is justice and power to bring about the needed reforms that would usher in a different state of affairs for working women. The ballot was the only key to the situation; the time is fully ripe to use the talents, strength and intellect given us and to see that we are fairly dealt with.

Mrs. Foster Avery was recalled to the platform to tell the story of the ignominious treatment the 10,000 women's names in support of prohibition met with at the Legislature. She further stated this incident had been the means of converting many women to the suffrage cause, among them Mrs. Wallace, the mother of the author of "Ben Hur."

Rev. Anna Shaw was then introduced, the Chairman remarking that she was a woman in the foremost rank, revered and honoured everywhere. Some of the points she brought out for the cause she holds the greatest in the world, were that a fundamental principle consisted of two parts, theory and expediency, and if they did not correspond, one must go to the wall; that one theory is as good as another till tested. If the fundamental principle is right that a representative government is right, then the people should be represented, not one sex alone. She said in the United States they had a representative form of democracy which is no true democracy, but a sex oligarchical democracy in which a sex rules.

The only qualifications essential for the vote should be intelligence and obedience to law. A horizontal line should be drawn and every man and woman able to rise above it and stand these tests should be given this privilege. Men say that God by nature never intended women should govern. If by nature women can't govern why pass laws saying they shall not? Nobody passes laws to say that a hen shall not swim like a duck.

Dr. Shaw went on to say: "My earliest and latest observations of life have confirmed me in the belief that the salvation of democratic government depends on the enfranchisement of women."

"So long as society comes into the home and lays its hands upon the women's children, so long is government women's business."

"If I were to take my choice between a good woman and a good man I would vote for the woman, but if it fell between a poor man and a poor woman I would vote for the poor man; it would not so much hurt the cause of women."

It is clearly understood in the world of men that if any woman in any line of new undertaking fails, all womanhood fails, but if it be a man who should fail it is only the individual. From authoritative facts where women have had the vote only good has resulted; and further, to-day some of the objections to women voting are not in existence—for instance, in former times the polling-booth was in a saloon or stable, now it is in a respectable place. The sex-consciousness of women is no longer apparent. She is now regarded as a citizen of a great commonwealth, acting as a citizen. Dr. Shaw concluded by remarking that when women had knocked their heads against a stone wall long enough they would learn to get the stone wall out of the way. The Millennium is not here yet, though it is coming. She drew attention to the little flag she wore, which had been presented to Susan B. Anthony. Each State that had the woman's suffrage was jewelled. Her intention was to have it handed over to her successor at her death. In a few graceful words she bade her hearers farewell, as this was her last opportunity of addressing them.

Miss Chrystal MacMillan, M.A., B.Sc., Edinburgh, Secretary of the District Union of Women Workers, read the next paper on Parliamentary Enfranchisement of Women. Miss MacMillan was one of the two graduates who pleaded the case of the Scottish women graduates before the House of Lords. As a member of the Executive of the Edinburgh National Woman's Suffrage Society and of the Scottish Woman's Suffrage Union, Miss MacMillan is well qualified to speak on the subject of her paper. In a very clear and graphic manner she gave the history of the movement in Great Britain. She stated that while all the suffrage societies had the one aim, they did not all agree as to methods of attaining it. She stated that part of the press were very unfair to the militant suffragettes, exaggerating the things said and done, and misrepresenting them in many ways.

A very interesting paper was read by Miss Edith C. Harvey, Hon. Secretary of the Stansfield Trust, explaining the nature and scope of the different Councils and Boroughs and referring to some adverse legislation that had been passed. Her paper closed by stating that in spite of these drawbacks, she could report to the International Council of Women for the first time that the English women have at last secured the right to sit in all the local governing bodies of their country.

The meeting then adjourned, after the usual thanks to the speakers.

In the afternoon the chair was taken promptly at 2 o'clock by Dr. Stowe-Gullen, who lost no time in introducing the various speakers.

Fröken Gina Krog was the first speaker. Fröken Krog as a lecturer and contributor to reviews and the press is well known. She has been the President of the Norwegian Council of Women

since its foundation. A lecture she delivered on women suffrage in 1885 was the beginning of a propaganda, which resulted in the enfranchisement of the women of Norway.

But this success had not been gained without constant and enthusiastic effort; public meetings were held, lectures delivered, petitions presented. In 1889, women who had children received a vote for School Boards and were made eligible for election. In 1901 municipal suffrage and eligibility for election were granted. At the first following election, ninety women councillors were elected. In 1907 Norwegian women were given the Parliamentary suffrage. It is conferred on all women, married or single, who pay taxes to the amount of about \$100.00 in the towns and about \$80.00 in the country.

Fröken Krog stated that the Norwegian delegates "appreciated very much that our Parliament has voted a subvention for our travelling expenses to the I. C. W.'s convention in Toronto—we consider it an acknowledgment of our work. It gives a clear evidence that our legislators do not repent having given us the rights we have obtained."

Frau Marie Stritt, First Vice-President of the International Council of Women and President of the National Council of Women of Germany, was the next speaker. Frau Stritt has been an earnest worker in the women's movement in Germany since 1891. She gave a very lucid account of the progress of the work in her country. Formerly the laws of association in force in some of the States, forbidding women to organize political associations or attend public meetings, had hampered the efforts for suffrage. The National Council of Women, as well as the Union of Progressive Societies, began a campaign against this injustice, which was remedied on May 15th, 1908. The preamble to the new Bill was of especial interest to German women, as it publicly acknowledged the important position of women in the State. As yet, however, but few German States give women a municipal or communal vote. In a few places they have a vote for Church Councils, but German women in all the States have a vote and are eligible for Boards of Public Insurance for Illness and Invalidity. In some towns they may be guardians of the poor. Women are occasionally admitted on School Boards. A new public office is the appointment of women as defenders for children tried in the Juvenile Courts.

Mrs. Henry Dobson, President of the National Council of Women of Tasmania, reported for her country. She said that, since they had been granted the franchise, women's influence had succeeded in passing many reforms shelved for years. "Equal pay for equal work" was one of the things their Council stood for, Mrs. Dobson said.

Dr. Shaw this morning spoke of the argument that a wife's vote will only supplement the husband's. Our experience in Australia does not endorse that opinion, except with regard to the

Labour Party. The majority recognize their responsibilities and wish to record intelligent and independent votes, and in all the States have banded themselves together to gain and impart instruction in the essentials of good citizenship.

So far woman's influence has been demonstrated by the passing of Acts (striven vainly for in the past) affecting women and children and calculated to minimize social evils and to promote health. The work performed by women, philanthropical, educational and in the churches (few men work practically), and a sense of justice and equity influenced men to give the suffrage to those conversant with these subjects. Men understand finance and technicalities, women social conditions—both are wanted. Men often go to universities from custom and family tradition, who afterwards appear in public life little qualified; but women go for knowledge, often in the early days against the wish of their friends—are not then the latter more qualified to give an intelligent vote than the former?

Intelligent voting is jeopardized by payment of members. Unscrupulous agitators make politics a profession and become leaders of ignorant or apathetic people in Parliament by the power of a third party, swaying Government or Opposition, experimental legislation has been attempted and much done during the short life of our Commonwealth which, I hope, will be increased by the steady growth of political education fostered by our Women's Suffrage Associations.

The man who said "One politician the more, one mother the less; behold the outcome of female franchise!" was a false prophet; for women who take an active interest in procuring good Government and sound moral conditions are better fitted to educate their children to lead good lives and become loyal citizens than the poor, unthinking remnant of a past régime which classes women with criminals and lunatics in the voting scale. With regard to polling-booths, other seers waxed eloquent upon scenes unfit for women there. In Tasmania perfect order prevails. Any woman can go to them knowing that she will meet perfect courtesy and respect. Every person over the age of 21 and all University graduates can exercise the franchise and women can practise all professions except that of the Church.

With reference to the rights of a woman as a citizen—a woman has power under various Acts, if possessing the proper qualifications, to vote for the election of a member of the Legislative Council, which is commonly called "the Upper House," and also has power to vote for a member of the House of Assembly, called "the Lower House." A woman also, if she owns property, has power to vote for the election of Aldermen for the cities, and also for Councillors under the Local Government Act, and the same scale of voting where she owns property applies to her as to a man under similar circumstances. The laws of Tasmania also contain many other provisions for the protection of the per-

son of the woman in the same manner as a man has protection against injury to his person. The right to vote for members of State Parliaments has only been conferred upon women in some States, quite recently, but since the establishment of the Commonwealth in 1901 women throughout Australia and Tasmania have had the right to vote for members of the Senate and the House of Representatives of the Federal Parliament.

Miss Axianne Thorstensen spoke of the conditions in Sweden, where they had been granted full enfranchisement. In the Second Chamber, without debate, women were now eligible for election as Councillors.

Fröken Anna Buch, Denmark, spoke of the hard fight they had made in Denmark for Parliamentary franchise, and explained that the question could not come up for settlement just yet because it meant an alteration in their Constitution, which could not take place without dissolving the Rigsdag. The municipal franchise was granted in 1908. This franchise places men and women on a absolute equality. Danish women are eligible for the Town Councils, Parish Council and Citizens' Representative Board of Copenhagen. The qualifications are a small income tax, residence in a municipality for over a year, twenty-five years of age, and an untainted reputation. When husband and wife jointly own property which is taxed, both have a vote; board and lodging of a servant is counted as part of an income.

Dr. Stowe-Gullen summed up the situation presented by the nations, drawing attention to the main points in the different reports, and then proceeded to give the facts concerning the franchise in Canada, referring to the municipal suffrage granted in 1888, under certain conditions, and the school suffrage, granted in 1850. And though no great steps had been taken in the last few years, there was greater sentiment along these lines, and after all there were certain things in nature no vote could overturn.

Mrs. Edwards stated that in one of the Provinces of Canada, that of Manitoba, married women owning property had the municipal franchise, as well as in two of the chartered cities of Alberta.

Dr. Gullen then dismissed the meeting.

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#### FRIDAY, JUNE 25TH.

Subject—Treatment of Juvenile Offenders Against the Law.

Morning Session.

Chairman—Mrs. McLennan, President of the Local Council of Women, St. John, N.B.

On the platform were Mrs. Edwards, as Convener; Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen, Chairman of the Juvenile Court Committee, Chicago, and Miss Rosa M. Barrett, Dublin, Ireland.

Mrs. Bowen's paper was listened to with the greatest interest, as she gave an account of the growth of this most progressive movement. The first Juvenile Court was held in Chicago, largely the result of the efforts of Judge Lindsey, now known everywhere as the friend of the so-called "bad boys" and "naughty girls."

Miss Barrett read the next paper, dealing with the subject in Great Britain and Ireland. She called attention to the fact that 35 years ago for all over seven years of age (who broke the law) there was no distinction in the treatment meted out to them. Miss Barrett stated that a friend of hers had told her that his father had seen a boy hanged for stealing a meat pie. After dealing with comparative statistics, Miss Barrett described the new methods of treatment under the new Children's Act of 1908.

#### Afternoon Session.

Her Excellency the Countess Grey honoured this session with her presence. She had come expressly to hear Mr. Kelso speak with regard to the Canadian children, but remained till the close. Mr. Kelso spoke very sympathetically from the children's standpoint. Boys used to be sent to the common jail for trivial offences, for offences they were hardly responsible for when the bad influences they were surrounded with were taken into account. He spoke of the work done by Judge Lindsey, whose name was greeted with applause, and of the Juvenile Court; and said it was a sign of progress in the march of civilization when children's needs were being so earnestly considered. The next step must be to keep children out of the courts altogether. He did not approve of condoning offences or coddling the sinner, but felt that a child should be shown his fault and made to feel that he had done wrong. The fact should not be lost sight of that the boy is not a bad article, but full of good, and chivalrous at heart, and it was the heart we must get at. He thought the State was to blame in that it made no provision for women left with children, thus compelling the mother to leave her children exposed to every temptation while she was seeking the "here-withal" to keep their bodies and souls together. He pleaded for a more charitable judgment of poor women who had so many trials and sorrows and so little sympathy to help them along. He closed by referring to the 19,000 persons arrested in Toronto last year, pointing out that in many cases women were the real sufferers.

Mr. Kelso was asked his opinion about the George Junior Republic. He replied that although it did good work, he did not approve of the principle. He thought children ought to have adults to govern and control them and be taught to obey. In his opinion the Junior Republic tended to make premature men and women of children.

Miss M. C. Campbell was asked to give some information about the George Junior Republic. She said:

The George Junior Republic, Freeville, New York, is a community to be proud of. It is a community of young people, boys and girls between the ages of 15 and 21, who practically govern themselves. That they are law-abiding citizens of their own "city"—the George Junior Republic—may appear remarkable, when it is remembered that most of the citizens are there because of some failure to act up to the requirements of home or of city life previously. This may not have been the fault only of the boy or girl. It is terribly likely that the fault lies rather with their homes, or with the conditions of life surrounding them. As investigations into the causes of juvenile crimes develop, it is being realized more and more clearly that such crimes as young people commit, are usually a logical result of special lines of circumstances, of training, or of neglect. But from whatever cause the citizens of the Republic have come there, they quickly respond to the moral atmosphere about them. This is a moral atmosphere which strengthens and develops the qualities of self-help, of self-control and responsibility. And that moral atmosphere is not forced; it is the natural result of allowing the citizens to be citizens. Therefore they at once respect the rights of citizenship. They do not feel that they are kept under punishment for a past offence. It is not the past that they are kept conscious of. It is not what they have been in the past that counts, but what they are in the present. They find themselves accepted as citizens responsible, not only for themselves, but for their "city"; for the law and order of their "city"; for its fair fame, for its power for good, not only within itself, but also—within the great Republic—a part of which it is. The citizens appoint their own officials by vote: President, judge, etc., and all officials necessary for the carrying on of the business of the Republic. And they make those appointments better than anyone could do it for them. As one of the citizens said, when surprise was expressed over an appointment they had made: "We know ourselves better than anyone knows us." And the holder of the appointment amply demonstrated that he was worthy of the honour. Responsibility made a man of him. Here is a "city" where there are no "corner-boys." "He that will not work, neither shall he eat," is literally carried out in this city. Every citizen must earn his daily bread, and to beg is a criminal offence and means imprisonment. Prisoners also have to work, but they receive no pay, and their work, of course, goes to the general keep of the city.

The G. J. R. system works well, and to-day there are those living honest, hard-working, hopeful lives in the great Republic because of their training and experience of good citizenship in the Junior Republic.

The Treatment of Juvenile Offenders Against the Law was

taken up as it exists in the Netherlands in a paper by Miss Bouricius, read by Mrs. Boddaert; and in Germany in a paper by Fräulein Dränkhahn. Frau Hainisch also told of the work in Austria.

Mrs. Peters, Canada, spoke on insurance for children.

Miss Addams, of Hull House, Chicago, was seen in the audience and called to the platform. She spoke in an interesting way of her appreciation of the new methods of dealing with juvenile delinquents.

A request came to the chair asking that Mr. Kelso be requested to give more detail as to his method of work. Mr. Kelso again came to the platform and explained the modus operandi of the Children's Aid Society.

A pamphlet entitled "An Explanation of the Need for the Dominion Act Dealing with Juvenile Delinquency," by W. L. Scott, Ottawa, was distributed during the meeting. The following extracts are taken from it: "The Juvenile Delinquency Act" was adopted in the session of 1907-08. The new system, which is practically the same as that in force in other countries, depends for its effective operation on an enlightened public opinion, and therefore can only be put in force in such places as ask for it and are prepared to accept the machinery for putting it in proper operation. Dr. Snedden, of the United States, a careful student of this subject, is quoted as concluding that it is impossible to prove that heredity has any influence in the making of juvenile criminals. If it is the environment in childhood that counts in the making of criminals, the true and only way to cope with crime is to improve the environment.

"By far the most important element in the system is probation. It is the keystone of the arch. Without it the Juvenile Court is almost powerless for good."

"The duties of the probation officer are threefold: Before trial, at trial and after trial."

Another important element is the Juvenile Court Committee.

Section 29 is most important, providing, as it does, for the punishment of adults responsible for delinquency in children.

As this Act is dealt with in another section it is perhaps well not to occupy more space in dealing with it here. However, the following Order-in-Council, published on September 26th, 1908, is inserted here:

The Governor in Council must be satisfied—

1. That a proper detention home has been established, and will be maintained for the temporary confinement of juvenile delinquents, or of children charged with delinquency. The institution should be conducted more like a family home than like a penal institution, and must not be under the same roof as, or in

the immediate vicinity of, any police station, jail, lock-up, or other place in which adults are or may be imprisoned. (See section 11.)

2. That an Industrial School as defined, by clause (h) of section 2 of the Act, exists, to which juvenile delinquents may be committed.

3. That there is a Superior Court, or County Court Judge or Justice, having jurisdiction in the city, town, or other portion of a province in which it is sought to have the Act put in force, willing to act as Juvenile Court Judge, and that the remuneration of such Juvenile Court Judge (if any) has been provided for without recourse to the Federal authorities.

4. That remuneration for an adequate staff of probation officers has been provided by municipal grant, public subscription or otherwise. (See sections 25, 26, 27 and 28 of the Act.)

5. That some society or committee is ready and willing to act as the Juvenile Court Committee. (See sections 23 and 24 of the Act.)

Excellent work was reported as being accomplished in Montreal, Ottawa, Toronto, Winnipeg and Edmonton under the new Act.

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#### MONDAY MORNING, JUNE 28TH.

The session opened punctually, with Mrs. Denison, Toronto, in the chair.

The first paper was given by Miss French, B.C.L., St. John, N.B., on the Legal Parental Rights of Married Women. This carefully prepared paper was attentively listened to and warmly applauded.

Mrs. Dobson read a paper on the laws in Tasmania relating to women.

Miss MacMillan read a paper on the English law, written by Mr. Alfred Kennedy, barrister-at-law, and forwarded by Mrs. Alfred Booth. Miss MacMillan spoke of the similarity of the Scotch law on some points.

Mrs. Edwards stated that the School Act of one of the Provinces of Canada expressly defined the word "parent" as "father." She also referred to the fact that only the consent of the father was necessary to the marriage of his minor daughter, and cited some cases showing the unwisdom of such a law. After some further discussion the subdivision of the subject, "Legal Status of Illegitimate Children," was introduced by Miss Gillett, attorney-at-law, Washington, D.C. She said the laws dealing with illegitimate children were brutal; she defined an illegitimate child as a child born out of lawful wedlock, nameless, fatherless, kinless. In many of the States children of marriages deemed null and void are by statute decreed legitimate when the marriage was entered into in good faith even by one of the parties. At common law the legal obligation of supporting an illegitimate child rested on the mother and not on the father. In

most of the States, by statute, some degree of responsibility rested upon the father for the support of his offspring. Miss Gillett gave as cause of illegitimacy the double standard of morality, the youth of the mother or her weakness of intellect, the law on the age of consent, betrayal under promise of marriage, the ignorance of the laws of life. She spoke strongly of the failure of parents and guardians to teach due reverence for the physical organs of reproduction, which are most Godlike in that they are creative; of failure to take into consideration the power of those passions without which the race would soon cease to exist. At common law the illegitimate child was kin to no one and could not be an heir or have heirs except by his own body; by statute in the United States, as a rule, there may be inheritance and transmission of inheritance through the mother. He is nameless until he has acquired a name by reputation or adoption.

In many of the States subsequent marriage of the parents legitimizes the children, and in some States adoption and public acknowledgment by the father legitimizes the child usually under civil law. Miss Gillett, in closing, said she thought that conditions would not be bettered until women were fully represented by the ballot. (Applause.)

The position of illegitimate children in Canada was referred to in Miss French's paper.

Mrs. Darre Jenssen read a most able and sympathetic paper on the condition of the illegitimate child in Norway. The statistics she gave of illegitimacy in Norway and other European countries were appalling. Her synopsis of the new bill proposed by the present Government in Norway gives us the most advanced ideas of the responsibility of the father of an illegitimate child. The present legislation now grants the illegitimate equal rights with legitimate children with regard to its mother, the new bill seeks to give it the same rights in relation to its father. It remains to be seen if the bill will pass the Norwegian Parliament this autumn. It is strongly supported by public opinion, as shown by 26 out of 53 city communities and 10 of 18 country communities having recommended it for adoption.

In discussion on the two first papers Dr. Stowe-Gullen said that conditions arise out of our ignorance and apathy, and they will not be generally altered till women demand it. According to the old Salic law a woman did own her child, but we to-day are the outcome of centuries of barbarism and must wake up to a fitter sense of the justice of things and have the backbone to stick up for our rights.

Fröken Krog said that in Norway women have been able to achieve so much, and that the plea of justice had been their only one.

Mrs. Shafter Howard said that women cannot keep silent any longer; it was selfish and cowardly to give way to a feeling

of inertia. Men are not blocking our way; if we wish we can help ourselves to a higher plane, for through the home we can wield a great influence that has a carrying power. That we may stand in the place God has given us, we don't need to fight, but just stand.

The Florence Crittenden Mission was then referred to as a great open door for service by Mrs. Barrett. Mrs. Barrett, who is a Vice-President of the National Council of Women of the United States, and was one of the delegates to the recent Conference for the Care of Delinquent Children, also referred to one of the most effective measures of protection for immigrant women and girls in the United States. The measure is a Federal one, extending protection in every State and Territory for three years to every foreign-born woman entering the country. Seduction of an immigrant within that period is a penitentiary offence of fifteen years without the option of a fine.

Fru Drewson, Norway, said the mother often killed her child (illegitimate), but if the father had insulted her during her pregnancy he must also be indicted.

In Denmark the father must take care of the mother during pregnancy and confinement, and make some provision for support till the child is 18 years old.

Fru Drewson said that in Norway a man loses his vote if he does not pay his alimony to his illegitimate child.

This statement was thought to be incorrect by some Norwegians present, so it was requested that the matter be verified.

Miss American, U.S.A., then spoke ably for a few minutes on the situation in her country. She stated that a man has to pay one and a half dollars a week during the advanced stages of pregnancy and convalescence. Motherhood was made by God before legalized by man and should therefore be held very sacred.

The fact brought out in this session was that the laws in nearly all countries ignored the married woman's natural parental rights, only asserting them when it comes to the duty of maintenance. The father during his life-time is to all intents and purposes the only legal parent, and in some countries is able to assert by testament his exclusive right to the guidance and disposal of the minor children after his death.

In the face of the fact that it is the mother and not the father who bears the child at the risk of life, the ignoring of her parenthood was unanimously considered by those present as not only going contrary to natural law but also a great injustice to the married mothers. On the other hand, the freeing by law of the father of an illegitimate child of all duties and responsibilities was putting an unjust burden upon the mother and was detrimental to the child.

[In the afternoon a joint meeting was held with the "Industrial" and "Philanthropy" Sections, for which see "Joint Sessions," Vol. I.]

TUESDAY, JUNE 29TH.

Subject—Legal Rights of a Married Woman in Her Husband's Property.

Chairman—Mrs. Rutherford, Dominion President of the W.C.T.U.

Miss Gillett, attorney-at-law, Washington, read a paper on the Legal Rights of a Married Woman in Her Husband's Property, pointing out the characteristics of a contract which may be dissolved at will by either.

Mrs. Barker, U.S.A., said that so often a woman had a comfortable home and her needs supplied before marriage and if no arrangements were made for a definite sum for her own use she was often in a very unsatisfactory position after marriage. She thought if there were to be a strike among the women to-morrow before breakfast it would be a revelation to men as to who the workers and burden-bearers were. Bakers earn pay for baking bread, but if a woman bakes her own bread, that is a matter of course. We sometimes hear it said when a teacher marries she gives up her work. No, she does not; she changes her work. The only thing she gives up is her income.

Mrs. Lewis, London, Eng., said every woman should have some money of her own of which she should not have to give an account, and spoke of the personal humiliation often suffered on this account.

Frl. Kirch, Germany, said that this question had been discussed in Germany for years and they found it was only possible to settle it by law. The contract is drawn at marriage that the woman have a certain percentage of the income.

Mrs. Swift, Toronto, asked if it were true that a man is liable for his wife's ante-nuptial debts.

The Chair requested Miss Gillett to reply. She said it was so, but that every man had the opportunity of finding out all about these matters before marriage.

Mrs. Stratton, Toronto, thought these questions depended on the economic position of women.

Mrs. Rutherford summed up the situation and thought the girls of to-day were pondering these matters.

Mrs. Alfred Booth's paper on Divorce in Ireland was read by Miss Rosa Barrett, Dublin.

Miss Ogden, England, said that if a woman has saved money her husband may have complete control of it.

Mrs. Waterman, U.S., said that in her country a woman having property before marriage cannot be compelled to pay her husband's debts or in any way be liable for any debts arising out of their living together.

Miss Kock, Norway, read a paper written by a Norwegian lawyer.

Mrs. Edwards stated that the question brought up at a previous meeting as to a man losing his vote if he did not pay alimony is law in Norway and is enforced. She had been requested to read the following by a Norwegian delegate:

According to Norwegian law anyone who does not pay his dues may be deprived of his civil rights. Through the influence of women's organizations this law will now be effectuated against the man who omits to pay alimony to his wife or illegitimate child.

Mrs. Edwards spoke of the case of the homesteader in Alberta where there was no dower. A man and his wife, foreigners, came to the country and homesteaded land. The woman worked hard, fulfilling the homestead requirements, such as ploughing, etc., while the man spent most of his time at a tavern in a near town. At the end of three years, when a patent for the land could be obtained, the man secured the patent, sold the homestead, and left for parts unknown; not till the purchaser claimed possession did the wife know of her husband's actions and that after her three years' hard work she was homeless and penniless in a strange land. These extreme cases were, of course, rare, but the fact remained that the law legalized such injustice in several of the Provinces of Canada. Mrs. Edwards further stated that this lack of recognition by law of the economic value of a woman's labour in her own home was the cause of much unhappiness and humiliation to many married women. The law in all parts of Canada left it entirely to the man during his life-time to give what he thought fit to his wife for labour which, if performed by a woman other than his wife, could command a wage more than her food and clothing.

Mrs. Swift thought that women should be particular to give men their rights, and remember that we assume new duties and new privileges at marriage and should also be willing to shoulder new responsibilities.

Miss Ogden thought woman should claim remuneration, for she deserved equal pay for advancing the common interests.

Miss Langton, Toronto, cited the case of a man and woman who were poor and industrious, the woman taking an equal share of work and bearing his children as well. Times improved. But when the woman lay on her death-bed she asked that her share—her dower—might be given to her aged mother. She found she had no share.

Another case was cited of a woman without children wanting a will made providing for her. She could only get a dower which would not keep her and she had helped to make the income.

Still another case was mentioned, that of a man selling his land and investing in stocks, in which no dower is obtainable.

Mrs. Edwards explained that she had just received a note from Miss Clara Brett Martin that she would not be able to be

present and also that she had not sent her paper on the position of Canadian women. This was much to be regretted, but those wishing to inform themselves of the conditions in Canada would find a condensed report of the Canadian law in Chapters V. and VII. of "Legal Status of Canadian Women."

A paper was then read by Dr. Gullen, written by Señora Carmen S. de Pandolfini regarding the women of Argentina.

That this question of married women's income was of vital importance was shown in the interest evidenced by nearly every woman present. The general feeling was that a married woman, performing her household, wifely and maternal duties, was a self-supporting woman, as much so as one who earned money outside her home; that the expression so often used by a married man, "I have a wife to support," was not correct, the wife supported herself by her work in the house; that often in the middle classes that work was much more arduous than that of the husband who had limited hours, while her "working-day" went far into the night. Very few complaints were made as to the way in which the needs of a married woman were supplied by her husband; indeed the generous unselfishness of most husbands was appreciated, but the general feeling was expressed that what is now given to women as a gift, should be theirs by right. The discussion was based on the regulations of the law as it expressed, and also formed, the public opinion of men. Several remedies were suggested, such as ante-nuptial contracts, etc., but the general opinion was that a certain portion of the income should be allotted by law to the wife after the necessary expenses of the household were deducted.

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### WEDNESDAY, JUNE 30TH—MORNING SESSION.

Subject for the Day—Marriage and Divorce.

Chairman—Mrs. Perry, President of the L. C. of Women, Fort William.

Mrs. E. B. Grannis, U.S., President of the National Christian League for the Preservation of Social Purity, New York, read the first paper. She dealt with the ideal marriage, and the causes of divorce. While deprecating the number of divorces in the United States, she stated that the reasons for these divorces were civilized ones and proved a higher degree of civilization than to compel a man and wife to live together when unfit conditions exist between them.

Fru Drewson, Norway, read the next paper. She explained the two forms of marriage in Norway and the methods of obtaining divorce. In no case are details of divorces given in the daily papers. Fru Drewson stated the circumstances under which the father of an illegitimate child was held as an accomplice in the crime if the woman was arrested for the murder of the child.

Mrs. William Loring Spencer thought the Bible explained many things on this head for us.

Fru Drewson also said that disease was no hindrance to marriage but a frequent cause of divorce and separation.

Miss MacMillan asked what were the conditions of arrangement for the children in cases of divorce.

Fru Drewson replied that arrangements were made that were agreeable to both parties by tactful means.

Mrs. Lewis thought medical examination should be a necessary preliminary to marriage for both man and woman.

Fru Drewson thought there was less disgrace in divorce than in marriage continued under undesirable conditions coupled with disease.

Miss McNeill recommended Dr. Martindale's book, "Under the Surface."

Mrs. Edwards rose to explain the nature of the present meeting; subjects were selected and speakers appointed by the Canadian Council, but when the question was thrown open for discussion, the Council was not responsible for the views expressed; only the person speaking was responsible. She asked those who did not agree with those taking part in the discussion, when they went away, not to say the "Council" taught such and such views.

Miss Langton, Toronto, said that mating came before marriage, for the first was God's law, the second was man's law.

Mrs. Sykes, Canada, thought we should be careful in granting liberty that we did not also grant license.

Mrs. Grannis said license was overdrawn. Until fifty years ago divorce was only granted for absolute adultery.

Mrs. Symes Thompson, England, said she thought there was another side to the picture, and that it would be a terribly dangerous doctrine to advocate easier roads to divorce, for there were classes of people who would be plunged into worse sin. She thought the majority of married women led happy lives as a rule.

Dr. Stowe-Gullen said in her experience she found ill-advised marriages responsible for untold misery.

Miss MacMillan thought that the laws in England and Scotland were unequal for men and women and that men of questionable character should be shunned alike by mothers and daughters. Up to the present time women had not been accounted of sufficient importance; they had held a subsidiary position; the law should make conditions such that it is very uncomfortable for people to do wrong. Suffrage could do this, for it is not a fetish, but a symbol that women have rights.

Mrs. Sykes thought the day had gone when the maxim, "Children should be seen and not heard," held good. It was better for them to "holler" when undesirable than not at all.

Miss MacMillan thought there were some men and women who could not be happy under any condition.

Prof. Keys, Vassar, thought the question of training boys in the right way by their mothers goes back again to suffrage. The vote means more as every question comes up.

Another speaker thought there should be better fellowship between the sexes; it was impossible and undesirable to keep young people apart, for no true love could exist on passing physical attraction.

Dr. Margaret Gordon said the economical question would be changed when the suffrage was granted.

As there had been no paper sent in from England on "Marriage and Divorce," Mrs. Edwards requested Dr. Gullen to read some extracts bearing on the subject from "The Women's Charter of Rights and Liberties," by Lady McLaren. Lady McLaren says that during recent years there has been a distinct advance in the position of English wives, owing especially to the "Married Women's Property" Acts. She advocates the abolition of the doctrine of coverture and instances a recent example of how coverture nullifies acts that are passed for the benefit of women. An Act of Parliament was passed conferring certain local franchises on women, which distinctly enacted that no person possessing qualifications for local franchise should be disqualified by either sex or marriage. The intention of Parliament was thus certainly to enfranchise married women, but throughout the whole of England, London alone excepted, no married woman can, though inhabiting a municipal borough, exercise this vote, because amongst the qualifications which entitle a man to vote, is his capacity of being a burgess, and no person under coverture can become a burgess. Lady McLaren dealt with the question of assaults on wives and commented on the inadequacy of legal protection for a wife against the brutality of a husband. She referred to the Matrimonial Causes Act and stated that the facts brought to light by this Act have been a revelation of brutality which startled the whole country. In treating of divorce Lady McLaren states that all agree in condemning the present system. When the present Divorce Act was enacted, Mr. Gladstone declared it to be "a gross injustice to women in favour of men." It would have been impossible to pass such a measure into law had the views of women been represented in the House of Commons. The Charter proposes, 1st, to abolish sex-distinction in marital misconduct; 2nd, when there are no children of a marriage to allow the husband and wife to jointly petition for dissolution of marriage upon such grounds as the Court may approve; 3rd, to allow either party to be entitled to a dissolution of marriage on any of the following grounds: Habitual drunkenness, the drug habit, conviction for any infamous offence entailing two years' imprisonment or a lesser term if it subjects

the family to public disgrace; 4th, to abolish "collusion" as one of the grounds for dismissing a petition.

Attention was also called to the enormous amount of legal costs now involved in procuring a divorce; also to the fact that under the law of "Domicile" the wife is compelled to follow her husband to a foreign country and if he becomes a naturalized subject she is placed under the laws and regulations of that country without her consent and can be divorced according to the law of that country. The law of Germany was quoted, which states that no woman is bound to accept a foreign domicile against her will.

Miss MacMillan stated that a woman may trade separately from her husband in some cases.

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#### AFTERNOON SESSION, JUNE 30TH.

Dr. Stowe-Gullen read her able paper on "Divorce," treating the subject from an historical standpoint.

Mrs. Denison said that in Canada the divorce laws were only for the rich, and so many of our people go to the States to obtain divorces.

Various individual cases were cited showing injustice to women.

A delegate from Norway said they were not afraid of the word "divorce" in her country, that they had given it a new meaning. If a child died it was always a pity, but when it is dead, it must be buried, and so with marriage. If the foundations on which it was built are gone it cannot stand.

Mlle. Marie Popelin, LL.D., President of the National Council of Women of Belgium, read a paper bearing on the legal position of Belgian women, and stating the nature of the laws recently passed that have bettered their condition. Mlle. Popelin was warmly welcomed and read her paper, as did all the other delegates, in excellent English.

Mrs. Edwards said a great deal had been said by those taking part in the discussion as to liberty and the right of each soul to develop in the environment most suitable to its happiness. There was no such thing as individual liberty, as Paul taught centuries ago that "none of us liveth to himself." We are so inextricably dependent one upon another, that it is impossible to commit a single act that will have consequences only for the actor. Often under the name of liberty a selfish license was sought. Much also had been said about happiness, but happiness was not everything: desirable it was true, but not an aim to be sought; there were many things much more precious than happiness.

Mrs. Edwards strongly advocated divorce when the marriage was such that it became a personal degradation to the wife and

an injustice to possible offspring; she wished that more women had the courage to avail themselves of it, but she held most firmly that no divorced person should remarry. This, it was true, pressed hard upon the innocent person, but we have to bear the consequences of our own acts in marriage as elsewhere—and that we made the mistake in ignorance does not free us from the punishment.

Mrs. Edwards asked permission of the chair to call attention to a section in the Marriage Act of Manitoba of 1906, published in her book, "The Legal Status of Canadian Women." This section did away with all safeguards to legal marriage and made it possible to marry in secret, without clergymen, without witnesses, and without registration, opening the door to all kinds of wrong-doing. She cited a case that had come under her notice, where a large estate had been claimed by an unknown woman representing herself as married under this section, where there was no legal proof of marriage. The estate was handed over to this woman, who disappeared and the lawful heirs, who are women; have never been able to get any trace of the woman or of the justness of her claim.

Mrs. Edwards again repeated her statement made during the morning session as to the Council not being responsible for opinions expressed during discussion. This was felt to be necessary, as some views expressed were most extreme. The speakers were about equally divided for absolute divorce and divorce without right to remarry; but judging from the applause the sympathy of the meeting was with those who advocated divorce without right to remarry.

This discussion closed the meetings of the section. The appended papers are those read in this section which are not otherwise included in the Report.

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#### PAPERS READ IN SECTION ON LAWS THAT CONCERN WOMEN AND CHILDREN.

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##### 1. PARLIAMENTARY AND MUNICIPAL ENFRANCHISE- MENT OF WOMEN.

- (a) Miss E. C. Harvey, England.
- (b) Miss Axianne Thorstensen, Sweden.

Note.—Miss MacMillan, Frau Stritt and Fröken Gina Krog did not hand in their papers, which is much to be regretted, as they contained valuable information.

## WOMEN ON LOCAL GOVERNING BODIES.

By MISS EDITH C. HARVEY, Hon. Sec. Industrial Committee of the National Council of Women of Great Britain and Ireland, and Hon. Sec. of the Stansfield Trust.

A glance at some of the work entrusted to the various local governing bodies in England will soon show how much opportunity for social service women may find on them.

Parish.—The smallest area of local government is the civil parish (i.e., a place for which a separate poor rate can be levied).

Of the 19,093 rural parishes in England and Wales those that have not more than 300 inhabitants need only be managed by a Parish Meeting. This meeting—which is an older institution by some hundreds of years than the House of Lords or the House of Commons—must meet at least twice a year, once about 25th March when, if the Parish contains more than 300 inhabitants, it must elect a Parish Council. If it has more than 100 inhabitants, the County Council may on the petition of the Parish Meeting sanction the election of a Parish Council.

These Councils control all parish property, have a voice in the management of parochial charities, can adopt certain permissive Acts for providing the parish with light, baths, wash-houses, burial grounds and Public Libraries. The Parish Councils by the Small Holdings and Allotments Act of 1908 are bound to provide the resident labouring population with allotments, if there is a demand for them.

In an Urban Parish the Vestry corresponds with the Parish Meeting and the Select Vestry with the Parish Council.

Rural Sanitary District Councils and Urban Sanitary District Councils. All England and Wales, outside the large towns or municipal boroughs, is divided into rural and urban sanitary districts. These councils, as their name indicates, have the special duty of enforcing the Public Health Acts, of the management and ownership of drains, sewers, etc., and the closing or altering of houses unfit for human habitation. They have also to deal with cases of infectious illness, to construct and maintain hospitals, inspect and condemn any food unfit for human consumption. They may, if they wish (in the case of the Rural District Council, with the consent of the County Council) buy or build working-class lodging-houses. They have to appoint inspectors to see that these Acts and any by-laws they make are carried out. (Rural district councillors are also poor law guardians.) Urban sanitary authorities may provide parks and recreation grounds, erect baths and public wash-houses, and public libraries, and if they have a population of over 20,000 they are the local authority for elementary education and administering the Old Age Pension Act in their district. If they have a population of over 50,000 they have to form a Distress Committee to administer the Unemployed Workmen Act of 1905, and they may do so if numbering

over 10,000 if they get the sanction of the Local Governing Board. The Urban Councils have to provide allotments for the labouring population in their area of a size up to one acre, and if they choose up to five; and they may act as agents for their County Councils in providing small holdings (that is agricultural land from 1 to 50 acres) for any persons who desire to buy or lease and will themselves cultivate them.

**County Councils.**—These are the largest areas of local government and among the many duties of their councils are the maintenance of lunatic asylums, reformatories, homes for inebriates, industrial schools and a general superintendence of all matters of health. By the Education Act of 1902 they were made the authorities of both elementary and secondary education, they are the authorities for providing small holdings, administering the Midwives' Act and, excluding the areas administered by certain urban and borough councils, they have to administer the Old Age Pensions Act.

**County Boroughs.**—The Councils of the county boroughs (boroughs of more than 50,000 inhabitants) take over all the duties of the County and District Councils (as do the London County Council and the London Borough Councils for London) and are quite independent of the County Councils.

**Municipal Boroughs.**—The other large towns, called Municipal Boroughs, with Mayors and Town Councils, have all the powers of District Councils and others, often possessing their own police, but differing from a county borough in not being completely free from the County Council. (The county police are managed by a Standing Joint Committee of members of the County Council and Magistrates and the London police are under the control of the Home Office.) A Municipal Borough would be the local pension authority, if it numbered more than 20,000, and the local education authority if it numbered more than 10,000 and for carrying out the Unemployed Act if it numbered over 50,000, or with the consent of the Local Government Act if it numbered over 10,000.

The one other local governing body to be mentioned is that of the Board of Guardians for the administration of the Poor Law—that is for providing relief for the necessitous poor. This is the only body now elected in England for one purpose and the Report of the Poor Law Commission issued this spring seems to foreshadow its extinction in the near future and a complete reorganization of its work.

The position of women on these local councils has varied sometimes for the better, but sometimes for the worse, since the creation of County Councils in 1888. After the election of the first County Council it was ruled that women were ineligible to sit on these bodies. The Local Government Act of 1894, which completed the creation of the present local authorities, by establishing District and Parish Councils made it clear that women should

be eligible for these smaller boards, but it was only in 1907 that the qualifications of women (County and Borough Councils) Acts for England and Wales and for Scotland provided "that a woman shall not be disqualified by sex or by marriage from being elected or being a councillor or alderman of the council of any county or borough—including a metropolitan borough—in England and Wales or of any county or burgh in Scotland; provided (in England and Wales) that a woman, if elected as chairman of a County Council or Mayor of a borough shall not by virtue of holding or having held that office be a Justice of the Peace." There is a similar exception for Scotland. This sounds as though with the exception just mentioned—we were now in a position to state that men and women are in the same position as regards eligibility for the local governing bodies. But though this is so with regard to Scotland, where the Local Government Act provides for the registration of qualified married women, in England married women, women owners, women lodgers and women who might have the service franchise, if they were men, cannot vote for County and Borough Councils and therefore cannot sit on them. (Married women can vote for the London Borough Councils and for the London County Councils, if husband and wife are not both qualified for the same property). A recent Parliamentary return gives the number of women voters for County Councils and Municipal Boroughs in England and Wales as 872,000 out of, say, 9,273,174 women above 21 (605,000 for County Councils and 266,000 for County Boroughs. Largest numbers: London, 119,000; Yorkshire, 53,000; Lancaster, 47,000; Kent, 23,000; Middlesex, 20,000. In Wales there were 48,000 women voters, including 6,000 for the three County Boroughs).

This ineligibility is a serious matter, as it very much limits the choice of good women candidates. There are many married women whose families are not young who would have the necessary leisure for the work and whose experience as mothers and housekeepers would be most useful on the local councils.

A bill was introduced last year and again this year which takes a provision of the Local Government Act, 1894, whereby a residential qualification is made alternative with the electoral qualification for being eligible to sit on Boards of Guardians, on District and Parish Councils and declares that "Residence within the county or the borough respectively during the whole of the twelve months preceding a county council or a borough council election shall be a sufficient qualification." It is not possible at the time of writing to say whether the bill has a chance of passing this session.

The changes adverse to the position of women since 1894 were: (1) The London Government Act of 1899, which abolished vestries on which women could sit and established Borough Councils on which they could not sit till 1907. (2) The Education Acts of 1902 and 1903, which abolished the School Boards, the

bodies that managed the schools built by the ratepayers and on which women could sit and made County and County Borough Councils on which women could not then sit, the authorities for Higher and Elementary Education and certain Boroughs and Urban Districts the authorities for elementary education.

Although the Act of 1907, especially if it is amended by the residential qualification bill, nominally removes the adverse nature of these changes to women, it will still make it more difficult to get women, the same number of women, elected to serve on local authorities. The present tendency is to thrust more and more work, especially the administration of new Parliamentary Acts, upon County and Borough Councils, and as the number of members cannot be much increased without making the councils too large to get through their work, it is impossible to get a large number of the council elected interested in (one) (each) special branch of the work, as we used to do for education with the School Boards. The actual preliminary work of the Council is therefore relegated to various committees on which members of the Council interested in those special branches of work sit with members co-opted for their expert knowledge of the subject. Now, as it is not likely that many women will get on to one Council, these few women councillors will not have time to sit on all the councils on which their presence is desirable. The growing habit of co-opting members to special committees certainly gives an opportunity to some women to serve who would not have the time or desire to serve on the council, but as schemes involving expenditure must come before the full council for their sanction, the co-opted member of the committee desiring the scheme has no opportunity of pressing its claims on the council but must leave it to the councillors, who may not be particularly interested in it.

In spite of these drawbacks, however, the English delegates and visitors are thankful that for the first time they can report to the International Council of Women that women have at last secured the right to sit on all the local governing bodies of their country.

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## PARLIAMENTARY AND MUNICIPAL ENFRANCHISEMENT OF WOMEN IN SWEDEN.

By MISS AXIANNE THORSTENSEN.

In Sweden the work for women's political suffrage has during the last six years been almost exclusively carried on by the National Woman's Suffrage Association, a federation of local branches spread over the whole country. The National Woman's Suffrage Association was organized in 1903, and in March, 1909, the number of affiliated bodies had arisen to 142. Among the members of the Association all classes and all shades of political opinion are represented.

The object of the National Woman's Suffrage Association is to procure for Swedish women the right to vote and to be elected member of the Riksdag (the Swedish Parliament) on the same basis as men. The efforts of the Association are chiefly concentrated on awakening and strengthening the political and social interest of women and in trying to increase the numbers and friends of woman suffrage among the members of Parliament and get bills introduced for women's enfranchisement.

Hitherto the matter of greatest importance for the Association has been to work up a majority in the Second Chamber (the Lower House) and considerable activity was displayed during the time preceding the last elections, of September, 1908. During the election campaign woman suffrage was one of the most debated questions on the programme; it was both on that of the Liberals and on that of the Social Democrats. The Liberal leaders showed a great interest in women's cause, often inviting women to speak at their meetings. At several meetings arranged by the Conservative party women also succeeded in being allowed to speak.

The efforts of the women during the election campaign were not vain, for no doubt it must in some degree be attributed to their work that the major part of the members elected for the Second Chamber were friends of women's enfranchisement. The participation of the women in the election meetings also brought about another good thing. The Suffragists were thus able to put their desires and hopes before groups of men that they had hitherto not had opportunity to reach.

In the Riksdag of this year several bills for women's political suffrage were, as usual, brought in. Two of these were introduced in the Second Chamber, proposing that women should have the vote as well as the right to be elected members of the Riksdag. Another bill was introduced in the First Chamber (the Upper House) asking for women's suffrage.

In the preliminary debate in the Parliamentary Commission on Constitutional Laws a change in opinion, brought about by the new elections was evident; the Commission seconded the bill for women's suffrage and membership.

At the reading of the bill in the Second Chamber the resolution granting the full enfranchisement of women was passed without debate or balloting. This must be considered as a very great triumph for the cause in Sweden, although it had no immediate results, as the First Chamber opposed all the bills brought in for women's franchise.

The foremost aim of the National Woman Suffrage Association must now be to combat the opposition of the First Chamber. This, however, will prove hard work for many reasons. One is that the elections for the First Chamber are indirect, another that the members are not elected at the same time, different constituencies electing at different periods.

The National Woman's Suffrage Association also carries on another work besides the Suffragist work well worthy of consideration. I mean the lecture courses on social questions and reforms that it has started. In Sweden, as in many other countries, citizenship has long been considered not merely as a right of the private individual but far more as a duty of the citizens to place their best capacities and energies at the service of their country. The social courses organized by the different branches of the National Woman's Suffrage Association, are a practical manifestation of this public spirit of responsibility, their aim being to make women ready for the right of full citizenship when it shall be given to them. This information work has had good results also in converting many who were sceptical on the question of women's suffrage. In this year's Riksdag a bill on universal suffrage for men was passed. This new law involves a revision of municipal laws that is of great importance for women from several points of view. Firstly, the property qualifications have been lowered and by this means the small ratepayers have been enabled to obtain greater influence over the elections, which also means a greater influence for women. Secondly, the right of women to be elected members of municipal councils and boards has been greatly extended.

The municipal vote was granted to the women of Sweden as early as 1862. The conditions are the same as for men, viz., that the women should be of age and ratepayers for at least 500 crowns of yearly income. The municipal citizenship of married women was uncertain until 1908, when it was settled that a married woman who has an income derived from her own work or from property under her own management shall have the right to claim a taxation separate from that of her husband. Married women thus can become ratepayers and have the municipal vote. Since 1889 women who have the municipal vote can be elected Poor Law Guardians and members of School Boards and some other boards. Married women are, however, not considered able to be Poor Law Guardians on account of their being under the guardianship of their husbands.

By the enactment of this year's Riksdag the right has been conferred on women to be elected members of all kinds of municipal boards and councils excepting the Landstriege. We shall now be able to have women as councillors in the towns and in the country. This is of great moment, as the sphere of work of the municipal authorities is being more and more extended. The Town Councils are among the corporations that elect the members of the First Chamber and by the grant of municipal eligibility women are now enabled to exercise a direct influence on these elections.

This extension of the rights of women is of course considered to be a very great advantage, and the Swedish women have their attention fixed on getting as many capable representatives

as possible elected members of local government boards. However, we are not inclined to be satisfied with what has now been gained, but hope that municipal rights will prove to be stepping-stones to reach full political citizenship.

## II. TREATMENT OF JUVENILE OFFENDERS AGAINST THE LAW.

- (a) Mrs. Bowen, United States.
- (b) Miss Rosa Barrett, England and Ireland.
- (c) Fr. M. E. Dränkahn, Germany.
- (d) Miss Bouricius, Holland.

## THE TREATMENT OF JUVENILE OFFENDERS AGAINST THE LAW.

By MRS. BOWEN, Chicago, U.S.A.

The new law regarding the treatment of dependent and delinquent children went into operation in Illinois on July the first, 1899, and was the first law of its kind passed in this country. Since then 29 other States have adopted similar laws, and there is a bill pending now before the Legislature of almost every State in the Union in regard to the establishment of such courts. Juvenile Courts have been established in London and Birmingham, England; in Canada, France, Germany, Norway and Sweden, New Zealand, and Australia.

Previous to the passage of this law, when children were arrested for any offence whatever, they were taken to the County Jail, there to await trial, and there subjected to the influence and association of old and hardened criminals, who many times from sheer viciousness taught these children all the tricks of their profession.

When the day came for the trial of the child, it was held in the Criminal Court. The child awaited his turn among criminals; he was treated as a criminal because he had been associated with them. If he was found guilty of the offence for which he was charged, he was punished by a fine. If he could not pay, as was usually the case, he was sent to prison, there to be confined again with criminals.

I remember about ten years ago visiting the County Jail in Chicago, and finding there 13 boys confined in one room under the charge of an old man who was a confessed wife murderer.

I remember another boy who had been confined for three months in the same cell with a murderer, and he had taken his only exercise in a corridor where disreputable women always walked. What chances had these children of ever becoming decent citizens?

The new law has some defects, but its evident success has been most gratifying, and it can be readily seen that a law which encour-

ages parental responsibility, and which places children under the care of a probation officer who has been trained for the purpose, is better than one which takes the child away from his natural protector and which makes him a charge upon the State.

Public opinion recognized that this state of affairs, this putting children in with criminals, was a terrible one, and that the children of our country were being corrupted. A great protest arose against these practices, and largely owing to the efforts of the women of Illinois the new Juvenile Court law was the result.

When the law went into effect it provided for the Judge and the Court, and the probation officers, but it made no provision for the salaries of the probation officers, neither did it provide for any place of detention for the children, although it especially stated that they should not be confined in the jails and police stations. Then it was that a committee of citizens, called the Juvenile Court Committee, was formed. They raised funds for the salaries of the probation officers, starting with five and ending with 22, and then finding that it was time for these services to become a charge upon the public, they secured the legislation which placed the probation officers upon the pay-roll of the County under a civil service examination, and turned over to them their entire force of probation officers, all of whom passed the examination; and so the County found itself equipped with an efficient corps of workers who had been chosen because of their fitness for the position, and not because of any "political pull."

The Committee took a house in Chicago, fitted it up as a detention home, a place where the children were kept after their arrest, until the time of their trial. This home was maintained for six years, every year between 2,600 and 2,700 children passing through it.

The Committee then turned their attention to getting the County and the city to buy land and build a Juvenile Court with a Detention Home in connection with it. In this they were successful, the city furnishing the land, the County appropriating \$150,000 for the building. This building has now been erected on the West Side of Chicago, and is serving as a model of its kind for all other Juvenile Courts and Detention Homes in the country.

On the first floor is the Juvenile Court Room, with the Judge's desk at one end, and his chambers just behind. The hearings in this room are private. No one is admitted except the child with his parents or guardians, the witnesses, the officers of the Court, and a few visitors who may be particularly interested in the sessions of the Court. There is a waiting room for the children and their witnesses; there are rooms for the chief and assistant chief probation officers, rooms for the attorneys and the clerks, a library for the probation officers, a number of small separate rooms, where these officers may interview the children and their parents, and rooms where the children are put to wait after their disposition by the Court, and until they can be sent to the institutions to which they have been committed.

Above the first floor is the Detention Home, the girls' quarters on one side, the boys' on the other. There are large dormitories for the boys, light and airy, with a large, sunny school-room. The girls have the same, and several small rooms, where if need be they can be segregated. Another floor is given up to the dependent children, who are under the charge of a kindergarten teacher, and who have a large and sunny nursery.

Now, under the new law, and I am quoting the Illinois law, when a child is arrested for any offence whatever, he is taken into the nearest Municipal Court. He is there brought before the Sergeant of Police or Captain, or whoever happens to be in charge. If he has been brought into court on the complaint of a neighbor, or because of some trifling offence—and arrests for such trifling offences are frequent—the child is sent back to his home, possibly with a reprimand. I remember seeing a little boy in court some time ago, who had been brought in by a woman who owned chickens, and every time she met the little boy on the street he flapped his arms and crowed like a chicken. This enraged the chicken lady so much that she had him arrested. But if the offence is anything more serious he is put in charge of a police probation officer, a man in plain clothes, of whom there are 27 supported by the city.

The child is taken by this officer into the Juvenile Court, where he is taken into the clinic supported by the County and given a thorough medical examination. This was done because it was found that the majority of children who were brought into the Juvenile Court were abnormal. Out of the first 1,200 cases examined, 81 per cent. were found to be abnormal. They had defective vision, or hearing, adenoids or enlarged tonsils, or a weak heart, or diseased lungs, or spinal curvature. Hardly a child out of the 1,200 had good teeth. Upon examination, out of 58 children who were in the Home one day, 55 of them had defective teeth.

After the child has been examined, a statement is kept regarding his condition, and a recommendation is made to the Judge and this statement and recommendation are taken into consideration by the Judge when the child comes to his trial. After the boy has been examined, he is taken up a back staircase into a receiving room, where he is met by a matron and given a bath and a fresh suit of clothes—not a uniform, but an ordinary suit. His own clothes are washed and disinfected, and if fit for use are given back to him the following day. The boy then goes into a large school-room, where he is in charge (from nine in the morning until four in the afternoon) of two teachers supplied by the Board of Education. In addition to the usual public school studies, he is taught basket-making, weaving, and bead work, and clay modelling. We have a teacher here who has a remarkable influence over boys, who takes a great interest in them, and the few days that they are with her enables them to make great progress.

The girls are treated in exactly the same way. They are taken up another staircase, bathed and dressed afresh, and are put in a school-room for girls with a teacher. Here they are taught, be-

sides the regular studies, sewing, knitting, and crocheting. The teachers here are furnished by the Board of Education. The girls are taught to make their own dresses. Material is furnished for them, and they are allowed to take away with them such things as they do themselves.

When a child is brought to the Juvenile Court the Superintendent of the Detention Home telephones to the probation officer living in that child's neighborhood. There are 39 such officers employed by the County. That officer then visits the child's neighborhood, and his home, and tries to find out what has led to his present trouble. Perhaps she finds that he is the child of newly arrived immigrants who are ignorant of our laws. They have sent the child perhaps to the railroad yard, and because he has picked up fuel from the tracks, he has been brought into court by the special officer employed by the railway company, and charged with stealing.

Perhaps he has been out on the streets seeking amusement, and with a crowd of boys has thrown stones, flipped cars, bated Jewish peddlers, or burned boxes and fences in vacant lots.

Or perhaps he has been put to work at an early age by his father and the wages taken by the father, and the child in revolt against this injustice has stolen from him.

Or perhaps he is a messenger boy employed by some large corporation. He has seen men make and lose fortunes in a minute, and he stakes his little all in some "get rich quick concern" or gambling speculation. He loses, and in desperation tries to recover himself by taking something from his employer.

Or perhaps it is a girl and she has been employed for low wages in some department store or factory, and she longs for some of the gay-colored clothing that she sees displayed in all of the shop windows, and so she steals perhaps a little bit of ribbon or some artificial flowers, or some feathers or something that will enable her to present a better appearance, and she is brought into court for stealing.

Or perhaps the girl is brought in for immorality. She possibly has stood all day long in a department store, or has worked in a factory for ten or twelve hours. She goes home at night exhausted, either to an unattractive home, filled perhaps with household furniture and with children, or possibly, it may be, to some hall bedroom in a cheap lodging house. She is nervously tired out from her long day, and she needs recreation. There is no amusement and no brightness to be found in the home, and she goes out on to the streets to get it, and she gets into trouble and is brought into the Juvenile Court. I have heard so many girls say in court that the cause of their downfall in the first place was the fact that they were seeking amusement because their lives were so dull and monotonous.

All these things the probation officer finds out, and then when the child is brought into court for trial, the probation officer stands up beside him and tells the Judge all that she knows about him,

and the Judge has on one hand the medical examination and recommendation of the medical clinic, and on the other hand the child's history. Consequently he is able to make a wise disposition of the child, and if he is brought into court for the first time, he returns him to the home, as the Judge always returns the child to the home when it is possible; but he is placed under the care of a probation officer, and then the probation officer visits the child's home regularly, becomes the friend and adviser of the family, and, backed by the power of the law, requires that the home be made decent. The parents try hard to do better for the child, because they feel that he is under the protection of the law, the standard of the home is raised, it gradually assumes a different aspect, the child grows up to be a self-supporting citizen, and the State is saved the burden and support of a criminal. If the home is criminal, or if the probation system has already been tried with the child, then he is committed to an institution.

In Chicago we have the Parental School for what might be called first offenders, and then the John Worthy School, which is in connection with the Bridewell, although in a separate building; and then there are several other schools for boys—the St. Charles State School, where there is a farm out-of-doors life, Feehanville, which is a Roman Catholic School, and one or two others.

For girls our accommodations are rather limited. There is the House of the Good Shepherd, a Catholic institution, and the Geneva Home for Protestant Girls. Both of these institutions are crowded, and there is a great need now in Chicago for another home for what might be called semi-delinquent girls.

Now this, briefly stated, is the treatment of the juvenile offenders who are brought into the Juvenile Court of Chicago. The Juvenile Court is one of the finest institutions in our country, and America has every reason to be proud of it. But the Juvenile Court is very much like a skilful physician or surgeon—it takes charge of the child and does what it can for him after he has become ill.

But what we want to do now is to try and get at the child before he becomes ill, to try and keep him from committing the misdemeanors which take him into the Court; to try and lessen that sad little procession which, day after day, and year after year, wends its way into this institution. In order to do this we must do away with the causes which lead to the delinquency and crime, and after this has been done we must be not only repressive, but constructive. We must have more parks and playgrounds, more swimming pools, and places in which little children can wade. We must get at the gang, not to break them up, but to bring them in. We must open our public schools as social centres, and we must have dance halls—possibly municipal dance halls—where boys and girls can meet together and have clean, wholesome pleasures. All children need pleasure—you need it, and I need it, and they need it, and if they are not able to get it lawfully they are going to take it unlawfully. The streets of our large cities are filled with

buildings, noise and dirt; we have our cheap theatres, with their travesties on all the great sacraments of life; our pool-rooms filled with criminals; our saloons with their glittering lights, their back rooms and their disreputable dance halls, luring boys and girls to their downfall.

We hear a great deal about the harmful influences of these places, but what are we doing to make that other side of life attractive? What are we doing for the pleasure of the youth who walk our streets? for the over-dressed little shop girl, with her big pompadour and huge hat laden down with flowers and feathers? for the over-confident, self-assertive boy, with his sporty clothes and his gay tie? Commonplace enough, you may say—yes, *perhaps so; but each one with a soul needing development, looking about for something on which it may lay hold; trying to make out of the cheap theatres and the gay shops, some sort of a romance; each one yearning for joy and beauty and power, and expression; each one sending up a cry, "I am young, I want pleasure; I need life, give it to me, give it to me more abundantly."*

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### THE TREATMENT OF JUVENILE OFFENDERS.

By MISS ROSA M. BARRETT, Ireland.

Within the memory of most of us, more hopeful and remarkable changes have taken place in the treatment of juvenile offenders than has been the case in any previous decade, or indeed century, and in no country is this more marked than in Great Britain, and many of our colonies, notably Canada. These have indeed long been ahead of the Mother Country in their preventive work. These changes may be clearly seen from the paper I published in 1894 in the Journal of the R. Statistical Society. Several of the methods I there urged have since been adopted and legalized by our Government.

For centuries our one idea in dealing with a criminal was purely vindictive. Punishment was the only thing thought of, more recently the thought of reforming the person, while punishing the crime, dawned on the mind as a possibility, and still more lately the more hopeful method of preventive work took shape; and here in Toronto, where I have already had the pleasure of going to your police courts, I was delighted to find that your preventive work is so good, that from the whole Province there are only forty-seven women in your Reformatory, under the charge of that most able woman, Mrs. O'Sullivan.

May I, before dealing with methods, touch briefly on some striking statistics, just pointing out first that till 35 years ago, all over seven years of age were alike in the eyes of the law. For those who broke the law—child or adult—no distinction was made in their treatment; a child of eight might legally be condemned to death; yet where property was concerned he was a minor, a child, until 21 years old, not even responsible for debts, physically and

mentally undeveloped, yet morally an adult with disastrous results, since prison is indeed too often "a school of crime." A friend of mine told me a few weeks ago that his father saw a boy of 11 hung for stealing a meat pie. So progress, if slow, is really being made.

#### STATISTICS.

Almost every country is awake to the fact that to imprison a juvenile offender is the worst possible way of dealing with him or her, since everyone knows that once self-respect is destroyed, the downward path becomes fatally easy. It is a well known fact that a large proportion of prisoners become recidivists. In England 30 per cent. of first offenders, if imprisoned, return; in Ireland 45 per cent., and in every country, though the exact proportion varies, the fact holds true, "the oftener you go, the hardener you get," as one said, and another, "once a jail bird, always a jail bird." One boy of only 15 had already 27 convictions in England. Hence the wisdom of resorting to other methods in dealing with first, and especially juvenile offenders; and so in every country there is a striking decrease of juvenile prisoners, but (and this does not necessarily follow) there is also a striking decrease in juvenile offenders in almost every country; the only exception of which I know is Spain, and, I fear, Belgium. In England offences by those over 13 and under 16 years old decreased nearly two-thirds in 11 years. In Ireland the decrease is even more striking; where forty years ago one prisoner in five was under 16, now there is hardly one in 200, and the prisoners under twenty-one are only ten per cent. of the total—a lower proportion than in any other country, I believe. The decrease is equally striking in most of our colonies and in some of the States. But, encouraging as this fact is, there is another almost as discouraging, and that is the sad and almost universal increase of juvenile-adult offenders. In fact, the age from 16 to 21 is the most criminal age in nearly every country.

Another striking fact is that juvenile-adult offenders are in stature and weight under the average of the artisan population of the towns of the same age, and still more below the average of the labouring rural class or general population.

In Germany more than half of the minors apprehended are under 16, and 16 per cent. are under 14 years old. In France, in Belgium, in almost every country, sad to say, the same fact holds good; the only exceptions of which I know—that is, the only places where crime among those from 16 to 21 is not on the increase—are to be found in some of our colonies—here in beautiful Canada for one, or rather Ontario. I do not know whether statistics for other parts are available—for New Zealand, South Australia, and one or two of the United States, such as Michigan and Minnesota, where such magnificent preventive work is carried on.

In my other papers I hope to deal with the causes of the facts I have just given, which I have some diagrams here to illustrate.

One cannot help asking oneself, when dealing with such a subject as that of juvenile crime, why there is such a thing at all; it is abnormal, it is not the punishment for crime alone we should

seek to abolish, we must abolish the crime, we must search out the causes and set those to rights. Surely it is we, it is the negligent guardians, who should be punished for allowing children to grow up ignorant, neglected, degraded; in fact, of children brought up for offences, 75 per cent. are so owing to parental neglect; but so far very little has been done to bring home this responsibility. In Canada this has recently been done, and also in New York, New South Wales, Colorado; and in England, under our new Children's Charter, parents may be fined.

#### METHODS.

But enough of statistics. What methods are adopted, and which seem wisest for dealing with juvenile offenders? The simplest and oldest is, of course, imprisonment—also the worst and most wasteful. Nothing is more costly, more of a dead failure, than imprisonment. Every prisoner costs some £30 a year, and probably leaves his family dependent on the rates or charity, and when released the probability is he will be worse than ever; he is not released because he is reformed.

Under our new Children's Act, which must be enforced by January 10th next at latest, imprisonment for those under 14 is wholly abolished, and for those under 16 also, unless the offence is a very serious one or the offender is uncontrollable and too unruly for an institution; nor may any be kept in police cells nor associate with adult offenders, but must be kept while waiting trial in some safe place and tried separately from adults. I will not now touch upon children's trials and courts, since this subject is allotted to me in another section. If found guilty, a wide choice of treatment is open in place of imprisonment. The child—that is, one under 14—may be discharged, whipped, fined, placed under supervision, sent to a relative or some fit person, or removed if the home is hopelessly bad, and sent to an institution such as an Industrial or Reformatory School, and the parent may be fined or required to give surety for the future better control of the child. Other Industrial School inmates are those under 14 (or 15 in certain cases) found begging, homeless, destitute, wandering, without guardian or with a parent who is a criminal, in prison, a drunkard, thief or immoral, and may be taken up by the police or a private person for this, or if found in immoral houses. Day Industrial Schools are mainly for offenders against the Compulsory Education Act, and are to give food, education and industrial training, parents contributing. From 86 to 92 per cent. of those leaving Industrial Schools do well and are in regular employment.

Release on probation of juveniles or first offenders is successful, especially where supervision is exercised by competent but sympathetic persons. In Birmingham an Oxford graduate has taken up this work of supervision enthusiastically.

Similarly 84 per cent. of those released on parole or probation from the New York Juvenile Courts do not reappear. In Massachusetts only five to ten reappear, and in New Zealand it works successfully in 94 per cent. of the cases so dealt with; a great saving

in money also, and the families are not thrown on the support of charity.

The Borstal system was introduced in England in 1895, for teaching and training younger prisoners; if under sentence for over 12 months, drill and physical improvement form one great feature. The system is in force at Borstal, Dartmoor, Lincoln and Clonmel. The inmates learn a trade, and on discharge pass into the care of a special voluntary Borstal Association or Committee, who look out for employment, lodgings, etc., provide clothing, etc., and visit them frequently.

By degrees through the adoption of these or similar efforts the "never never" boys, as someone has called the Hooligans, because they never will do a stroke of work, may become extinct.

I have seen here in Toronto your excellent Children's Shelter, with, alas, 60 inmates. The bird with a broken pinion can never soar high. Is it well to start our children with maimed natures and so stunt their lives for ever?

The 1908 report of the State Children's Council, Adelaide, gives for the first time a careful statement as to those discharged from control. Of 762, 656 are doing well, or 86.2 per cent. Of those placed out before the appointment of a probation officer, from 66 to 80 per cent. of children and homes improved; after supervision by probation officers 97 per cent. children and 85 per cent. homes improved in most cases. 74 per cent. in other cases, and of those on parole, 75 to 85 per cent. were satisfactory. The experiment has been a marked success; employment has been found for many children; the State has been saved the expense of the maintenance of children; the parents and homes, as well as the children, have been helped, and good feeling produced without friction though strict discipline has been maintained.

In Italy probation is now being applied to unruly boys, and to boys released conditionally or set free from prison. The Crown Prosecutor in Rome has agreed to pass on such cases to the Probation Committee, and requested all the magistrates to refer suitable cases to them. Volunteers attend the court and receive the boys.

In prison there is too much solitude, too much monotony, too little real hard work, too little to elevate, too little to occupy thought or interest, or develop self-respect. Hardly any nature, nothing to reform.

But at last our feet are on the right way surely. The splendid preventive work of Canada is bearing fruit, but you in Toronto must see that your child labour and school attendance laws are enforced and so abolish what has been called the divine right of the boy to go to the Devil. If 90 per cent. of Industrial School boys are reformed, 90 per cent. of Hooligans might be if taken in time.

The greatest preventives of crime are good education of hand as well as of memory, instruction in some trade or employment, sobriety; if these are enforced in youth, the country will be peopled by happy, self-respecting, industrious, law-abiding citizens, and

need fear no foreign foe. Its best "Dreadnoughts" will be its contented men and women.

"What here is faithfully begun,  
Will be completed, not undone."

### THE GERMAN JUVENILE COURT.

By FRÄULEIN DRÄNKHALN.

You women of Canada will be able to understand us Germans. I once read the word: "Canadians admit that the world moves, but are not committed to the belief that it should whirl." That conservative regard for ancient usage, and opposition to violent change, which has distinguished the development of Canada from that of the United States is the reason why we Germans so often reluctantly follow others and are very much in the rear of the United States and some northern countries in Europe.

When I was asked to speak about Juvenile Courts I had to begin with praise of the United States, the country in which took place the first Juvenile Court, the greatest revolution, as I may call it, in the dominion of penal law and law suit in the last century. Mention the name of Lirdsey and every friend of children and young people in the old world knows that thousands and thousands of young criminals have been regained for proper life, have been made useful citizens of their country, of their native town, through this one man and his system.

We need not trouble about the question how it was possible that the first Juvenile Court in America took place on the first of July, 1899, in Chicago, under the title of "Children's Court," and only eight years and a half later the first Juvenile Court in Germany was held in Cologne on the first of January, 1908. For this slowness in accepting an institution that found acknowledgment in the whole civilized world, must count that one excuse already mentioned, namely, that Germany is a country with a long historical past. This is a fact, at the same time to be proud of as well as to be—rather ashamed of. Proud of, for instance, if we think that we can look back upon a glorious past so old that—let me quote only one example, the old monument of Roland in Bremen was already standing on the same spot where all of you who have travelled in Germany have seen and admired it, stood there before America was discovered—ashamed of, for instance, if we think of our new German criminal code. It is not older than our German Empire if one looks upon the outer setting, but much older than 1870 as to contents. These go back to the criminal code of 1851, and this again is built up upon the law of the eighteenth century. Well, I think it is evident to all of us that laws are the product of a nation's intelligence, education and morals of that time during which the law was elaborated, and I think it is easy to understand that these laws retained from

times past long ago and familiar by long practice will only disappear very slowly, although one feels distinctly they don't reflect the condition of present development. Only fancy! We don't possess a law against children's ill-treatment, but we can hope there is a chance that this remarkable omission will be repaired before the next great reform of our criminal code.

After the start at Cologne with the first Juvenile Court in Germany, Frankfurt-on-the-Main followed very soon, and during the period of only one year Juvenile Courts were established in 58 German cities and towns. The courts of justice in all Federative States have given orders concerning the judgment of juvenile offenders. These orders came out in Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Württemberg, Baden, etc. The Hanseatic towns, Hamburg and Lübeck, also possess Juvenile Courts, only the Magistrate of Bremen, of that town, that usually marches ahead at the inception of so many useful modern innovations, is still discussing the question. Of course we in Germany have in our Juvenile Courts the conditional release, but I am sorry to say up to date this does not undo the fact that the juvenile was once before the court and was condemned. Although he has been reformed, through all his life the sentence will be mentioned in his papers and aggravate for him the difficulties of life.

In the German Juvenile Court the Juvenile Judge, two assessors and the public prosecutor have to act. These assessors or jurymen as you may call them, are no lawyers, but men chosen by option from among the citizens. Of course many conform to the idea that it is most desirable that women also should be eligible for these courts as soon as the transaction concerns women and children. Remonstrances have been made to the Government, but as I mentioned before, all progress is made slowly in Germany; but we women have made up our mind not to stop this business until we have got our finger into the pie!

The transaction will not take place in the great hall of the Court of Justice but in a small private place that offers as little room as possible for the public. To-day's law in Germany allows the public to be present, so we can't forbid the entrance, but, as usually in life, "where there's a will, there's a way." Little tricks are found out to avoid publicity. In Altona, for instance, that door is always locked on these days "by accident," and very seldom is anybody bold enough to try to enter through the other door, which is open for the entrance of the jury, the offenders and the representatives of those societies whose task is probation of youthful sinners or prevention of cruelty to children.

If a lad under 18 years is discovered among the auditors our judge has a good method for getting rid of him. After having questioned him about his age, he will ask him in quite a friendly way if he has nothing to do, and when the hopeful youth answers that he has no employment, the judge tells him that he will look out for a probation, and you may be sure that half a

minute later the lad has disappeared and is never again seen among the few auditors of our Juvenile Court.

The Court of Justice in Altona is of all Germany the one that has given the proof that it was possible to accommodate a Juvenile Court to circumstances to bestow upon it, and even under our present law, a high degree of educational and social influence.

Our Minister of Justice wishes that in all cases of juvenile offenders as much as possible the help of those societies that work for the aid of children be sought. The woman is praised as particularly gifted for judging juveniles.

This is the back-door through which our President of the court in Altona has brought in a female lawyer as counsel for the juvenile offenders. Sometimes the counsel speaks before the public prosecutor because a good defence might awake in the children the idea, "Well, it wasn't so bad after all what I've done." and they perhaps will feel rather a little bit of a hero; so you see if the public prosecutor speaks after the defence the youth will leave the court with the last impression of the seriousness of the indictment. With juveniles of the age of 16-18 the defence will take place as usual after the accusation.

Another great advantage of our Juvenile Court in Hamburg, as well as in Altona, that ought to be typical, is that every juvenile offender is examined medically before he is brought before the judge, because medical science has found out that children in the years of development between 12 and 18 years may suffer from an illness called "youth-madness." To their family, their teachers, they appear to be quite healthy and yet they are burdened with a heavy local disease. The first sign of this illness is always a misdemeanour. Of course these unhappy children are never brought before the court but are sent into a suitable establishment.

If my countrymen have made up their mind to go in for a thing they do it with thoroughness. This year there took place in Berlin the first Congress of German Juvenile Judges. The interest was so great that the large hall of the Town House could hardly hold all those interested. The idea of this Congress turned out to be a very happy one. You can judge how many took part if I tell you that Bavaria alone sent 38 officials, all sent to Berlin on State money.

I am so glad to be able to tell you that by different official visitors to the before-mentioned Congress, I was told that the two present female lawyers, Miss Dr. Duensing, Berlin, and Miss Dr. Anna Schultz, Hamburg-Altona, distinguished themselves strikingly, the one giving the best paper, the other speaking best of all in the debate.

Since then men in Germany have come to the conclusion that women are not only fit but necessary for the bar, and I heard

with my own ears Prof. Liepmann, of the University of Kiel, say: "Women, do come and study jurisprudence, we do want you!"

So you see, we German women have now, as the stone begins to roll, a gleam of hope that some day our Juvenile Courts will reach that perfection which they must attain for the sake of those who are the coming generation, the future of our nation; and that at the same time women and mothers will obtain by law that official position that is due to them, namely, a public, lawful position with vote in our future courts of justice in proceedings against female and juvenile offenders.

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## JUVENILE OFFENDERS AGAINST THE LAW

By Miss BOURICIUS, Holland.

In the beginning of this century (*viz.*, 1905), the Netherlands got their laws for child protection.

The care for the young had, however, not been sleeping till that date. Charitable societies, religious communities, etc., took care of the helpless, of the neglected, tried to better bad dispositions and to make the future brighter for sufferers by giving relief in affliction. Orphanages, institutions for half-orphaned children, homes for waifs and strays, temporary shelters for relief in distress, the Society "Pro Juventute" (*i.e.*, "for the youth"), to give help to children brought before the judge; families taking children under special control, etc., had already existed, some for centuries, some others for years. Municipalities did something in this way besides.

But the laws did not as yet give the help they ought to. The law knew what it was to punish and to educate to a certain degree: too hard labour and immoral influences were forbidden and punished. But the houses of punishment did but seldom better the criminal children, and the State institutions for education generally (especially those for boys) were unable to turn bad children into good ones. Instruction did not outweigh misery and bad instinct. Bad influences continued to work.

When children had to be protected against their own parents the law gave permission to intervene except in very strong cases. When philanthropic institutions wanted payment for boarding of children under their care the State had no right to help them. So our laws wanted a change very much.

In 1901 the code of laws underwent this change in its civil and in its penal part, but unfortunately the new laws did not begin to work until four years later (*viz.*, December 2nd, 1905) as there were so many preparatory regulations to be made.

Although I am charged to speak about the penal laws only, I wish to mention with some words the Civil Laws, as some very important new regulations have been made.

### I. CIVIL LAWS.

They give the right to intervene for philanthropic and educational purposes, making it possible to withdraw children from the power of their parents or guardians: (a) When they are unable to educate their children: (b) when these are unworthy to do so.

(a) In the first case the withdrawal cannot take place without the consent of the parents or guardians.

(b) In the second case the withdrawal can take place in cases of neglect or ill-treatment without the consent of the parents or guardians.

When children have been withdrawn from their natural supporters a guardian is named, who may be a man or a woman or a philanthropic society satisfying the conditions of the law. Till the twenty-first year of the children the State pays for them from 25 to 60 cents Dutch a day and keeps control over them; these children are called "guardian children," their parents are forced to contribute towards the cost of maintenance of their children.

All these cases are treated by a Board of Guardianship, composed of persons (men and women) who are personally acquainted with the needs of the poor, with education and with charitable institutions. There are 27 of these boards in the Netherlands; their members are nominated by the Crown and only the secretary is salaried.

All the cases are brought before the boards, they obtain all necessary information and give advice to the Tribunal about the guardians to be named and the further education of the children. Some of these are trusted to institutions which place them in educational homes; some to institutions which board them out in families fit for this work; this depends upon the circumstances and the character of each child individually.

### II. PENAL LAWS.

(a) How it was in former years.

The children were punished in the same way as grown-up people were, with the only difference of shorter imprisonment. It goes without saying that a sojourn in a prison had a very demoralizing influence upon the young delinquents. The judge who understood this very often did not punish the young offenders even in cases where a punishment was deserved.

(b) How it is actually.

The present conditions differ from the former ones in (a) the age of the delinquents; (b) the procedure; (c) the punishment.

(a) The Age of the Delinquents.—Under the above mentioned laws come all children under 18, who can consequently never be placed in a prison, and only in exceptional cases children

under the age of from 16 to 18 years can be tried as grown-up people.

(b) The Procedure.—The young offender is assisted in all stages of the lawsuit by his advocate, while parents, teachers, employers are generally summoned as witnesses.

Even at the first trial as much information as possible is obtained about the education, the character, the development and the conduct of the delinquent, and the parents are present at the session, which takes place with closed doors.

The form of the procedure is less complicated than it is for grown-up people.

When a child is brought before the judge three cases are possible.

1st. That the judge returns the child to his parents without any punishment.

2nd. That a sentence is passed on him (for the punishment see hereafter).

3rd. That the child is placed at the disposition of the Government. It must be observed that in this last case the child is not punished, but that another education than the one he or she gets from the parents is judged necessary. Such a child can be sent to a State reformatory or can be trusted to one of the institutions named above. When the conduct of the child changes for the better it may be acquitted conditionally or unconditionally before its twenty-first year.

(c) The Punishment.—This may consist of—

1st. Reproof, which is a punishment passed by sentence pronounced in a formal session of the Tribunal and may have a favourable influence on the delinquent.

2nd. Fine.

3rd. Placing in a Morality School. There are four of these schools, three for boys and one for girls.

The principal characteristic of these schools is that everything which reminds of a prison is avoided. Their aim is to give the young delinquent a strong impression by which he may be prevented from offending again; the duration of his stay there is often very short. In these Morality Schools children can also be placed upon solicitation of their parents.

A Council of Advice, named by the Crown, and instituted to inform the Government regarding all these different cases is composed of men and women of high moral standing and culture: lawyers, teachers, philanthropists, etc.

The laws, now in operation for four years, answer the expectations we entertained of them, and probation officers were nominated in our large towns to secure their right observance.

So the Dutch laws of child protection can never become a dry administrative part of the code, as persons theoretically trained and continually acting in practical life, work together for this noble aim.

### III. PARENTAL LEGAL RIGHTS OF MARRIED WOMEN AND LEGAL STATUS OF ILLEGITIMATE CHILDREN.

- (a) Mr. Kennedy, barrister, paper sent by Mrs. Alfred Booth.
- (b) Miss French, B.C.L., Canada.
- (c) Mrs. Dobson, Tasmania.
- (d) Mrs. Darre Jensen, Norway.

#### MOTHER AND CHILD: NOTES ON THE LEGAL RELATIONSHIP.

By MR. ALFRED R. KENNEDY, Barrister-at-Law.

Sent by Mrs. Booth and read by Miss MacMillan.

##### CUSTODY.

The father is the natural guardian of his child. After his death the mother is the natural guardian, though the father may appoint a guardian to act jointly with her. As natural guardian she has the same right to the custody of her child as the father had in his lifetime and the same remedies to enforce her rights. She may also lose the right of custody on any of the grounds on which the court will deprive the father of his custody. Now as has been said the legal right to the custody and control of the child is primarily vested in the father. The child is subject to it until reaching the age of 21 years or if a daughter marrying before that age. An agreement whether ante or post nuptial by which the father purports to surrender it is void as against public policy with the exception that an agreement in a separation deed that the mother shall have the custody of any child of the marriage may be enforced unless in the opinion of the Court the agreement is not in the interest of the child. But the Court has power upon the application of the mother to make such order as it may think right with regard to the custody of the child and the right of access to it of either parent.

The Divorce Court has wide powers of discretion in matrimonial suits as to custody, education and maintenance of the child during infancy. While the guilt or innocence of the accused party is still in issue the Court as a rule does not interfere with the Common Law right of the father to have the custody of the child. If the wife succeeds in her suit against the husband she is generally given the custody of the children, though if neither wife nor husband is deemed fit to have charge of them they will be placed in the custody of a third person. A divorced wife is usually not allowed access to her children.

Where the child has been deserted by the parent or the parent is imprisoned and the child is being maintained by the guardians of any union the guardians may resolve that the child shall be

under their control until the age of 16 if a boy or 18 if a girl, and such resolution while in operation deprives the parent of any rights in respect of the child.

By the recent Children's Act, 1908, (in this matter re-enacting earlier statutory provisions), any person having the custody of a child under the age of 16 years who by any court has been convicted of any of certain specified offences in respect of the child or committed for trial for any such offence or bound over to keep the peace towards such child may be deprived by the court of the custody of the child, and while the order is in force the person to whom the custody of the child is confided has all the rights and duties of the parent.

The right of the father, mother or other person entitled to the custody of a child can when it is infringed be enforced by a writ of habeas corpus unless the child being a girl over the age of 16 years or a boy over the age of 14 consents to the custody in which she or he is. But the court may refuse this remedy when the parent has abandoned or deserted the child or allowed it to be brought up by another person, institution or by a Union, or has otherwise shown that he or she is unmindful of his or her parental duties.

Generally the Court will always interfere with a parent's control where he or she is proved to be unfit to have charge. Unfitness may arise from various circumstances. Poverty in itself is not a ground for interfering with parental control though it may be a good ground for refusing to make an order for the child to be given up to the parent.

Children must as a rule be brought up in the religion of their father. The fact that the mother holds a different religious belief is no reason for taking the custody of the children away from her, but she may be restrained from bringing them up in her own faith.

The mother, like the father, can appoint guardians to her children by will or deed to act after the death of both parents alone or jointly with guardians appointed by the father. She may also appoint guardians to act after her death jointly with the father and the Court may confirm the appointment on proof that the father is unfitted to be sole guardian.

#### MAINTENANCE.

A married woman having separate property is subject to the same liability as her husband for the maintenance of her children and grandchildren but without relieving him from any existing liability. While by the criminal law a parent who wilfully neglects to provide adequate food, clothing, medical aid or lodging to his or her child whereby the health of the child has been or is likely to be seriously injured is liable to imprisonment.

Under the poor law children whose parents are poor and unable to work are, when of sufficient ability, liable to maintain them. Therefore when a parent through poverty and inability

to work becomes chargeable to the parish an order for his own or her maintenance can be made on the children.

#### EDUCATION.

At common law a parent was under no obligation to have his child educated. The only liability to do so is that imposed by the Elementary Education Acts with regard to children between five years and 14 years not receiving other efficient instruction.

There is no legal obligation on a parent whatever his or her financial or social position, to give any education to his or her children other than that provided by the Elementary Education Acts. But the Court will see, if applied to, that a guardian gives his ward a suitable education.

#### GENERAL.

The mother, equally with the father, guardian or other person *in loco parentis* as incident to her control of her child has the right to inflict reasonable chastisement or other punishment. And any children under the age of 14 whom the parent is unable to control may be sent to an industrial school.

The mother, after the death of the father and in default of the appointment of a guardian, has the right so long as she remains a widow to control the marriage of her infant child who is not a widow or widower. The mother, after the death of the father, can bring an action which depends on the loss of the child's services. She has also the right of bringing an action for negligence causing the death of her child, but she can only recover in such action pecuniary loss resulting from the death. The parent has strictly no right to receive benefit from the property of his or her child. He or she cannot ordinarily give a good receipt for moneys payable to the child. And if the parent obtains control of any property real or personal belonging to the child he or she is in the position of trustee and must account for the income.

Gifts by a child to either of its parents are looked upon with great suspicion by the Court, and in order to support such a transaction it is generally necessary for the parent to prove that the child had independent advice and full knowledge of the transaction and received an adequate benefit as consideration for the gift.

But an arrangement between parent and child, such as a re-settlement of the family estates, having for its object the benefit of other members of the family, is regarded with favour.

A parent has no insurable interest in the life of his child on the ground of relationship, though under the Friendly Societies Act, 1896, a parent may insure the life of a child for an amount limited to £6 in the case of a child under five years of age and £10 in the case of a child under ten.

Lastly either parent if of sound mind can dispose of his other property by will or deed to the exclusion of members of

the family, though in cases of intestacy the nearest relations are entitled to the personal property of the deceased after payment of debts in the order and proportion laid down by certain statutes.

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## THE LEGAL PARENTAL RIGHTS OF WOMEN IN NEW BRUNSWICK.

By Miss FRENCH, B.C.L., New Brunswick, Canada.

There can be no question of more vital interest to women than that which concerns the legal parental rights of women, and the fact that the subject deserves the most earnest attention from those present will, we trust, compensate, in some measure at least, for the dryness incidental to a strictly legal paper.

My subject in one sense is not at all comprehensive, but in another sense it is very much so. No words are needed to describe the legal parental rights of a New Brunswick woman over her legitimate child during the lifetime of the father, because she has practically none, while it will take some time to speak of the rights which the father possesses to the exclusion of the mother, and in which she should share.

I was asked to tell you about the legal parental rights of women in New Brunswick, and was rather surprised on glancing through the handbook to note that I was down for the Legal Parental Rights of Women in Canada—New Brunswick is a very small part of Canada. Having prepared to speak in accordance with the request made of me, from the standpoint of New Brunswick law, and having found that the subject though so confined, had proved so comprehensive as to compel me, owing to the time at my disposal being necessarily limited, to deal with it in a manner not so thorough as I should have liked to do, and moreover, having but scant time since seeing the programme to devote to the broadening of the subject to include specifically the law of all the Provinces of the Dominion of Canada, I have thought it wiser to let the matter rest as I had it prepared, and deal as thoroughly as possible with the law as it exists in the Province of New Brunswick, merely making a few incidental references to the law of the other Provinces of the Dominion, and with regard to the law of the Dominion of Canada as a whole, the general statement that the law in most of the Provinces of the Dominion, on the various points mentioned hereafter by me, is practically to all intents and purposes the same.

Owing to the fact that there are but few New Brunswick decisions on the various points I shall raise, I have had to resort quite frequently to authorities of other Provinces and of England for illustrations. All the authorities quoted from or referred to by me are (unless expressly stated otherwise) applicable to the Province of New Brunswick.

It is necessary, in considering this subject, to have due regard to the rights and obligations of the father as well as to those of the mother, since the rights of the mother during the father's lifetime, are, generally speaking, only such as the father may lose and she acquire, by the forfeiture by the father of his rights. It is impossible to adequately explain the legal status of the mother without first considering that of the father, and in instances where I may seem to devote an unnecessary attention to the legal rights of the father, kindly bear in mind that it is done with the object of casting light on the legal status of the mother with regard to the custody, control or guardianship of her child, as the case may be.

The law of New Brunswick on this subject is, aside from the modifications made from time to time by statutes and decided cases, the common law. It is the *lex non scripta*, and derives its force and authority from the universal consent and immemorial practice of the people. The evidence of our common law is contained in our works of reports and judicial decisions, in the records of the several courts of justice and in the treatises of learned sages of the profession, preserved and handed down to us from times of highest antiquity.

In popular language, the father or mother is the "natural guardian" of their children; but, according to the strict common law meaning, this term applied primarily to the father of an heir apparent; and this feudal guardianship terminated when the heir, whether male or female, attained the age of fourteen; this strict common law meaning has, however, for a long period been merged in the wider sense of the term "natural guardian," namely, that nature marks out the parent as being the right person to have the control and custody of his child. To quote from Blackstone: "The power of parents over their children is derived from this consideration, their duty; this authority being given to them partly to enable them more effectually to perform their duty, and partly as a recompense for their care and trouble in the faithful discharge of it, and upon this score the municipal laws of some nations have given much larger authority to the parents than others. The ancient Roman laws gave the father a power of life and death over his children upon this principle—that he who gave had also the power of taking away; but the rigour of these laws was softened by subsequent constitutions so that we find a father punished by the Emperor Hadrian for killing his son though he had committed a very heinous crime. But still, they maintained to the last very large and absolute authority; for a son could not acquire any property of his own during the life of his father; but all acquisitions belonged to the father, or at least the profits of them, for his life." The power of a father by our English and Canadian laws is sufficient to keep the child in order and obedience, and it is laid down that a father

may lawfully correct him, being under age, in a reasonable manner, for this is for the benefit of his education.

At common law the father has, and may exercise in the strictest sense, the paramount right to the custody of his children as against the world, and even as against the mother, though the child be an infant at the breast. This was due to his superior position in the family; he was the strongest person, and could best assert his rights to their custody, and he won the means of their support; thus many reasons combined to assign to him the arbitrament of their destinies. To the father solely belongs the right to say how the child shall be educated, and what religion it shall be brought up in, and how it shall be controlled and conduct itself. He has sole authority over it, and can, if he so desires, entirely disregard the wishes of the mother as to the manner of its education and training.

On the point of education, we have this dictum of a very learned judge. "This authority of a father to guide and govern the education of his child, is a very sacred thing, bestowed by the Almighty, and to be sustained to the uttermost by human law. It is not to be abrogated or abridged without the most coercive reason; for the parent and child alike its maintenance is essential that their reciprocal relations shall be reciprocal of happiness and virtue, and no disturbing intervention should be allowed between them whilst those relations are pure and wholesome and conducive to their mutual benefit."

His Lordship, in thus construing divine law did not endeavour to explain just how it happened that the Almighty, in bestowing this sacred power, recognized the father alone, and completely ignored the mother's right to some consideration. With all due respect for the opinion of his Lordship, can we regard this view as being entirely consistent with divine justice, or can we for an instant suppose that the Almighty would frown on an intervention made by the mother regarding the welfare and education of her child, an intervention founded on the best of rights and springing from a love and understanding so deep and so wide that its limits can never be reached?

During the lifetime of the father, a mother, in her mere capacity as mother, is entitled to no power, but only to reverence and respect.

This common law right of the father to the custody and control of his children lasts under ordinary circumstances, and unless interfered with by the courts, until the infant becomes of age. Courts of law as well as the Supreme Court in Equity, will allow the child, if it has reached the age of discretion, to decide whether it shall remain with the father or go to the mother. In the case of female infants, the courts have fixed sixteen years as the earliest age at which they will be allowed to exercise this choice, and following the English and Irish decisions, fourteen years would probably be fixed as the age of discretion in the case of a male

infant, should the point arise. But, unless interfered with by the courts, the *patria potestas* may be exercised until the child arrives at majority, or marries under that age, by way of legitimate control.

Regarding this question of choice by the child a rather interesting case was decided in British Columbia in 1898, and as it would probably be decided similarly in New Brunswick, I will give to you the facts. An illegitimate child named Ellen Atanasse had been placed by her parents, when she was six years old, in the mission school for Indian and half-breed children at Fort Simpson, which is managed by the Methodist Church of Canada. After the child had been an inmate of the school for about ten years, the mother, an Indian woman, desiring that the child should be brought up in the Roman Catholic religion, made an application to regain custody of the child. She contended that the child was over sixteen years of age. It was evidently her intention to give the child into the charge of the putative father and his wife, should the court order her to be delivered up to her. The child was examined separate and apart, and stated that she wished to remain in the school, and was strongly opposed to being given into the care of her putative father and his wife. She alleged that while with them once when absent from school they both beat and otherwise ill-treated her. The application of the mother was refused.

As I have said, to the father solely belongs the right to say what religion the child shall be brought up in, and in this connection it may interest you to hear something regarding antenuptial contracts. The result of all the cases shows that a contract entered into before marriage that the children of the marriage shall be brought up in a particular religion is not binding on the husband and cannot be enforced in a court of equity. Such contracts and stipulations to be executed in the future are deemed to be against public policy, they not only discount the future, but are mischievous in their operation on family life. The following is an extract from an English judgment on this point: "How can the court enforce the performance by the father of the child of such a contract? Is the court to separate the child from the father to prevent a violation of the contract? Is the court to separate the husband and wife and place the children with the wife to enable her to educate them in the faith which she professes, and in which the husband contracted they should be brought up? Who is to provide the funds to educate the child in the religion which the father objects to? Is the court to apply the property of the husband during his lifetime and against his will to the education of the child in that form of religious faith from which he conscientiously differs, and the adoption of which by the child he believes will be destructive to its eternal welfare? By what process is the property of the husband to be sequestered for such purpose? Is the court to pronounce a decree

against the husband, who, from the purest and most conscientious motives does not perform his agreement? And is the court to issue an attachment against him and lodge him in gaol for his life unless he consents that his child shall be brought up in that religious faith which he believes to be unscriptural and erroneous, and furnishes the funds necessary for that purpose?"

"Such a contract is not like any other—no damages can be recovered for a breach of it in a court of law, and it cannot be enforced by suit for specific performance in equity.

"A father cannot bind himself by contract to exercise in all events in a particular way, rights which the law gave to him for the benefit of his children, and not for his own."

If, however, the father permits the children to be brought up in that form of the Christian religion from which he dissents until they arrive at that period of life where they are capable of forming and entertaining particular religious views, the court will sometimes refuse to interfere. It was decided in a certain English case that where the father had not only agreed that the child should be brought up as a Protestant, he being a Roman Catholic, but also allowed the child to be baptized and educated in the Protestant faith, and after his death her Roman Catholic relatives had allowed her to be educated in the Roman Catholic religion, there was such an amount of acquiescence that the court would not be justified in interfering.

An interesting case once came up for decision before a Roman Catholic judge. The father was a Protestant and had engaged that the children should be brought up as Roman Catholics. He had allowed the mother of these children every hour of her life to instil into them the doctrines of the Roman Catholic religion, and after the mother died, which happened when the children were six or seven years of age, he had allowed his deceased wife's sister to continue to educate the children in the Roman Catholic religion for three years or more until the children were in their tenth year, and then the father, having married again, decided that the children should be brought up as Protestants. This was resisted by the children's aunt. In his judgment, Lord O'Hagan, who, as I have said, was a Roman Catholic, and who had here to decide whether the children should be brought up in the religion of the father, which was Protestant, or in the religion of the mother, which was Roman Catholic, and where there had been as positive an undertaking on the part of the father as could be given, said: "I have no doubt as to the making of the promises imputed by the petitioner to the respondent. From the breach of them has arisen all the strife and bitterness which have destroyed the kindly relations here subsisting between the parties, and one can hardly avoid a feeling of natural regret that an engagement so open, so solemnly avowed, so strengthened by repetition, so confirmed by the consecration of the grave, should

have been disregarded." After which expressions of regret, Lord O'Hagan decided in a most impartial manner that the children must be brought up in their father's religion.

In the Province of New Brunswick there is a law permitting adoption, and the law recognizes any rights, claims or duties arising out of such a relation. Our law permits any unmarried person, or a husband and wife jointly to petition the court for leave to adopt a child or children, and for a change of name of such child or children.

When the child proposed to be adopted is of the age of twelve years or upwards, the written consent of such child to such adoption must be presented with the petition, and also the written consent of each of the parents of such child, or the survivor. If, however, one of the living parents is hopelessly insane, or divorced from the other and has not the custody of such child or children, the consent of such parent will not be required. And in no case is it necessary to obtain the consent of the putative father of an illegitimate child. By virtue of such adoption the natural parents are divested of all legal rights in respect to such child. Its surname becomes changed, and it becomes free from all legal obligations of obedience and maintenance in respect of them; and it has the same right to any claim for nurture, maintenance and education upon its adopted parents, as if such adopted child were the natural child of such parents.

Unless, however, the child has been legally adopted, the father may by habeas corpus proceedings regain possession of an infant child whom he has allowed to be brought up by others, provided the child has not reached the age of discretion and exercised a choice against him, and also provided that he is not proved grossly unfit to be charged with its care.

There is a New Brunswick case on this point. (In re Eva Coram.) A father being in poor circumstances, left his infant daughter, then aged seven years, with her uncle and aunt, upon the understanding that she should be considered as their child, and that they should support and educate her as such. She remained with her uncle and aunt until she was nearly fifteen years of age and was educated by them, and became much attached to them, her father contributing nothing towards her support during that time. The majority of the court, upon an application by the father upon a writ of habeas corpus, to obtain possession of the child, held that he had the legal right to resume the custody of her, notwithstanding his agreement, even though his object in doing so was that she assist in the work of his house, and that thereby her duties would be more laborious and her mode of living less easy and comfortable than she had been accustomed to in her uncle's house. One of the judges (Wetmore, J.) said: "A father has the absolute right to the custody of his daughter unless there are surrounding circumstances which deprive him of that right. It is said that the girl has obtained a

very comfortable position with her uncle and aunt and that it would be a hardship on her to be taken away from the luxurious surroundings in which she is placed to go to the humbler home of her parents. But I think she should be taught a wholesome lesson of the duty of children to their parents, and go to the assistance of her mother who is in ill-health." Had the girl been a little older she would have been allowed to exercise a choice, but being under the age of sixteen she had to go with her father whether or not she wished to do so.

Had the matter come before the Equity Court instead of a court of law for decision, it might have been decided differently. The guiding principle in deciding such points is not the same in the two courts, as I shall endeavour to explain hereafter. A court of law is frequently powerless where equity can prevail. The Court of Chancery has jurisdiction to control the authority of a father over his infant children in a manner which a court of law cannot do on a writ of habeas corpus.

The common law rights of the father to the custody and control of his children, springing as I have said, from his duty to provide for their maintenance, protection and education, has always been upheld by the courts whenever possible, but there have been cases where the courts have found it impossible to do so.

In other words, he may, by his misconduct, forfeit his right to their custody, and show himself to be an improper person to be entrusted with their protection and education, or he may be adjudged unfit mentally or physically. While the law imputes ability and inclination of the parent to perform his duty to his child, the right is yet founded upon his actual capacity to discharge the duty, and his superior claim to the custody of his offspring may be suspended while the incapacity lasts.

An Ontario decision illustrates what the court will consider sufficient incapacity to deprive the father of his right. In this case the father had, after the death of the mother, left the child with his mother and brother who were in comfortable circumstances, and were fond of the child. The brother had made his will in the child's favour, and expressed his willingness to provide for it in future. On the other hand, the father had had about three years previous to the application, a severe attack of paralysis which had permanently affected his brain. He was enfeebled in mind to the verge of imbecility. Under these circumstances the court refused to give to him the custody of the child.

The father's right is always subject to the control of the courts, and he will be removed from guardianship, or refused the custody of the child upon habeas corpus proceedings to determine the right of custody for such unfitness or misconduct as imperils the child's welfare—but the misconduct must be flagrant.

Just here I wish to explain the difference between the jurisdiction of the Court of Chancery and that of a court of law.

First—The Supreme Court in Equity, or the Chancery Division of the High Court of Justice, as it is called in England, representing the sovereign, has a special care over its wards. The method of procedure is by petition to the court, praying the court to appoint the guardianship of the infant. On the hearing the court will inquire into all the surrounding circumstances of the case, the claim of the petitioner to the custody, and the best interests of the ward, and will then decide according to the very right of the matter, not attending solely to the legal right of the father, but looking to the benefit and best interests of the child. The court will not permit the interests of the child to be sacrificed, "and the welfare of the child is not to be measured by money only, nor by physical comfort only. The word welfare must be taken in the widest sense. The moral and religious welfare of the child must be considered as well as its physical well-being. Nor can the ties of affection be disregarded."

While the Supreme Court in Equity has a general jurisdiction to interfere in some cases, an even more comprehensive jurisdiction has been conferred by statute which gives to the Supreme Court in Equity a discretionary power over the custody of children under the age of sixteen years.

We have in New Brunswick the following statutory provisions:

"It shall be lawful for the court upon the petition by the next friend or mother of any infant or infants under sixteen years of age, to order that the petitioner shall have access to such infant or infants at such times and subject to such regulations as the court shall deem proper; or to order that such infant or infants shall be delivered to the mother and remain in or under her custody or control, or shall, if already in her custody or under her control, so remain until such infant or infants shall attain such age, not exceeding sixteen years, as the court shall direct, and also to order that such custody or control shall be subject to such regulations as regards access by the father or guardian of such infant or infants, and otherwise as the court shall deem proper.

"Whenever any application shall be made to the court for the custody or control of an infant or infants, or for access to any infant or infants, it shall be the duty of the court to take into consideration the interests of such infant or infants in deciding between the claims of the parents of such infant or infants."

There is a somewhat similar enactment in England, and, I believe, in most of the Provinces of the Dominion.

Alberta and Saskatchewan have the following provisions: "Court or judge upon application of mother of any infant being in the sole custody of the father or other person by his authority, may make an order for the access of the mother and at such times and subject to such regulations as the court or judge thinks convenient or just, and if such infant be within the age of twelve

years may make an order for the delivery of such infant into the custody and control of the mother, and there remain until the court and judge shall prescribe."

It has been decided in New Brunswick that in determining whether the custody of an infant child ought to be given to the mother as against the father under the above quoted sections of the Supreme Court in Equity Act, the court will take into consideration the paternal right, the marital duty of the husband and wife so to live that the child will have the benefit of their joint care and affection, and the interests of the child. If both parties have disregarded their marital duty in the above respect, the court will award the custody of the child to the father unless it is satisfied that it would not be for the child's welfare. In another New Brunswick case it was decided that to defeat the right of the father to the custody of his child as against its maternal grandmother, his habits and character must be open to the gravest objections. The court must be satisfied not merely that it is better for the child, but essential to its safety or welfare in some very serious or important respect before it will interfere with the father's rights.

Very few cases have come up before our Equity Court under these sections of the Act, but it is safe to say that before the jurisdiction of the Court of Equity can be called into action, it must be satisfied not only that it has the means of acting safely and efficiently, but also that the father has so conducted himself, or has shown himself to be a person of such description as to render it not merely better for the children, but essential to their safety or their welfare in some very serious or important respect, that his rights should be treated as lost or suspended, should be superseded or interfered with.

In an Ontario case where the wife was living apart from the husband under circumstances which the court thought justifiable, although there was no imputation of immorality against the husband, and the child's grandfather was willing to assist the mother in maintaining and caring for the child, the court was satisfied that it would be more for the interests of the child, a little girl of four or five years of age, to remain in the custody of the mother than in that of the father, however affectionate and kind, whose business engagements and frequent absences from home must render it impossible for him to afford the constant care and protection which a child of such tender years demands.

Second—The jurisdiction of a court of law. The method of procedure to gain the custody of a child in a court of law is by writ of habeas corpus. . . . The writ of habeas corpus is the most famous writ in the law, and having been for many centuries employed to remove illegal restraint upon personal liberty no matter by what power imposed, it is often called the great writ of liberty. It is directed to the person detaining another and

commanding him to produce the body of the person at a certain time and place.

The jurisdiction of a court of law on a habeas corpus, so far as the subject matter under discussion is concerned, is practically confined to an inquiry as to the legal right of the father, or other guardian, to the custody of the child—whether the child is in illegal custody without its consent. The father having by the common law, a general right to the control over the person, education and conduct of his children until they attain their majority, a court of law will order the children, on their coming before it on a writ of habeas corpus, provided they have not yet arrived at years of discretion, to be delivered without examination into the custody or control of their father or other guardian. In cases where the children are arrived at an age of discretion, and are capable of exercising a choice, they will be permitted to make an election. But if the children have not arrived at such an age a court of law can interfere with the father's rights only in cases where he is proved to be absolutely unfit to take care of them. When such a conclusion can be arrived at the court will no longer consider him the legal custodian and the control of the children will be taken from him. If it can be shown on such a proceeding that his immorality is of such a nature that the children's remaining under his care will result in their contamination such will be held sufficient ground for their removal. Excessive cruelty will also work a forfeiture of his rights on such a proceeding.

The theory upon which the court relies in taking the legal custody from the father when necessary has been clearly put in an English case as follows: "Where the person is too young to have a choice we must refer to legal principles to see who is entitled to the custody because the law presumes that where the legal custody is no restraint exists, and when the child is in the hands of a third person that presumption is in favour of the father. But, although the first presumption is that the right custody, according to law, is also the free custody, yet if it be shown that cruelty is to be apprehended from the father, a counter presumption arises."

The question was summed up in an English judgment as follows: "A court of law can only have regard to the legal right of the father. It has no discretionary power to control the father in the exercise of his rights such as the Court of Chancery, representing the Sovereign, possesses. Accordingly, on habeas corpus, a child which has not arrived at years of discretion must be delivered up to the proper custody, that is, the father, if he be living, or other guardian. It appears to have been the invariable practice of the common law courts on an application for a habeas corpus to bring up the body of a child detained from the father, to enforce the father's right to the custody even against the mother, unless the child be of an age to judge for itself, or there be an apprehension of cruelty from the father, or of contamina-

tion in consequence of his immorality or gross profligacy. It has been said also that in questions of this kind the court should consider what is most for the benefit of the child. If I correctly understand the rule laid down in the various cases, that principle (subject to certain exceptions) is not applicable where a matter comes before a court of law on habeas corpus, where the court has no such discretionary power as the Court of Chancery has."

One would suppose that the mother of a nursing child is the most suitable person to have the care of it—it not being shown that she was unfit to have the care of it; yet in an English case where the father of an infant child eight months old had forcibly taken the child from its mother, who had separated from her husband on account of alleged ill-treatment, the Court of King's Bench refused to restore the child to her; Lord Ellenborough saying: "The father is the person by law entitled to the custody of his child. If he abuse that right to the detriment of the child, the court will protect the child; but there is no pretence that the child has been injured for want of nurture, or in any other respect. Then he, having a legal right to the custody of his child, and not having abused that right, is entitled to have it restored to him."

#### GUARDIANSHIP.

In New Brunswick, the father may by will appoint the guardianship of his children, excluding the mother as legal guardian. Such testamentary guardian has absolute control over the children, standing to all intents and purposes in the place of the father himself, and the same ground will be necessary to supersede his guardianship as would have been necessary to supersede the father's. The mother has no right to interfere with him or her, nor with a guardian appointed by the Court of Chancery. This power of the father to appoint a testamentary guardian rests upon an act passed in the twelfth year of the reign of Charles II., which provided that a father by deed executed in his lifetime, or by his last will and testament in writing, in the presence of two or more creditable witnesses might dispose of the custody and tuition of his child, either born or unborn, for or during such time as they should remain under twenty-one. A father cannot assign to anyone this power.

The mother cannot appoint a testamentary guardian under any circumstances. If, however, the person sought to be appointed by the mother is a fit and proper one, the court will not refuse to pay attention to her wishes.

After the death of the father the mother does not occupy the position of guardian unless she has been expressly appointed by her husband's will. But, in the absence of the appointment of a testamentary guardian, the mother will, unless legally incapacitated, be appointed guardian by the court as being properly so by nature and nurture, and will in this respect be altogether in place of the father. But, as I have said, where a testamentary guardian has been appointed by the father, the mother, as such,

has no right to interfere with him. The grounds necessary for superseding the mother's guardianship are, improper conduct, unfitness for her duties, immorality, or disobedience to the decrees of the Court of Chancery. Her second marriage does not necessarily operate as a supersession. The mother being dead, or incapacitated, favorable consideration will be given to the claim of the grandmother; but the court will be guided solely by what is best for the welfare of the child in deciding between her claim and another's.

All that I have said above regarding the guardianship of the child in New Brunswick obtained in England until the passing of the "Guardianship of Infants' Act, 1886."

A mother can only provisionally nominate a guardian to act jointly with her husband after her death, and her nomination will not take effect unless the court confirms it. This the court will do only in case it is shown that the father is for any reason unfitted to be the sole guardian of his children.

In other words, the father may by will or deed compel his wife to suffer the interference of another in the rearing of their children after his death, while she may only make a nomination of a guardian to act jointly with her husband after her death, which nomination will not be confirmed until he is proved incapable of being the sole guardian. But, nevertheless, though the act has its limitations, it largely removed the mother's disabilities, since previously to its passing she was entirely ignored in favour of the testamentary guardian appointed by the father.

This Act also permits the mother to appoint by deed or will a guardian of her child after the death of herself and the father of such infant, if such infant be then unmarried, and where guardians are appointed by both parents, they act jointly—thus conferring on the mother a definite power which, as I have shown, she is in no wise possessed of at common law. Previously to this enactment all that was vouchsafed to her was a favourable consideration by the Court of the person sought to be appointed as guardian by her.

Several of our Provinces have passed Statutes somewhat in line with the English Act. In Nova Scotia, on the death of the father, the mother becomes guardian either alone or jointly with any guardians appointed by the father. In Alberta and Saskatchewan the mother may be appointed notwithstanding appointment of testamentary guardian by the father. In British Columbia the mother, although other guardian has been appointed by the father, can petition the Judge for the care of her children until they are seven years of age, and after they are seven years of age for the right of access to them. In Alberta and Saskatchewan a Court or Judge may give effect to the testamentary appointment of guardian by the mother of infant children either as respects the persons or estates, notwithstanding the previous appointment of testamentary guardian by the father upon petition presented and

facts proved, if it shall be deemed advisable and in the interest of the infant.

#### RELIGIOUS EDUCATION.

Regarding the religion in which a child must be brought up by the mother as guardian. It may now be regarded as a settled rule that except under special circumstances the child must be brought up in the father's religion, even though he has died intestate and left no direction. I shall quote from an English Chancery decision on this point. "As regards religious education, it is settled law that the wishes of the father must be regarded by the Court, and must be enforced unless there is some strong reason for disregarding them. The Guardianship of Infants Act, 1886, which has so greatly enlarged the rights of mothers after their husbands' deaths, has not changed the law in this respect. The consequence is that notwithstanding that Act, the widow may still find herself compelled to bring up her child in a religion which she abhors. If the father is dead it will be naturally inferred that, in the absence of evidence to the contrary, his wish was that the children should be brought up in his own religion; that is, the religion which he professed."

The Court would be very reluctant to interfere on account of mere pecuniary benefit to the child. "If the Court were ever to exercise that discretion it would be very difficult to say what was to be the extent of the pecuniary benefit which would require the Court's interference—what was to be the price of the child's faith."

"It is too late now for any power short of the Legislature to alter a rule which, as we have seen, a long line of cases has settled, that a child must be educated in the religion of the deceased father. If both parties are dead such a rule may be a fitting one, but it seems a strange extension of the father's rights when he is in his grave, to allow even his expressed wishes and still more, his merely presumed wishes, to override those of the living parent. The result in many cases, to quote the forcible remarks of V. C. Wickens, an English Chancellor, is to create a barrier between a widowed mother and her only child, to annul the mother's influence over her daughter on the most important of all subjects, with the almost inevitable effect of weakening it on all others; to introduce a disturbing element into a union which ought to be as close and warm and as absolute as any known to man, and lastly to inflict severe pain on mother and child."

Although the mother is bound to bring up children in the father's religion, it does not necessarily follow that they are to be removed from her custody if she is of a different religion.

Of course I have been considering this question from the standpoint of equity jurisdiction. A Court of Law on a habeas corpus proceeding has no jurisdiction to make any order directing the child to be brought up in any particular religion and where the mother of an infant daughter claimed the custody of her, the father being dead, the Court ordered the child to be delivered up to the mother, although her intention evidently was to bring the child up in the Roman Catholic faith, differing from that of the

father, who was a Protestant, notwithstanding that the Court believed it would be for the interest of the child to remain at the school where she had been placed by the Commissioner of the Royal Patriotic Fund. Lord Campbell said: "In this matter as there is nothing contrary to law in contemplation, we have no jurisdiction to determine, and we think that we are bound in the discharge of our official duty, to order that the infant be now delivered up to her mother." The application being made to a Court of Law, regard could only be had to the legal right of the mother to have the control and custody of the child as guardian by nature and for nurture, whereas the Court of Chancery representing the Sovereign as *parens patriae* has a very large discretion, and may give orders respecting the education of its wards which are entirely without the jurisdiction of a Court of law. The Court of Chancery would probably have refused to grant to the mother the custody of the children in this particular instance. It would at least have made an order directing her to bring them up in the religion of the father.

*Regarding the waiver of the father's right to have his children educated in his own religion, by his conduct before death.* There is no definite rule as to what conduct will amount to a waiver. It is a question of fact, and will vary according to an infinite diversity of facts. In one case where a Roman Catholic father allowed the eldest child to be baptized in a Protestant chapel in his presence, never had it taken to a Roman Catholic place of worship, nor exercised any control or religious instruction, and when it was six years of age had a Protestant governess, and allowed a second child to be baptized openly in the Church of England, it was held the father's rights were waived by his conduct. Although the father may not by his conduct have waived his rights, yet if the child be in fact trained for some time in a different one, so that it would be dangerous and cruel to enforce a change, no change will be made.

There is a strong case where the Court had ordered a child to be brought up a Roman Catholic, and the guardian, a Protestant, in contempt of the order, took her to the Continent and brought her up a Protestant. The Lord Chancellor refused to make any change. One writer, commenting on this case, said: "This is a rule open to abuse. Widows are apt to introduce children prematurely into an atmosphere of theological controversy, and this for the purpose of convincing them that the father had wrong views. Accordingly the Court is reluctant to follow these cases unless the impressions produced on the child's mind are considered to be so great and so permanent as to induce the Court to fear lest any attempt at altering them would do more harm than good, would end in unsettling the child's religious faith entirely."

#### THE STATUS OF ILLEGITIMATE CHILDREN.

The mother, as guardian by nature, and for nurture, has the right to the custody and control of her illegitimate child until it shall have attained an age when it can, in contemplation of the law, make an election between father and mother. This rule is

based on the following reasons. An illegitimate child has, in contemplation of law, no father. Such child is *nullius filius*, and there is, therefore, no father who is bound to support it, or can rightfully claim its care and custody. There are, it is true, certain statutory regulations by which the putative father may be compelled to indemnify the community against the expense of supporting a child who may otherwise become a public charge, but these statutes only make the person charged a father for a particular purpose, viz., for the indemnity of society against the expense of the support of the child. The paternal and filial relation, in all its endearing and legal consequences, does not exist between such a father and such a child. The law looks coldly upon this relation, and takes no further care of it than to see that the community is not put to expense. In such cases there seems to be more than a legal doubt as to who is actually the father—the known father being termed merely the putative father, while there can be no doubt who is the mother. The identity of the mother is beyond all mistake, and as she is the only parent such a child can have with any legal certainty, she is the parent to whom the custody of such a child seems properly to belong. Such is the inevitable result of the common law doctrines in regard to this relation.

If, on the other hand, the mother be dead, the father has the right to the custody and control of the child.

Illegitimate children are not looked upon as children for any civil purpose, yet the ties of nature, of which maintenance is one, are not easily dispensed with. At common law, it is true, the putative father is not bound to support the child, this obligation legally devolving upon the mother. By Statute, however, in England and in the Provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, upon the complaint of a mother or of certain designated public officers, an inquiry may be had as to the identity of the putative father, and upon sufficient proof, an order of affiliation made whereby the father is adjudged to pay a certain amount in support of his offspring, or suffer imprisonment in default thereof.

Where the parent of an illegitimate child neglects to provide the necessaries for its maintenance, it becomes chargeable to the public.

Being considered as *filius populi*, the rights of an illegitimate child are few, in fact only such as he may acquire. Having no inheritable blood by operation of the law of descent, no estate can be imposed upon him. For, in order to take by descent he must be capable of inheriting, and this he cannot do because he is not and cannot be an heir. Having the capacity to labour, there is no legal impediment to the acquirement of an estate by him. Being without inheritable blood he is of kin to no one, can have no ancestor, can be heir to no one, and for the same reason he can have no heirs save those of his own body.

Humane legislation has softened and tempered this common law rule in divers jurisdictions to at least some extent. Statutes in the United States allow, as a rule, inheritance and transmission

of inheritance through the mother. In the Northwest Territories and in British Columbia illegitimate children inherit from the mother as if they were legitimate—and through the mother, if dead, any land which she would, if living, have taken by purchase, gift, devise or descent.

**UNDER ROMAN LAW.**—Under the Emperor Valentinian, A.D. 371, bastard children of fathers who also had legitimate offspring were allowed to acquire, either by donation or will one-half part of the paternal property. This Emperor also established the principle of giving to illegitimate children a legal claim to a portion of their father's property by inheritance *ab intestato*, which provided that in case the father died intestate, leaving neither wife nor legitimate offspring, his natural children and their mother should be entitled to one-sixth of the estate.

**AS LEGATEE OR DEVISEE.**—When sufficiently designated, an illegitimate child, may take by will.

**LEGITIMATION** may be defined to be the investment of an illegitimate child, or of one supposed to be the issue of an illegal marriage, with the rights of one born in lawful wedlock.

It appears that legitimation by the supreme power of the state was first established by the Emperor Justinian.

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### THE POSITION AND LEGAL STATUS OF WOMAN IN TASMANIA, HAVING REFERENCE TO HER, FIRST AS A WIFE, SECOND AS A MOTHER, AND THIRD AS A CITIZEN.

By MRS. DOBSON, Tasmania.

Legislation has been of very gradual growth, but it has culminated in practically making women as free as men, giving them many new rights, making them in regard to those rights co-equal with men with the exception hereinafter mentioned.

First with reference to woman as a wife. She has rights under what is known as the Divorce and Matrimonial Causes Act, which was passed by Parliament on 4th October, 1860. Under that Act a wife can obtain a judicial separation, on the ground of unfaithfulness, cruelty, or desertion without cause, for two years and upwards. In order to obtain a divorce a wife has to prove that her husband has not only been guilty of misconduct, but in addition of either cruelty or desertion for two years and upwards. A wife however may be divorced by her husband if she is guilty of unfaithfulness alone. In the question then of divorce the law is unequal, and gives the husband an advantage over the guilty wife, which is not allowed to the wife as against her equally guilty husband. The divorce law in Tasmania, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia is exactly the same as that of England. The two larger States of the Commonwealth, Victoria and New South Wales, have a more liberal, or as good churchmen and women think, a looser law, under which husband and wife are put

on the same footing as regards unfaithfulness, and either can get a divorce for unfaithfulness, desertion, continuous drunkenness and other causes. The wife can also obtain under the Matrimonial Causes Act an order for restitution of conjugal rights, and she may also obtain an order for alimony. It is provided by that Act that in every case of judicial separation the wife shall from the date of the decree, while the separation continues, be considered as a femme sole with respect to the property she may acquire, and also for the purpose of contract and suing. Under the same Act a wife deserted by her husband may, during such desertion, apply to the Court or a Judge or Justices in Petty Sessions for an order to protect any property she may acquire by her own industry and property which she becomes possessed of, after such desertion, as against her husband and his creditors. The Act contains various other provisions conferring rights upon the wife. Under the Deserted Wives and Children Maintenance Act, 1873, where a wife has been left by her husband "without means of support" she may proceed against the husband in the Police Courts, and the Justices may order the husband to pay for the use of the wife such weekly or monthly sum as they think fit and the mother or anyone on her behalf can proceed in the same manner against the father for the maintenance of any child or children he has left without the means of support. No husband is liable for his wife's maintenance if she is proved guilty of unfaithfulness. The mother of an illegitimate child can, under the same Act, proceed against the father for maintenance of such child, but to establish her case, the evidence must be corroborated in some way. By an amendment of The Deserted Wives and Children's Act, 1873, any single woman, being with child, may obtain an order from two Justices against the father for the maintenance of his illegitimate child, and also for the payment by him of such sum as the Justices think fit for nursery and medical attendance on the mother in connection with the birth of the child. By this Act, desertion of a wife or child, and leaving them without means of support for three months, is a misdemeanor, punishable with imprisonment for not exceeding one year. The Marriage Act of Tasmania is 59 Vic., No. 23. This has been amended by 60 Vic., No. 13, and also by 6 Ed. VII., No. 19. These Acts prescribe all the regulations and forms in reference to marriage procedure. It may be mentioned that under the Tasmanian Act, 37 Vic., No. 7, which was passed by the Tasmanian Parliament in 1873 and received the Royal Assent in January, 1874, marriage with a deceased wife's sister is declared to be valid. With reference to married women's property this has been subject to legislation for over seventy years and various Acts have been passed enabling a married woman in respect of property owned by her, or acquired as in the Acts before mentioned, to deal with the same in exactly the same manner as if she were a femme sole. Under the Act for simplifying the matter and practice of conveyancing, etc. (47 Vic., No. 19), the Court, if it thinks fit, where it appears to the Court to be for the married woman's benefit, may order, with her consent, that her interest in certain

property may be bound or charged with the payment of a sum of money as mentioned, and under that Act a married woman, whether an infant or not, shall have power to appoint an attorney and give such attorney the power as therein mentioned.

With reference to rights of woman as a mother, it is enacted by "An Act to amend the law as to the custody of infants" that the Supreme Court may order that the mother may have access to, and the custody of, infants under the age of sixteen years, and that in cases where a separation deed has been made, it shall be lawful to insert in the deed of separation, that the custody or control of the infant, may be handed over to the mother. By a subsequent Act, "The Custody of Children Act," the Court has power to refuse production of the child, for the causes therein mentioned, and the Act contains certain provisions as to the power of the Court concerning the child's religious education. It is also enacted that on the death of the father, leaving an infant, the mother if surviving, shall be the guardian of such infant, either alone or jointly with any other guardian, and also contains a provision that the Court if it think fit, from time to time, appoint a guardian or guardians to act jointly with the mother.

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### ILLEGITIMATE CHILDREN.

By MRS. DARRE JENSEN, Norway.

An examination of the conditions of illegitimate children in various countries, and at various times, shows that these children generally live under most unfavourable conditions. The causes may be different. It lies near at hand to think of the many prejudices which particularly in earlier days made themselves felt against illegitimate children. They have been considered a lower class of people. But the chief cause must be sought in the fact that these children miss a home, and more especially in the fact that there exists no legal relation between the father and the child. While the legitimate child finds care and protection in the common home of the father and the mother, where its education and bringing up is the object of both parents' united efforts, there exists no community of interests between the unmarried father and mother—provided they are not living together—and they do not meet in care for the child. At any rate, the child is, as a rule, far away from the father's thought and interest, and in most cases it finds in him merely an unwilling and neglectful supporter. As far as the mother is concerned, the fight for existence will generally prevent her from giving her child the necessary care, and very rarely she will be able to make a home for it. Its fate will therefore be to be committed to strangers, and as the price to be paid for its maintenance is a deciding factor in the choice of foster-parents, every one will understand that it does not always come to the best kind of a home.

Modern society is beginning to recognize the duty of the community to come to the assistance of these unfortunate children—from a humane point of view, and from the necessity of protecting society against the consequences of a large class of this kind growing up under such conditions as to expose them to physical and moral neglect, or direct destruction. These consequences appear to be the same everywhere. A large majority of the illegitimate children who do not succumb in their first year of living in one way or another, become a burden to society.

How many illegitimate children are born every year?

In Norway between seven and eight per cent. of all the children born, which means 5,000 illegitimate children yearly!

We will draw a comparison with some other European countries. Statistics for the years 1896-1900 show the following figures:—

Great Britain and Ireland, Switzerland, Spain, between 4 and 5%			
Italy, Finland .....	“	6	“ 7
Belgium, France, Hungary.....	“	8	“ 9
Germany, Denmark .....	“	9	“ 10
Sweden .....	“	11	“ 12
Portugal .....	“	12	“ 13
Austria.....	“	14	“ 15

When seven or eight per cent. in a small country like Norway make 5,000, what appalling figures must then come from 9 per cent. in countries like Germany and France, and from 14 per cent. in a country like Austria!

What do these figures tell us?

They do not, as some of you may think, give us any proper idea of the moral standard in the various countries. Immorality has also other and worse forms than this, as prostitution. But the figures show us the naked fact that all over the world there are thousands and thousands of children born to physical and moral misery; thousands and thousands of children who actually have no father, and on account of circumstances very often no mother; thousands and thousands of innocent children who hitherto have been condemned to begin and end their existence under the stamp of the pariah!

No father! Well, law cannot compel a man to love his child, but law can compel a man to support it and to contribute to its proper education according to his capacity. This is what, in Norway, just men and women want law to do hereafter.

Statistics in most countries show that the percentage of infant mortality among illegitimate children is a very large one, as compared with the percentage of the mortality among legitimate infants. While in Norway 8.9 per cent. of legitimate children die during their first year of living, the percentage for illegitimate is 17.7, or twice as large. As the chief cause of this unfavourable percentage must be sought in the fact that most of the illegitimate children miss the natural nourishment, the mother's milk, our medical authorities have strongly urged the desirability of direct

assistance from the municipalities, in order to enable the mother to nurse her child, with the double view of saving the mother from moral, and the child from physical as well as moral destruction.

*But before the duty of the municipality goes the duty of the father.* In the opinion of our present Government, the man who is in a position to support his illegitimate child should do so to the full extent of his capacity. And it has prepared a bill accordingly.

Our present legislation grants the illegitimate child equal right with legitimate children with regard to its mother. It stands in no legal relation to its father, and has no claim on him outside that of an alimony. Only exceptionally the father may be made to pay for the entire maintenance and education of his child. Unless claimed by the mother herself, or by the municipality to which the illegitimate child may have become a financial burden, it is not necessary to make clear who is the father.

Our present Government has now prepared a bill, which decides:—

1. That an illegitimate child has a right to take its father's family name.

2. That it shall take inheritance after its father equally with legitimate children.

3. That it be entitled to an education according to the capacity of the one of the parents who is economically the best situated.

4. That a guardian be appointed to look after its interests and rights. As a guardian may also a woman be appointed.

5. That the child remain with the mother, or under the person's care to whom she has entrusted it, as long as it is treated properly. If this be not the case, or if the mother be dead, the care of the child may be committed to its father, with the approval of its guardian.

6. That the duty of the parents to provide for the maintenance and education of the child shall last until it has attained 16 years of age, but if any particular reason be present, they may be made to provide for it for a longer space of time.

7. That the father shall be compelled to pay the expense for the delivery, and proper care of the mother after delivery. He also must give her an alimony during the period of pregnancy when she is not able to support herself, and for some time after delivery.

8. That if the paternity cannot be proved, the duties to support the child, and to support the mother as mentioned above, during pregnancy and after delivery, shall rest with the person or the persons who have copulated with the woman at the supposed time of impregnation. But the child has no right to take the name of any of these persons nor to take inheritance after them. To give the child such rights, the paternity must be *proved*, as far as it is in human power to prove it.

It would carry us too far to go over all the details of the bill, dealing mainly with the questions of how to prove the paternity, how to collect the alimony, and with the proper supervision of the

child and its interests. The bill will be before our Parliament this fall. Its fate is doubtful. But I like to tell you as a remarkable fact that it has been recommended for adoption by 26 of our 53 city communities, and by 10 of our 18 country communities.

Numerous objections have been raised against it. The opposers claim that it will ruin the institution of matrimony, further immorality, and increase the births of illegitimate children. They quote Code Napoleon and English experiences from the beginning of the past century, and they declare that Norway is going in for an experiment which will prove fatal. They call the bill an insult against the lawful wife and the innocent legitimate child, and without blinking they base the very prosperity and happiness of society on the silence on part of the man about the existence of his illegitimate child. But there are others who think that deceit and injustice are neither a correct nor a healthy basis for society, and the time will surely come when no woman in any country of the world will consider herself and matrimony honoured by the man's neglect of moral duties. You may excuse and forgive the existence of such a child, but you should not forgive that its father ignores and neglects it. Let the man take the full responsibility of his action here as in all else. If he commits theft or murder he is held responsible, and not for one moment does anyone think that justice should step aside for his innocent wife or innocent child.

The bill may not pass this year. In the meantime it has set us all thinking, and in telling you of foreign countries about it, I hope it will make you also think—with indignation of past and present injustices, and with deep compassion of all the unfortunate children who have no father, few rights, and no home. When through your indignation and your compassion public opinion is transformed, you will have as the next and final step the reform accomplished in your laws.

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#### IV. LEGAL RIGHTS OF A MARRIED WOMAN IN HER HUSBAND'S PROPERTY.

- (a) Miss E. Gillett, attorney-at-law, United States.
- (b) Mr. Kennedy, barrister, paper sent by Mrs. A. Booth.
- (c) Paper from Argentina.
- (d) Paper from Norway.

#### LEGAL RIGHTS OF A MARRIED WOMAN IN HER HUSBAND'S PROPERTY.

By MISS E. GILLETT, United States.

Where shall I begin to discuss this subject? It is a part of the history of the race, and much of it dates back so far that even its origins are uncertain.

The family is a persistent and fundamental factor in our civilization and laws relating thereto, including the ownership and descent of property are slow to change, even when the reasons for them no longer exist.

When I was requested to prepare this paper I sympathized with the small boy who cast longing eyes upon his companion enjoying his apple, and asked in a most respectful manner for the core, to be told "There ain't going to be no core to this apple." For those of us who have been led to study this subject have learned that the part of the marriage ceremony which says "with all my worldly goods I thee endow," is only a legal fiction implying at most shelter, food and clothing, such as the husband should see fit to bestow upon his wife out of his and her combined fortunes.

The thirteen original States and those settled by emigration from those States or from countries having the same system of laws, fell heir to the common law of England, including that portion which relates to the property rights of husband and wife. The marriage contract, or more properly, the marriage status, immediately merged the legal identity of the wife into that of the husband, and she ceased to have any rights in relation to property except as she acted as agent, unless property had been secured to her by some written instrument, free from the control of her husband. She could deal with this as her separate estate and under the terms of the settlement could dispose of it during her lifetime or by will. This estate was sometimes called the married woman's separate equitable estate, and could be created either with or without the intervention of trustees.

Early in my legal studies the question arose as to the rights of married women in my city—Washington, D.C. On referring to the statute of 1869, I learned that a married woman had the same rights in her separate estate as if she were unmarried, and I felt well satisfied with the law, only to find on examining the numerous cases which had arisen under this Act, that the Court had decided that no new methods of acquiring property had been created, but that the statute very fully confirmed the ownership and control of the separate estate as it had previously existed. This was changed by the Act of 1896.

*My subject being the legal rights of a married woman in her husband's property, it is necessary to know of what the husband's property consists. Under the common law it included all the property which the husband owned prior to or during marriage; all the personal property which the wife owned prior to or acquired during marriage absolutely; a right to collect all debts owed to her unless he had to have recourse to an equity court, which sometimes protected the wife's interest; an estate during coverture in the wife's real estate, which included the rents, issues and profits of such estate owned by the wife or acquired by her in any manner during marriage; and an estate by the courtesy of England, which gave him the same right in her real estate during his entire life, providing there had been issue born alive during the lifetime of*

the mother capable of inheriting the real estate. The birth of living issue being an essential element, it did not matter whether it survived or whether the mother became seized of the real property before or after the birth or death of the child. So of all the property belonging to the wife, nothing remained to her except the real estate, and of course any estate settled upon her for her separate use.

It will thus be seen that while the common law classes all women from a political standpoint with infants, idiots, lunatics and criminals, it seems to attach to the married woman an additional stigma. While the common law recognized that an unmarried woman could contract, sue and be sued, sign notes and bonds, deed or will her property, and in fact have full control of the same, marriage made all these acts absolutely void, but upon the death of her husband she regained the ability to again transact business. Were it not that our legal writers so frequently speak of the protection of women under the law, we would suspect that they were punished for getting married.

In addition to the ownership or control of the wife's property, the husband was entitled to the proceeds of all the wife's labour, whether within or without the home, and in case of damages for injuries to her person or character, the husband could collect such damages. His property also included the earnings of minor children and damages for injuries to them. The husband had the entire right of disposal of all this property, and it was liable for debts, except the fee simple of his wife's real estate. Jewels, tapestries, etc., were considered heirlooms and descended as real property in England, but have not been so recognized in the States.

With the passage of time there has been a great increase in the value of personal property, and now great fortunes are invested in stocks and bonds and other securities, the products of corporations based on the great economic discoveries and applications of such natural forces as steam and electricity; and I feel sure that in the development of the common law it was never contemplated that the absolute ownership of such large values in personal property should pass to the husband absolutely.

Again from these same economic changes has been evolved a decided difference in the domestic or social conditions of the people. The individual is growing in importance in place of the family, just as the family has in the past gradually taken precedence of the clan. The patriarchal type of family largely dependent on the soil, as known a hundred years ago, has passed with the concentration of people in towns, the removal of work from home to factory, and development of rapid transit. This individualism is undoubtedly merging into other forms of family and national life.

The property of the wife at common law having passed to the husband, he naturally assumed her ante-nuptial debts. He also provided and furnished the home (the nature and location of which he decided), provided food and clothing for his wife and family

according to their stations in life, and if he did not provide such, was liable for them when purchased by the wife; and if through fault of his, and not of hers, they could not continue to live together, she carried with her the right to depend on her husband for necessities, and the Court would allow her maintenance and alimony. If the husband did not provide food and the wife starved to death, he was guilty of manslaughter.

The husband was also liable for damages for injuries and frauds committed by the wife. (The right of a wife to go through her husband's pockets has recently been upheld on the ground of the legal entity of husband and wife). She had an inchoate right in her husband's real estate, known as her dower right.

At the death of her husband the wife was entitled to again take control of her own real estate to one-third of the personal property (including what she had contributed, if it had not been spent), and the issue to the other two-thirds; if there were no issue she was entitled to one-half and the husband's relatives to the other half. She had a dower interest in the husband's real estate, which was a life interest in one-third of it, and to her clothes and jewelry, provided her husband had not disposed of them in his lifetime.

The law as outlined continued without change in the original States and those States settled mainly by emigration from the old States until that historic year, 1848, when the Legislatures of New York and Pennsylvania passed what are known as Married Woman's Acts, which created statutory separate estates for married women. This was one of the direct results of the agitation for women suffrage.

To such women as Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Lucretia Mott do we owe a great debt, for this legislation has been followed by changes in the law in all the States in the Union. In a transition period like the present it is impossible to give more than a general summary of the result. Before doing so, however, it is necessary to refer to the portions of our country which were acquired from France, Spain and Mexico, and whose laws and traditions go back to the Roman or civil law, and hence have never been exactly of the same type as the other States. Louisiana, Texas and California and the States near them, have been more or less influenced by these traditions as well as our more recently acquired insular territory. In these States we generally find some form of the community system. Generally speaking, the property accumulated by husband and wife during marriage constitutes the community property. In some States it includes the earnings of the separate estates of the spouses, in others it does not.

In no State can the community property be disposed of by will, but otherwise it is managed by the husband, and the wife's interest is called by the Supreme Court of the United States "a mere expectancy," the husband in most States having the right to dispose of community property at his pleasure. In California by statute (1891) he cannot give away community property without his wife joining, and in the State of Washington the wife must

join in conveying real estate and she is said to have a vested interest there. On the death of the wife one-half of the community property after the community debts are paid belongs to her heirs or next of kin.

It must be remembered that we have 46 independent States, the laws varying in each, and all I can do is to give a general summary of the trend of remedial legislation as crystallized in what are known as Married Woman's Acts, and perhaps I may in no case give the law as it exists in any particular State. I want to mention one peculiar result in the interpretation of our statute in Washington, D.C. The Act of 1869 being in derogation of common law, was construed strictly; the Act of '96 being to enlarge or explain a previous statute, was construed liberally.

Generally the Married Woman's Acts have given to the wife the right to the rents, issues and profits of her real estate, thus doing away with the common law estate of coverture or courtesy initiate. In some States she can deed or will her real estate, thus defeating the estate of courtesy consummate. In general, if she does not will or deed away her estate, the husband is entitled to his courtesy or some interest for life or possibly in fee in his wife's real property.

The wife is also generally entitled to personal property, and the management and disposal of it without interference from her husband, and has a right to contract, sue and be sued, etc., in relation to this estate. She can also contract with her husband, and real estate may be conveyed from husband to wife, or vice versa, without the intervention of a third person. The earnings outside the home are usually part of the wife's separate statutory estate, and she can carry on a trade, business and profession as if unmarried, thus enlarging the limited common law right to be a sole trader. It is to be noted, however, that in States where coverture would be a proper defence, it cannot be pleaded as against any obligation incurred in following these occupations.

In all these cases of statutory separate property, we are obliged to consider the common law under which this property would belong to the husband, hence the wife needs to take precautions not to mix it with her husband's as showing an intent to surrender it to him. In making contracts or conveyances she must designate that it is in relation to her separate estate, for generally the husband is still liable for the support of his family, and the wife in contracting for goods furnished the family, must make it plain that she is not acting as agent for her husband in order to bind her estate. In some States the wife is liable for the support of an indigent husband, must pay alimony under certain conditions, and is alone liable for ante-nuptial debts. The husband had the common law right to sue for the damages for the alienation of his wife's affections and the consequent deprivation of her company; the reciprocal right is now recognized in most of the States, and the wife can bring suit for the alienation of her husband's affections.

There has been little change in the statutes relating to the disposal of the husband's property after his death. The effect of the

wife's statutory separate estate is to enlarge her estate, as she has her own property and the same share of her husband's estate as before. As this applies only to personal property, the advantage is more seeming than real, owing to the charges of the relative values of real and personal property.

Some of our legal writers have seen great dangers in the economic independence of the wife, and have cited the immoralities of ancient Rome as an example. Our women are demanding not only economic independence, but a higher instead of a lower standard of morals, a greater freedom in the control of the home and the children, and above all the right to such development as will make them more helpful wives and mothers and loyal and intelligent citizens.

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### NOTES ON THE PRESENT POSITION OF MARRIED WOMEN WITH REGARD TO PROPERTY, A. R. K.

Forwarded by Mrs. ALFRED BOOTH.

*From the earliest times it has been laid down as a fundamental principle of law, a principle upon which the whole law relating to husband and wife has hitherto depended, that by virtue of the marriage a husband and wife become one person in law.*

This theory has been greatly modified within recent times, more particularly by the Married Women's Property Act of 1882. The present law as to the rights and disabilities of married women is largely based on that Act. And though for a full understanding of this subject it would be necessary to refer at length to the previous state of the law, the present purpose will perhaps be sufficiently satisfied by an interpretation of the general effect of the Act of 1882, coupled with occasional references to other sources of the law relating to married women which are unaffected by that Act. *For this purpose it will be wise to confine our attention to the case of women married after the Act. Other considerations affect those married before it came into force.*

Every woman married after the 1st of January, 1883, is capable of acquiring, holding and disposing by will or otherwise of any real or personal property in the same manner as if she were unmarried, without the intervention of any trustee. She is entitled in England only, not in Scotland, to hold and dispose of, as her separate property, all real and personal property which belongs to her at the time of her marriage or is acquired by or devolves upon her after marriage. The general effect of these provisions is to invest married women with a special capacity of acquiring and exercising legal rights of ownership apart from their husbands in respect of any property which becomes their separate property by virtue of the above mentioned Act, and to deprive a husband of all his former marital rights in respect of any personal property which so becomes his wife's separate property except only the right of

administering and succeeding to her effects in case she dies intestate in his life-time.

There is an exception, perhaps more curious than important, to the foregoing powers of the wife to dispose of property, which may be mentioned here; that is, with regard to the wife's paraphernalia.

Her paraphernalia seem not to be affected by the Act of 1882 and do not become her separate property. They consist, in general, of her apparel and ornaments, suitable to her station in life, given to her by her husband to be used or worn as ornaments of her person and for his gratification before or after marriage. As before the Act of 1882, the wife has no right of property in them till she becomes a widow, and therefore is unable to dispose of them by deed or will during marriage, and her husband is able to give them away, or to sell or pledge them, though he may not bequeath them, and they are liable to his debts. The question whether gifts to the wife are in the nature of paraphernalia is one of intention. If the intention is made manifest that the gifts are to the wife not absolutely, but for her use as a wife, this peculiar kind of property may be created.

The Act of 1882 also lays down that the interest of a married woman in deposits in banks, annuities, stocks and shares standing in her name, is to be deemed to be her separate property unless and until the contrary is shown, and her separate estate is to be liable in respect of any liability which may be incident thereto. And it is not necessary for the husband to join in the transfer of any such property, standing in her name either solely or jointly with any person or persons other than her husband.

It is convenient here to mention two important matters.

One is that all rights of a married woman with regard to property, whether acquired by or devolving on her either before or after marriage, may be modified to any extent by an ante-nuptial or post-nuptial settlement—a fact which must never be lost sight of.

The other matter presents more difficulty. It is that a condition may be attached to a gift of property to a married woman's separate use, depriving her of the power of disposition. Such a condition is called a "restraint on anticipation." It may be attached to a gift of income or of corpus of property. In such cases the corpus or capital is generally vested in trustees who are directed to pay her the income only, power to anticipate the payment of either capital or income being expressly withheld from her. The restraint only lasts during marriage, though it may revive if a second marriage is entered into. But it protects any property the subject of it against any debts or obligations contracted or incurred during marriage, not only while the coverture lasts, but it continues to protect it from the same liabilities, i.e., incurred during marriage after the termination of the marriage.

Power, however, is reserved to the Court to remove the restraint temporarily in certain cases unnecessary to mention here.

A married woman is capable of entering into and rendering herself liable in respect of and to the extent of her separate property on any contract, and of suing and being sued, either in contract or in tort, or otherwise, in all respects as if she were unmarried. And any damages or costs recovered against her in any such action or proceeding are payable out of her separate property; but she is not liable on contract further than to the extent of her separate property. And by the Married Women's Property Act of 1893 every contract entered into by her binds all her separate property which she is at that time or afterwards becomes possessed of, or entitled to, even after her husband's death.

A married woman has the same civil and criminal remedies against all persons, including her husband, as if she were unmarried. With this exception no husband or wife can sue the other for tort. But no criminal proceeding can be taken by a wife against her husband, while they are living together, concerning property claimed by the wife, unless such property was wrongfully taken by the husband when leaving or deserting or about to leave or desert his wife.

A married woman with separate property is liable to an order for maintenance of her husband out of her separate property if he becomes chargeable to any union or parish, and she is liable equally with her husband for the maintenance of her children and grandchildren.

After her marriage a woman continues to be liable in respect of and to the extent of her separate property for all debts contracted and all contracts entered into or wrongs committed by her before marriage, and all sums recovered against her are payable out of her separate property.

A husband married after January 1st, 1893, is liable for the debts of his wife contracted and for all contracts entered into and wrongs committed by her before marriage to the extent of all property whatsoever belonging to his wife which he has acquired or become entitled to from or through his wife, after deducting any payments made by him and any sums for which judgment has been *bona fide* recovered against him in any proceeding at law in respect of any such debts, contracts or wrongs. And a husband is liable to be sued jointly with his wife for any tort committed by her during the marriage.

Any money or other property of the wife lent or entrusted by her husband for the purpose of any trade or business carried on by him or otherwise, is treated as assets of her company's estate in case of his bankruptcy and all claims of other creditors for valuable consideration, must be satisfied before she is entitled to a dividend as her husband's creditor.

Every married woman carrying on trade separately from her husband is, in respect of her separate property, subject to the bankruptcy laws in the same way as if she were unmarried. This liability properly follows from her right to incur legal obligations.

The husband, like any other principal, is liable in respect of all contracts which he may have authorized his wife to make on

his behalf; but he is not liable in respect of contracts which his wife may have made without his authority. As a general rule the onus of proving that the contract was made by the wife as agent for and with the authority of the husband, lies on the party bringing an action on the contract. But there is this important exception, namely, that a presumption arises that the wife has the husband's authority to pledge his credit for the purchase of necessary articles of household or family use in a manner and to an extent which is usual among people of the same station in life. The onus is on the husband to rebut this presumption. When the husband and wife are living apart, there is no presumption of the husband's assent to the wife's contracts, so that the onus lies on the person who seeks to charge the husband to prove the authority. In any case, if the husband cannot be made liable on the contract, the wife and her separate property, as we have seen, may remain liable for the price of damages, and costs.

By an Act of 1857, where the wife is granted a judicial separation from her husband, the Court may make any order for any alimony which seems just. From the date of the separation and while it continues, the wife is treated as an unmarried woman with respect to property of all kinds which may be acquired by or devolve on her after sentence. And she may dispose of such property in the same manner as an unmarried woman, and in cases of her intestacy it will go as it would have gone if her husband had been dead. On subsequent co-habitation with her husband all such property will be held for her separate use, subject to any agreement to the contrary. While the separation lasts her husband is not liable for any of her contracts or wrongs; but if the husband fails to pay her any alimony as ordered by the Court, he is liable for necessaries supplied for her use.

Where a wife has been deserted by her husband she may obtain an order from the Court to protect any money or property she may acquire by her own lawful industry and property she may become possessed of after such desertion. And if such an order is obtained, the wife is placed in the same position as she would have been if a judicial separation had been granted.

So far we have dealt with the position of a married woman with regard to property during the legal subsistence of the marriage tie. It remains now to state the alteration in her position effected by dissolution of the marriage.

The marriage may be dissolved by a decree of divorce. In that case all rights which the husband and wife enjoyed in respect of each other's property, independent of settlement, cease. But neither party is deprived of any interest in any property by settlement which is limited to him or her by name.

On a decree for dissolution of the marriage the Court may order the husband to pay such an allowance to or settle such a sum of money on his wife as having regard to circumstances may seem reasonable. Similarly, where the misconduct of the wife has led to divorce, a settlement may be ordered of her property for the benefit of the innocent party and the children of the marriage or either

or any of them. And after a decree of nullity or dissolution of marriage, the Court has discretion to inquire into and divert from its original purposes any property settled by the marriage settlement.

We have next to consider the effect on the wife's property of the marriage being terminated by death of either of the parties. On the death of the husband intestate the wife takes a share in his personal property as one of the next of kin. The share is:—

(a) If a child or children survive, one-third.

(b) If no child or children, the whole goes to the wife if the net value of the intestate's real and personal estate does not exceed £500. In other cases £500 goes to the wife with interest at 4 per cent. per annum from the husband's death until payment charged on real or personal estate rateably, and she is also entitled to half of the remainder of the personal property. With regard to her own property she has all the rights and liabilities of an unmarried woman, except so far as they are limited by settlements. If she predeceases her husband without having disposed of her property by will, her real estate devolves on her legal heir, subject to this, that if there has been issue of the marriage born alive and capable of inheriting the property, the husband has a life interest in it, called tenancy by the curtesy; and her personalty passes to her husband, though as to choses in action, that is, things to recover or realize which, if wrongfully withheld, an action must have been brought, e.g., debts, only on his taking out letters of administration to her estate.

Such in barest outline is the position of women married after 1883. What a change it represents from the old theory of the legal unity of husband and wife, can be readily perceived. By itself the change is certainly remarkable; but when considered in connection with the change that has taken place in the social position of women, it would appear to be merely a legal recognition of the general development of what is called the emancipation of women.

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#### LAWS REFERRING TO WOMEN AND CHILDREN IN THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

Everything created is subject to some law either physical or moral.

Humanity is always on the march towards new discoveries, new inventions or new conquests, and this onward march always leaves behind its landmarks of morality or immorality, justice or injustice, truth or errors, all of which, bound together, forms the political and social history of nations.

We could take as a fundamental basis for the study of any individual or social phenomenon, in its different components, no matter how finished and perfect they may be, the following scientific fact: Every conquered progress carries in itself the germ of recession.

Taking the actual situation of women and children from the aforesaid standpoint, we shall have to begin by acknowledging that there has been a favourable change in comparison with the past, but we must not forget that this favourable change does not harmonize with women's and children's position at the present day—a position which is in every way unjust as regards moral, social, political and legal rights.

We do not pretend nor desire to take women entirely away from home ties and family life—no, what we want is that she be not made a veritable household slave. We want her to be a mother and a wife, but a respected wife and an intelligent mother.

The modern movement tends, not towards displacing man, but towards obtaining for woman her rightful place in the world free from all prejudice and hurtful influences, taking her out of that narrow atmosphere in which her finer ambitions and aspirations are smothered, and making of her a noble and useful helper and worker in man's active life.

“Instruct and educate me, and I will rule the world;” so said Leybnitz, and this same principle applies to the women and children of all ages, as our political leaders well know.

Woman's education is the real point of strength on which must be balanced the lever that conducts them to that high place which nature meant them to occupy, and which women to-day claim as a right.

Laws are only products of social efforts which act in certain and determined moments; they are inspired and created in the social atmosphere. The legislator only acts as a spokesman to the voice of the public mind, and by means of the code of laws expresses what a nation's ideas are at a given period of history, although at times those ideas are mistaken ones, and have to be corrected in the course of time.

One of the greatest aspirations of our Constitution is equality for all inhabitants of our Republic, and yet strange to say this equality does not apply to women.

Public bodies are organized on the basis of liberty, and our laws for universal suffrage, a subject that does not appeal to many of our Argentine women up to the present, but this is in reality not universal suffrage, as it is a privilege of only certain persons. Women are put in the same position as minors and are thereby excluded from this matter.

This leads us to think that the equality as spoken of here is only a half-hearted equality, and that in name only.

But this equality that is missing in legal rights appears in all its rigour when a woman sins against her duty or any moral law. Then the *just and equal law* tries and condemns her. The case is well known of the young woman who was condemned to four years' imprisonment for an attempted theft of a few cups and saucers!—and whose sentence was commuted, close to its termination, at the petition of a group of humanitarian women headed by Dr. Elvira Rawson de Dellepiane.

In the sight of the legislative law woman occupies a two-fold position in relation to her state. If she is unmarried she acts for herself when she reaches a certain age, but all the same she is debarred from certain legal positions—such as guardianship, trustee, etc.

Once she marries she loses most of her legal capacity, and the law considers her unfit for any legal transaction without the control of her husband, even if they are transactions she exercised during her maidenhood; if once she remains a widow, she recovers her unmarried legal rights as before.

The labour associations by their combined efforts have obtained, and will obtain, much in favour of their position in the struggle of labour against capital, and for the betterment of their economic position; so in like manner will feminine action gain for its noble and just purpose the claim of those rights which really belong to women, and which are denied to them. All this will be gained by having laws passed and complied with—laws dealing with women and children's work; these human beings who, owing to the cost of living, have to abandon the home and go to factories, workshops, offices and any place where they can get work to help meet the expenses of their humble homes.

To those who study this problem and to our legislators this is a question which daily assumes more importance, because we see children, who should be in the school-room, occupying a seat in a workshop, thereby sacrificing their education in their younger days and the chances of their after life.

Measures should be taken to prevent capitalists employing mere children, who do not understand what a loss this premature employment will be to them later on.

Besides having labour laws, and seeing that they are enforced, there should be numberless night schools, and popular free libraries, where all workers could attend after their day's labour, and thereby have an opportunity of bettering their financial position and at the same time forming an idea of their civic duties, which ideas will eventually transform them into good citizens.

The instruction of the women and children completely does away with all the lack of equality in their position as compared to man.

Since 1892 there have been several projects presented to Congress by persons who took an interest in women workers, and recognized that they formed an important factor in the progress of our country. Most of these met with no success.

Sra. Gabriela L. de Coni, honorary inspectress of industrial establishments which occupy women and children, and fully aware of the necessity of such, laid before the Municipal Council a report of the state of those two important factors—a report which was full of matter collected during her visits to those places and which plainly proved that women and children are looked upon as machines as far as their work is concerned.

This report did not lead to anything, and the same happened to a project brought forward in 1893 by Dr. Juan Garcia Fernan-

dez, when he was defender of minors. This gentleman was a sincere protector of the youth, and he dedicated all his time and talents to them. This good work was abruptly brought to a close in July of 1903, when death overtook him in the midst of his care.

In 1906 Dr. Joaquin V. Gonzales, Minister of the Interior, drew up the National Labour Law, in which due thought was given to women's and children's work and the time allowed for same; attention was also drawn to apprenticeship.

By all the aforesaid attempts it will be seen that different people of note dedicated their energy to the betterment of women's position, of that woman who is the bearer of the child, and to the child who is the future hope and glory of the country.

Finally Dr. Alfredo L. Palacios, the distinguished lawyer, with a perseverance worthy of the cause, worked all through his administrative period to obtain the sanction of a project regulating the work of women and children in accordance with the laws of the same nature in all the important nations of the world.

Switzerland, Australia, New Zealand, New York, Canada, Louisiana, and Massachusetts, prohibit children under 14 years of age entering factories; France and Germany marks this age at 13, and the United States, one of the nations of greatest initiative, also mentions 14 as the age, and then according to the law of 1904 those minors must at least know how to write their names. The Californian law of 1903 prohibits the employing of children under 14, and also of any minor not knowing how to read and write.

The criminal statistics of Russia, England, France, Switzerland, and the United States, show that the greatest number of criminals are without any education, so that by replacing the factory and workshop by schools for the youth, we shall be working to the advantage of both country and people.

Such was the idea of the Argentine Republic when Dr. Palacios' project was sanctioned, and it is preferable that our people do not leave their instruction to be acquired in prisons and asylums, when they go there as offenders against the laws of the Constitution.

The first article of the above named law is: "Children may not be admitted to factories, manufacturing houses, workshops and other such places, before they have completed 14 years of age." It gives an idea of the thoughts prevailing among our legislators regarding this matter.

The sanctioning of this law on September 30th, 1907, after a struggle of two years, is a progressive step, because any measure that takes us nearer our goal is a progress towards woman's rights.

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#### THE LEGAL RIGHTS OF A MARRIED WOMAN IN HER HUSBAND'S PROPERTY IN NORWAY.

Where nothing to the contrary has been stipulated by ante-nuptial agreement, there is by the very act of marriage established out of the property of both parties to the marriage one joint fund.

wherein each of them is considered to own one-half, no matter what their relative holdings amounted to before entering into marriage. If only one of them owned property before the marriage, this property passes into joint ownership. Exception is made as to real estate belonging to a Norwegian woman who marries a citizen of a foreign state. Such real estate remains her separate property. The common estate is administered by the husband alone, but he cannot without the consent of his wife give away more than one-tenth of the joint property, nor can he alienate or mortgage country real estate, which she has brought into the joint estate. If the husband has made such disposition without the necessary consent on the part of his wife, she can demand to have his act annulled. She can in such events demand a division of the joint estate.— (Skifte.)

Outside of the exceptions mentioned, the wife can hardly with legally binding effect object to any disposal made by the husband or to expenses by him incurred on account of the joint estate. However, where expenses have been incurred by penal acts, the wife can demand a division and claim indemnification out of his share of the estate. If the wife desires to put an end to her husband's injudicious administration or purposeless waste of the joint estate, her only recourse is an application for having him placed under tutelage. In such case the wife may be appointed his guardian.

The wife can with express or implied authorization make any disposals whereby the joint estate becomes obligated, or she can, even without such authorization, act for the common good or necessity, when in case of urgency an action is needed.

A married woman is to the same extent as an unmarried woman, considered entitled to act in her own behalf. Still, without the consent of the office of the overseers of the minors, her signature affixed either to bonds, endorsements of notes or other acts by which she assumes liability for the obligations of either the husband or the joint estate, is not binding upon her.

Whenever a separate ownership of the property belonging to the parties to the marriage has been agreed upon, she administers her own estate to the same extent as the husband does his. Also in the course of the marriage a system of separate maintenance may be adopted, provided that the common property is solvent.

Whatever property is acquired during the marriage shall in case of common ownership of property go into the joint estate, unless otherwise stipulated. However, the wife retains the right exclusively to dispose of the proceeds of her independent activity, even though such proceeds form a part of the common assets. Life insurance policies are, contrary to the general rule, considered separate property, unless something different has been expressly stipulated.

If the common property proves insufficient for the maintenance of the family, the husband is in the first place supposed to earn whatever is necessary for their maintenance, while the management of the house as a general rule devolves upon the wife.

But when she is able to earn something for the maintenance of the family, she can be compelled to do so.

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## V. MARRIAGE AND DIVORCE.

- (a) Mrs. E. B. Grannis, United States.
- (b) Fru. Drewson, Norway.
- (c) Dr. Stowe-Gullen, Canada.
- (d) Mlle. Popelin, Belgium.

### MARRIAGE AND DIVORCE.

By ELIZABETH B. GRANNIS, United States.

Ideal marriage is without doubt the most desirable object to be attained in human life. It concerns most deeply the vital interests of every human being, notwithstanding every person may not be fitted for wedlock. There are exceptions, and there are persons who will render better service unmarried, while most people should marry if only fairly well mated. The man or woman who has attained greatest achievement along any and every line unmarried, would have accomplished better results if he or she had been mated with his or her counterpart.

It is better, according to a majority of high authorities, that most people should marry, if they are only fairly well mated, than to attempt to live a life of celibacy. It is far better to remain forever unmarried than to be absolutely mismated. There is a decided increase of intelligent people striving to induce teachers and guardians of youth to aid in training for the highest and most attractive responsibilities in human life: those of marriage and parenthood. Few people, comparatively, have a full sense of their personal obligation to influence on the side of sacredness and value of scientific and spiritual marriage. No jest or flippant remark should be countenanced relative to so serious a human relationship. No office or association is open to any man or woman so honourable, or weighted with so vital responsibilities for weal or woe to the individual and the entire race, when compared with marriage.

What intelligent man or woman enjoying the successful and harmonious relationship of husband, wife or parent, would exchange his or her position for the achievement of any other laudable ambition?

I observed throughout Italy last summer much of splendid service rendered, also much of attributed weaknesses and hypocrisy practised as results of many of its dogmas by the Catholic Church. While the Church teaches that wifedom and motherhood is the chief and almost the only mission for women outside of nunneries, what thoughtful Protestant woman does not perceive the incongruous teaching of celibacy for nuns and priests, who deprive marriage of millions of valuable offspring?

The ship's committee on entertainment arranged for an open parliament. The committee accepted my question for discussion: "Women Ought Not to Attain Freedom and Equality with Men in Church and State."

The question was put in the negative to secure Bishop Foley of Detroit to open the parliament. His eloquent plea for the subjugation of women to men was supported wholly by male interpretation of Scripture. Bishop Foley argued that the Roman Catholic Church had bestowed higher honour upon woman than all other religious forces, in her mission of wifehood and motherhood. Is it not a pertinent question to ask the Catholic prelates, or any other advocates of this teaching, in view of the Creator's quoted command to go forth and replenish the earth, why should not the man receive equal commendation with the woman for his participation in the appointed mission, to be fruitful and replenish the earth?

If woman was created for this one department of service, let Bishops and laymen tell us why she was endowed with equal spiritual, mental and physical qualities with her mate for every sort of service to her fellows?

The teaching that men only are to serve the race with all their developed powers, ought not to debar them from equal honour in husbandhood and fatherhood, in like fashion that the chivalrous man is ever ready to bestow upon wifehood and motherhood.

Subjugation of women in its varied aspects is the most fruitful case of unsuccessful and unsatisfactory marriages to both husbands and wives.

I am amazed at the illogical arguments on the woman question put forth by the best evangelical preachers and prelates. Every great man who pleads for the increase of large families, extolling womanhood only in the office of wifehood and motherhood, is probably rendering the best service for woman suffrage.

Most ordinary women, with only average appreciation of individual freedom and justice, cannot fail to see, when their attention is called to the matter in public prints, the injustice of the arguments used by anti-suffragists, including ex-President Roosevelt. The Creator of the human race evidently intended girls to train themselves and be trained to develop every quality with which they are endowed, for general service to their fellows, or they would not inherit equal variety of ability with their brothers.

Why should women's gifts and virtues be such as to enable them to render similar service with men, if their sphere is to be confined to that of wife and mother, or homekeeper?

Are women to be pardoned for not learning their duty and privilege from which they are debarred in the affairs of State, if they fail to continue their appeals for the right of franchise? The most ignorant and unsophisticated of us know that all men, whether male or female, are developed and benefited in every sense by obtaining full political citizenship. I find Scripture teaching saucy freedom and equality of women with men, and therefore I

will continue to work for it until it is accomplished. If we are first Christian, we are admonished to add to such equipment every grace of righteousness and justice for all the people.

The sexes must necessarily be equal. Every girl child should be trained and fitted for self-support—for individual independence and for general service in citizenship. Up to the present time women can and do accomplish more by appealing than by demanding justice and equality with men in all sorts of industries and in everything else. The woman problem cannot be solved by prelates or men only. Men of both sexes must assemble in wise counsel to fairly arrive at just conclusions on social, industrial and all other important questions involving their highest interests.

Women have proven their interest and ability in monetary affairs and in agricultural and manufacturing pursuits. Individual women have illustrated equal ability with men as railroad, lumber and mining promoters, and we all know their record in the professions. What will the coming half century develop for women in comparison with the past fifty years?

Progress and development of women in like fashion with all evolutions of the race in past history, will prove her mentally and intellectually the equal of her counterpart in the brotherhood of man.

Speakers and writers in this and foreign countries frequently allude to the fact that the United States grants more divorces than any other civilized country, except Japan. Why? For many civilized reasons. Infidelity in wedlock is a legal misdemeanor in all of our Federal States except Louisiana and Delaware. September, 1907, the law was placed on the statute books in the Empire State, chiefly by the active labours of women, making infidelity in wedlock a misdemeanor punishable by fine, imprisonment, or both. This law in the first two months reduced divorces numerically in the State of New York, to almost one-half, or quite one-half, in every Divorce Court, according to metropolitan newspaper acknowledgment.

In no foreign country is infidelity in marriage a legal misdemeanor, punishable by fine or imprisonment. Most of the legal causes for divorce in our States are just, and prove a higher degree of civilization than to compel wedded people to continue family relations when utterly unfit conditions exist between husband and wife. The causes of divorce should be removed. Children and all people should attain self-control, by being trained for the privileges and responsibilities of marriage and parenthood.

In recent years Indiana has granted more divorces per capita than any other State in the Union. South Carolina is the only State which grants no divorce for any cause. New York is the only State which grants divorce only for the scriptural cause. All the other States and Territories grant divorce for a number of causes, such as infidelity, extreme cruelty, drunkenness, imprisonment, non-support, etc., to the number of eleven different crimes on the part of the defendant. We might elaborate statistics concerning unhappy marriages which result in divorce in most of the States to

our better understanding of the question under discussion.

During the past six months Dakota has sorrowed unto repentance for its notorious record for granting rapid divorce, and has legally mended its ways.

There has been no such definite progress made in securing a Federal or universal law for marriage or divorce, as some of us have desired and worked to obtain. The Committee appointed for this purpose by Governor Pennypacker of Pennsylvania, at the suggestion of ex-President Roosevelt, was composed of 41 Governors of the States, Representatives from most of the State Legislatures, with special labours by Bishop Doane and the late Bishop Satterlee, of Washington, D.C. This Committee met in February, 1906, and has rendered helpful service, though a Federal law of marriage and divorce may be far in the future. The deliberations and resolutions adopted by this Congress were expected to influence various State Legislatures in their future discussions for a Federal law. There was little said at the Washington Congress relative to causes which lead to divorce.

The wise seers, without one woman helpmate, dealt chiefly with methods to restrict divorce. Since this Committee held its Congress many additional forces have been added, and it is reasonably expected that better methods are being followed which will in the near future result at least in a similarity of State laws for marriage and divorce.

Lawmakers and reformers know well the evils of varied and lax State laws, which result in tremendous advantage to conscienceless persons, who are ever ready to cross the State lines and form unrighteous marital relationships.

The National Council of Women, in adopting its resolution on the divorce question a few years since, when I was Chairman of the Resolution Committee, little realized its resolution's future mission, which I may be justified in repeating here.

"WHEREAS counsellors and agitators in Church and State are talking and writing much against divorce, which is known to cause most disastrous results in the family and State, be it

*Resolved* that the National Council of Women of the United States seek, through co-operation with Church and State, to interest all organizations and individuals pledged to social and civic betterment of the people, to ascertain what are the chief causes which induce or lead to divorce.

*Resolved* that we practise and teach better methods of scientific and spiritual marriage, which must result in the better preparation for offspring."

This resolution has influenced and suggested to Legislatures, ministerial, educational, purity and many other conventions which have since adopted it in its full text, or with some slight variation, sending it on by the best tested missionary agent known to the world—the daily newspaper.

Cardinal Gibbons and his prelate colleagues never discuss causes of divorce in newspaper interviews, but always and forever denounce the result of the causes—divorce.

LAWYERS CONCERNING MARRIAGE AND DIVORCE  
IN NORWAY.

By FRU DREWSON.

The laws in my country concerning marriage and divorce might have a few features a little bit different from other countries, and will therefore probably be of some interest.

First let us see what our laws require of people who want to be married.

We do not find many restrictions here; in fact, a great deal too few, in many people's opinion.

The laws require of man and woman a certain maturity, mental and bodily; the men must have reached their 20th year, the women their 16th year of age. This restriction, however, is not carried into effect with great severity, but I will add that girls younger than 16 years very rarely marry in our days.

There are restrictions against near relatives intermarrying, but by special permission these restrictions are mostly easily overcome. It is not forbidden to marry the dead wife's sister, as it used to be in England until quite lately.

It need not be mentioned that if one of the applicants has been married before, and this marriage is not yet dissolved in a proper way, there is, of course, no way of getting consent to any new marriage to anyone else.

A person has a legal right to protest against two others being married, if one of these has given the first mentioned a promise of marriage. This right is not made much use of, and the law gives no means of enforcing such promises. Breach of promise suits are exceedingly rare in Norway, and are not looked upon with sympathy by the people generally, nor are they known to have given any lucrative results for the plaintiff.

In case of seduction and impregnation, the question becomes more serious. If such a thing has taken place, when the couple were known to be engaged, or even when the girl believed herself engaged, the man can be punished with a penitentiary term of four months, if he has deserted her.

I shall again to-day mention a very human law of our country, which does not strictly belong here, however. If a girl who has borne a child in concealment and killed it, can prove that the father of the child has deserted her during the last months of her pregnancy, he, the father, will be indicted with her as her accomplice in the crime. This law is about ten to fifteen years old.

No disease, not even the most dangerous and incurable one, is legally any objection to the marriage. This is quite singular, for as we will see, when we speak about the divorce laws, several diseases are mentioned as legal reasons for divorce by court decision.

I will add, that some of the woman's rights associations of Norway have been discussing the proposal of a law reform which should require a health certificate from both man and woman, when they intend to enter into marriage.

The only legal way to be married, if bride and groom both belong to the established Church, is by ceremonies performed by a pastor. The names are to be announced in church on three successive Sundays before the wedding day. This can be omitted by special permission of the king. If civil marriage should be preferred, one of the parties will have to withdraw his name from the established Church. The civil wedding is just as legal as the one performed by the minister.

Divorce is obtained in Norway in two different ways: 1, by decision of the Court; 2, by Royal permission.

Divorce by Court decision is obtained by the one party when the other one—

1. Has already before marriage suffered from leprosy, certain other infectious diseases, impotence, etc.

2. Has been proved guilty of bigamy or infidelity.

3. Has deserted his wife (or her husband) for more than three years.

4. Has been sentenced to imprisonment for life.

As you will notice, most of these cases are rather rare; and this way of getting a divorce is not frequently made use of.

The usual way with us is by Royal permission. In this way the case does not pass the Courts at all, and there is no lawsuit. Consequently it is not so expensive, and it is really a much more decent way to forward such private affairs.

To obtain a divorce by Royal permission one will proceed in the following manner:—

The couple will appear before some clerical or civil authority (depending on in which way the ceremony has taken place), mostly before the pastor of the parish or district in which they live, and state before him their intention to separate. It is the pastor's duty then to try to reconcile them, to try to persuade them not to take this step; and this he usually will do with great zeal. Nothing is therefore attained until two or several visits have been made to the pastor. If the latter, however, sees that his efforts of reconciliation are of no use and all persuasion in vain, he gives it up and will now assure himself, if the parties have agreed upon the terms under which they intend to live separate. This may concern money matters, children, and so on. If they have agreed on such terms, the pastor will issue the first papers, the separation certificate, which will be forwarded to higher authorities, all the way up to the ecclesiastical department of the Government.

The two of them will now enter upon a separation for the time of three years. It is a separation from bed and board, and they must not again move together if they wish to get the final divorce. And in the eyes of the law they are still married; i.e., punishment for bigamy, infidelity, etc., is not annulled, and the husband's duty to support the wife is still in effect. If they used to have joint ownership of their estate and fortune, this condition continues. The husband has a right to ask for a division.

After the three years of separation have passed, and renewed unsuccessful efforts on the side of the pastor to reconcile the couple

have been made, the certificate of full divorce is finally given, even if one of the parties should now object.

It is in the hands of the authority to include in this certificate permission to new marriages for the two. This permission is rarely withheld.

Divorce without any preceding term of separation is obtained—

1. If the one party has been in prison for several years.
2. If the one party has disappeared and remains absent for several years.
3. On account of cruelty and ill-treatment.
4. And if the parties can prove that they have in reality lived separately for six or seven years.

Our divorce laws are now to be reformed; a proposed bill will appear before our Storting within the near future. The reform will be in the direction of more simplicity and more liberty.

They are in Norway not so afraid of making divorce easier, believing as they do, that force and unconquerable restrictions do not create happiness, and preferring the open acts to the hidden ones. We hold that liberty is responsibility also in this case.

I want to add, that news about divorces are never entered in the daily papers, and what scandals there might be connected with the divorces obtained will not be communicated in any way but through the ever living private gossip.

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## DIVORCE.

By DR. STOWE-GULLEN, Canada.

In studying sociological questions there are certain underlying principles to be sought and determined, ere an intelligent comprehension can be elicited, as well as the further fact that events and existing conditions may not be regarded individually and as isolated, but must be viewed in the light of many influences and their relationship to the past, both near and remote, their efficacy as moulders for the future, and their consequent effect upon our social fabric. All these and many other determining factors must not be forgotten or disregarded, if any fair and judicial synopsis is to be conceived.

The consideration, then, of this primarily important subject involves co-relating facts, presupposes the prior condition of marriage and implies specific and general knowledge of its history.

The great institutions—Family, Church and State—are the three great pillars of the Nation. It is also conceded that the Family is the unit of the Nation, the cornerstone of Society's arch; therefore Divorce attacks the fundamental and basic law upon which our civilization is builded.

In primitive society the earliest records demonstrate that women possessed great liberty under early forms of government.

History enunciates that human existence began completely under woman's control. Woman was the ruler of the Family,

State and Church. Man was only regarded as son and inferior, possessing little or no authority. Property was transmitted in the female line—from mother to daughter, or sister to sister, but never from father to son. The child bore its mother's name, relationship was traced only through the mother; and the social, religious and political life was in perfect accord with the idea of woman as the chief and highest authority.

After people became aggregated into communities and tribal relations were established, women for many centuries retained her superior position and was the dominant factor in government. All life was regarded as holy, even the sacrifice of animals unknown, and it is stated that never was justice more wisely administered. Monogamy was the rule, though to woman was accorded the privilege of indicating her preference for any particular man. And to woman belonged the right of returning her marital spouse if his conduct were unbecoming or her love waned.

A more than cursory view forces home the conviction that this custom was in perfect harmony with natural law. Women are the mothers of the race, and to them belongs unquestionably the privilege of selecting the fathers of their children. The primitive mother recognized and exercised her inherent and natural prerogative.

It was likewise true that while woman was the mother, she was also lawmaker, provider and burden bearer; not primarily because of woman's degraded position but as the result of her peace-loving qualities, for man was the warrior. Woman then was cook, miller, baker, weaver, potter, firemaker, stone mason, decorator, artist and musician—the primitive creator of all arts, industrial and artistic. *The shop was ample, large and airy.* In truth there were but two great phases of civilization—Industrialism and Militancy. Woman the former—man the latter.

Now during certain epochs it was possibly necessary that man should be equipped to protect wife and children from destruction by alien tribes, but ultimately was provided the chief factor in woman's downfall from her high estate. Man commenced to take alien women as prisoners—bringing them (as trophies of war) into the family or communal life. These women were regarded as the especial prize of their captors—possessed no controlling power, and were accorded none of the rights and privileges of the women of the community.

From this point in the world's history may be traced the decline of woman's supremacy. Though as yet women held the balance of power, exercised unqualified and unquestioned jurisdiction over their persons, children and property; so that the introduction of an alien without governing prerogatives in the communal life—this woman, the acknowledged property and possession of the man,—was therefore an object to be desired and to be sought. In the process of time wars for women became frequent—finally resulting in the instituting of a form of marriage binding woman to man for life and called Capture Marriage. At first this form

only existed among warriors but afterwards became general and can be traced through thousands of years.

Some time subsequently another custom arose—undoubtedly the origin of the supposed estrangement between mother-in-law and son-in-law of our modern day. The mother of the bride or the nearest female relative assumed the role of attempted rescuer or defender of the poor captive woman. This finally led to simulated manifestations of hatred on the part of the mother or defender becoming an adjuvant to the marriage ceremony.

Another form of marriage more worthy of note was a treaty between the two contracting parties based upon perfect equality. The agreement stipulated that "all effects, gains, earnings were to be equally the property of both, and in case of divorce by mutual consent the debts, stocks and credits to be divided equally." "If the man insisted on divorce he gave the wife half the effects and if it were the woman she did the same."

Another point, far-reaching in its effects—primarily the woman remained with her kindred and the husband left his abode and dwelt with the family. The kindred, particularly the women, were regarded as the natural protectors and defenders of the wife. After a time it gradually became the custom for the woman to leave home and kindred and follow the father of her children—another step towards man's dominancy. For the wife, deprived of the protecting care of her relatives, became dependent and was subject to the autoeracy of her lord. Still further in time, through the desire for the control and accumulation of property, daughters were sold as slaves—as another method of increasing the family income.

Ultimately, through the establishment of man's supremacy, deemed necessary or desirable to his happiness, the next step was purchase of wives, and its resultant—Polygamy. Still later, the natural love of power latent in man became more intensified, and woman was deprived of all privileges as head of the family, law-maker, property owner—deserted by her kindred—the right to her own children denied (a custom still extant—direct legacy of this barbarous past) and the wife legally became the property of husband, son or other male relative.

Ultimately through the establishment of man's supremacy, the basis for family life was completely metamorphosed, and instead of natural law and equality being the foundation it was merely the physical force of the man over wife and children. The processes were gradual by which woman finally lost her supreme position, yet the stages are not difficult to trace and determine.

Beginning with the capture of women for slaves and wives—the subsequent control of children, the wife's person, her property ultimately resulted in the complete overthrow of the government, mothered and administered by women, when the idealistic principles of liberty and justice reigned (the natural outcome of the maternal thought) and there ensued a government of licentiousness and physical force, when all natural rights were disregarded

and ignored and poor woman, weakened and terrified by abuse and cruelty, was changed from a self-sustaining, liberty-loving, free individual and became the abject slave and petitioner on the will and bounty of a tyrannical lord and master who even possessed and exercised the power of life and death over her person.

Yet in defiance of this, woman for many centuries lived on with all subjected save her divine mission—Motherhood. Now in very modern times these conditions have been modified, though beneath man's one-sided efforts to establish order and dispense justice, one is conscious of that lower standard of morals—due to the lack of perception and reasoning power which for many thousands of years tinctured and coloured human thought and biased human actions.

It has been the intention briefly, yet connectedly, to indicate and establish the relationship between the present woman and her sister of primitive civilizations, and also to instance the salient reasons for the inequalities that are so apparent in our modern world. And while undoubtedly the disabilities of women, and therefore the race, are rapidly disappearing, still, humanity is only at the dawn of better conditions and better days.

Our present system of marriage had its origin in the forcible carrying off of the woman, and it must not be forgotten that this system was inaugurated not for the purpose of establishing Monogamy, but merely so that man might further throw off all the sexual restrictions which had governed him under woman's supremacy. It requires but little thought to perceive that marriage is the most important contract entered into by human beings, for it is indeed the keystone of the arch of our social architecture.

The true marriage is founded and based upon the love and affection which two people experience towards one another—the ceremony but the legal form prescribed by Church and State and outward acknowledgment to the world. If either party flagrantly violates the contract the tie should be dissolved for the sake of the children, and the *purity of home and nation*. As love is the main-spring, when *love is dead true divorce* has occurred; and the natural logical sequence is legal separation.

It is the birthright of all children to be lovely and lovable and to be born of love, their advent awarded a loving welcome. But how can this be accomplished if children be born of parents who oftentimes dislike, fear and even loathe each other?

Can the best interests of society be served by the continuance of a relation between two people who sustain such a mental attitude towards each other? Will the children who result from such a union be desirable? Ought the world to be peopled by children born of hatred, instead of love? Does the world need such children—who are ultimately the fathers, mothers and citizens of a country?

Any and all of these queries must be answered by the individual.

Is it cause for astonishment that our jails, penitentiaries and asylums are full to overflowing—efficient and forcible evidences of our immorality.

The ideal family is where love and equality exists and is the basic and predominant tone. Where each seeks and desires only the happiness and well-being of the other—where *none fear* and *none obey* but only love and serve.

As long as time persists and the human race exists, men and women will love and just so long will there be true and perfect marriage, but never will there be a generation of truly great, *evolved men and women* until there be a generation of free women and free mothers, and the recognition of the divinity of motherhood and fatherhood is established.

While all recognize that marriage is the most important contract that can be entered into by man, and woman, still, when that agreement has been persistently violated it is only the part of wisdom for the Court to supervene and annul such marriages—for causes that the Court may deem best—direct the division of the property and decide as to the custody and care of the children.

The basis for this divorce, should be equal, *no distinction made in favour of man*—especially as he is much more frequently the offending party. Neither should our legislature exist only for the rich; the happiness and well-being of the poor, or people in moderate circumstances of life, is equally essential to the individual and community—in fact, more so, as these classes comprise by far the greater portion of the people.

The law as it now exists in Canada is woefully lacking, discriminating and defective. There are four of our Provinces which have a Divorce Court: British Columbia, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick. In the other five Provinces: Ontario, Quebec, Alberta and Saskatchewan and Manitoba, all applications for divorce have to be made to the Senate of Canada.

In Prince Edward, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia no distinction as to sex—causes about the same, except that the mother if guilty of adultery or otherwise improper conduct may not have the custody, care of or access to her children. In Quebec marriage can only be dissolved by death. Those seeking divorce must apply to the Federal Parliament—the Bill being introduced in the Senate, the Courts grant separation from bed and board—but that does not dissolve the marriage tie.

A husband may demand separation on the ground of infidelity. A wife may demand separation only when the concubine is in their common dwelling-house.

In cases of divorce woman has invariably to prove more against the husband than has the husband against the wife.

In Manitoba no protecting order can be given to a wife permitting her to live apart on the ground of the husband's adultery.

In British Columbia dissolution of marriage with right to remarry is granted to man for wife's adultery, but a woman must petition on the ground of bigamy with adultery, or rape, bestial-

ity, or of cruelty added to the original charge. What can be the reason for so much apathy! Are our lawmakers—our people afraid to face this vitally essential problem and bring to the consideration of this question the most highly developed judicial intellects? Or are Canadians going to persist in maintaining the mental attitude of the ostrich which, upon the approach of danger, hides its head. Is it not time that we act the part of men and women and honestly and fairly look truth and facts in the face, and as persistently seek an adequate solution—that will not be in favour of one sex, one class, but in the interests of *home and nation*.

"Whom God hath joined" man cannot put asunder—whom nature hath put asunder let not man manacle together.

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### LAWSON MARRIAGE AND DIVORCE IN BELGIUM.

By M<sup>lle</sup>. MARIE POPELIN, LL.D., President of the Belgian National Council of Women.

Our laws and our customs confine woman's mission in life to marriage and family duties and up to the present time only a relatively small number of women has succeeded in creating for itself a situation outside of marriage.

In fact, the entire education of the young girl tends to fit her for the married state, and all virtues which are developed in her, all occasions which she has got for instructing herself, have the same aim: marriage and the husband. Only the future wife is seen in our girl, her personal intellectual improvement is spoken of, but seldom aimed at.

Why is this so? Does woman not exist as an individual? Does the responsibility of her actions and the merits of her virtues not belong to her? Above these titles of wife and mother, which are accidental, transitory and which are dissolved by death, has woman not got an eternal and inalienable title, that of a human creature? Is she not a conscious and responsible being, and has she not got therefore a full right to the most perfect development of her mind and her heart?

Perhaps some will say that, when married, the woman is free, that she reigns sovereign in that family in which she is shut up. No such thing!

As a *wife* she is not legally in possession of her goods and chattels, she cannot give, she cannot receive, she is for ever a *minor*.

As a *mother* she has no legal right to direct her children's education, she cannot marry them nor prevent their marrying, she cannot remove them from the paternal house nor keep them in the same.

As a *widow* she is watched, her pure and tender motherly love is looked at with suspicion! Yes, ladies, this love which consists entirely of devotedness without a single egoistic thought, is not sufficient to inspire confidence.

Is it not incredible that even in this maternal function, in the name of which she is forbidden to live for herself, in which she gives away the best part of herself, her strength, her health, sometimes her life, in the name of which she has been honoured, sung, sanctified, almost deified, as if by stupefying her with incense her mind was to be averted from the brutal reality; is it not incredible, I say, that to this very day she should be subordinated, almost annihilated in the name of some ancient and obsolete, abstract and mystic idea, the yoke of which, in all other matters, our civilization has shaken off long ago?

You will then perceive that, in marriage, out of marriage, we are always surrounded with barriers; we see life going on, but we take no part in it; we are seldom women, I mean human creatures, called upon to develop our natural capacities, to fully realize our essence.

Is such a complete exclusion legitimate? Is it necessary? Has anybody a right to say to the half of human beings: "You shall not have your share in life; you shall not have your share in the family nor in society"?

Is not this equal to denying that half its right to the name of a human being? Is not this equal to disinheriting society and the family also? Do we know whether society and the family, in order to progress on the good road do not require the two different thoughts and the two different dispositions of human nature? Who can tell whether a large number of the evils which afflict our world and many of the insoluble problems which perplex it, have not got partially their origin in this annihilation of one of the forces of creation, in the subjugation of our sex.

We have thought so and we have endeavored to elevate woman out of the inferior condition in which she has been put by Napoleon's laws of 1802, accepted by us and in which she has been kept for a century; we have also endeavored to destroy the prejudices, stronger even than the laws, which shackle her at every step she tries to make in her journey forward towards liberty, truth and justice!

The result of our work and our efforts is the following:—

According to the "Code Napoléon" the surviving spouse was not entitled to the inheritance; all the collaterals came before him or her. This legislation was principally pernicious to the widowed woman, because her husband's death mostly deprived her of the principal income of the household.

The law of November 26th, 1896, gives the surviving spouse a right upon the property left by the defunct, but this right is still too much limited. Nevertheless it is a first conquest which it will be necessary to follow up.

The law of February 10th, 1900, concerning the savings of married women, has fulfilled one of our most earnest wishes and repaid us for long and arduous efforts. We have been waiting for it for eight years, with alternate hopes and despondencies. According to this law the married woman has a right to open an account for herself at the Government's savings bank without the assistance

of her husband. She has a right to withdraw, up to one hundred francs a month, from the sums deposited to her credit and to use them for the wants of the household. Moreover, the same law protects this money, up to the amount of one thousand francs, against her husband's possible creditors. This law has principally given satisfaction to the women belonging to the working classes; in the households of this description the wife represents the spirit of economy and order and up to now this law has not been the occasion of any misuse.

The law of March 10th, 1900, on the contract of labour is quite as important. It allows any married woman to engage her work, to receive her salary, and to dispose of the same for the wants of the household to an amount not exceeding three thousand francs a year. The consequence is that the woman's activity, the earnings of her work and their utilization, no longer depend upon an arbitrary decision of the husband. Moreover, and this is very important, the instruments necessary for the wife's personal work and the furniture acquired through her salary can no longer, without her agreement, be sold, given away, let, lent or pawned by the husband. And last, but not least, the husband's permission to go to law can be replaced by that of the Councils of "Prud'hommes" or of the Justice of the Peace in all questions of labour or salary which come within their competency. This is a first breach, and a serious one, in the authority of the husband.

The law of May 10th, 1900, concerning old age pensions, has equally got feminist tendencies, inasmuch as it applies to both sexes, whereas the French law on pensions differs from it in that respect.

The session of our Parliament 1900-1901, we note with pleasure, was good for women. Some excellent feminist laws were voted and a number of other laws were proposed, equally favourable to women as to men.

Here are some of them:—

December 14, 1900—A proposal to modify the organic law concerning the "Prud'hommes," in order to apply this law to women as well as to men in the matter of eligibility and voting. Such an amendment was voted in 1908.

January 24, 1900—A proposal concerning women who are in possession of the diploma of Doctor-at-law, allowing them to be sworn as advocates and to exercise that profession.

January, 1901—A proposal to limit the hours of work for adult men and women, etc., etc.

After this we have to go as far as the session of Parliament 1908-1909, which was equally favourable to women, and in the course of which important feminist laws were voted and promulgated.

First, we must attract notice upon the law of January 7, 1908, introducing measures by which the celebration of marriages is made easier. With the same date, a law calling upon women as witnesses concerning births, marriages and deaths. This law does away with the old state of things, for up to then Article 37 of the Code

Napoléon recognized as legal only the testimony of witnesses of the male sex. Therefore in these latter days we have often seen women acting as witnesses for the celebration of civil marriages.

The research of paternity, for which we have battled for so long a time and which is prohibited by the odious Article 340 of the Code Napoléon, is at last admitted by the law of April 6, 1908, but unfortunately only in a very limited number of cases. Nevertheless, the principle of this research is admitted, and moreover, in a great number of cases in which it is not admitted, the law grants a right to aliments for the child and damages for the mother against the man who has *run the risk* of paternity.

The House of Representatives, on December 19, 1908, voted a law admitting women to eligibility and the faculty of voting for the Councils of "Prud'hommes," but up to now this law has not passed the Senate. It is doubtful whether this law will ever become effective, because we are told that the Minister of Industry and Work is not disposed to admit women as "Prud'hommes."

Lastly, a proposal authorizing women to be guardians of minor children and to be members of Family Councils, has met with a very good reception and will be very soon voted by a strong majority.

And so we are able to declare that from a juridical point of view the condition of the Belgian woman has been seriously bettered, and moreover we have a right to look at the future with confidence.

# Philanthropy.

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CONVENER—MRS. J. G. SAVAGE.

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The Section of Philanthropy held its meetings in the Physics Building, Mrs. J. G. Savage being Convener. Many fine addresses were given, though space does not permit us to give them in full, and the meetings were well attended.

Mrs. Anna Garlin Spencer, of New York, opened the session, her subject being, "Training Opportunities and Compensation for Professional Specialties." Mrs. Spencer traced the beginning of all our charitable organizations to the union of ancient "charity" and modern "social service." "Philanthropy" was originated in Philadelphia by Anne Parish in 1793, after the scourge of yellow fever, and from this small beginning the work grew, until in 1898 one of the leading doctors of Cincinnati came to New York to give a six weeks' summer course of lectures on Social Work. In 1903 the demand came to the New York society for more thorough training of workers, and a session was started for late afternoon and evening work, from October to May, Mrs. Spencer herself being a director. Much enthusiasm was shown, and in 1904 the work was in full swing, until at the present time there is an endowment fund of \$250,000. free use of class-rooms and library, five administrative officers, and others of perhaps minor importance. St. Louis has followed suit, and Chicago, taking another line, has been approached by the State University of Illinois to have incorporated a branch of this work. In Columbia College is given a special course for dietitians and others, in connection with the New York work.

Miss Bertha Pappenheim, of Frankfort, gave an address upon the "Relation of Individual Philanthropy to Organized Philanthropy," in which she said it was necessary to find a good, straight and short way between the willing giver and those requiring assistance. The solution of this problem is "organized philanthropy," which means we need Boards where the apparatus for certain specialization of social work is kept in movement and ready to operate at any hour, and provided with professional workers. These Boards bring order and discipline where otherwise careless charity and thoughtless dilettantism would spoil the best intentions. Yet there is a great danger which grows out of organized philanthropy, i.e., bureaucratism, which in its worst form speaks and acts as if the poor existed on its behalf, instead of remembering that organizations should be instruments to bring help and relief to the needy. The one way to avoid or moderate this danger,

continued Miss Pappenheim, is to make voluntary workers thoroughly study the subject, and to provide the Boards with a judicious combination of professional and well trained volunteer workers. In a word, *organized philanthropy* is a necessity, *individual philanthropy* is a fine art, and as such makes an integral part of our civilized life and of our own happiness.

Mrs. Mary Higgs, of England, spoke in discussion of the foregoing, with details of the work in her own country. The charity organization having been considered somewhat narrowing, the "Guild of Health" has been formed and receives good support. The principal training is given in the settlements, and the University of Liverpool has now incorporated a course of lectures, which enables ladies to learn the matter properly. Mrs. Higgs, in closing her remarks, said it had now been found necessary to bring to bear upon humanity that desire for information at present being given to plant and animal life.

Mrs. Helen Waterman, of Cleveland, U.S.A., also spoke a few words regarding the abolishment of poverty, and impressed upon her hearers that, wherever possible, prevention is better than cure.

Mrs. Edwin Gray, of York, England, where she has been a member of the Board of Guardians for eleven years, addressed the meeting on "Voluntary Work in Connection with Local Authorities." In the middle of the last century it was found necessary to discover the cause of need, thus not only bringing present relief, but putting man in the way of permanently helping himself. It is therefore necessary for those going into social service to—

- (a) Study causes and conditions;
- (b) Study best methods of relief;
- (c) Find out what the State is doing;

and then to give our own time and sympathy.

Mrs. Gray said that Health Visitors had proved a great success in England, this work having first been done by voluntary workers. In York the municipality pays trained workers. In Huddersfield some 150 voluntary workers report to a trained Lady Sanitary Inspector, who in turn reports to the authorities. Mrs. Gray called attention to the necessity of knowing and using the services of the State.

Mrs. Carlaw Martin, of Scotland, spoke to the above, stating that in Dundee great strides are being made in the work. Mrs. Martin also spoke of the necessity of parents and heads of institutions realizing the importance of sending out into the world girls with some definite lines of work. She then pointed out the fact that the volunteer is often most successful in pioneer work, thus clearing the path for the official.

Miss Ethel Hurlbatt, Warden of the Royal Victoria College, Montreal, gave a splendid paper on "Opportunities for Women on Local Governing Boards in Canada," which, as it contains much valuable information, we cannot do better than place before you in full:

## OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN ON LOCAL GOVERNING BOARDS IN CANADA.

By MISS ETHEL HURLBATT, Warden Royal Victoria  
College, McGill University, Montreal, Canada.

Anyone whose residence in Canada has not extended over more than two and one-half years, and that, with the exception of a flying visit to Toronto, confined to Montreal, and who, further, cannot profess to have made a study of questions of Canadian Government, may well be accused of temerity for attempting to deal with the subject announced as the title of this paper, "Opportunities for Women on Local Governing Boards in Canada." . . . But a recent acquaintance with a series of studies on Municipal Government in Canada, published by the University of Toronto and edited by Mr. S. Morley Wickett; a study of the last published annual reports of the Educational Departments of all the Provinces of the Dominion, and a recent survey of the twenty years' work of the Women's Local Government Society of the United Kingdom, has encouraged the writer to prepare a brief statement for this Conference.

Reflections upon the material drawn from the three sources mentioned bring home the conviction that for the future well-being of the nation the key lies in our Local Government.

Local Government in Canada includes (1) the sphere of work of the School Trustee; (2) that of the various Councils which govern city, town and township—which may for convenience be included under the term "Municipal Government." Local Government is performing services undreamed of a few years ago—supplying improved roads, pavements, markets, water supply and sanitary service, great municipal and educational buildings, light and power, telephones, libraries. As a field for women's activity it would appear to be of great importance. The recent prominence of the Woman's Suffrage question in Great Britain has naturally compelled attention to the subject as it affects Canada. This is not the place for general reflections upon that subject, but this much may be said, that the movement of Woman's Suffrage in Great Britain is ripening to-day largely because women have been educated by a period of active service in some forms of Local Government.

From two points of view the participation of women in Local Government may be considered, first as the use of women's services for the public good, next as affording them a means of education which shall affect for good their own social understanding, and through them the point of view of society.

It should be of interest to note a fact pointed out by Dr. Shortt, of the Civil Service Commission, in his survey of the History of Municipal Government in Ontario, namely, that it was the first Public School Act for Upper Canada (1816) that gave to Canada the first real measure of Local Government. It permitted citizens to act together for the establishment of schools, for the

appointment of teachers, for the authorization of text-books. "Thus people who could not be entrusted with the power to elect representatives to look after the streets and regulate carters and nuisances were deemed quite competent to choose representatives who should be sufficiently wise and well informed to qualify teachers and authorize text-books, as well as to pass upon the other educational needs of the country."

Shift the scene from 1816 to 1909 and change the question from the right of representation to eligibility to serve, and we find to-day women eligible to serve in matters of education, but incapable of service where housing and sanitation, heating and lighting and other matters of larger housekeeping are concerned.

True, if it were necessary to make a choice women might be satisfied with the alternative they possess, as being the more far-reaching in influence and effect, for "education is the foundation of active citizenship and good government." But we may question whether a choice is necessary.

Opportunities for women in Local Government there are in the educational and in the municipal sphere. In the first their opportunities are secured to them, and the object of this paper must be to lay stress upon the work that they may do under existing conditions for the public good. In the second there may be something to argue as to the desirability of increasing women's responsibility—as well as something to urge as to what they might do if those responsibilities were put upon them.

It will be best as far as possible to deal with the two spheres of Local Government separately, though much that is said must apply to both.

This paper can deal in practical detail with the question of women's opportunities for work as School Trustee only, because there is a quantity of evidence to hand to show just what kind of work lies waiting to be done, and because it is especially important to emphasize what it is now actually within the power of women to effect.

First, with regard to education:

In every Province, with the exception of the Province of Quebec, women are eligible to serve as School Trustees. Inquiry addressed to Superintendents of Education in each Province gives the following results:

In Prince Edward Island it is reported that no women are serving.

In Nova Scotia, one woman.

In New Brunswick, seven women; but it is found on reference to the annual report that the names of two women appear on each of the Committees of eight towns.

From Ontario no answer was received.

In Manitoba it is reported that one woman is serving in a district in which there were not three men to be found qualified to serve.

In Alberta it is reported that no women are serving as Trustees, but a number are serving as Secretary-Treasurers.

From British Columbia no answer was received, but it appears that women have served and may be serving.

It may be that those returns take no account of cities, but in any case it is sufficiently clear that throughout the rural districts women are not in appreciable numbers co-operating in the administration of education.

This paper is not intended to undervalue any work already being done by women as School Trustees, but merely to emphasize the further need for their work.

The questions that arise are: (1) whether the services of a greater number of women are needed; (2) whether more women may reasonably be expected to undertake work of this kind; (3) what are the respects in which their work for the schools may be specially useful to the community in which they live—to the Province and ultimately to the Dominion?

1. The annual reports of the Superintendent of Education testify to the difficulty experienced in various Provinces in finding a sufficient supply of active Trustees. For example, it is said in some districts of New Brunswick, "Trustees neglect their opportunities, lack vigour, allow schools to be closed to avoid taxes; that there is no means of compelling them to be active, and that, if they were dismissed, there would be no one to take their place." Or, to take another example, in British Columbia it is said of one district that there is a lack of earnestness on the part of the Trustees that is a real hindrance to the teachers in their work. It is clear from reports in Alberta that women's services are used as Secretary-Treasurers, and so, it must be supposed, welcomed and not discouraged. It is evident that there is no lack of call for women to serve as Trustees.

2. Can more women than are at present doing so be reasonably expected to undertake such work? The answer depends partly upon the number of women likely to possess the necessary qualification, i.e., being owners or occupants of property. Unfortunately it has not been possible to obtain official information under this head, but it may well be supposed that in newly settled districts at least there may be a dearth of women owners or occupiers. But where the qualification is fulfilled, is it reasonable to suppose that women can undertake this public service? The conditions of domestic life press hardly upon women, and home duties are absorbing; there must be in the case of married women many years when a woman can do little else than devote her best care to her own home and her children. But there must often be women who could give their services to their school, *if the need were sufficiently clear to them*; and to married women at least the welfare of the scholars must be a matter of direct concern. The Chief Superintendent of Education in Prince Edward Island urges as a reform that would be likely to secure the return of Trustees more truly interested in education, that the majority of them should be par-

ents, and he would give to parents having children in the schools two votes each in the school meeting. If married women more universally had the vote, his end might be nearer of attainment.

3. In what respect can women's services as School Trustees be of special use to the community?

The answer to such a question might be taken to raise the whole subject of aims and ideals in education, for as Trustees women could have a powerful influence in moulding the national system of education.

For the moment it must suffice to mention some of the special difficulties mentioned specifically in the annual reports of the various Provinces—for these will show where lies the call for educational activity and educational reform, in which women should take their part.

The first and universal complaint is of the inadequate salaries offered to teachers.

The effect of this in the Eastern Provinces is to tempt well qualified teachers to go West, where higher salaries are offered, or to desert the profession altogether for better paid employment. Even in the West, where salaries are at their best, there is a tendency for the ablest men to leave the teaching profession. In Manitoba and Alberta, as well as in the Maritime Provinces, the "teaching life" of a man is put at three years. In Alberta it is reported that in 20 per cent. of the School Departments of the Province there is a change of teachers within the school year.

It can well be understood how serious an injury to education is this fluctuation of teachers and the less of continuity, for the influence of a school depends largely upon the teachers' intimate knowledge of the children and of local conditions. The good and permanent teacher is the first necessity of the school. There is a contributing cause to this want of continuity—the poor accommodation and boarding facilities for teachers, especially in the non-English-speaking districts of the West. In Saskatchewan an Inspector reports that teachers have been known on arrival to be discouraged on this account and to leave for unknown parts without ever opening the school. It is also reported in Saskatchewan that some far-sighted Trustees build teachers' houses and engage married teachers, in the hope of encouraging them to settle.

Another difficulty is the short school year. It is the opinion of some Inspectors that with very little effort on the part of rate-payers money could easily be found sufficient to keep many rural schools open for a longer period than is so often the case. That it is necessary for the good of all future citizens may well be urged, but it is specially true of the children of non-English-speaking settlers. (For example, in Alberta and Saskatchewan, where one hears of half of a district of 212 schools being made up of foreign population). It is reassuring to learn how greatly some of these foreign settlers concern themselves to secure for their children the greatest available educational advantages, insisting often upon the appointment of the most highly paid English-speaking teachers.

The short school season reacts, too, upon the difficulty of obtaining teachers, for the latter naturally seek some more stable employment and a better emolument than that offered by an engagement for a fragment of a year.

The policy of consolidation of school districts—to secure a longer school year, a larger graded school in place of several ungraded schools—is one that needs the fullest consideration as a possible solution of some of the difficulties already discussed.

There are two other school problems raised in these annual reports to which brief reference should be made.

First, the subject of health.

In Prince Edward Island it is reported that in many schools ventilation is remarkable for its absence. In Alberta there is the same story told, special mention being made of the lack of fresh air and neglect to provide for the scrubbing and proper cleaning of the schools.

Here, then, are the forcing-beds of tuberculosis, and here is a great opportunity for making war upon that scourge. Unhealthy conditions undermine the health of teacher and of child and result in great economic waste.

And in another and less direct way injury is being done to the health of the scholar. It may best be described by reference to a complaint from Nova Scotia of over-pressure, due not to material increase in the demands made by the school upon the child, but due to the tendency to social distractions of the child, diminishing the strength, reducing the available power for mental work; and due to a tendency on the part of parents to desire the advance of their children despite tender years, unpreparedness, or insufficient health.

Still one further problem—that is, the utilization of the school for general purposes of aesthetic culture—referred to in the annual reports of all the Provinces, so important is this in relation to the civilizing influence of the school. The poorest country school may possess the greatest opportunity in its school ground. The beautifying of the school structure and equipment may represent expenditure beyond the means of Trustees, but the school garden can be made seemly, orderly and beautiful, and serve, moreover, for the realization of the idea of co-operation, by the employment of the children in its cultivation.

These instances of present problems in educational administration stand out as examples of the work awaiting women. The first two require greater expenditure of money, and for this a propaganda is needed to explain that the expenditure will be a good investment for the individual, for his children, and for the community at large.

Women must take their part in this propaganda.

In the last two instances—sanitation and hygiene, and aesthetic culture—women's co-operation should be sought, nay, claimed.

It may be said that as voters women are already responsible for holding opinions and giving expression to them in matters of

education. It is true that much can be done by any one, however restricted her official power and influence; but is it not true in the experience of most of us that the thing which we know best and upon which we get our ideas clear and forcible, is the thing at which we work?

We may return to a previous statement, that it is needful for women to take part in the administration of education for the sake of the grasp and understanding that they will obtain of the problems of that public service. Women's influence will be doubly great if they are actually taking part in educational administration, because they will be doubly well informed. They would, e.g., hear the teacher's opinions, study the Inspector's reports, meet him and hear his criticisms and his advice. Learning by these means a hundred things of interest and importance of which they had never dreamed before. For blue books may become fascinating literature—if the key to the interest of them is supplied.

If, as seems to be indicated in various places, the tendency is growing for boys to begin work early, leaving girls to enjoy a longer school life and a college education, women must be looked to to keep up the standard of education and to help forward an appreciation of it in the community. They must influence public opinion in order that what is now treated as "the sorriest of trades may be recognized as the noblest profession," and in order that the school may become a centre of popular interest—for, as Mr. M. E. Sadler has recently so well expressed it, "The fulfilment of all high ideals in education depends upon the personal interest and devotion, not only of teachers and educational officials, but of a large number of individuals engaged in other callings in life."

So much for the possibilities of work as School Trustees. Now let us turn to the other sphere of Local Government.

It has been truly said that the past ten years in Canada have seen population increasing rapidly, the sphere of municipal activity widening, the magnitude and complexity of local interests at last compelling attention to the field that it was formerly possible to pass over lightly. Further, that the great importance of Local, as compared with Provincial, Government may be judged by the test of expenditure. For example, the expenditure of Winnipeg is quoted as recently exceeding that of Manitoba, the expenditure of Montreal that of the Province of Quebec, and, until 1907, the expenditure of Toronto that of Ontario.

It is stated that municipal powers in Canada are at present enumerated in as great detail as in the United States; in much greater detail than in Great Britain, where there is an efficient Local Government Board with powers of supervision, and in still greater detail than on the Continent of Europe, where administrative supervision is carried much further than in Great Britain. The result in Canada being frequent appeals to the Legislature for fragmentary additions to powers, and in the interim serious delays and interruptions to municipal business. Taking Ontario as

an example, of the 150 Acts passed in 1905, 60 applied to municipal, rather than to Provincial, matters.

So it is said that in many localities it is felt that the simple organization of the past is unequal to the strain of modern municipal activity, and it is forecasted that the near future may see many changes in the system and method of conducting municipal business. The needs are by general consent agreed to be: a single Act governing municipalities with a less specific and a wider grant of local power than has been customary; the creation of an Expert Board for purposes of municipal supervision and consultation; improvements in and some uniformity in the keeping of accounts, statistics, reports, etc.; greater attention to the qualifications of municipal heads of departments, to professional responsibility and to quality of reports, and a longer term of office for Councillors and the further development in large municipalities of Boards of Commissioners or Boards of Control.

When all these matters are under consideration it is not inopportune to devote some attention to the subject of women's part in Local Government, and seriously to consider whether they should not be made eligible for membership of Municipal Councils, as they already are for School Committees.

As things stand at present (to quote Mrs. Edwards, to whom we are indebted for a handbook on the legal status of women in Canada) women possess the municipal franchise in all Provinces, with varying limitations. Widows and spinsters may vote in all the Provinces on the same terms as men, and in some Provinces the privilege of voting has been extended to married women.

The number of women qualified to vote may be limited, as in the case of School Committees, and the difficulties in the way of women being qualified to serve will at least be equally great. Where the qualification is fulfilled, the obstacles in the way of women offering themselves for service would be probably greater because of the nature and extent of the duties of Municipal Councils.

It is just the nature and extent of these duties that make it desirable to urge women to endeavour to take a part in their performance.

Municipal Government is a kind of larger housekeeping affecting the daily life of the community, and as such requires for its administration a variety of genius and experience, there are many respects in which women can contribute.

But it is not desirable in a brief paper to enlarge upon the particular direction in which women may be of service. Housing, water supply, poor relief, public health—these things speak for themselves.

It is not even necessary for present purposes to believe that Municipal Government is being badly administered, or to throw stones at those administering it.

It should rather be our concern to discover how to persuade women that here, as in the sphere of educational work, there exists a means—perhaps unequalled in opportunity—of learning what

are the real primary social needs, and that here lies before women a field for the expression of social ideals.

In this year of Darwin celebrations we cannot escape being reminded how deeply the theory of evolution has affected our theories of society; how immensely all religious, philanthropic and political work has been modified by the belief in the influence of environment upon man and the corresponding growth of belief in the possibilities of human nature.

Municipal Government is largely making or marring the helpfulness of that environment.

One word in conclusion. This paper is contributed to the section which deals with Philanthropy.

Philanthropy takes the world as it is and tries to right the wrongs and heal the wounds; to bind up the limbs that are torn in the mal-adjustment of our social system. The philanthropist must see that the social system is readjusted.

As time goes on, many of the philanthropic undertakings begun as voluntary efforts are placed under the eyes of Local Government. Even if philanthropic institutions do not become municipalized, there is a constant tendency for them to assume the character of voluntary work in a municipal setting—to use a phrase of Mr. Sidney Webb's. The work of women in philanthropy becomes the concern of the municipality, and therefore the co-operation of women is needed to carry on the work they have hitherto done.

It has been said that society does not owe every man a living; it owes him an opportunity. This idea might be carried farther and expressed somewhat in the manner of Mr. H. G. Wells: Society owes every man an opportunity of earning a living in some way, not socially disadvantageous, but rather in some way that shall be constructive and contributory to the general well-being, in such a way as shall make him perceiving and expressive—so that he may render his experience and perceptions honestly and helpfully to others.

To this end society must make a conscious constructive effort, by the exercise of the collective human will, and the theme that this paper is designed to reiterate is that one of the most direct and hopeful means of influencing society by this collective human will lies in the field of Local Government.

(For the joint sessions with the Sections on "Education" and "Social Work and Moral Reform," see under "Joint Sessions," Vol. I.)

At the Monday morning session Maria L. Soderini, of Italy, contributed a paper on "The Work of Philanthropy in Relation to and in Connection with the Local Authorities," which was read by Miss Ribighini. Mme. Soderini said that while special training required for this work is rare among men, it is still more so among women. To fill this want the Labour Department of the National Council of Italian Women intends to inaugurate a course of study in the organization of public charity, with the double

object of adequately preparing candidates of both sexes and of infusing renewed vitality into philanthropic work. The defect which characterizes the present system is that public charity encourages the individual in a state of inertia or helplessness. It is proposed to second to the utmost, therefore, the efforts of the poor to improve their own condition.

A paper giving very full details concerning "The Fema' Institutions of Florence," sent by Mme. Ida Cammeo, was read by the Marchesa Bourbon del Monte, and in this connection we must acknowledge the courtesy of the Marchesa, Miss Ribighini and Mme. Bernocco, who were frequently called upon, often at the last moment, to read papers sent in by their compatriots.

Miss Emily Buchanan, as a Poor Law Guardian in Dublin, Ireland, spoke a few words on the subject of various homes for children. None of the homes to which unfortunate girls may gain admittance will receive the infants, thus causing an alarming mortality on account of desertion. The visible proof being removed, the girl continued her own life in her own way. The Poor House in Dublin insists upon the girls who go there in their time of trouble taking the babies with them when they go out; but if the girl has no money, what can she do? Most of these girls are from the country, and often become greatly attached to the babies from having to become responsible for their welfare. Miss Buchanan said a home is now being founded to receive both mother and child for nine months. She also referred to the "boarding-out system" in Ireland, where the children are heartily welcomed among the small farmers in the country, and, of course, paid for by the Homes which place them. The institutions have authority until the children are young men and women, and the system has been found to work well.

Mrs. Vance Cheney, of New York City, gave a short summary of the work and aims of a society which has grown up in the United States, known as the "Women's International League of Right Thinking and Right Living."

Mrs. Savage, in a short address, pointed out that by training the young we are in reality paving the way for the future, thus helping ourselves at the same time.

Miss M. C. Crawley, of England, brought some very interesting information regarding "The Brabazon Employment Society," which we give in her own words:

#### BRABAZON EMPLOYMENT SOCIETY.

LADIES,—

I am sent here by that widely known worker in philanthropy, the Countess of Meath, who was invited by your Council to give an account of the Brabazon Employment Society founded by her in 1883, and now working in nearly 300 centres, not only in the United Kingdom, but in South Africa, Tasmania and the United States.

I must begin by reading to you her own short account of the Society:

## PAPER COMMUNICATED BY THE COUNTESS OF MEATH.

"My kind friend and valued helper, Miss Crawley, who during the last years of the existence of the Brabazon Employment Society has rendered it valuable service, is more capable than I am of telling you of its latter-day doings; but as this Association came into being in England a long time before we had the benefit of her able assistance, may I give a brief account of its origin?"

"The movement was originally started for the benefit of aged and infirm inmates of our workhouses. I should explain, for non-British delegates, that this term 'workhouse'—a term which we hope soon will be of the past—is in fact a misnomer. It is used as the common name of the institution in which are sheltered all the destitute who are maintained by the community. In workhouses used to live (and in smaller places still live) not only, as the name would imply, the idle and worthless who should be forced to work, but also the infirm and the aged, and, till of late years, even the children and the sick.

"Many of the aged folk, after long lives of toil, are only thankful to rest and do nothing, but always amongst them are some to whom enforced idleness is a weariness, while many of the infirm are of course quite young, and to them idleness must needs be a curse. Unable to do even small household tasks, and the officials being far too busy to be able to arrange lighter employment for them, they were forced to pass day after day, week after week, year after year, in one monotonous round of eating, sleeping and idling, in the dreary, dismal wards. Such an existence was one suitable for an animal rather than for a man. It much resembled the life of an ox put out to grass, only the beast would have had the advantage of spending his time in the open air of heaven and amidst the beauties of Nature, whereas the man was doomed to be shut up within white-washed walls where often not a flower, or even a blade of grass, could cheer the eye of the beholder. It was evident that something had to be done to remedy such a sad state of affairs. Mercifully it has for many years been gradually improving. Wherever the Brabazon Employment Society is at work, we know that occupation and interest are provided for any inmates who will accept them.

"The first beginning of this improvement was a proposal made in 1881 to provide a small fund for the purchase of materials which could be worked up into fancy or useful articles, if volunteer teachers could be found to instruct the infirm folk, and then that these articles, when made, should be sold at a profit sufficient to provide fresh materials, and also possibly some little luxuries for the workers.

"The idea was a most simple one, and it was fortunate enough to obtain the approbation of several guardians of Kensington Workhouse, who introduced it there, though at first it was viewed with a good deal of distrust by officials. So crippled were the first patients employed, that the wonder was that some of them could do work of any kind or description; and yet, notwith-

standing this, at the end of a few months a goodly array of saleable articles had been collected together, and kind-hearted buyers were amazed to find what distorted fingers had been able to accomplish. It was hard to say who were the proudest, the ladies who had proved such clever teachers of unpromising pupils, or the latter, who were greatly elated at their own performances, and who stood by during the sale, eager to hear the comments of purchasers.

"The first Sale of Work settled the question. The scheme had proved to be not impracticable; employment had been provided to break through the deadly monotony of workhouse life; whilst the poor old people appreciated the great boon of procuring friends who would not only teach them how to occupy their hands, etc., but who would also sometimes listen with sympathy to their tales. Last, but not least, the Brabazon Employment Society was a financial success.

"Years, however, passed by before the scheme was generally recognized as a sound and useful one. Very few institutions attempted the experiment so successfully carried out in Kensington until, quite suddenly, the promoters of the scheme awoke to find themselves, not famous, but at any rate popular. Boards of Guardians, workhouse chaplains, doctors and other officials vied with one another in expressing their full and hearty approval of a scheme which had in the past met with scant approbation. As it grew, funds were no longer required to be provided by any one individual, for established branches began to repay their grants. In one Workhouse no less than £200 was made at one sale. The letters B. E. S. no longer represented Brabazon Employment *Scheme*, but Brabazon Employment *Society*: an association possessing a central fund of its own, and in consequence established on an entirely self-supporting basis. So well was it recognized that the visits of the ladies had a beneficial effect in workhouse wards, as also in those of lunatic asylums, that the Chief Commissioner for Prisons in Scotland requested that some of these friendly helpers should turn their attention to the inmates of a Glasgow House of Detention for Women. Again, the results were surprisingly good. The Governor of the prison, the chaplain, the matron, all fully realized that the visits of the ladies, who had been bold enough to face the task, had had a humanizing, beneficial effect. This was especially noticeable in the case of a peculiarly unruly woman, who became quite changed. The magic of kindness wrought wonders on the wayward will of this erring creature.

"But here I must end and leave the rest of the story of the Brabazon Employment Society to be related by a worker who has had the will and the ability to further its aims in a most satisfactory manner."

As our President has briefly indicated, the work of the Society she founded has of late years very greatly increased its scope. In every part of the Empire and in every civilized country there must be, in some form or other, refuges for the aged and the helpless, and alas! asylums for the insane. In all these institutions

the same difficulty must arise: how to give occupation to infirm inmates. Officials, as Lady Meath has pointed out, are everywhere too busy; for the crippled—whether crippled in body or in mind—need patient, persevering teaching and encouragement to overcome their many difficulties. Help for this must come from outside, and this help must be organized. We now find the Brabazon Employment Society cordially welcomed by officials who have the benefit of their charges at heart. A letter lies before me from the Matron of a large Government Home for destitute infirm folk in South Africa. She has charge of some 400 destitute inmates: chronic sick cases, epileptics, consumptives, feeble-minded, and some imbeciles. She writes: "When I first came here, in 1907, I felt the want of something to employ and interest these old and infirm people, *who seemed to have no interest at all in anything.*" It is this very spirit, of utter lack of interest, which is the curse of institution existence. It is mental death in life, which we would strive to combat. This Matron has herself taken the lead and collected a band of outside helpers for the work, which is going on vigorously. Cases such as this, where the officials themselves appeal for Brabazon Employment Society help, make us feel that Lady Meath's movement has indeed borne fruit. The idea that shelter, food and clothing are the whole of the debt that we owe to the helpless is gradually becoming an idea of the past.

That our work is widely welcomed amongst the sick in our Infirmaries—that is, Municipal Hospitals—I need scarcely say. These Infirmaries receive only the very poorest patients, who, like the infirm in the Workhouses, have no means of providing for themselves the occupation and interest which are often such immense aids towards their cure, or such alleviation of prolonged suffering.

In some few cases teachers have been able to instruct the sick or infirm in handicrafts, by which these have later on been able, at any rate in part, to maintain themselves.

The work is also welcomed in asylums for the insane. The doctor of the Derby Boro' Asylum writes to me thus:

"Personally I can speak most cordially of the value of the work. Of course, in an asylum there is but a small proportion of the patients—perhaps about 15 per cent. of the women and 5 per cent. of the men—who are suitable cases or well enough to avail themselves of the Brabazon classes. These are of two types: the quieter and better conducted of the permanent inmates, who are more or less childish and demented, and the convalescent patients, who have got over the more acute stage of their illness.

To the first class Brabazon Day is a ray of light from the outer world, and is much looked forward to and appreciated by those who have few links with the outside.

"But mental hospitals are also curative institutions, as well as places of detention for incurables, and I can speak of the great help the Brabazon classes have been in helping forward our curative work.

"Not only so, but many of the ladies continue to take a warm

interest in their pupils after their discharge or recovery, and this, to my mind, is a very real and important part of the work.

"To both these types of patients, I repeat, our branch of the Brabazon Employment Society is of the greatest help.

"I understand that similar institutions in Scotland and Ireland have successful branches of the Society, but we are the only English public asylum which so far has inaugurated and continued the work.

"The difficulty about the work becoming general in asylums is, that these are usually erected in the country, too far away from a town or large village to get suitable helpers.

"Two asylums in South Africa, at Cape Town and at Grahamstown, which I recently visited, have started successful branches, induced thereto, I think, by the success of our branch."

I should add that the other day I received an account from the Matron of the Cape Town Hospital here alluded to, speaking most warmly of the good effects of the work of the patients. She says: "It has a very good influence throughout the institution."

To one further branch of the work I would refer. It is that which, to differentiate it from the rest, is called the "Meath Section"—the work in prisons. Col. McHardy, C.B., His Majesty's Senior Prison Commissioner for Scotland, attended our Conference, held in London in 1905, expressly to tell us how highly he valued the work of the Brabazon Employment Society among his charges. He pointed out one reason for welcoming workers from outside, which might well fail to occur to our minds: the inestimable value of personal influence, and the extreme difficulty for officials to gain it. He said that he found that, from highest to lowest, officials were severely handicapped, in any effort to gain the confidence of their charges, by the mere fact of being officials. I think this holds good in any and every institution which shelters the uneducated; it is most difficult to make these believe that the official, who is paid to keep them in order, may also be a kind friend, anxious for their real welfare. He told us of a Prison Commissioner who, when earnestly persuading a woman just about to be released, to lead a better life, was met with the perfectly serious reply: "After all, Sir, if it wasn't for the likes of us, where would you be?" In other words, "If there were no prisoners, you would lose a good job." This, as doubtless many an official could witness, is the spirit far too common amongst their charges.

This brings me to what is, I think, the greatest part of the Brabazon Employment Society's work—the gaining of personal influence. Visitors from the outside world, though not of course admissible to prisons, are welcomed in most institutions; but Brabazon Employment Society visitors have by far the advantage over all others, in their powers of influence, in that the thought of them is continually kept in the worker's mind by the occupation they leave with him or her. The sense of a common interest, a common combating of difficulties and a common aim, gives a feeling of fellowship difficult otherwise to maintain. When I say "a common

aim" I refer more especially to the work in such branches as devote their profits to some work of kindness instead of spending all on indulgences for the workers themselves. Some branches clothe and partly keep an orphan; some have entirely adopted orphans, and keep them in schools; some help the blind; one helps the Crippled Children's Aid Society; one is sending a crippled child to a hospital; some give comfortable couches or roll-chairs for the general benefit of their own institutions. A branch in New York, started by Mrs. Morand, who had been an active B. E. S. helper in England, lets its workers give a yearly vote as to what good work they will help, and they also make quilts and useful articles for places needing such things.

This work I have been describing is one for which the need must exist wherever the helpless are gathered in institutions, and it is a work which can well be carried on by many women who are not strong enough for more arduous undertakings.

Most of those present are probably working in more active fields of labour, for the good of others. But I would ask them to carry the Brabazon Employment Society in mind and to forward the knowledge of it among their friends. I am sure there must be everywhere many good women who could take up this kindly work amongst those left behind in the battle of life.

(In the afternoon a joint session with the Industrial Section and the Section on Laws was held, for which see under "Joint Sessions, Vol. —, p—).

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#### ADDRESS BEFORE THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF WOMEN AT TORONTO, JUNE 29TH, 1909.

Professor Lewis M. Haupt, engineer and economist, of Philadelphia, who was a member of the Isthmian Canal Commission under Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt, presented a paper on "Relief Methods in Industrial Crises," in which he called attention to the burdens inflicted upon the peoples of all nations by extraordinary expenditures, which might be eliminated, such as for wars and their sequences, prohibitive duties to maintain higher prices on the necessities of life, and which bear most heavily on the wage earners, etc. He pointed out the evils of waste, lack of thrift, the desire to get rich quick, leading to speculation and its evils, the effects of high tariffs and need of reciprocity in opening the commerce of the world on an equitable basis to all people, and the need for appropriations for internal improvements and the development of the cheapest lines of communication by water for the most economical distribution of the products of the world, thus dealing with the subject from broad and fundamental principles rather than from the local measures taken for the relief of communities. These local depressions could readily be relieved or avoided by freer circulation of excess products and by a more general application of the Golden Rule, which is the motto of the

Canadian Society. He stated that of the enormous expenditures of the United States since 1787, over 75 per cent. has gone to militarism and its consequences, and that it was far cheaper and better, financially, morally and socially, to arbitrate and settle for some money consideration than to have recourse to the evils of man-killing, in which the innocent are destroyed.

In summing up Professor Haupt recommended that instruction be given in the home and school along the following lines:

1. Reapportionment of the public funds, so that a much larger percentage be applied to the revenue producing arts of peace rather than to devastating ones of war, for the employment of labour in profitable works.

2. Reduction of the tariffs on raw materials and the necessities of life, thus stimulating industrial pursuits and reducing cost of living.

3. Base the revenues largely upon wealth derived from incomes, bequests and lands, rather than upon corporations or commodities, which must ultimately be paid by the consumer and producer of the wealth.

4. Render wars and their train of evils impossible by international arbitration and practical disarmament.

5. Prohibit wasteful exploitation of public utilities, but place no general tax upon their proper application.

6. Encourage public works under private or corporate initiative, with proper control by the State or nation for the employment of labour.

7. Make provision for the voluntary distribution of citizens or immigrants into well-balanced communities, located in rural districts, and upon cheap power sites, with co-operative plants as in the *cit  ouvri re*.

8. Finally, let every one "Do unto others as ye would that they should do to you," that peace, happiness and prosperity may prevail amongst men, and that righteousness may exalt the nations of the earth. These remedies may best be effected by the devoted women of the land in the Christian training of their children to the duties of good citizenship.

Mrs. Hugo Rosenberg, of Pittsburg, also contributed a paper, followed by one from Mr. Richard Lane, of the Charity Organization of Montreal, on "Relief Methods in Industrial Crises."

Mr. Lane stated that in Montreal and in the Province of Quebec there is neither indoor nor outdoor relief by the State, save for the criminal, the insane and a certain class of dependent children, which has developed a large charitable sense among the people. The absence of publicity regarding the condition of families in distress and the funds being spent during any financial depression does not carry the same weight as the visible argument of homeless men; nevertheless, the ignorance of the existence of a large fund for relief purposes throws the responsibility of succor upon a much larger number of individuals, who financially and morally should and will do their share if unaware of an alternative.

Also, is it just to the future generation, in seeming kindness, to allow the mentally defective, the physically defective, and even some confirmed paupers and criminals, to spend their lives in lust and the reproduction of their kind? Will the physical and moral standard of mankind ever be raised if these classes are not so isolated as to prevent parentage. If the National Council of Women would insist that kindness and justice should together control the economic and social problems that confront us, and will confront future generations, the outlook would be much brighter. Human nature is the only thing which does not change, and the problems that have confronted the world since history began are much more alike than we think. Our searching for truth, our preaching of the different phases of righteousness, our visions of the future, either good or ill, remind us of lines from a Hindu poet written many centuries before the advent of the Christ:

“The man who owns most gold  
 And lavishly distributes it, will gain  
 Dominion over all. Religion will consist  
 In wasting alms at large. They who rule the State  
 Will rob the people and abstract the wealth  
 Of merchants on the plea of raising taxes,  
 And in the world's last age the rights of man  
 Will be confused, no property be safe.”

(For the joint session with “Social Work and Moral Reform” in the afternoon, see Vol. I.)

On Wednesday morning a very full paper on the Pension question, by Mrs. Flo. Jamieson Miller, was read by Mrs. Kate Wallace Barrett, of which the kernel was that at present Philanthropy carries the burden, and the burden is Industry.

Mrs. Jones, of Sherbrooke, then read a paper on “Travellers' Aid,” written by Miss Tenney, of the Y. W. C. A., in Montreal, which strongly recommended a badge system for the officers.

Miss Rosa Barrett, of Ireland, gave us some ideas as to “How Best to Deal with Homeless Infants.” At the present day the children of the very rich seem equally to be pitied with those of the very poor. Every child wants mothering and love, food, especially milk, cleanliness and fresh air. As regards the latter, to show what a large place this should have in the care of a child, some Liverpool boys were taken to Port Sunlight as an experiment, and in a short time had gained in height and weight over their richer brothers in the city. The different children's homes in Great Britain receive no Government grants, but a small payment from the parent is demanded.

Wednesday afternoon, the closing day of the Congress, was given up to the discussion of ways and means for the protection of animals. Miss Faith Gray, of York, opened the meeting with an interesting paper, in which she advocated that schools should include in their several courses more or less training in this direction.

Baroness Ellen von Platen followed with a *résumé* of the work done in Sweden, showing how the Government places every facility at the disposal of children willing to learn the habits of birds and animals.

Miss Beevor, of Great Britain, spoke of Miss Gray's paper as touching the young people's branch of this work. In her own society they have good methods for the relief of sick animals, including a horses' ambulance. Their inspectors and police officers work well together. In Carlisle, a great centre of the cattle trade, there has been organized a periodical "Drovers' Supper," which is always well attended and the lecture listened to with interest by the butchers in the neighbourhood, it being greatly to their own interest to have animals properly killed.

As touching teaching this branch in schools, it is not likely that Boards will care to do this, but children can be taught at home by being responsible for the well-being of pets.

The "Humane Killer" which is being used in the Old Country is in the character of a gun, and should be made easily obtainable by all, as it is a fine thing.

Mr. Lawton Harris, of Toronto, spoke to the above. He referred to the late George T. Angell, of Boston, whose memory will be ever green in all humane work. Mr. Harris said the work which most appealed to him was among the children, recognizing the importance of the future generation and impressing upon them the great place in the work of the world occupied by the animal kingdom. The young mind is quick to grasp facts properly placed before it, as evidence of which his own society was notified by a boy of six that a driver was ill-treating his horse. On account of the largeness of the Dominion our drovers do not correspond with those so named in the Old Land, but if all large cattle dealers would side with the society the work would be greatly benefited.

Mrs. Wood, as an English woman resident in Toronto, spoke for those having no voice. The transportation of cattle has long been a trial, but on the previous day, Tuesday, June 29th, a meeting had been held by the S. P. C. A., attended by workers from all over the continent, and now "federation" is an accomplished fact, with a head over all societies as a union. This is Canada's message to the older lands.

Mrs. Wood also spoke of the necessity of teaching boys and girls of the citizenship and rights of animals, thus doing good and far-reaching work.

Miss Olga Hertz referred to the extermination of beautiful birds in order to provide millinery. She then went on to speak of vivisection as being fought in England, with no apparent headway. This is called "inoculation," but the results are awful and the fight is carried on at great disadvantage. In England there are only two inspectors of this branch, and they simply receive reports as given to them. There is a bill before the English Parliament for the regulation of vivisection, but only prohibition will

be effective. All vivisection must be cruel; therefor there must be total abolition. At least it can be spoken against at every opportunity in the meantime.

Dr. Rosalie Slaughter Morton, of New York, asked to be allowed to speak for the animals, and called attention to the fact that no water is given to animals travelling by freight trains in the United States. She knew nothing of the regulations of other countries. Could not this be looked into and tanks be fitted in the cars, to be filled at certain stops as is the engine?

Referring to vivisection, Dr. Morton said it would be an unkindness to animals to stop this. The prevalent idea being that animals are treated with cruelty, she herself went to Washington and got details and statistics which satisfied her as to the contrary. There are really very few animals used in laboratories, but the Board of Health took up in one day in New York some 150 stray dogs to prevent hydrophobia. In caring for a calf the health of a cow is important, and many diseases of animals can be transmitted to human beings—tuberculosis, tapeworm, cancer, cholera, rabies and many other terrible diseases being cured, and the spread of them prevented by very few experiments in vivisection. And if in order to serve the higher animals we have to sacrifice one or two of the lower, should the work be stopped and both higher and lower animals suffer? Surely the lower orders of life are to serve the higher.

Mr. Murray, of Halifax, said he personally could add very little. His mind was open regarding vivisection, but certainly it could be proved to be to a certain degree beneficial. The S. P. C. A. work was started in Nova Scotia by an Englishman against great difficulties, and he personally had his interest awakened by this Englishman's taking the overdraw from his horse. The constant use of this is greatly to be regretted, and as a horseman Mr. Murray said he could not see the use of the check. There have been several arrests in Halifax, which makes the citizens more careful in using it. When the first case was brought up it created an uproar among horsemen, and the question to be decided was, "Is the man cruel or not?"—not taking into consideration his ultimate intention.

The stand taken by Halifax should be followed by all countries, and the man of influence dealt with on the same basis as the man of no influence.

Mr. Murray referred to the horses in the N. S. coal mines. Some of these horses were found to be hauling carts up heavy grades, with raw sores under their collars. Co-operation with the owners was decided to be the best method, and to-day the mines have schools instructing the boys how to drive and take care of their horses.

There should be laws to prevent the cruelty of men to animals. In Nova Scotia any animal diseased or not properly cared for may be taken away and (after a feed) destroyed, which is a check on

owners. Should a starved and neglected animal be found, a veterinary surgeon and an agent of the S. P. C. A. together may order thirty days' rest. This law was passed only a few months ago. Docking of tails should be abolished in Canada, and overdraws and the large bit in connection with the check rein and curb should also go, especially in hot weather.

Mrs. Savage, before closing the meeting, asked that the Society look into the stables of the country folk, where the custom is to feed the animals all winter on hay and water.

# Professions and Careers for Women.

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CONVENERS—MISS RITCHIE, MRS. SHORTT.

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Mrs. Shortt, the Acting Convener of this section, in opening the session expressed her regret that owing to family bereavement Miss Ritchie, Convener, could not be present. She said, while each section of the Congress was full of interest and value, she felt that this section ought specially to appeal to men and women alike. She had never felt that the world could be divided up into things that solely concerned either sex. Whatever concerned mankind as a whole concerned the individual and whatever concerned the individual concerned the community. The frequently-mentioned phrase "woman's cause" was a misnomer—"the woman's cause is man's, they rise and fall together." Certainly the professions and careers that were open to and occupied by the daughters of the country must be of equal interest to fathers and mothers. There were two tenets she felt were necessary in the responsibilities of marriage; 1st, the right of every child to be well-born, and 2nd, having been well-born each should be equipped for the battle of life. By being well born she meant born with every hereditary chance of a sound mind in a sound body and with some chance of equipment. To equip them to have a fighting chance was to educate them to do or be something for which there was a demand in the world and to do it so well that there would be a demand for them. Every boy or girl should be thus equipped. An endowment of this kind was a bank that would not break, a fortune that was easy to carry with them. Many opportunities and careers were opening up to girls and women and new ones evolving as the time went on. The name "new woman" was not one of reproach—for we lived in new times and under new conditions and whether we would or no we were in that sense "new women." The old order was constantly changing and giving place to new. She concluded by asking the co-operation of the audience by questions and discussion on the papers read.

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## NEW PROFESSIONS OF WOMEN IN DENMARK.

BY FRÄULEIN ANNA BUCH.

Since the last Quinquennial Meeting of the I. C. W. women in Denmark have got admittance to a few professions formerly reserved for men.

In 1906 the first woman was appointed assistant mistress (Adjunkt) in the State's secondary schools, which were at the same time opened to girls. In 1908 women were allowed to become barristers, and quite recently the first woman has obtained this position. Formerly they were allowed to pass the examinations but not to practise as lawyers. In the railway service women have got admittance to some additional positions. A woman has been appointed cashier in a State forest, which position her husband had till his death.

Also in some newly founded positions women have been appointed. In 1907 a lady, who was a zoologist, was appointed as leader of the experiments on animals noxious to plants and on illnesses caused by these; experiments which are of great importance to agriculture.

In 1907 twelve men were appointed as assistants to the State's inspector of gymnastics. The work has become so great that the assistance he had hitherto had was insufficient, gymnastics having become much more frequent in the schools. But as this was also the case in girls' schools it seemed very strange that no women were appointed to inspect these. Some women teachers therefore applied to the Ministry, with the request that this should be done, and the consequence was, that last year three women teachers were appointed assistants.

This progress may perhaps not seem very great but nevertheless it is significant as steps on the way that leads to equal admittance for men and women to professions for which they are equally fitted.

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#### NEW PROFESSIONS OPENED TO WOMEN IN SWEDEN SINCE THE LAST QUINQUENNIAL MEETING.

BY MISS AXIANNE THORSTENSEN.

With regard to Sweden, the newly completed Quinquennial period may be considered to mark out a progress in the employment of women's abilities, quite equal to the greatest we have ever won.

For two years we have had women as home-inspectors. The home-inspection is no institution of the State in Sweden, but a matter that each community arranges for itself. The Swedish municipalities, whose home-inspection is most developed, Stockholm and Uppsala, both employ women workers. The home-inspection in Stockholm counts three women-assistants and one man, subordinating under a chief inspector. Uppsala, which is a far smaller community, has only one home-inspector, and that a woman. The dwellings which have to be inspected are tenements up to two rooms and a kitchen, newly built houses, and all those tenements that are notified at the inspector's office. Some other

Swedish towns are about to introduce a regulated home-inspection and then the number of women at these posts will probably be increased.

The town of Stockholm is the only community which has police-matrons. Their work is partly at the detective department, partly at the district offices, and their duty chiefly consists in keeping watch over and in searching the female prisoners. Lastly the police-matrons have also been commissioned to accompany invalid and expelled foreigners out of the country to their respective native places. The women who are on duty at the district offices have had the training of professional sick-nurses. In this assembly it may be of interest to point out that the Swedish National Council of Women has bestowed a considerable and successful work on emphasizing the importance of having the police-matron so well salaried that women with good qualifications could fill these offices.

Important and beneficial in social respect these matters may prove for the future, the greatest gain obtained by women is in another sphere, viz., the public service. The Riksdag—our Swedish Parliament—of 1909 has passed a bill particularly favorable to women, and which has subsequently been sanctioned by the King.

It is true that Swedish women have for years been admitted to the public service, for instance, in the lower departments of the Post, the Telegraph and the Railway. They have also held posts as teachers in the public schools and as physicians in hospitals, etc., but these posts have been of an inferior degree. The important thing in the enactment of this year's Riksdag is that it is the first decisive step taken towards admitting women also to higher offices. In the paragraph of the Constitution which refers to the King's right of appointing functionaries a clause has been added, that verbally translated will read as follows: "Women, natives of Sweden, may be appointed and promoted to posts as teachers at educational institutions of the State, the theological posts as teachers at the universities however excepted, to other posts at establishments for science, Sloyd, or art, as well as to posts as physicians."

Every constitutional hindrance has thus been removed for women to hold several high offices, especially posts as teachers and physicians. By this enactment the reform has however not been brought to a definite close, for it still remains for the principles of the new law to be put into practice. Women would then be admitted to all posts as teachers at the public educational institutions of the State, as librarians of the State, and to all the higher positions as physicians, as town medical officers of health and chief physicians at hospitals. The constitutional law would not even prevent a woman from being appointed military surgeon. The great prospect of advancement which is opened to our university women by this amendment is evident.

## SOME MORAL, SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC EFFECTS OF WOMEN'S ENTRANCE INTO PROFESSIONAL CAREERS.

BY MISS EDITH A. BARRETT, WORTHINGTON, ENGLAND.

During the last 35 or 40 years it has become customary for women to adopt professions; any effects of that particular phase of "the women's movement" must therefore be observable during that period, and especially during the more recent part of it. During the last 30 or 40 years startling change has assuredly taken place in society, in our moral outlook, in domestic, not less than in political, economy. Yet who shall venture precisely to say how much of it has been due to the more intimate participation of women in all affairs? It is so easy for enthusiastic lovers of modern woman to ascribe all that we see of good to her benign influence. But it appears equally easy for rebels against the modern woman to talk as though even vagaries in this year's weather were fairly attributable to the feminine atmosphere. Women's work is not in every respect altered as completely as some of us fancy. Lady doctors still have an uphill game to play. You may count the lady lawyers on the fingers of your hand. And women in every church and chapel in England continue to be the hewers of wood and the drawers of water, unpaid, and often unrecognized.

So much for the three learned professions. But I would not limit my remarks to them. I would rather take a professional career to mean any career that a woman follows for money; or any career that a woman is trained, more or less severely, to follow.

I am old-fashioned enough to believe still that there are some gifts we should not turn into money, and some women who, in the present state of things, ought to be content to work among "the great unpaid." I for one regret professionalism for women in so far as it has made it easy for great ladies to descend into the market-place, or into the bazaar, there to sell, and to chaffer, and even to cheat without shame. And I also regret that other aspect of professionalism, spreading like a blight over our amusements, our arts, our most intimate personality. Nowadays anyone who has ever so small a talent must needs turn it into gate money. We must be paid for what we do, or else we will let our gifts decay. No longer are we content to ride our hobbies for our own mere delight or for that of our homes and our friends. We encourage children to publicity. We all but drive our girls on to a stage to play or to dance or to sing. Nothing is done for the joy of it, but all for the sake of applause or money. Money is coming to be our one standard of value and reward. There was a time when children were cared for only by those who loved them. Now they are surrounded by paid professionals from their birth. And so they may easily grow up ignorant of the truth that the best work is never paid for because it cannot be, and that

the work is the essential, the wage a merely accidental circumstance.

Not that anyone could argue that women following professional careers have as yet succeeded in getting too great a share of the world's wealth allotted to them! Sometimes I doubt whether women on the whole own more than they used to in the old days. A provision for the daughters was once upon a time as a first charge upon a professional income. Now it is taken for granted that the girls can fend for themselves as the boys do. I should not complain of that if boys and girls were treated alike from the beginning. But while money is scrimped on the girls' training and is lavished on the boys', they can't be said to start fair. Too often the girls are never what may fairly be called started at all. They are either pushed or permitted to slip into the first blind alley.

We live, as I said before, in a reactionary period. We are no longer scared by the bugbear of over-population. The much discussed tax on bachelors shows the trend of popular opinion. Perhaps the rise of "anti" societies, drawing members and subscriptions from a huge mass of discontent with women as they are, shows it too. Seeing the waste places of the earth, we no longer doubt that it is a good deed to fill them with men and women of our own race and ideals. But it was not so 30 or 40 years ago. Then, when women began to enter professions, they were taught that the best thing they could do was to leave behind them as few descendants as possible to suffer in the general, inevitable misery and overcrowding. They learned their lesson only too well, and they passed it on and down. Since the alternative of professional life has been placed within their reach, women have been less inclined to marriage. Also, being married, they are less inclined towards motherhood. To me both these propositions are incontrovertible; though there will be those who tell me that women's inclinations have not altered, but only their power of making themselves heard. There may be something in that. Women, whatever else they do, have ceased to suffer in silence. And it is undeniably good that they should evince reluctance to marry hastily the wrong man. It is their disinclination to marry the average man, on an average income, or to marry him early in life; their disinclination for the pleasures or pains of the housemother that is fraught with danger for the nation. Because it is the race alone that signifies. Professions for women must be judged by the race benefit they confer. The old individualism is exploded as a respectable theory, though I suppose it is likely to exist to the end of time under its older name of selfishness. I quite believe that spinsters now are far happier than ever they have been before.

It is a common charge against the modern movement in favour of professions for women that it is producing at great cost of pains and money a very great number of unable, as well as unwilling, wives and mothers. The charge is so constantly

brought that it would be affectation to pass it by. If it be so, must we lay the blame on games or on professions? And are men's games a necessary as well as a customary consequence of the adoption of men's professions? The absorbing interest of a professional career, or the greater experience of life that such a career brings with it, may lead to moral disinclination, but I should rather look to games as a possible cause of physical qualification. And while much may be said in favour of professions (or work of some kind) for all women, there is at least no economic justification for games. A nation cannot get rich on game-playing. Games are not directly remunerative. They are justifiable only in so far as they improve men and women physically and morally, and fit them for their work in life. The point is, do they improve the women? The women have assuredly grown bigger, more athletic and (as I think) more beautiful. As for the moral side, game-players are apt to obey and rule; they learn, as we say, "to play the game." It is a sort of knowledge in which home-bred women are often lamentably deficient. To know how to play like a lady and to lose like a gentleman is a good thing for woman in and out of matrimony. Possibly there might be more happy households if the knowledge were wider spread. But it is not everything. And if any effect or consequence of the adoption of professional careers by women means that the flower of our womanhood is useless to the race; if it results in the race being recruited from below, from the non-professional and less well nurtured classes, then our development and all that it implies—games, and professions, and all the rest of it, is leading us straight to bankruptcy. What a woman may earn in any profession is as nothing to her value as mother or as home-maker—and that even though you reckon only in the easy and deceptive terms of money.

There is another side to this question of early marriage. The competition of women has been and is one cause of unemployment among men of all classes. Women working for money do oust men, and so long as they are paid less for the same work, they will continue so to do. For if women are sometimes paid less on the ground that they do less, there are other cases where they are still paid less though they are more efficient—more biddable, and less apt to get drunk on a Monday. In every class the women bread-winners are more numerous than they were. In every class it is considered less disgraceful for a man to eat a woman's bread. Wherever that happens the nation suffers. The women are none the better and the men are much the worse. Before one striking feature in the social life of the present day. I must pause, though even I am not bold enough to assert that it is an effect of woman's power; I am thinking of the growing luxury and extravagance. Let me fortify myself on this dangerous ground by a quotation from the Report of the Poor Law Commission, from which I am sure everybody present has read extracts, possibly less pertinent to their own lives.

“Witness after witness has noted the extravagance in dress, the restless craving for amusement, the increasing time spent in watching sports or games—in a word the subordination of the more serious duties of life to the frivolity and the amusement of the moment. These are habits which cannot exist side by side with thrift, self-restraint and self-improvement. In the judgment of these witnesses these habits are largely responsible for much of modern pauperism and distress. A reform in these respects is required. May it not fairly be urged that to be effective and rapid the lead and example should be given from above?”

Probably most of my hearers are prepared to argue that luxury and pleasure-seeking is not, and cannot be, an effect of women's adoption of professional careers. But if it is not a consequence, it is certainly an accompaniment. And it is passing strange that so it should be. One might have thought that women's wider interests, women's minds set on intellectual affairs, would have inclined them and all their world to think less of material pleasures. It certainly has not worked out so. And even if we acknowledge that much of the history of the past twenty-five years has been written in spite of professional women rather than because of them, we yet cannot say that the women who “do things”—the writers, the speakers, the leaders of the women's movement—seem to have tried to stem the tide of luxury or to lift the mind of the nation from the material to the spiritual plane. Books, plays, speeches, dress—may I not add to my list the fashionable forms of feminized religion?—you may assert of a larger number of them that there might be no spiritual side of life for all they tell or hint of it. But if I am asked why it should be so, I can but confess my bewilderment. I also hoped and believed so much in wider careers for women. Is it because the earning, and not the profession, has in too many cases stood foremost? Is it because women, half trained and eager for money, have taken up work that did not call out the best of them, and that their traditions warred against? Or is it because professional life fulfils neither man nor woman, and whereas devotion to and success in a profession leads to a home and marriage for a man, it more often leads from it for a woman.

And now, having said something about what professional women may or may not have done, I am going to say a final word about the women themselves. If I have seemed to find fault, it is because I want to see the modern woman perfect, because I yield to no one in my admiration for her as she is at her heart. During the last thirty or forty years women have grown bigger and stronger both in body and mind. Probably the world has never seen more magnificent specimens of humanity than can be found among the middle and upper class women of England today. Women were creatures to be shifted and fended for; they are creatures who can fend very well for themselves, and even, at a pinch, for the men they love. Women did belong to men, were their chattels. Women now belong to themselves, are no

man's chattels; and if, as a set-off, they have to take the rough with the smooth, that is precisely their quickest road to perfection. If in the Old Country we have too many women, there are spots in the New Worlds where women are too few. And some of us believe and hope that the main outcome of the growing independence of women—may I add the main outcome of such a gathering of women as this?—will be that men and women will spread themselves over the world in those equal proportions that are demanded for the perfect social state.

(An admirable paper on "The Causes of Women's Success or Failure in Professional Life," by Mrs. M. G. Spencer, of the Central Employment Bureau, London, Eng., was read here, but publication was reserved.—Editor.)

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#### ABSTRACT OF ADDRESS ON SOCIAL SERVICE—A NEW PROFESSION FOR WOMEN.

By ANNIE MARION MACLEAN, A.M., Ph.D., Professor of Sociology, Adelphi College, Brooklyn, New York.

In order to make definite the somewhat vague term "Social Service," let us limit its use here to those fields of activity covering work undertaken primarily for social betterment, in a wide sense, and not hitherto included in the realm of other professions.

The massing of population in great centres in the last few decades has created new needs and new ways of meeting these needs. Thus we have community efforts culminating in institutions such as Social Settlements, clubs of various kinds, Young Women's Christian Associations, Relief organizations, Charity organization societies, State and local boards of charities, societies for the protection of children, wage earners, and the community generally, and bureaus for the investigation of social needs. The foregoing indicates in a general way what constitutes the ground covered by this rather new profession under consideration.

Formerly, much of the social work was done in a more or less desultory fashion by volunteer service, but with the increase of activities, and the necessity for workers to give their whole time, there arose a demand for the paid specialist.

There are four well developed schools of philanthropy or schools for training in Social Service in the United States. These are located in New York, Boston, Chicago and St. Louis. The courses are sociological and economic, accompanied by practical work and much visiting of institutions. The registration lists show a preponderance of women. Young college women particularly, are attracted by the opportunities which such training offers, and their sympathy and interest in humanity makes them well fitted for many phases of social work.

Positions are opening up all the time, and in many instances carry with them considerable dignity. It is estimated that in New

York alone, there are fully one thousand paid social workers.

The salaries now compare very favorably with those paid in the schools, but carry with them no long summer vacations, nor short hours. Professional Social Service offers no life of ease to women, but to those who have the training, the adaptability, and an absorbing interest in humanity it offers a great opportunity for usefulness and influence in the making of a better world.

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## WOMEN AND SCIENCE.

By Mrs. SEXTON, Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada.

In the United States and Canada one-half to three-fourths of all our women between the ages of 16 and 20 are engaged in gainful occupations, to say nothing of the large number between 14 and 16 who are merely drifting about. At least 70 per cent. of our high school and college graduates are earning their living.

Now, what has Science to offer women in the way of help and what professions does she hold open to them?

Beginning at what is commonly considered the bottom of the ladder, the Applied Science end, domestic service furnishes employment to its thousands of girls. More than 40 per cent. of all women in gainful occupations enter this field. The field for domestics is a rich one, the demand great, the wages good, the calling a skilled and scientific one. Slowly but surely it must be dignified, and by women themselves, with the rank of a profession. It is necessary first for the employers themselves to have enough scientific training to appreciate and help the trained domestic, it is necessary for them to carry on their households along scientific lines, and as they would carry on a business, and it is necessary for women in general to create a taste for domestic occupations.

Women are entering the field of agriculture—dairying, poultry-raising and horticulture—as professions. Nineteen per cent. of all our wage-earning women are in this field and this is essentially a scientific calling. The percentage of women in these professions might well be larger.

Twenty-five per cent. of our women are engaged in manufacturing industries. Where these demand any scientific training or knowledge, however, we find men doing the work. Women chiefly occupy the purely unskilled positions.

Very little professional or vocational training is available for the girl between the ages of 14 and 17, who must immediately earn her own living and who might enter one of these fields. In the broad movement for technical education sweeping over this country and the United States, it should be the business of women to see that training is provided for girls to enable them to enter such skilled, healthful industries, promising advancement. Attempts are being made in some places to train young girls in

the agricultural pursuits, like dairying and, here and there, training for domestic service—considered as a trade or vocation—is being carried out, but only to a very limited extent.

Supposing, now, that a girl can afford the time and money to complete a High School course, what scientific professions are open to her? Just at the end of the High School course, we are sorry to say, very little is open for her. Many girls step from the High School, after a few years, at any rate, into the profession of home-making, but a girl must usually go further, to enter professions proper, either to Normal School, college or some special training school. She must, however, look forward to entering certain scientific professions, and should govern her choice of High School subjects accordingly. She may, after her High School course, take special training and become a trained nurse. If she can go to college she may prepare to teach science. She may prepare for the medical profession, or she may go still further than the college and become a scientific investigator of one kind or another. She may take advanced training of college grade in agricultural pursuits, going into biology, chemistry, or bacteriology of the dairy and farming industries. She may take a thorough training in domestic science (in its widest aspect) with a view to teaching it or practising it. She may take advanced training in home economics, and study various kinds of institutional management.

The High School facilities for girls to prepare scientifically for their careers are again somewhat limited. In many High Schools, very little science is taught. Some schools, however, offer a scientific course side by side with a classical course. There are in the United States and Canada (there is one here in Toronto) some few Technical High Schools, offering a three or four years' course in the household sciences or home economics, and there are special schools in these subjects and in agricultural pursuits, like the MacDonald College at St. Anne de Bellevue or the School at Guelph, where teachers and home makers are trained. These schools offer instruction of many grades, from short courses, to complete college courses.

The college facilities for girls wishing to enter scientific fields are good in the United States and Canada and are improving all the time. Many of the Arts Colleges give scientific training sufficient for teachers.

There are a few specially adapted women's scientific colleges, like Simmon's College in Boston, specializing on home economics, domestic science and institutional management in their highest forms. The Macdonald College at St. Anne, and the Macdonald College at Guelph also give specialized scientific training of college grade.

Many of the large technical colleges like Cornell, McGill and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology are open to women. They likewise train teachers. They give invaluable preparatory training for girls intending entering the medical professions. They

also open to women the engineering professions. Miss Lammie has long been a successful electrical engineer at the Westinghouse Electric Company, and Miss Weld is employed at Newport News Shipbuilding Drydock Company as naval architect. Many women are employed as mathematical computers and as astronomers.

These colleges also start a girl well on her way to carry on the highest kind of scientific work—research work—but she must usually take higher training than the ordinary college generally affords, for this.

All of the colleges in the United States except Johns Hopkins, Clark and Princeton and also almost all Universities in Europe now admit women scientific students for their advanced degrees.

Pure research is the fountain-head of all scientific knowledge. It establishes the laws governing all applied science, all the functions of life, all the phenomena of the Universe. It is no light thing for women to attempt, and we should be proud to encourage women to enter a field so ennobling, so unselfish, so close to God and His marvellous laws of life and order. Research work is the holy of holies of science. Without patient work in research, the whole new science of bacteriology, which affects so profoundly the science of medicine, and all aspects of life, would be unknown. Without investigators working in physics and mathematics, the whole wondrous science of electricity would be unknown and its practical manifestations undeveloped.

There is every reason why women should enter this field of scientific research. The biological sciences, bacteriology, botany and physiology, and zoology, are especially well fitted for women to work with. The new science, essentially women's own, domestic science, is calling loudly for scientific research. The chemistry of foods, the action of the food products in the body, on the serums, tissues, etc., of the body—the whole question of the nutrition of man—the determination of the highest efficiency point of the human machine, all these questions, bio-chemical and physiological-chemical in their nature are in urgent need of investigators.

Now because the biological sciences are so well adapted for women, I would like to tell you about the American Women's Table of Research at Naples. Perhaps many of you know that at Naples is situated a large experimental station under the directorship of Dr. Dohrn for the collection of biological material and for the study of the varied forms of plant and animal life. There, are assembled scientists from all parts of the world and not only are researches in zoology carried on but in all the sciences furnishing the foundation for the study of medicine. It is a wonderfully well equipped laboratory and the spirit of helpfulness is especially inspiring.

Twelve years ago—1897—on the occasion of the 25th anniversary of the establishment of the station, it occurred to Dr. Ida Hyde—an American graduate of Heidelberg and student at the Naples Station—that it would be fitting for women interested in

the scientific training of women to establish a Table of Research at Naples to be maintained for the benefit of any American woman desiring to study there, and in recognition of the unfailing kindness and co-operation shown by Dr. Dohrn in according women the privileges of the Station on equal terms with men. Dr. Hyde found ready co-operation in America, and in 1898 a band of our women, who had themselves had the best of training, established the Association for Promoting Scientific Research by Women; \$500.00 was voted to be sent annually to Dr. Dohrn. A quotation from Dr. Dohrn's letter of acknowledgment seems particularly apt on this occasion:

"That American ladies gathered together and collected money to establish a table in the Zoological Station to honor its 25th anniversary is such an astounding proof of sympathy that I am quite amazed at it, and embarrassed beyond measure how to account for it.

"Let me openly and sincerely confess that it has taken long years to persuade or convince me that the modern movement in favour of women's emancipation is a sound one. In fact, I am only half open to believe in a successful end of it, and would be glad if it went on in a more moderate degree than usually proclaimed. But there is one part of it for which I have not hesitated to feel and confess a strong sympathy, that is, the throwing open to women the pursuits of science, and the highest intellectual development. I do not only believe women capable of higher intellectual training, but think it would be of the utmost advantage to them and to mankind, when wives and mothers share in those accomplishments which make a difference in the educated and non-educated intellect. To share the life of an intelligent husband, and to prepare the future generation, are tasks that require the best instruction and mental education. Thus I have always felt it my duty to act upon my conviction, and have always received ladies in the Zoological Station, with the same readiness as men, and from the first ladies have worked in it—and at present one is here at work."

The first woman to be appointed to the Naples Chair was Dr. Mary Alice Willcox in 1899. In 1900 the Association offered a prize of \$1,000.00 for the best thesis on a scientific subject embodying independent laboratory research. The examining board was composed of twelve of the foremost authorities in biology, chemistry and physics. In 1901, medical theses were eligible with certain restrictions. For the first research prize, eleven applicants offered theses—four in botany, two in physiology, one in anatomy, one in bacteriology and three in embryology. The prize was won by Dr. Florence Sabin Smith, '93; M.D., Johns Hopkins, 1900.

Before leaving the field of pure scientific research we must pay tribute to Mme. Curie, whose work in the production and study of the wonderful element, radium, redounds to the glory of all women interested in science.

Now, besides purely scientific research, there is the field of practical research, and I can see no reason why this does not furnish an excellent field for women. It is a wonderful thing to establish a scientific truth, but it likewise is wonderful and useful to apply this fact for the benefit of good living for all people. Almost every large manufacturing establishment keeps its corps of scientists, whose object it is to work out problems of manufacture, to test products, or in the case of a few large German and American laboratories, to carry on scientific research along possible practical lines. It was my good fortune to be employed in such a research laboratory, in connection with the General Electric Company in New York. The work in such a laboratory is fascinating and interesting in the extreme. Endless research on electric furnaces, high temperature work, and the manufacture of artificial jewels is also carried on. This work calls for all the ability, resource, training, originality, care, patience and honesty at a person's command, but the chances to develop are wonderful, the work is crying out for the right people, men or women, to carry it on, and the reward is often a completed absolute product as well as a purely scientific achievement. A really good practical research worker can demand excellent salary.

There are many opportunities for women in science all along the line, from domestic service to the highest research work, and for them to successfully take advantage of these opportunities and really benefit by them scientific callings, four things seem to me necessary:

1. Women must have the requisite amount of preparatory work, must obtain the necessary training and must truly desire to enter the scientific occupations before these occupations will be fully open to them.
2. Girls must look ahead in their lives, with a knowledge of the possible fields open to them and must take advantage of the scientific educational facilities at hand.
3. It is necessary for women themselves to look the scientific occupations in the face, to inform themselves regarding them, and then to encourage their daughters who wish to enter them to do so.
4. Lastly, it is necessary for organizations like this, to see to it that their communities furnish facilities for women to enter these occupations. It should be part of their business to intelligently understand the work of, and to give their moral and substantial support to, women entering scientific fields.

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### WOMEN AS SCIENTIFIC INVESTIGATORS.

By Miss ANNA POLAK, Director National Bureau van  
Vrouwenarbeid, Holland.

The problem whether women be fit for scientific work, and scientific work for women, is one of those problems which, in the last decade of ever increasing interest in the question of women's rights has greatly excited many a mind.

Probably this is the case in other civilized countries, too; at least, when the newspapers tell us that some university, till now closed to women, has been opened to her, that here or there young girls are henceforth to be admitted on the same terms as male students, it is not likely that such victories have been won but after a long and toilsome strife. It is not the feminists, but on the contrary, the anti-feminists—especially in Germany and in Holland—who constantly bring into argument the equivalence of the male and the female intellect.

For the moment we can only suppose that, even where the education and the social circumstances of both sexes have become equal, some difference will certainly subsist. Where nature has made so many and such important physical differences between man and woman, it is inconceivable that there should not be corresponding intellectual differences.

For the present we can only occupy ourselves with the question whether women can in any way help science forward. To this question we must give an emphatically affirmative answer. The thousands of female students enrolled at numbers of universities in and out of Europe, at present even in Japan, pass their examination with no more delay, and certainly with no worse results than their male colleagues. In our country nine women at least have during the last three or four years not only taken honours, but have even got the addition of *cum laude*. This has occurred in the most different branches of science. We already have female doctors excelling in classical languages and literature. Over a hundred young women now study mathematics and physics, whereas at our technical university 48 are preparing for all branches of engineering.

Moreover, it cannot be regarded as a sign of incapacity for study that so many female students are appointed as assistants of the professors, in hospitals, laboratories and other medical or biological institutions. As to Germany, the "Münchener Medizinische Wochenschrift" has just published the results of an inquiry about this subject. It appeared that there were women working in 161 of the 425 institutions that had answered the questions.

Among women who give independent university instruction I will just mention here Miss Icke, "Privat-Dozent" of geology and mineralogy at the University of Leiden; Miss Dr. van Herwerden, "Privat-Dozent" of cytology at the University of Utrecht; Dr. Gertrud Woker, "Privat-Dozent" of physics and chemistry at the University of Bern; Dr. Anna Tumarkin, the young Russian scholar, who in 1906 also was admitted as "Privat-Dozent" of modern philosophy at the University of Bern (her inquiries were until now directed especially to the principle of association in esthetics, and to her by the "Regierungsrat" of the Canton of Bern was granted the title of professor); Dr. Elisa Richter, "Privat-Dozent" of Romanic languages and literature at the University of Vienna; Dr. Adeline Oberländer-Rittenhaus, "Privat-Dozent" of Norman philology at the University of Zürich; Dr. Maria Montes-

sori, "Privat-Dozent" of medicine at the University of Rome; Dr. Wjera Dantschakowa, "Privat-Dozent" of histology at the University of Moscow; Miss Dr. Panajótatoe, "Privat-Dozent" of bacteriology at the University of Athens; Dr. Marie Løke, lecturer of French literature at the University of Groningen; Miss Tammes, who in the course on scientific agriculture, for the first time to be delivered this year at Groningen, will, as the only woman among a number of male scholars, lecture on the degeneration of plants; Signorina Rina Monti, professor of medicine at the University of Sassari; Dr. Teresa Labriola, famous in other countries as well as in her own as professor of the philosophy of law; Dr. Florence R. Sabin, professor of anatomy at the Johns Hopkins University of Baltimore; Madame Curie, finally, professor of physics at the Sorbonne, who, as the discoverer of radium, is known all over the world.

But not only as teachers do university women show their superiority. Must it not be regarded as an evidence of great intellectual power that Mrs. Ayrton some years ago was awarded the Nobel prize for physics? Is it not worthy of mention that in the Royal Academy of Sciences of the Netherlands, not by—for the membership has not yet been extended to women—but in the name of Miss Tammes, our young botanist, named above, a report was read about her inquiries into the influence of food upon the fluctuating variability of some plants? That in the summer of 1907 another young Dutch botanist, Miss de Jonge, was placed at the disposal of the Governor of Surinam, to occupy, for the time of three years, the post of temporary botanist in that colony? That our renowned female historian, Johanna Naber, not only won the prize in a competition issued by Teyler's Society, but that her book, "A History of the Netherlands During the Annexation to France," was by a competent judge praised as a work of great historical value? That the Royal Institute for the knowledge of Indian languages and tribes published a grammar of Tontembanie composed by Mr. and Mrs. Adriani-Gunning? That the dissertation of Helen Wisznianski, who took an honorary degree of philosophy at Berlin, was published in the works of the Nautical Institute and the Geographical Institute? That Dr. Lydia Rabinowitsch was made a corresponding member of the Société Centrale de Médecine Vétérinaire of Paris, on account of her meritorious inquiries about the veterinary art? That Wilhelmine Eaton-Flemming, who obtained important results in making astronomic photos at the Observatory of Harvard University, was created a member of the Royal Astronomical Society of England? That Marie Köbele won the prize in a competition about a topic of otology? That Ethel Charles, on account of her extraordinary merits, was the first woman chosen as a member of the Royal Institute of British Architecture? That according to a notice in the "Archiv für Protistenkunde," Margaret Zülzer was the first investigator who studied the pernicious influence of radium on the smallest animal organisms? That Tada Urata, finally, a young Japanese girl, who graduated in medicine at Marburg and

practises physics at Tokio, was made a professor *honoris causa*? And many more might be quoted.

Not only does woman owe thanks to science, but science to woman, too. And therefore, when men are making science inaccessible or hardly accessible to women, they are committing a sin against growth that is stunted; against the human being to whom is denied the noblest happiness on earth, the use of every power that is in him; against the generation to come, to which mothers are given less harmoniously developed, less contented, that is, less good than should be needful; against society, which is best served when every talent is brought to its utmost development, and when every member of that society is employed in that kind of work he is most fit for.

Here and everywhere else women ought to be given what individuals and nations rightly consider their sovereign good—the great gift of liberty.

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### WOMEN AS SCHOOL INSPECTORS.

By SIGNORA JULIA BERNOCO-FAVA-PARRI, Turin, Italy.

A woman may be a useful and practical Inspector in all branches of feminine activity, whether it be as Inspector of schools, of charitable institutions, of prisons, or of factories; wherever her heart and her intuition can render service, either to an institution or its inmates.

In Italy women Inspectors are appointed by the Government after having passed examinations; they are appointed for children's schools, for schools for young girls, both Day schools and Boarding schools.

Especially for charitable institutions women Inspectors have recently been appointed, who do their duty well, knowing how to point out the existing defects and recommend the remedies. This, then, is a new and worthy profession. When we say a profession we mean always the means of gaining her living; the ability to provide for her material wants, and in the necessities of modern existence this is indispensable. It is desirable that women should be appointed to take their share in administrations or assist in the settlements of differences, when they can help by their common-sense in the direction of expenditure, a matter in which they are often superior to men.

In Italy this co-operation of women already exists in certain institutions, but it is gratuitous, especially in charitable institutions which women have assisted in founding. But woman has not yet any legal importance, having no right to a vote either in administrative or business matters.

In such works as the settlement of differences, and sometimes in schools, although there is no material recompense, we find generous souls, who give their enthusiasm, their time, their intellect, for the benefit of these institutions to which they have been appointed Inspectors. Let us not forget that woman by nature and

instinct is the mother, if not of her own children, nevertheless of the children of others; and this maternal instinct is expended in caring for little children, for the poor, for the old, whenever she is appealed to. On increasing the number of women's organizations the number of officials must be increased. As there are already women school inspectors who are following their profession and who have the right of provision for their old age, so there must be women inspectors of factories, of hospitals, and even of prisons for women, so that the unhappy inmates may have both their physical and moral wants cared for by those who understand them best. This will be another door open to woman's activity, and she will then carry into these new duties all the enthusiasm, all the prudence, all the constancy and all the desire for good which characterize woman when she undertakes to follow the path of right, of virtue, of moral and economic aims for her neighbour as well as for herself.

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## THE SOCIAL VALUE OF THE PROFESSIONAL WOMAN.

By REV. LYDIA KINGSMILL COMMANDER, New York, U.S.A.

The professional woman! There are 800,000 of her in the United States alone. Of all self-supporting women she is the ablest and most successful.

Every fifth woman supports herself in our American Republic; and in this vast host of 6,000,000 self-maintained women, the professional women are the path-finders and pioneers.

I would call your attention to four of the most important results that have accrued to society from the activities, thus far, of our professional women.

1. The professional woman has been making experiments that will eventually be of very great value to all women. She has been a sort of occupation-explorer, finding out what lines of thought and work are most suitable and congenial. Even her failures have thus been educational. By practical tests she has been proving what women may and may not do. In the first flush of her western freedom, and with no precedents to guide her, she has no doubt invaded some professions that she will ultimately abandon. Possibly no considerable number of women will ever succeed as surveyors, contractors, engineers, brokers, bankers or electrical workers. And after the first adventurous rush of exploration is over, it will be recognized that equality with man does not by any means imply that each shall follow the same occupation as the other, but that each shall do what can thus best be done. In the meantime the many sacrificial experiments that women are making are building up a fund of experience which is unquestionably valuable to the women of the present and the future.

2. The professional woman has created new occupations, chiefly in the line of social service, and which are especially well suited to the aptitudes of women. She has developed the social

settlement to its highest point of sympathy and effectiveness. She has made philanthropy less formal and has introduced innumerable new points of contact between the rich and the poor.

3. The professional woman has wholly altered public opinion as to the ability and efficiency of women. Nowhere, except possibly in the Orient, will we find to-day those preposterous prejudices which assumed that women were not fully human and fit for the responsibilities of freedom. The professional woman is the woman successful. Already she has won so many prizes from male competitors that she has conquered the world's respect.

It is certainly not overstating the truth to say that there are in New York City at least one hundred professional and business women whose salary or self-earned income is \$10,000 a year or more. This one fact, in a civilization which has adopted money-making as the main criterion of success, has had tremendous influence in removing the myths and fables that belittled the ability of women.

When the first woman cashier was employed in New York, in Delmonico's, about seventy years ago, it is recorded that a large crowd gathered in front of the restaurant to see a woman who was able to handle money and make the change right. She was stared at as a freak, as a wholly abnormal creature; but to-day, as we look back at that incident in the light of the twentieth century, it was not the woman cashier who was abnormal and out of place, but rather the amazed crowd that surrounded her.

Thanks to the professional woman, we are now quite accustomed to seeing women in "the seats of the mighty." It does not stun us with bewilderment to know that one young woman is the owner and manager of nine drug stores in Cincinnati; or that a matron in Virginia has been for twenty years a successful railway builder; or that a well-known club woman in New York City is the president of seven corporations; or that a Chicago woman lawyer received lately a \$30,000 fee; or that one of the two heaviest taxpayers in the United States is a woman; or that out of 303 occupations, women are engaged in 294. So accustomed have we become to the victories of the professional woman, that if we read in to-morrow's newspaper that a girl runner has won the latest Marathon, or that a woman banker has floated an issue of government bonds, we will scan the news without a shock of surprise, but merely with a feeling of placid satisfaction.

4. The fourth and greatest achievement of the professional woman is that she has carried the instincts and ideals of the home into the larger life of the outside world. She is the woman who is to-day doing most of all to fulfil the historic mission of her sex, which is and always has been, TO DEVELOP THE HEART-SIDE OF CIVILIZATION.

For years the home has been the humanizing centre, made so mainly because it was the little realm of the mother. It was in the home that conscience received its first education and that the standards of noble living grew into shape. Thus, when women were

forced, by a revolution in our industrial system, into the working world, they took with them the spirit and the moral code which they had developed in the home. There you have, in a few words, the secret of the mighty reforms that are coming true in the business and political world. They are due, most of all, to the steady and patient pressure of those women who have gone out into the world and discovered its needs, and who are doing what women have always and everywhere done, making the dirty places clean and the crooked places straight.

Just as women actors uplifted the stage, once the home only of the vile "miracle play," and women authors purified the novel once the synonym for prurience, so now there are women journalists who are doing much more than they realize to improve our newspapers and magazines. They have added a home side to the daily paper, which if not attaining a high intellectual standard, is at least many degrees superior to the "men's page," with its prize fights and horse racing. Women writers have taught the magazines to consider articles from the woman's standpoint. They have done much to cast out obnoxious advertisements and abstract essays, and to make the reading matter of the people simpler, kindlier and more practical. As they rise higher in the newspaper world they will no doubt do a great deal to improve editorial policies and to abolish the sensational and hysterical side of modern journalism.

Such is the social value of the professional woman. It is her rare privilege to know that as she wins her personal victories, she is helping all women and at the same time putting the life of her nation upon a higher plane. There will be a continuous improvement and regeneration in what we think and what we do, until the whole life of the nation, inside the home and outside, measures up to the standard that the best mothers have already established for themselves.

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### JOURNALISM AND WOMEN.

By MARY FRANCES BILLINGTON, of the "London Daily Telegraph,"  
England.

In the past fifteen or twenty years journalism as a profession for women has received a considerable meed of attention in Great Britain, and a large number of aspirants have endeavoured with a very varying degree of success to pursue it. Prior to the "eighties" in the last century the woman journalist was rare, but not unknown, for not only did Harriett Martineau do excellent work of the highest order as a leader writer on the *Daily News*, but Mrs. Lancaster and Mrs. Fenwick Miller were regular contributors of thoughtful, descriptive letters and articles to leading provincial papers. At the same time it is not to be forgotten that the fashion paper is not a creation of the present generation, and in that branch of the calling the ladies who wrote on the modes of the crinoline days were legitimately entitled to regard them-

selves as journalists. Of these one would especially recall Miss Lowe, who became editress of the *Queen* in 1864 and piloted that venture to the leading place it promptly took and maintained among women's papers.

The real entry of women into the everyday work of a daily paper, dates, I should say, from 1883, when Miss Hulda Friedrichs, still doing excellent work, was appointed to the salaried staff on the *Pall Mall Gazette* on equal terms with the men of her corresponding standing. This opened the doors of new possibilities for women in the work, though meantime Mrs. Humphrey, the vivacious "Madge" of *Truth*, was touching a wider range of interests than women then usually treated. When Mr. Passmore Edwards, then proprietor and editor of the *Echo*, a paper no longer existent, invited me to join his staff, there were still very few in daily journalism, and in my first years I was usually the only woman representing a paper among many men. The barriers, however, once broken down, others came in, and from its foundation in the nineties the Institute of Journalists admitted women bona fide earning their living in daily and weekly newspaper work upon precisely equal terms with men.

Yet for all its attractions, for all the absence of examinations to enter it, for all the opportunities there are in it, women are not making any striking advances in it in Great Britain. Whether there are actually more or fewer in it at this moment than there were, say, ten years ago, I am not prepared to say; but in responsible and adequately paid positions upon recognized daily or weekly papers, they do not appear to be increasing numerically or to be coming into the higher branches of original work. The effects of controlling syndicates, or the amalgamation of many publications of various classes under individuals or firms, it is not necessary here to deal with, but as a result of their coming the openings in journalism which lead to that much desired goal—a salaried staff position—have become very few, and fortunate indeed is the woman who attains to it.

Now, having said as much, it may seem contradictory to assert that many women are employed by such papers. There is a vast amount of work done in the chronicling of society items, but it is work that never seems to lead its exponents any further in their profession, and it has more or less come to be regarded as about the limitation they are assigned in it. There are very few women indeed to whom the editor of a great daily would entrust an important special correspondent's commission—such, for instance, as those undertaken for the *Times* a few years ago by Miss Flora Shaw (now Lady Lugard) on indentured Kanaka labour in Queensland, or the prospects of the Klondyke.

On the leading weekly papers for women the journalist's position is more satisfactory. There in two or three instances a lady edits the whole and has two or three experts in fashion, with regularly employed women artists for this important feminine interest. Also on her staff will be ladies qualified to take charge

of such departments as cookery, the toilet, the nursery, furnishing, and others of varied domestic concerns. Others furnish articles at stated intervals, contribute bright paragraphs, or have columns dealing with the topics of the day, in addition, of course, to such social doings as are recorded with less detail in the morning or evening papers. In the sub-editing, too, they take a full share, but of course this is a not unlimited sphere. Vacancies on such staffs do not often occur, and for the casual work or occasional articles they offer there is eager demand.

By far the greater part of the work that appears in English newspaper columns is anonymous, and outside the office, few ever know by whom this or that brilliant piece of writing has been done. This is, of course, in favour of the aspirant, whose work may appear side by side with that of the best known writer on the staff, and to the ambitious journalist—man or woman—it is an encouragement to that sense of personal effort and responsibility which everyone who succeeds, even in lesser degree, must have in the profession. For it is on one's own efforts that one is judged, and no influence, however weighty, can push to the front the careless, the slipshod or the incompetent writer.

There is scope for women's work on the press, and this is fully recognized by the most experienced and practical of editors. It is not as wide as might be imagined, from the fact that a great deal of the most important work would never, under any circumstances, be assigned to them. To take such daily and commonplace matters as law and police court reporting, it is difficult to imagine an editor who would ask a lady to do such work. The feminine "impression" in some case of unusual public interest might once in a way be called for, but the generally sordid atmosphere of the courts closes a field in which there is work to be done. The press galleries, both of the Lords and the Commons, are rigidly closed to them, though occasional efforts have been made by women to enter them. But the argument is inexorable that all their rules and regulations have been made for the convenience of men, and it is not worth changing them for occasional entry of an exceptionally clever shorthand writer. War corresponding is entirely barred to them, and none achieve more ridicule for themselves from the profession than the amateurs—sometimes titled women—who announce on the outbreak of hostilities anywhere that they are going to be "the first lady war correspondent." Nor are they appointed to the leader-writing staff of the great papers, which is sometimes referred to as a grievance. This I cannot think it is. The leading article—for often there is no more than one—is frequently produced under tremendous strain, as when a great parliamentary debate is being prolonged and the speeches are coming by dribblets, and the whole has to be dealt with logically and critically; or when the news of some great disaster comes late at night and calls for sympathy and survey of its causes and results. Working against time like that, men have more confidence in one another than they have in any woman, however able. And, of

course, so much newspaper work is in the hands of experts—as the city and markets, sport in all its phases, naval and military matters, and science. The art, musical and dramatic criticism, too, is usually in male hands, though here there need be no reason against their coming under feminine judgment.

Conservatism is the great force to be reckoned with in the matter. Men are not jealous of women's success in the departments where they can be usefully employed. But to extend those departments it is necessary for the individual to show some marked ability. And it may well be borne in mind that the attributes which make for success in journalism are not the distinctively feminine ones. There is the absolute necessity for a strong sense of discipline; of absolute, unquestioning obedience to instructions; of punctuality; of discretion; of seeing things in their broad, far-reaching results rather than in the immediate detail, if one is to succeed. Without perfect health, too, nothing can be done. But to those who serve her dutifully and faithfully, journalism can be a gracious mistress, only she brooks no divided allegiance, and the woman who intends to win her meed of approval must set the profession before her own inclinations, her own pleasures, and the social round.

On the morning of Monday, June 28th, a joint session of this Section and that on Health and Physical Training was held, for account of which see under Joint Sessions, Vol. I.

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### THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE STUDY OF MEDICINE FOR WOMEN IN GERMANY. AND PRESENT STATUS.

By DR. FRANZISKA TIBURTIUS, of Berlin, Germany.

When I began to study medicine in 1870 it was entirely hopeless to try to get admission to German universities; even to apply would have seemed absurd and ridiculous. There was no other way but emigration. The nearest place where I could pursue my plan was Switzerland. This little republic was the first one to open her academic institutions to women and foreigners, and gave them opportunities to show to their own country that sex was no insurmountable obstacle.

When in the year 1876 I began practice in Berlin, success seemed more than doubtful, and the first ten years were heavy, uphill work. It was nearly fifteen years, about 1885-90, before younger women, who helped to strengthen and enlarge the work, entered the profession. Already in the first years a dispensary and the embryo of a hospital, a small place of four beds, was founded with the help of good friends and patients. Practical work did not find much opposition from the side of legal authorities, though German universities were not open to women students; little by little women began to feel that those who wished to be treated by one of their own sex had a right to this privilege.

Almost at the same time, as in Germany, women physicians appeared in France and Scandinavia, and a little earlier in England and Russia.

It is generally known that Germany, up to a late date, was a poor country, and that even now public and private wealth is not nearly so large as in other countries, especially on your continent. Besides, it has a preponderance of women. When, about the middle of last century, steam engines and the work of machinery began to enter into the home and to provide more and more for the wants of the family, the work and the bread was taken out of the hands of the unmarried women, and for them the question of economic independence and the possibility of existence became more and more pressing. There was good reason for a German novel-writer to call the woman's movement "The Revolution of Aunts." Before the time of the steam engine there was in nearly every German house a warm place for the unmarried sister or friend, who gave for the shelter and protection of the home her work and her love. She was one of the family. Now there came a change; the aunt became superfluous and felt herself to be so.

It is especially the merit of private institutions, like that Lettewerein in Berlin, which is still flourishing and spreading, to have opened the way to practical work and callings. When this was founded the question about scientific cultivation and academic study for women arose, which happily cannot be considered in the first instance as a bread question. In surveying the general development, it appears that between 1880 and 1890 there arose in Germany a larger number of women, claiming to share in the precious riches of science, who would not be satisfied by the communication of the results of scientific work, but claimed to take part in the work itself.

Another reason arose from the regulations of German universities, which are entirely different from the institutions of this country. We have no quasi-private medical colleges; the study of medicine is carried on from the beginning to end at the State universities, and based on regulations of historical foundation.

The principal reason on which the resistance of German universities was founded was that women had not acquired the necessary scientific preparation. Perhaps you know that up to the end of the last century the admittance of Germans to the universities of their own country and to the State examinations depended on their having passed the final examination of a German gymnasium, corresponding to your best Latin schools and academies; while the admittance of foreigners was under scarcely any restrictions. Now these gymnasiums were closed to women, as the idea of co-education, as yet not universally accepted even in this country, at that time was out of the question. So our young women could at first not satisfy the conditions of admittance. But they soon found they had to help themselves by private institutions. At first in Berlin, then in Karlsruhe, Hanover, Leipzig, women's gymnasiums and supplementary scientific courses were founded on the syllabus

of men's gymnasiums. Pupils came from all sides, and when towards the end of the last century the first women had passed the final examination, there was no longer any valid reason for objection. For several years women were not yet admitted as matriculated students, but only as hearers, but it was understood that this was only temporary. And in 1904 the right of women to enter on academic studies was legally confirmed. Since the beginning of this century the number of female physicians in Germany has steadily increased. Now it is as easy for women to enter on the study of medicine in Germany as it is in your own country. In Berlin, with its two millions of inhabitants, there are about thirty women physicians at work; most of them have passed the examination of a German university; only a few, like myself, belong to the elder generation of Switzerland. In nearly all larger provincial towns there are women physicians. Also in surgery there are names which are generally known and esteemed. That little embryo of a hospital founded many years ago has developed into a very efficient and well-arranged private clinic. As yet we have not a special women's hospital, with different departments for internal, surgical and gynecological diseases, under the guidance of female physicians; but we are at work, and as we have found much interest and good-will among the public. I do not doubt we shall in a few years have an establishment in Berlin like those in New York, Boston, London and Zurich.

Nearly all the larger establishments for hydropathy and nervous diseases have among their staff a female physician. The woman doctor has gained a good place among the physicians employed by the mutual benefit societies against sickness and invalidism of communities and professional leagues. I may only mention the union of business women, which has in Berlin alone nearly 50,000 members; among the staff are nine or ten women physicians.

Also the life insurance companies have long found out that it is in their own interest to employ women physicians, as a great many women would rather resign than submit to the medical examination by men. I myself have worked for nearly twenty years for different life insurance companies. But of more importance than all this is the path which the female physician takes in the *social work* for promoting general social welfare.

At first it was the school boards of larger cities who summoned women physicians to their high schools and girls' gymnasiums. In respect to damages arising from unhygienic organization of the house and those arising from the crowding together of many individuals, the duties of the women physicians to schools do not differ from those of the men. Her work as a woman begins in the contact with the individual. Like every other public institution, school life brings some risks with it for a certain number of individuals who fall above or under the average, physically or mentally.

A woman physician of good sense and good professional standing will often, *by being a woman*, find it easier to understand the

very highly developed nervous organism of girls and succeed in influencing capricious and often strange dispositions. In the same way, being a woman, she may be very useful in giving hygienic instruction in the upper classes. Up to our own day there remain in the minds of women in every station of life a good many dark, medieval ideas about natural occurrences, and even mothers of the so-called educated classes are not always sure to give proper explanation and instruction to their daughters in some critical questions. The hygienic lessons in the upper class may teach the young girl to consider such things from a natural point of view, to preserve mental balance as well as physical health.

In this way the woman physician has found a place in the school board of the higher schools—not yet everywhere, but in a good many cities of Germany, and we hope that she may find a still more extensive field. As to her work in the primary schools, it has just begun, but it seems to me that here it might be still more necessary. The young girl of the working class, who at fourteen or sixteen has to take up factory work or enters into another family as servant, needs still more than the upper class girl the knowledge of some hygienic principles.

And not only in the higher classes, but also at the beginning of school life, the work of the woman physician may correspond to the principle, "Preservation is better than help." It is a fact that in all classes of population a certain number of children are found who, by disposition or by retardation of development, at the age of six years are not yet able to follow the lessons, and therefore become a heavy burden for the school, while, by not being able to follow the instruction, discouragement and timidity render them unhappy and still more incapable. In the educated classes this intellectual inferiority is often already found out by a careful mother or by the family physician; but in the working classes, where very often the mother has no time to take special care of the child, the queer behavior is considered as self-will and capriciousness, or is not at all observed.

The school physician has to visit every class several times a year, and a condition of successful work is mutual confidence between herself and the teacher, who gives her notice when in the course of school life any bodily or mental peculiarity attracts attention. Then she must try to find out the cause; she is *not* authorized to undertake medical treatment of the case, but has to give notice to the parents and advise them, if necessary, to put the child under medical care. In this respect her task does not differ from that of any school physician.

There are a good many connections, bridges leading from the primary school and the sphere of the school physician and the teacher into that of the social help union for the young. None better than the teacher and the physician may judge by observation whether a child has in its own home the necessary bodily care; there are children sent to school tired and overworked, without breakfast, in a state of thorough bodily neglect; in other cases it

is the moral atmosphere of the house that proves fatal to mental development up to a degree that the question arises whether it is necessary to remove the child from these influences. In these rare cases teacher and physician have to apply to the Union for the Aid of the Young. The case is thoroughly investigated, and when it is found that there is no hope to alter the conditions of the house, a new law permits the union to remove the child and put it under the care of communal institutions or in another family.

Another institution for the benefit of the young, where in future the woman physician may take an active part, is the juvenile courts. As in your country, these tribunals follow the aim to put education in the place of punishment, though there may be a difference in some details. It is easily understood that in the judicial proceedings against young female delinquents the judgment of a woman doctor, of the school physician, taught in neurology, may be of great importance.

You see, also in our country there are still a good many wishes and hopes for the future; but, all in all, we now have safe ground under our feet.

(An address on the same subject by Dr. Mary Murdock, England, was not prepared for publication.—Editor.)

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## WOMEN AND PREVENTIVE DENTISTRY.

By GILLETTE HAYDEN, D.D.S., Cleveland, U.S.A.

The Century Dictionary gives the following definition of dentistry, "the art or profession of a dentist; dental surgery," and defines a dentist as "one whose profession it is to clean and extract teeth, repair them when diseased, and replace them by artificial ones when necessary; one who practices dental surgery and mechanical dentistry."

No definition of dentistry, however, seems adequate which confines it only to the local treatment of the teeth. We are impelled to recognize that the results of dentistry are too far-reaching to limit the benefits of it to the mouth alone. We must rather consider dentistry as a science which, through the treatment and correction of diseased or abnormal conditions of the teeth and mouth, and through the prevention of disease in the oral cavity, accomplishes a betterment of the whole human organism.

Although as a profession dentistry is yet young, still subdivision has taken place. Besides the general practitioner we find the specialist in orthodontia, in prosthesis, extraction, oral surgery, crown and bridge work, and in oral prophylaxis and the treatment of pyorrhoea.

Outside of the general practitioner's opportunities for diversified work, are there any of these special fields that are particularly adapted for the qualities which women can bring to them, and are there any obstacles to be overcome in a successful handling of them?

In character essentials a woman is unquestionably fitted. She can bring to the work ambitious energy and perseverance, progressiveness, tact, sympathy, patience and an intuitive understanding of human nature; her ideas of cleanliness are deep-seated, and her adaptability to circumstances and conditions is especially strong. It hardly seems necessary to question her business ability in view of the successes of women in business pursuits. The one quality which women in general lack is mechanical ability.

If the woman's training from childhood is considered, it may throw some light upon this deficiency in her make-up. The training as a child that the girl receives may be, and probably is, responsible for the fact that so few women develop their mechanical sense. Perhaps she is allowed to use a pair of scissors, and possibly she makes mud pies. For both these privileges she may be thankful indeed, for both give vent to her creative ingenuity through the use of her hands.

Contrast this with what the boy is doing. He plays with a train of cars, boats, and things that move, electrical toys of one style after another; he has tools set before him and is taught how to use them. But most of all, he owns a jack-knife. The possibilities of a jack-knife are unlimited. These two separate lines of training lead the girl and boy through their school life at least. Is it any wonder then that latent mechanical ability remains latent in the girl, while in the boy it is fostered and developed?

But dentistry is not a profession calling for mechanical skill alone. The one thing that most people overlook in considering dentistry is this—that dentistry is as much a healing art as it is a mechanical art.

The trend of thought and effort in dental and medical science in the last few years has been steadily in the direction of prevention of disease. The product of these thoughts and efforts has been the elimination of numerous diseases, and dentistry has contributed largely to the list of preventable maladies, through the introduction of that treatment given to us by Dr. D. D. Smith, of Philadelphia, and known as oral prophylaxis.

Oral prophylaxis is that treatment by means of which disease may be eliminated from the mouth. It is a scientific periodic sanitation of the mouth. It is a preventive as well as a curative measure. Preventive because it maintains a normal, healthy condition of the mouth, which is then highly resistant to disease. Curative, because through the removal of the cause or causes of disease the tissues of the mouth return to health.

There is no reason why we should attempt to ease our minds by considering decay as a condition to be accepted and endured. It is an evil brought on by uncleanness and abnormal conditions in the mouth. A clean tooth in a healthy mouth will not decay—this is the fundamental principle upon which oral prophylaxis treatment is founded.

If the women's clubs, as organizations, will acquaint themselves with the condition of the mouths of the children in the

public schools, the need for the teachings of hygiene of the mouth will be all too glaringly apparent. It has been estimated that in public schools where examination of the mouths of these children has been made, from seventy-five to ninety-five per cent. of these pupils were in need of dental services.

There seems to be a deep-seated impression in the minds of parents that the deciduous, or first teeth, do not need care and attention because they "are only the baby teeth," which fall out in a few years to give place to the permanent set. Does it not occur to all thinking women that these first teeth are an absolute necessity to the child whose normal development is dependent upon the nourishment gained from properly masticated food? Do they not realize that arrested development of the jaw bones, the nasal passages, and that whole intricate, bony organism, the head, in fact arrested development involving the entire body, is the result of the unnatural and abnormal loss of the first teeth? Can a child with diseased teeth in a mouth full of debris be anything but physically and mentally defective?

"Criminologists tell us that mental defects are responsible for most crimes." Dr. Mitchell of the New York State Reformatory says, "Let us go farther back. Nearly all mental defects are traceable to abnormal physical conditions, and these in turn to dental imperfections." And yet all too many children are without even a tooth-brush!

We rarely stop to consider what ideal conditions exist in the mouth for the growth of bacteria. The four essentials for germ production are: heat at body temperature, food in constant quantities, moisture and air. They are all present in the mouth. No self-respecting bacterium could ask for more luxury. Deprive the bacteria of the mouth of any one of these essentials and their growth is inhibited or destroyed. Temperature, air and moisture we cannot eliminate, but the food supply we can control. Keep the mouth free from food particles; make sure that there are no cavities, and be certain that tartar is not accumulating on the teeth.

Dr. Netter states that fifteen per cent. of healthy people harbor in their mouths the germs of pneumonia, diphtheria and typhoid fever. Tuberculosis time after time finds entrance into the body through the mouth. All these germs are found lurking in decayed teeth, or enveloped in decomposing food particles lodged about the teeth.

How manifestly important it is then that every woman should know how to protect herself and her children from diseases which gain entrance into the body by way of an unclean mouth. Here is a field in preventive dentistry, and preventive medicine, which is open to all of us, and one which if utilized will eradicate, as before stated, from "one-half to three-fourths of the ailments from which man suffers."

This lack of knowledge displayed concerning the dependence of the mental, moral and physical health of the individual upon the state of the mouth is a preventable ignorance. An ignorance which can, in a large way, be overcome through instruction in the

public schools. Although America is far in advance of other countries in dentistry, still the countries of the Old World have outstripped us in public school work along dental lines. Germany is solving the problem through examinations of the mouths of the public school children, followed by lectures and demonstrations on the care of the mouth and teeth. England, France, Italy, Sweden, Denmark, Belgium, Japan and Russia, and some few cities in the United States and Canada, have introduced dental examination and the teachings of oral hygiene into the schools.

As educators and as the mothers of this and the coming generation, the women of to-day should help to shoulder the responsibility of teaching the children the urgent necessity of the cleanliness and hygiene of the mouth.

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## AGRICULTURE AS A PROFESSION FOR WOMEN.

By HELGA SEHESTED, Denmark.

It occurs occasionally here in Denmark that women till their own land, both small holdings and farms, for example, when a widow manages the farm or the piece of ground that belonged to her deceased husband, or when a woman in another way inherits land. Not so often, although it does happen, do women buy or rent a farm.

It has not yet come into general use that women go in for an agricultural training with an eye to take up farming as a profession, but it will undoubtedly come to this, for in many ways it affords an interesting and excellent occupation, and the physical work need not be beyond a woman's strength.

According to the last census of 1901, there are in Denmark about 724,000 people living in rural districts, and of these there are 150,000 women, that is, 21 per cent., who earn a living with agricultural work, roughly divided as follows:

1. About 9 per cent. are landed proprietors, farmers, small holders, etc.
2. About 1 per cent. functionaries, stewards, etc.
3. About 90 per cent. labourers.

These figures comprise both single and married women and widows.

As to training colleges, scholarships and State grants to obtain land, in most cases women, as well as men, can have the benefit of these. In case a woman goes in for agriculture she should closely consider whether she wants a small piece of land where she herself takes part in all the work, or whether she wants to become a manager of a more extensive farm. There are, namely, two alternatives.

1. Danish women can study agriculture scientifically at the Royal Veterinary and Agricultural College at Copenhagen, and pass an examination as "candidata agriculturæ" (agricultural graduate). Until now only one woman besides myself has passed

this examination. After this one can apply to the Ministry of Agriculture for a stipend in order to extend one's knowledge in other countries. After having learned practical agriculture at one or more farms during three or four years, such a time of study of two to three years is greatly to be recommended to well-to-do women who later on want to manage an extensive farm.

Competition in agriculture has increased to such a degree these last 20 years that it is a great advantage to possess a good deal of technical skill, the more so as large fortunes are very exceptional with us.

2. If, on the other hand, a woman wants to manage a small farm or a cottager's allotment she can attend a course (five to nine months) at one of the agricultural schools for young men; as instructors we find here "agricultural graduates," elementary teachers and others. Frequently there is a laboratory and model stock connected with the schools.

These agricultural schools are meant for young peasants who are in possession of practical knowledge and intend to become either owners of a small farm or managers or stewards.

Moreover, there are schools for "cottagers"—that is to say, agricultural labourers who own or rent a few (from one-half to ten) acres of land. These schools, as well as the lectures given by travelling instructors, are largely attended by men and women. There are no separate agricultural schools for women, but my personal experience has taught me that it is most useful for us to study together with men when we shall have to do men's work; as students we find how refreshing and pleasant the companionship is; we come to know and understand men's sphere of thought and character, and this is of great importance for a woman who later on will have to deal with the other sex, as their employer, their fellow-worker, their subordinate, or have business with them.

I have often been asked whether, during the time of study as well as in the practical work, a woman does not meet with many more difficulties than a man. She does to a certain extent; but these difficulties are not of so much importance, provided a woman is bred in the country, is familiar with the practical work and has a sufficient knowledge of the ordinary school subjects, besides genuine interest in her profession. In the long run a woman's strength fails her in the handling of the big implements intended for men to work with; so, wherever a great amount of bodily strength is required a woman should be practical, and either make use of masculine assistance or use machines, and have them, as well as the implements, made to suit her.

With respect to the superintendence, administration, book-keeping and trading a woman will do very well, so that there is no need to waste our strength on that which physically is beyond us, or requires too great an exertion.

If anyone were to ask me whether a woman can manage the administration connected with farming, I should answer in the affirmative. If asked whether a woman's strength is sufficient for every kind of agricultural labour, I should reply: practically speak-

ing, no, but a good deal of the work done by men women will be able to carry out. When a woman who is born and bred in the country comes to a farm as an apprentice and is able to manage horses, she can learn to plough, harrow and sow almost as well as a man. Drive mowing and reaping machines, horse rakes and weeding machines, we can use just as well. To gather in the hay and corn and to drive manure to the fields is not a difficult thing, but our dress hinders us. The same holds good for the piling up of the hay and corn sheaves. As said before, we can do this kind of work, but we get much sooner tired; we need not be at a loss, however, in case there are no men present, and especially at smaller farms women do this work just as Polish girls are often employed for this labour at Danish country-seats. We can also learn to use the indoor-machines, and if necessary these can often be made to suit us by applying longer levers, larger fly-wheels and cog wheels. In the same way there are loads which a man can easily lift, a woman, on the contrary, with difficulty, so that we either must call in aid or make use of mechanic force (such as rolls, tackles, etc.,) provided it is not more sensible to leave this sort of thing to men.

At many small farms (24-48 acres) in Denmark women have the care of the horses, cows and pigs and look after them just as well as men do; but at large farms the labour connected with this is so exacting that three women are required where two men can do the work; consequently it does not pay to engage women for this work. It is astonishing to see how steady practice is able to develop a woman's strength so that she can get through heavy labour with comparative ease, when skill and a good insight do not fail her.

I will just point out a few qualities which are requisite for a woman who goes in for agricultural work.

1. An equable temper.
2. Ability to mix with labourers.
3. A good oversight, organizing talents and a quick mind to map out the work when unforeseen circumstances require a change of plans.
4. A good eye to observe in what way the live stock and crops thrive best, and knowledge how to improve the kind.
5. Order and thrift, especially when there is no money to spare.
6. In the same way I consider it important that a woman who goes in for agriculture should be brought up in the country and at a farm, because one from the town, whether man or woman, never learns the ins and outs of farming.
7. A deep and lively interest in every branch of the profession.
8. Courage to bear the many disappointments, losses and vexations, which are so amply mixed up with the rejoicings, when things have turned out well.
9. Capability of inspiring respect with the people one employs; I do not think this is more difficult for a woman than a man.

To conclude, I may perhaps be allowed to state how I myself have become an agriculturist. My father was a country gentleman, and for some years at the head of two larger and two minor farms. I was an only child, and ever since I was a little girl went much about with my father, on foot, or riding or driving through the fields. I was taught the usual school subjects at home till I was fourteen, at which time I had to leave the country in order to attend school in the capital, Copenhagen. I was confirmed there, learned foreign languages and music.

My parents had retired from the country at the time and lived in Copenhagen. However, my interest went out to the country again and I went to a large farm, managed with great skill by a widow; here I learned soil culture, animal husbandry, book-keeping, etc., for three years; went up to Copenhagen, passed my examination at the Agricultural College; travelled in Denmark and Germany to study; came home and rented two farms belonging to my uncle's estate, both of which I still manage.

I am happy in my sphere of work and satisfied with my years of training. I can therefore recommend every woman who wants to take up agriculture as a profession to go through a suitable training, both theoretical and practical, before she settles down. She will never regret in after years the time which the study has taken her.

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## WOMEN AGRICULTURISTS IN SWEDEN.

By SIGRID ULRICH.

In Sweden it was about the middle of the last century that industrialism came in mighty waves and drove people from their country homes out into the labour market, and then women were perhaps more than men shut out from what had hitherto been their natural sphere of work. When the great change set in it made the many hands in a household superfluous. As a natural consequence numbers of women began to look for employment in the cities.

In time it became evident that something must be done to remedy the evils entailed by the progress of industrialism. Private initiative took the lead in starting cookery classes in the schools; then the State gave financial support, and at the present moment we have a large yearly grant given to promote instruction in domestic economy.

However, of late we have found that this is not sufficient. We have been awakened to the needs of the country population. We have seen that our larger cities are being over-populated, while great tracts of land are lying waste for want of hands, and that our young men and women emigrate to the Far West instead of turning their minds and energies to what is lying nearest in wait for them.

The Swedish Association, of whose Executive Committee I have the honour to be a member, the Fredrika-Bremer Association,

has for a long time had its attention fixed on this deplorable state of things. For a great number of years it has been trying to enable women to get a start in farming and gardening. However, there were great difficulties to overcome, for there being no regular satisfactory courses open to women, one had to try to get them received as private pupils on estates. This had great drawbacks in many respects, one of the principal ones being that the girls desiring to be trained for country professions, and who were received as pupils, for the most part belonged to the educated classes, and scarcely anything could be done for the daughters of the people.

Convinced of the truth of the assertion that has been made over and over again by eminent farmers, that it depends upon the farmer's wife if the farming profession can prove to be a success, the Fredrika-Bremer Association reasoned in this way: We want just to reach the homes of the small farmers or the peasants, and to educate their wives and daughters, so as to get them thoroughly interested in and fitted for their work. To attain this we must first of all get an able staff of teachers, and after that, get the local authorities to establish schools for rural economy in their respective districts. And by the help of the State and by persons whom we have succeeded in interesting in our plan, we have been able to carry it out, and about a year and a half ago the first school for the training of teachers to instruct the wives and daughters of farmers in rural economy, etc., was opened at Rimforsa, in the Province of Ostergötland. Organized and managed by the Fredrika-Bremer Association, we hope that it will be a forerunner in a great patriotic undertaking—to raise the standard of agriculture and household economy on the small farms; to make our country people happy and thrifty in their own homes, and thus to be the means of stopping the crowding into factories and the emigration to foreign parts.

Before I proceed to give the description of the school, I must explain that in Sweden we have a very great class of country people termed "peasants." They have played a glorious part in the history of Sweden, for they have been the very stronghold of its freedom whenever it has been endangered, and they continue to take a prominent place in the Government of the land, many of them being members of our Riksdag, and of Boards and Committees. They are the backbone of the country population, and in many parts of Sweden they are in very good circumstances, and are then the counterpart of what in this country would be the farmers. Sometimes, however, they only possess a small piece of land, and can only make both ends meet with the utmost care and the hardest work. It is just the homes of these poor peasants that stand in need of being raised to a higher level by means of the women being instructed in all the minor rural industries. Besides the common household tasks, they need instruction in the daily routine of outside work, such as dairying, poultry keeping, etc. It must be said to their credit that they have never wished to shirk their share of work, but they need knowledge and method.

An opportunity offered of procuring for the Fredrika-Bremer Rimborså School a large building intended for a tourist hotel, beautifully situated, with good communications both by railroad and steamer. It contains rooms for five teachers and 20 pupils, besides hall, lecture-room, drawing-room and dining-room. The kitchen department, cellars, etc., answered the requirements, and cattle shed and barn were built after the best model for a small farm. A small cottage in the immediate neighborhood of the school was adapted as a model home for a peasant.

The idea of the school is, as I have said, to train teachers who, in their turn, are to instruct the peasant women. For this purpose it was necessary to organize the school so that it offered opportunities of learning and practising all the different kinds of practical work connected with the daily household duties on a small farm; but at the same time a thorough theoretical knowledge had to be imparted to enable the pupils to become fit teachers for their pupils—the peasant women—later on.

To attain this practical end about ten acres of land and the small cottage I just spoke of, are set apart to compose a small farm, equal to the means of an average peasant. Here four of the pupils take turns to perform all the work belonging to the female department of a farm—in fact, only the ploughing of the ground and the heaviest part of the agricultural work is executed by a man. One of the pupils is the housewife in the cottage, while the three others take care of the cows, pigs and poultry, and do the dairy work, skimming, churning, cream separating, etc. All the work is carried out under the superintendence of a teacher. Although the food and everything else is calculated on a simple and economical scale, so as to correspond with customs and the income of a peasant, "the small farm" is a great favorite with the pupils, and they like to be on duty there. The produce of "the farm" is sold to the school, so as to get an idea of how it pays. And the result of the first year's trial has been a very happy one for the farm, as all expenses have been covered and there has even been a profit.

Besides the work now mentioned, the pupils are taught all that belongs to simple housekeeping, spinning, weaving, dressmaking, etc.; also in classes of four pupils at a time. Much consideration is given to getting the tasks simplified as much as possible, so as not to take up too much time. Gardening is carried on on a rational but simple scale, to answer the needs of the small farmers and cottagers, and much importance is attached to preserving the produce for winter supply.

The theoretical classes are going on daily, and consist of all such subjects as are necessary for the future teachers of rural economy, namely, physics, botany, chemistry, mathematics, book-keeping, lectures on dairying, farming, gardening, hygiene, the care of infants, etc., and a great number of ethical subjects.

To afford the pupils opportunities to get practice in teaching, itinerant cookery schools are arranged, and young peasant

women are taken in as pupils, and get both theoretical and practical teaching.

The pupils who get their training as teachers in the Fredrika-Bremer School at Rimforsa are, with some exceptions, educated young girls, for the most part brought up in the country; at least great importance is attached to the fact that they are accustomed to country life and in touch with the country population. The first course is now just finished, and on leaving the school the teachers have gone to teach at Household Economy Schools in the country, at temporary courses for housewives, at itinerant cookery schools; they have also become lecturers to, and leaders of, groups of peasant women, who, with the support of Government grants, are sent to study on model farms and estates.

In view of what is now generally affirmed, that the influence of women in agriculture is unlimited, we have great hopes that this school, of which I have tried to draw the outlines, will prove a great blessing. Its greatest importance will be manifest when all the different Provinces of Sweden have been awakened to the necessity of organizing rural economy schools. We know that the teachers trained in the Fredrika-Bremer School at Rimforsa have a very high estimate of their mission, and that they will, in their turn, try to impart to their pupils all that can help to make them model housekeepers and wives in their homes on the farms.

### WOMEN IN AGRICULTURE.

By MISS YATES, Ontario Agricultural College. Guelph.

"Women in Agriculture" is a comprehensive term, and the many subdivisions of the subject offer a wide choice once the necessary training has been obtained.

My experiences of the last eight years have brought me into close friendship with the following groups of workers:

1. Farmers' wives and daughters.
2. The woman as owner of the land and employer of labour upon it.
3. The specialist on one line of production only, as high-class butter, eggs, violets or mushrooms.
4. In salaried posts on farms or small holdings.
5. In agricultural journalism.
6. Educational work in colleges and on Government lecturing staffs, both in elementary work and in the training of teachers.
7. Experimental and investigation work.

After over three years' experience in the country life of Canada, I may state that a feeling of regret continually comes over me that educated women in Europe do not know more about the possibilities here with regard to their own independent careers.

Many women, to my knowledge, have specialized in the British Isles in what we call the lighter branches of agriculture, and find, when through their training, a difficulty in putting it to profitable use.

Here, more or less, everyone works, and owing to the difficulty of getting suitable help, the ladies on most farms do their own housework. The world knows it and takes it as a matter of course. No one dreams of thinking herself a martyr because she irons her own muslin dresses or has to receive friends while polishing the silver or making a batch of cakes. A much more wholesome atmosphere surrounds the working woman in consequence. Furthermore, a certain dignity results from doing the work of a house oneself, not because one cannot afford servants (for the farmers here are well-to-do), but because one knows one can do it better than the "help" available.

Let me say something of the personality and temperament of those from the Old Land likely to be successful here. It is of no use coming with the rooted conviction that European ways are best. The newcomer must prove her ways are better before they will be cordially welcomed. Practical work done by one's own hands is what earns respect here, and not discussion of what the servants did at home.

The College of the Ontario Department of Agriculture and its work is so well known in Britain that to many like myself it gives a feeling of homeliness to meet in the flesh the men and women on that staff whose names and work have been familiar for years through their bulletins and reports. The help to be obtained there, the courtesy, the consideration and the welcome received, speedily make the newcomer feel at home and fill one with the desire to take advantage of the many facilities offered to go there. These are of many kinds and within the reach of all, for they come within all purses.

There are the Farmers' Excursions in the summer, when cheap day tickets from all parts of the Province are available. There is the week of the Fat Stock Show in winter, at which time the members of the Women's Institutes hold their annual meeting and enjoy a week of intercourse in well planned sessions; and there are the meetings of the Poultry Institute in spring; to say nothing of the delights of the short courses of all kinds. In short, the sympathy extended by the Government to those interested in country life does much to break down the isolation and monotony attending life in the rural districts of the older lands.

Hundreds of bright-faced women across the ocean are longing to put their powers to the test. The very energies that are so valued upon the hockey and the golf fields at home are exactly what are wanted here in the game of life that is being played on these farm lands. There is all the exhilaration of success in the air and plenty of fun and laughter to help the thing through if only one is prepared to be adaptable.

Many things are different, and much pioneer work is yet to be done, but it adds to the zest of it all to know that one is wanted; one is of use to this gigantic country if only one is prepared to do one's part. Lists of cut and dried facts are of little avail. The knowledge and the facts must be adapted to the needs of this climate and of this country, and then there is good prospect

of financial success for the woman who will put them to the test.

Probably those anxious to come would fall into one of three groups—those having small incomes and wishing to add to them; those with no resources beyond their own brains; and those with a small capital sum of money and nothing to fall back upon when that is exhausted. To these last I strongly urge a consideration of the co-operative plan, for where a few could stand together a happy and profitable concern could be run. Each member should be prepared to carry out a definite branch of work; one at least should have a capable business head, and one should be willing to attend to the housekeeping. The accounts should be open to inspection at regular business meetings and should be audited.

In many cases there is reason to believe that a colony of this kind would be welcomed in some of the old homesteads of Ontario; for instance, where the farmer and his wife have either no family or it has scattered and they are left in later years with a comfortable house, large and lonely for two, no decrease in cost of heating and lighting it, and no one to share the work. Arrangements could be made for running rights and use of the building for poultry, profit-sharing in fruit, bees and dairy produce. Feed is plentiful, land is available, stock is there and no hands to help with the work. In nine cases out of ten of the sort indicated driving horses are kept, buggy and sleigh stand in the drive-shed ready to make regular outings summer and winter to the nearest town.

It would help the financial outlook considerably to work up a co-operative movement in a district and would offer a fine chance for business heads, as the following will show: With the idea of finding out if there was any money to be made in buying young poultry to fatten for market, this small transaction was undertaken: 179 birds were bought in, picked up here and there at 8 and 9 cents per lb. in the fall of the year. Their total weight was 512 lbs. 2 oz., and they cost \$41.30. Food to the amount of \$15.25 was consumed, and the total sales realized \$134, leaving a balance of \$77.45. The total weight sold was 670 lbs. 3 oz. In addition 63 eggs were produced at a scarce time of year. The work was, of course, not considerable—a very small amount of time was taken up each day. This small transaction is only quoted to show what can be done by an average woman.

Where it is possible to hire or buy land for the purpose, there can be no question as to the advisability of running poultry and fruit together. In practical hands this is a sound combination and managed on right lines the wastage from animal life becomes food for plant life, to say nothing of the famous answer to the riddle of "How to deal with fruit insect pests." "Chickens" was the expert's stolid reply.

There must be systematized management, of course, and no question of trying to run a concern over large for the amount of capital available. A small investment must not be expected to yield anything but small returns. Development from a small business should proceed quickly, and a sufficient sum of money should be

kept for working capital if disaster is to be steered clear of. It is unwise at the beginning to lock up a large proportion of the small resources in bush fruit and berries, but these crops pay well here and may be taken up safely where the owner can secure sufficient help in picking. The adaptability of the land can only be found out gradually and progress made accordingly.

Bees form a valuable addition to a holding, for honey is much appreciated here, and in many parts of the Province suitable arrangement for wintering the stocks can be made. Honey is now being so highly recommended as more digestible than sugar that numbers of people would gladly buy it if more were available.

For those who have no capital there are numbers of profitable openings in the country, where the newcomer can do housework and is willing to help with the poultry, the garden and the dairy, at the right season of the year.

Absolutely untrained workers frequently become unhappy for the simple reason that they do not know what it is to work regularly at any thing; but for the common-sense woman who is willing to give a fair day's work for a fair day's pay, there are no particular hardships to be faced. The homes are well warmed in winter. There is plenty of fun to be had sleighing, snowshoeing, skating, and in many cases there are *musicales* and *sociables* in the winter evenings.

Sometimes work on shares can be arranged for. There is demand for berries, salads, eggs, plump chickens, good butter and dairy products—all these things for the production of which there is ample scope and space, and for which the farmer's wife has a market but no time to produce in quantities.

If several women of sound common-sense came together into a neighbourhood and showed their adaptability to surroundings, their welcome would be assured. Canadian women are highly efficient and get through a large amount of work cheerfully, and yet manage to look well, while in too many cases people have been careless and have sunk into mere slovens—a most fatal mistake for success in Canada, which is throbbing with earnest endeavour to progress, and where a high ideal as to the meaning of education exists.

Europeans wishing to take up lecturing or teaching work in rural districts will find the conditions of life very different from anything they have been accustomed to. I have the honour to hold an appointment on the Government lecturing staff of the Women's Institutes, and wish my hearers to realize that though there are no actual hardships to endure, the woman undertaking a travelling lectureship must be prepared to put up with lack of privacy and considerable differences in the food which may prove very unacceptable. There must be adaptability, therefore, of many kinds, and a woman who is not willing to learn this will not be acceptable as a teacher.

The fact of our third Quinquennial meeting being held in Canada, at the invitation of Canadian women, shows their pro-

gressive spirit—shews, too, that this great country, with her vast mineral resources, her wonderful waterways, and her prolific farm lands, will take her place in the forefront of the nations of the world if her women are allowed to have their way.

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### WOMEN'S INSTITUTES OF ONTARIO.

By G. A. PUTNAM, Superintendent Ontario Department  
of Agriculture.

A young, expansive, ambitious and growing country cannot but be greatly benefited by the deliberations of representative women from those nations which stand for the best in legislation, education and philanthropy, and Canada cannot but be influenced toward good by the conference which is now in progress. While Canadians will be the greatest gainers, we trust that we may be able to give the delegates some suggestions and definite information gleaned from practical experience which may be applied to the betterment of the position of women in other lands.

We have a society in Ontario affiliated with the National Council, which has done and is doing much to assist the women of the town, village and country especially, toward a broader and fuller life in that noblest of all careers for women—home-making.

The Women's Institutes of Ontario are an outgrowth of the Farmers' Institutes, and, with your permission, I shall state briefly the history of this latter organization.

For some thirty-five years now we have had in this Province what is looked upon as the leader in all matters agricultural, the Agricultural College at Guelph. The work of this college from the first was of great value to the farmers, but they did not at first seem to appreciate the advantages to be derived from a study and observation of the work there carried on, and it was not until the Farmers' Institutes were established about twenty-five years ago that the work of the college was presented more favorably to the practical farmers through the local organizations. Each electoral district is empowered by legislation to organize a Farmers' Institute. The Board of Directors consists of two or three, or even more, if thought desirable, representative men from each township. This representative body elect from among themselves an executive, consisting of a president, vice-president and secretary-treasurer, whose duty it is to put into effect the work planned by the Board of Directors. Requests for meetings are sent to the Provincial Department of Agriculture, and arrangements are made to send specially selected men to give addresses along agricultural lines at those places recommended by the Institutes. This work has done much toward advancing the agriculture of the Province, and the methods of the present day are much more effective than formerly—a result chiefly of the work of the Institute.

From the first, women took an interest in the evening meetings of the Institute, when, very often, fruit growing, dairying, poultry

raising and bee keeping, in which women are more or less interested, were dealt with, but very little or no attention was given to domestic science. Some twelve years ago it occurred to those who had given attention to the cultivation of the soil, feeding of stock, growing of fruit and other farm crops, that the most important department of the farm—the homestead—should receive some special attention; so provision was made for the establishment of Women's Institutes. The objects as outlined in the rules and regulations are: "The dissemination of knowledge relating to domestic economy, including household architecture, with special attention to home sanitation; a better understanding of the economic and hygienic value of foods, clothing and fuel, and a more scientific care and training of children, with a view to raising the general standard of the health and morals of our people; or the carrying on of any line of work which has for its object the uplifting of the home, or the betterment of conditions surrounding rural life." The motto adopted by the organization conveys in a word its lofty objects. "For Home and Country."

While we are much impressed with the good which may be accomplished by the deliberations and action of conventions made up of representative women from a Province or State, and while we realize that they can accomplish desired results which can be achieved by no other means, we are convinced that a great influence can be exerted upon the individual in the home and upon the community by the establishment of local organizations. Through these we can reach the people who are in greatest need of direction as to the training of children, the comparative value of foods, beautification of the homestead, the introduction of wholesome literature, fostering of a community spirit, etc. By affording the residents of the country districts an opportunity to meet together periodically, say once a month, for the discussion of their everyday affairs in their own way, you are placing them in a position to derive great benefit by an interchange of ideas and experiences, and you have a local organization through which you can teach the individual and the family those truths which are essential to the best living.

It might be of interest to you to know something as to the details of this organization. We encourage the establishment of these local societies wherever a small number of women, say fifteen or twenty, can be induced to pay the membership fee of 25 cents, and hold at least four meetings each year. We require them to report to the district secretary regularly, and each branch in a riding is asked to send representatives, based upon the number of their members, to a central meeting, for the purpose of electing district officers through whom the Department carries on correspondence regarding the work of the district.

The Provincial Department of Agriculture devotes \$9,000 to \$10,000 a year to the work of the Women's Institutes of the Province. The Farmers' Institutes and the Women's Institutes are encouraged to co-operate in holding one or two meetings at each

place each year. It is impossible, therefore, for us to state just what funds are devoted to the Women's Institutes and what amount exclusively to the Farmers' Institutes. When joint meetings are held it is usual for the men and women to have separate sessions in the afternoon and a joint meeting in the evening.

A small grant of \$3 is given to each Institute which lives up to the regulations laid down by the Department. Then an additional grant is given to the district officers to carry on the work of a district nature, such as advertising the regular series of meetings held in conjunction with the Farmers' Institutes, or a separate series, to defray the expenses of district officers in visiting branches and in extending the work to new centres, etc.

The speakers sent out by the Department to these meetings are for the most part persons who have had special training along some definite line, and who have also been a success in a practical way. A great many domestic science graduates are employed, while others who have had special training in dairying, fruit-growing, etc., are engaged.

The extent of the work may be judged from the fact that in the ninety-one districts in which organization has been effected, there are 525 branches with a membership of over 13,000 women.

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### POULTRY KEEPING AS A BUSINESS FOR WOMEN.

By MISS NELLY EDWARDS, Coaley Poultry Farm,  
Gloucestershire, England.

Poultry keeping in England has made great strides during the last 20 years, which is testified by the large increase in the number of its newspapers, clubs and societies, while during this time the poultry exhibitions held annually have been more than doubled in number. There is, however, room for an enormous increase in the production of eggs and table poultry, as may be seen by the returns for 1908, which showed that the wholesale value of eggs and poultry consumed in the United Kingdom during the year was upwards of 20 millions sterling, of which home production formed three-fifths and colonial and foreign imports two-fifths.

Here in Canada and in the United States it is evident that poultry ranches for the production of eggs and table birds are run on a far larger scale than any in Europe, as here the hatching, rearing and fattening are done at the same establishment, while in England fattening is chiefly carried on in one district, that of Surrey and Sussex, and those who rear on a big scale frequently sell direct to the fatteners, who cram the birds and despatch tons of dead poultry to London every week.

In England we have many large farms working at pure-bred poultry for the sale of sittings of eggs, newly hatched chicks, and high-class birds for exhibition, also for stock at home and abroad.

During my recent visits to France and Belgium, with a view to gaining in these countries experience in the methods of poultry

production, it was found that large poultry farms were almost unknown, but that every cottager who possessed the facilities for so doing kept fowls, and this fact, added to a good system of collection, accounted for the large extent of the annual exports.

In view of this, when reading a paper at the National Poultry Conference held at Reading in July, 1907, I submitted the following resolution, which was unanimously passed and was placed before the Board of Agriculture:

“That in order to further develop poultry keeping by cottagers in rural districts, this Conference suggests that ladies of influence in each village should afford an example by the adoption of better methods of poultry culture. (1) By supplying their poorer neighbours with eggs for hatching, of varieties of fowls specially suited to the local conditions and market requirements, at low prices; (2) or by giving sittings of eggs, for each of which a chicken should be returned as payment when the birds are ten weeks old; (3) and that prizes be offered at village shows or fêtes for the best dozen white or brown eggs and for the best table fowl.”

The part now taken by women in the poultry industry is considerable; many are engaged as instructors for County Councils; some are in charge of the poultry departments in the various Agricultural Schools and Institutes, and many are employed privately. The best paid private posts are for the experienced woman, well up in exhibition or utility poultry, when kept on a very large scale. The salaries are lower for those who have fewer birds to look after and have to fill in time with work in the garden, dairy or house.

The number of lady fanciers increases each year, and several are judges at some of our largest and most important exhibitions.

Some people imagine it is a very easy matter to run a large poultry business without any knowledge or experience, but it is unwise to plunge into any work of which one is totally ignorant, and money spent in learning the subject is well invested. The best training school to choose is where a successful business has been established; there all reliable appliances will be in use, the most profitable stock raised, and general management will be seen at its best.

There are, of course, many branches of poultry keeping which can be taken up as a business according to the available resources. The production of fresh eggs, table chickens and ducks can easily be made successful under the conditions available for the daughters of farmers and those who own land. Their opportunities are unequalled, land is to be had practically rent free for fowls, as they may run where sheep and cattle graze. On farms where corn is grown they have reduced prices to pay for food, and in the autumn the fowls and their houses can be placed out on the stubble after the harvest, where no food need be given, as they find all they require.

For those who are taking house and land solely for poultry breeding, with frequently high rent to pay, then a combination of fancy and utility undoubtedly brings the best financial results. Of

this branch I have had 15 years' experience. The business was at first built up by advertisement; afterwards, when on a good basis, it was found that about two-thirds of the orders came through recommendation and one-third through advertisement. The sales consist of newly hatched chicks, sittings of eggs, pure bred birds for stock, exhibition and export. After the close of the hatching season fresh eggs are sold when prices are high, and when low preserved in water glass and sold in winter at a good profit, but of course at a lower rate than fresh eggs. The beginning was difficult, but once the initial difficulties are overcome, the work is one in which fresh interests are constantly awakened, and on account of the variations in the different seasons of the year it never becomes monotonous.

In this kind of work the stock selected with which to start should be one or more of the most popular varieties—birds with useful qualities, and those most in demand are good layers and good table birds combined. The use of trap nests is indispensable to determine the best layers and to know the progeny of the prize winners. It is desirable to specialize in one or two varieties rather than to keep half a dozen when starting. The trade now done in England in newly hatched chicks is extensive. The system originated in France and twenty years ago was but little known in England. Chicks are frequently booked for despatch long before they are hatched, and only the most reliable incubators should be used, or disappointments may be numerous. From December to June I have 26 constantly at work which hold 3,000 eggs. Results will be best from eggs three to five days old, for although hens are able to hatch somewhat stale eggs, incubators do not succeed well with them. The chicks are ready for despatch as soon as perfectly dry and strong on the leg. Any not strong are likely to be crushed by the others, as it is necessary to pack in the order in which they are hatched, as a few hours makes a great difference in the strength and ability to stand and walk. It is quite marvelous how well they travel and what long journeys they are able to accomplish quite satisfactorily.

I send away several hundreds a week during the hatching season, and in despatching once to a remote part of Ireland, through delay at some of the junctions, the chicks were three nights and two days in their box, but all arrived safely and did well, which shows that at such an early age warmth is the chief element needed; the yoke of the egg absorbed by the chick before it leaves the shell provides the nutriment necessary for forty-eight or even more hours.

The best method of packing is in a box 10 inches long, 7 wide and 5 deep, each to contain 12 chicks; less are not enough to keep each other warm in cold weather, and if more are packed together some are likely to suffer. The box is lined with hay and forms a nest similar to that of a wild bird; in order to keep the nest the required shape the corners are stuffed with paper, so that the chicks cannot get into them and be crushed. A piece of flannel is

attached with tacks to the four corners of the upper part of the box, resting on the back of the chicks, keeping them warm and comfortable, and in the event of the box being overturned in transit prevents their coming into contact with the hard lid. The sides of the box should be half an inch lower than the ends to provide ventilation; the air then passes under the lid and over the flannel. Should there be any delay in transit during intensely cold weather, and the chicks arrive seeming somewhat lifeless, they should be immediately placed near the fire and thoroughly warmed, and afterwards will show no ill effects for being delayed *en route*. When a brood is ordered with a hen the chicks should be packed as described and the box tied to the inside of a hamper with the hen beside it; she hears the chicks and thus keeps quiet on the journey. Losses very rarely occur, and one year, in sending 1,000 to one man, only eight had to be replaced. Ducklings may be sent in the same way and travel equally well. There is little doubt that in the course of time the sale of newly hatched chicks will quite supersede that of sittings of eggs, which so often proves disappointing both to the vendor and purchaser. One can sometimes send several dozen eggs across the Channel and every one hatches, while others from the same birds, laid about the same time, sent a few miles by rail, give the poorest results. The first lot escapes the sudden jar or jolt which the second lot receives, by which they are rendered useless for incubation. In the case of people who are still under the erroneous impression that chicks hatched artificially are not as strong as those hatched in the natural way, plenty of broody hens should be set as soon as these are obtainable. From February on, the best method of setting these is in weather-proof boxes properly made for the purpose and well ventilated, put out on the ground in the open air; after each lot has hatched the range of boxes is moved to a fresh spot and incubation starts again with another lot of hens. The returns are speedy from the sales of sittings of eggs and newly hatched chicks, and the more valuable the stock from which they are sold, naturally the higher the price; and chicks usually realize double the price of eggs.

A certain number of birds may be reared for stock and sale, according to one's requirements and the size of the business, these being retained at all events until old enough to determine their value. Hatching for exhibition should begin with the first day of the new year, and all cockerels not likely to realize at least 7/6 when six months old are best killed and sold for the table early, when a good price is obtainable for a spring chicken. There are many who think that several winners are to be had from a single dozen of eggs or chickens, but there are few varieties in which one out of every 12 will prove a prize-taker. The chicks both for stock and exhibition must be fed from the start on foods suitable for building up large frames; they must be kept growing, and when the new feathers begin to appear in which they will be shown, then shading commences for those varieties needing it, as buff birds fade in the sun and white ones become tanned. As much liberty as is

possible under the circumstances must be allowed until about a month before showing, when birds can be put up in cages and tamed in readiness for exhibiting.

With success at the largest shows comes the greatest financial returns. The winners, if sold, frequently realize high prices, from £5 even to £100, and in one case £175 was paid for a single bird. It will therefore be seen that it pays best to keep the best, as winning at shows means high prices for good birds and is a great advertisement.

I have sent to all parts of the world: one consignment of 40 fowls and ducks to Australia, 120 last summer to the Argentine, 76 this year to British Columbia, and in all cases they have travelled well; it is quite rare for any to come to grief on long voyages. Climatic changes do not appear to upset them, as they lay even in the great heat of the Red Sea.

The shipping charges to far distant places being considerable, only really good specimens of their kind are usually in demand. The shipping is quite simple, light coops of  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch wood with strong frames are best, the size depending on the number of birds to be sent, the height always to be sufficient, so that when crowing the combs of the birds will not come in contact with the roof. The front of the coop is made half of wire netting and half of spars, and outside the sparred half the drinking trough is hung. The floor should be double, so that the top part can be withdrawn. The bedding is of peat in which plenty of flint grit is thrown, and the food for the voyage is grain. The butcher on board takes good care of the birds and lands them safely at the port of destination.

To summarize then, the opportunities of women in poultry breeding are:

1. It is work for the woman at home.
2. It offers openings for women in both public and private appointments.
3. It affords advantages as a business in table poultry and egg-production to the daughters of farmers and others who have land at their disposal.
4. It can be made a successful financial business by women who take land solely for the work of fancy and utility poultry breeding.

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## HORTICULTURE AS A PROFESSION FOR WOMEN.

By H. W. R. STRONG, California. U.S.A.

Strictly speaking, all soil cultivation comes under the head of agriculture—soil preparation, seed planting in large fields, harvesting and all stock raising and feeding; while horticulture is defined as “cultivation of gardens,” and floriculture as “the cultivation of flowering plants.” In practise at the present time one may note an evolutionary process going on; the soil cultivation that refers to grain, stock, etc., is called farming, while fruit and nut raising in orchards is horticulture—quite a step up—and floriculture,

decorative horticulture, is considered only as appealing to the æsthetic, and is classed with the artistic, requiring higher skill and less land.

The adaptability of women to become cultivators of the soil is not an open question. History discloses to us the fact that agriculture was developed by women, who were the first inventors of agricultural implements. In the north of Europe and in the north-western portions of our own country, among the Finns, the seed grain is still in the hands of old women who are skilled in selecting the best, and who give it out for planting.

There are enough successful women engaged in horticultural pursuits in California to prove their adaptability, but not enough to make a class. For example, a banker's wife near San Francisco was left penniless and widowed, without skill or means of livelihood, except eighty acres of land supposed to be useless. This land she converted into a flower farm that made her independent, and gave employment to many laborers, men and women. Another city woman planted out a deciduous orchard of four hundred acres. The delicate and refined wife of a lawyer, in declining health, began to cultivate a few town lots, raising flowers, bulbs and seeds, which she sold to good advantage. From that beginning she made herself famous as a florist and issued her own catalogue. Her first offers of seeds were refused by a professional florist in an eastern city on the ground that they could not be first-class if raised by a woman. This woman's life was prolonged fifteen or twenty years by her new interest in life.

Quite our best known woman in these lines is a Philadelphian, who is horticulturist and agriculturist as well. She counts her acres by the thousand and her industries by the score. She is an authority on grape culture, the raising and curing of all kinds of deciduous fruit; her horses are furnished to the San Francisco Fire Department, and she is asked to give lectures at Farmers' Institutes on the best methods of caring for cattle.

Women in all parts of the State have made good records in financing their business—making loans when necessary for improvements, keeping up interest, and, in some instances, paying off mortgages where property was left already encumbered. Women are natural financiers or they could not in everyday life, as most women are obliged to, make one dollar do the work of two. In this profession technical skill is as requisite as financial. Happily the day is past for planting a seed or a tree and then letting Nature do the rest. Technical knowledge in the past has been gained in the school of hard experience.

The subject of equipment, then, is of paramount importance! The successes of those I mentioned were due to a development of unusual talents, amounting almost to genius. How can the average woman be induced to succeed in horticulture? The logic of present conditions in America proves the necessity for technical agricultural schools for girls, so that the great economic force now unemployed, the brain power and talents of women overlooked and

neglected, may be turned in the direction of soil cultivation. In this women should help. The numbers of great fortunes left in the hands of women for employment should be used to establish technical schools and colleges where others might be taught to help themselves.

In such ways what classes would be benefited?

First, those who so invest their money.

Secondly, the woman of smaller means would learn to employ her capital in a manner to call forth her own energy and ability now dormant.

Thirdly, farmers' wives, that large class whose lives are the "greatest tragedy" in modern life. Technical skill in the matters about them would annihilate the conditions now surrounding them.

Fourthly, farmers' daughters, who fly to the city to escape from a fate similar to the mothers'. These girls alone could revolutionize country life, after becoming skilled in the technical schools in the care and cultivation of seeds, plants, trees, nursery stock, in budding, grafting, hybridizing, irrigation, etc. Should a girl so trained become a farmer's wife, her knowledge of the best and highest methods of one branch of rural experience would reduce drudgery in all branches; and her profession of flower and fruit culture would more than provide the means of assistance in the domestic sphere, which would thus make her life a dream of independent comfort and happiness, so that she could never be brought into the condition of unpaid, unassisted slavery, which is the penalty of ignorant helplessness at the present time.

The use of irrigation, water artificially applied, reduces the acreage under cultivation, while the value of products in the same ratio is increased. The modern farmer, under these conditions, becomes a brain worker.

"He who by the plow would thrive  
Must either hold the plow or drive,"

is no longer the golden rule in soil cultivation. He becomes a brain worker, or remains one. The horticulturist must be supplied with good practical sense or knowledge.

In the first place, and before we have the colleges and schools, is the purchase and improvement of land a good investment for a woman with idle money? I say yes, in localities and under conditions where men are making money in this line.

Secondly, shall the woman with land left her sell it and invest the money in interest-bearing securities and live on a reduced income? I say to her, No! Keep your land; improve it; make it do your work and earn your money for you.

But what shall the woman herself do to this end? Study, think, act intelligently; use judgment, study soil conditions and quality. Have, if possible, the soil examined, and learn what it is best adapted for; what crops can be successfully grown. Then set to work to master every detail of the business undertaken. Develop the reasoning faculties. Put as much thought into the

trees as would have been used in the old days to develop a new spring outfit.

In starting out to develop one's land one must be very certain as to finances. It is a safe rule never to borrow money unless to put in the land upon which it is borrowed. This is approved of by money lenders and gives the person following it better financial standing. It is also well to state that everything kept in perfect order helps one's credit wonderfully. Good housekeeping habits are quite as important out of doors as in.

This leads on to the hiring of laborers. A woman who has had experience with cooks and waitresses will find the same problems with orchard hands and stablemen; and the woman gifted with generalship will find ample opportunity for its application.

The first three years I spent at Ranchito del Fuerte were busy ones indeed. Between sixteen and seventeen thousand trees and plants were set out. The trees were chiefly walnuts, and should the rows be placed side by side they would reach twenty-five miles. Since then have been added Valencia and Washington navel oranges, as it has been proved more profitable to have a diversity of crops, in order to give employment to a good class of workmen throughout the year; but chiefly on account of the uncertainty of markets. If the price of oranges is low one year, the price of walnuts is almost sure to be high.

These lessons from my own experience, although learned in that land of sunshine and flowers with "Nature in her kindest mood." can be applied anywhere that a plant will grow, or where water will irrigate. The questions are practically the same—thinking, observing, acting, must still be done.

The 220 acres with which I began I continually added to by purchase until in twelve years there were 1,389 acres under my control in different tracts. On one of these I drilled seven artesian wells and with the water so developed I opened up to cultivation 1,000 acres of dry land within six miles of Los Angeles. Besides this, oil wells were drilled on property in the hills, and on both tracts pumping plants were erected. All these varied activities were carried on under my personal supervision.

At the present time I have reduced the land in my possession through sales to 356 acres. Thus you will see that my part has been that of owner and general operator with land as a basis. The financing has been a large part. To purchase the 1,000 acres and build a pipe line four miles long in order to carry the water from my artesian wells to the tract, it was necessary to issue bonds. This was done successfully and to satisfactory ends. The greatest lesson learned in all this series of experiments was, that after all horticulture and its collateral branches is not only a profession but is also a business of a complicated nature. It involves financing, investments, purchasing, selling; and with all, executive ability in handling the employed; nor can any one of these be treated lightly, or as of little importance.

Training schools to teach the mysteries of plant life, and how to bring them into economical relations to man, and then how to make this knowledge give the boy and girl students the wherewithal to live, would be a great boon to all classes; and I confidently expect in the near future to see this idea carried out everywhere that there is land to cultivate; all we need are a few working models. Then the question now often asked, "What shall we do with our girls?" can be answered: Let them be trained in horticulture.

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### DAIRY FARMING AND LECTURING FOR WOMEN IN GREAT BRITAIN.

By MISS HESTER F. LEAVER, Leatheringsett, England.

Among the many ways which are now open to women for earning a livelihood, dairy farming is an important one, and in the hands of a capable woman is more remunerative than many others. Lack of training, lack of method, plodding perseverance and above all lack of common-sense, are insuperable hindrances where they exist. But given the above named necessary qualifications, and throw in health, energy and sufficient capital to start with, also a true love for the work, a young woman may not only support herself in comfort, but may also lay by against sickness or old age. The training is a most important point and is not difficult to obtain now that there are so many schools and colleges run for the purpose. After a year or two or three at one of these places, the student should try to get work on some farm where she may see the daily round of work for herself. This is not always so easy a matter, as men never like a woman about, but it is possible and should be tried for, as it is really very different working in a model school and on a real farm.

It is also necessary that some knowledge of poultry and pig keeping should be acquired, while bees and a garden can also be made profitable.

The first thing to do is to look out for a suitable farm. It must be situated within an easy distance of the town where produce is to be marketed; a good water supply is also essential both in the buildings and meadows; the land must be good, and buildings, gates and hedges should be in good repair.

It is always best to start on a small scale and work up by degrees. A farm of 20 acres pasture will take five cows, and roots and straw would have to be bought in, but that is better than undertaking arable land to start with, which would mean much more labour and experience. The other stock on such a farm might consist of two breeding sows, about 100 head of fowl, a pony to take the produce in to market, and five stock ducks. To work this only one boy, a strong boy, aged 16 or 17, will be required to help with the rough work.

The next thing to do is to settle on what particular branch of dairy work one's efforts are to be concentrated. Retail milk pays

by far the best, besides requiring less time and less outlay on utensils than does butter-making or cream cheeses. It is, however, not always possible to get a good milk round, or perhaps only a small round can be worked up. Then it is that attention may profitably be turned to that rather neglected branch of the dairy—I mean the manufacture of soft or fancy cheeses. This is in every way suited for women's work, in that it does not entail heavy labour and is one of those occupations that pays well for any little imagination and daintiness with which the cheeses are prepared for market; the returns are good and only a portion of the day need be devoted to this work. Perhaps the greatest drawback to soft cheese making is the difficulty of finding a regular market, in which case it is better to turn one's attention to butter making, which also means skim milk for pigs and calf rearing. The outlay for utensils in this case would come to a total of about £15, which would include a churn, worker and separator. This means regular separating of the milk twice a day, and the devotion of the greater part of one or two days a week to churning. Every pound of butter requires on an average three gallons of milk, and if we compare the profits of both it will be seen at once that the sale of milk pays far better. However, butter can be made to pay if it is of first rate quality and can always be depended upon. Besides, there are the pigs and calves to be counted in, and these come off badly if all the whole milk is disposed of. Of course the question of butter, milk or cheese must be decided upon before buying the stock and utensils, or even before choosing the farm, according to markets, etc.

In any case the cows must be of a good stock and should be chosen for milk or cream accordingly; the poultry also should be those which will prove either prolific layers or good table fowls. It is not easy to lay down a hard and fast rule as to the amount of capital that will be required for starting a farm, but in no case would it be safe to start the venture with less than £200 capital, and if there will be a small assured income for the first few years, so much the better.

When once the farm is in full swing many other ways will suggest themselves by which a little extra money may be brought in. For instance, supplying nurseries with milk in sealed bottles from one particular cow, selling ordinary and double Devonshire cream, etc. A postal connection may also be worked up, for hampers to regular customers make quite a good business, especially if assorted stuff can be sent, such as fowls, eggs, butter, cream, cream cheese, honey, etc.

If a girl has no capital to invest and does not wish to take a post as dairy maid (of which there are always plenty of good ones open), she may turn her mind to lectureships. Lectureships under the County Councils are to a certain extent limited, but are increasing yearly. Those who apply for them need to be well trained at some recognized school, and hold some well known certificate or diploma—the British Dairy Farmer's or National Dairy

Diploma, or the equivalent certificate of their dairy school. Applicants are often required to have some knowledge of actual farming life, but this depends again on the county itself. Often poultry and bee keeping are also necessary. A great part of the year is taken up with demonstrations and lectures in different parts of the county; some give itinerant poultry lectures during the winter six months. Some of the best posts give the resident instructress £150 to £200 per year, while the assistant gets £80 to £100. Travelling expenses are also paid, and board and lodging when journeying round to give lectures or to judge at shows. The head lecturers in schools and colleges do not often receive more than £200 salary. Of course there are regular holidays, which to many would prove an attraction; but for myself, I vastly prefer a little dairy farm of my own.

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### WOMEN GARDENERS IN GREAT BRITAIN.

By Miss F. R. WILKINSON, Principal of the Horticultural College, Swanley, England.

We all know gardening for women is no new occupation. for "God Almighty first planted a garden" and made the first man and his wife the first gardeners, and all the ages since good husbandry and well-kept homes have required the help of women as well as of men.

Now at the beginning of the twentieth century the love and interest in gardening has grown so much during the last few years that we find women successfully employed as salaried gardeners, market gardeners, fruit growers, etc. But it is only since 1891 that women have been able to obtain in Great Britain systematic theoretical and practical horticultural instruction in the same way as men. In that year the Horticultural College, Swanley, which was founded in 1889 for men, was the first institution to throw open its doors to them; and so much was this privilege appreciated and the numbers increased so rapidly, that by 1902 there were 70 women students in residence and it was found desirable to take women only as pupils and no more male students were admitted.

The aim was to provide such a systematic training for women in the various branches of horticulture and lighter departments of agriculture as would enable those who wished to lead a healthy open-air life either to undertake the management of their own property, obtain salaried posts, start rural industries, or spread a love of natural history in villages. Later a Colonial Branch was opened, where those whose duties or inclinations took them away from the "Old Country" could specially fit themselves for life under different conditions.

The example of Swanley in admitting women to the horticultural course was followed by University College, Reading, and the Royal Botanic Gardens, London. Other colleges where women can receive horticultural training are the Essex County School of Horticulture, Chelmsford, and Studley College, Warwickshire.

At most of the above institutions the instruction given combines a training in the scientific principles and in the practice of gardening which will enable the students to adopt the newest methods of cultivation in fruit, flower and vegetable growing, both for home use and the supply of the markets, and thereby increase the quality and quantity of the produce grown. Great stress is laid on the care of orchards—on the planting, pruning and spraying of fruit trees, the study of plant diseases and insect pests, and the best means of combating them so as to obtain the greatest returns. A specialty is made of the packing and marketing of produce for those who wish to take up the work commercially. Visits are arranged to farms, gardens, markets, poultry farms, etc., where up-to-date methods can be studied in the working. Floral arrangements and decorations are taught, and other subjects taken are bookkeeping, manual training, dairying, bee keeping, poultry keeping, and fruit and vegetable preserving and bottling.

Diplomas and certificates are awarded at the end of the courses, which last one, two or three years. There are also short courses in the above subjects lasting from three to ten weeks.

The fees, which vary at the different colleges, are as follows:

For tuition, board and cubicle, from £60 to £89 per annum.

For tuition, board and single room, from £80 to £150 per annum.

For out-students, tuition only, from £10 to £40 per annum.

For short courses, from 25/ a week.

These fees will appear high to those living on this side of the Atlantic, where both in Canada and the United States the agricultural colleges receive such substantial aid from the Federal and Provincial Governments. But it must be remembered that in Great Britain little State help is given to agricultural, still less to horticultural, education, so that the fees of students have to defray the expenses of the course.

To show that some of the hopes of the early friends of the new movements have been fulfilled, one need only point to the many women who have been trained at horticultural colleges who are now happily and usefully settled in the Old Country and in all parts of the world.

Some have returned to their own homes, where they are able to put the knowledge they have gained to practical use in superintending the work on the home farm, garden, orchard, dairy, etc. Others have taken posts as head gardeners, garden instructors and lecturers in gardening, or started market and nursery gardens.

As the demand for fresh fruit and vegetables is a steadily increasing one, fruit farming and market gardening offer good openings for those who are skilled and have business capacity. In connection with fruit growing, bee keeping is strongly recommended, being one of the most remunerative small industries in connection with rural life, and the introduction of bees has been proved to increase the yield of orchards enormously. Jam-making and fruit bottling or canning may also be profitably undertaken

in connection with a fruit farm, as in a year of glutted markets the fruit may be preserved for winter use.

Two of the successful graduates from the colleges are acting as garden designers and architects, having, after completion of their college course, entered an architect's or surveyor's office. One holds the post of landscape gardener to the Metropolitan Public Gardens' Association, and superintends the carrying out of the work and the planting in connection with the plans she has designed for the laying-out of disused churchyards and other grounds as open spaces for the public.

Several are doing well, especially in the suburbs of large towns, as visiting gardeners. They undertake the care of small gardens by the month or year; the taste, knowledge and neatness shown in their work make them much sought after.

Others find employment in travelling about to advise on the renovation of old orchards and gardens, staying sometimes several weeks and personally superintending and helping with the work to be done.

Some are employed as instructors and lecturers at the different women's gardening colleges in Great Britain, and others have started small schools of their own.

Several hold posts as head gardener and garden mistress at large girls' schools, where they have from two to thirty acres of pleasure grounds to look after. Often there is an orchard and kitchen garden and a household of over 100 persons to be supplied with fruit and vegetables. The gardener is expected to give horticultural lectures to the pupils and sometimes to take the botany classes.

Other institutions where a woman head gardener and instructor is employed are at sanatoria for consumptives, lunatic asylums, inebriate, epileptic and convalescent homes. The medical faculty now recognize the benefit to be obtained by patients from properly regulated work out of doors.

A well-known commercial firm has successfully employed a woman as hybridizer.

In some cases friends have joined forces and set up as nursery growers, market gardeners, bulb, violet or carnation specialists, jam makers and poultry keepers, selling their produce locally to a neighbouring town or sea coast resort, or by parcel post.

Amongst those holding posts out of England, one is head gardener in Canada and another is helping her father with the management of a fruit farm in Nova Scotia. Another has the charge of three large school gardens in a town in South Africa, which she has laid out and planted. One is apiarist at a State Farm in New Zealand. Two are lecturers on gardening at schools in Germany, another has started a small horticultural school in Switzerland, and yet another a similar one in Sweden.

One of the most promising openings for women who have received a college training is as teachers of nature study in both primary and secondary schools, especially in rural districts. The

Mistress is required to give instruction on life and growth of plants, habits of birds, insects and animals, and the children are taken rambles and shown how to study animal and plant life in their natural surroundings, and local peculiarities of soil and climate. Lessons are given in the practical cultivation of fruit trees, vegetables, and flowers in school gardens, combined with visits to places of interest in the neighbourhood.

With such instruction children should become more observant and attracted by the romance of country life.

The difficulty in all countries is to find the teacher with the requisite knowledge of natural history, and in order to encourage students to go through a course of special study in the subject, the Board of Education at Whitehall has recognized Swanley College as a place where such a training may be taken.

Amongst the results of this new career for women it may be pointed out that fascinating and engrossing outdoor occupations have been opened out for them which are good for their mental and physical development; a life which is "immensely enjoyable," as one writes who has tried it; that some of the overcrowded women's callings have been relieved; and that, last but not least, a national work has thus been inaugurated which will help them to become healthy and strong citizens, both in mind and body, counteract the injurious effects of town life, and train them in habits of accuracy, carefulness, foresight, neatness, punctuality, reliance and thrift.

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## WOMEN IN AGRICULTURE AND HORTICULTURE.

By EDWARD FIGDOR, Esq., Austria.

Being a land owner and farmer in Austria, I have an accurate knowledge of the state of agriculture in that country as well as of horticulture, in which I am also engaged on rather a large scale. Of one thousand individuals in Austria there are employed in agriculture and horticulture 492 men and 508 women. It has also been ascertained by statistics that of those, 115 per cent. of women and 885 per cent. of men carry on their business on their own account.

In Austria there are several ladies who are landed proprietors. In consequence of the large dimensions of their estates it will be readily understood that they cannot do the farm labour themselves.

But the small farmers and peasants are generally assisted by their wives and daughters. Men rarely cultivate their own gardens; it is their duty to do the hard work on the fields and in the woods. The housekeeping, the care of the stables, the garden and the poultry yard, devolve upon the women.

As, besides her numerous other duties, the farmer's wife has often also to bring up a large family, a heavy burden weighs upon her shoulders. Women day labourers are frequently employed by the large land owners, and their wages vary between 60 hellers

and 1 crown and 60 hellers; that is in American currency, 12 cents and 32 cents a day.

Systematic teaching of agriculture and horticulture for women is still wanting, and only a few courses have been held. But next year a women's school for horticulture, comprising a three years' course, will be opened; the terms will be 300 crowns, or \$50 per annum.

The teaching of agriculture for women is somewhat better provided for; in some of the Provinces there are agricultural schools for women, and teachers of agriculture go lecturing from one village to the other, which has also proved very useful.

There are courses arranged by our horticultural societies; for instance, there is one held in Vienna, in spring, for the term of six weeks, in which women have the opportunity of acquiring such knowledge as will be useful to them in their work. Courses on the cultivation of fruit are held in Klosterneuburg and in Gumpoldskirchen and are well attended.

It is a pity that the large nursery gardeners employ mostly men, while only work of a subordinate kind is given to women. Why is this? I suppose because it is an ancient custom. According to my observations a woman is a great deal more patient than a man; nature has gifted her with much more love for and perseverance in anything she has taken in hand, and yet the large florists employ women but rarely. Their delicate hands and small fingers seem to be formed for accurate work requiring minute treatment. I allude, for instance, to the procedure of grafting and of improving the plants. A great deal of patience and perseverance is necessary for grafting a thousand roses in one day, and I maintain that this work must be performed just as carefully and precisely as the embroidering of a cushion.

I, for my part, am contemplating with the greatest pleasure every opportunity afforded to the Austrian women of receiving a thorough theoretic training in horticulture, and I am certain that such a training will enable them to attain the same degree of excellence in horticultural work as up to this time has been reserved to men.

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## THE WOMEN'S AGRICULTURAL AND HORTICULTURAL UNION.

Read by MISS EMMA SHAFER HOWARD, California, U.S.A.

It is particularly suitable that a report of this organization should be given at the meeting now held, since it owes its existence to a suggestion made by Mrs. Emma Shafter Howard, who attended the Quinquennial meetings in London in June, 1899.

In the following October the first formal meeting was called by the lady who had volunteered to act as temporary Honorary Secretary; by that time 40 members had been enrolled. A Council and an Executive Committee were elected.

The Council met for the first time in January, 1900, when rules were drafted. Mrs. Alec Tweedie represented the Union this year at an International Congress held in Paris. That year also the first leaflet was published, and at the second Council meeting it was decided to enlarge this and print it in French and English; also arrangements were made for regulation of the employment department. The names of two Canadian ladies were placed on the Council.

In the following year its Honorary Secretary, Miss T. W. Powell, represented the Society at an International Exhibition held in Glasgow, taking photographs of members' farms and gardens and specimens of the literature of the Union. Also in that year Miss Wilkinson and she visited the United States, seeing some of the members there and enlisting others. In the following years exhibits were collected and sent by the Union to exhibitions at Cork, Düsseldorf and Madrid. A medal was granted to the exhibits at this last show, the first of its kind ever held in Spain.

In 1904 the first sale of members' produce was organized and held in the gardens of the Royal Botanic Society, Regent's Park, in July.

In 1907 a large, well organized show was got up by a special sub-committee, which by months of steady work made a success of the effort; and it may now be fairly said that this show of produce from the farms and gardens of women has become a yearly affair much looked forward to. Exhibitors are allowed to sell their produce and take orders, so that the occasion is really valuable to them from that point of view, as well as for the opportunity of competing for the prizes offered.

At the time of writing the Union has still its centre in 64 Lower Sloane St., London, England, and the bulk of its members live and work in the United Kingdom; but there are scattered members in France, Holland, Germany, Switzerland, India, South Africa, the United States, Canada, New Zealand, and one is in Australia.

This year it has been necessary to appoint a special Show Secretary, the office work having so much increased.

The Council meets twice yearly, and an annual meeting is held in the autumn, when a report is read of the year's progress, and one or two papers read or speeches made by experts on some branches of farm or garden work likely to be useful to working members.

The work carried on by the officials at home consists in advising about training, finding or suggesting suitable employment for those who have trained; dissuading the unfit, helping to sell produce, or directing beginners how to prepare and present it for sale.

There being somewhat of a "boom" in the line of women's taking up outdoor work, numbers of very ignorant or very unsuitable persons are inclined to rush into it; and the secretaries have to spend a very considerable amount of time in trying to point

out the certainty of disaster to ladies who fondly imagine that they can make a living from cultivating Mother Earth for the space of two hours a day: or that fruit plantations will not bring in a living income three months after planting.

Much has also to be done in the way of teaching method to those who are starting on business careers after former leisure; this is done by correspondence, personal interviews, putting producers and consumers in direct touch where possible; also by the sales and shows, to which allusion has already been made.

It may give some idea of the varied lines of industry in which our members are engaged, to mention the classes for which prizes are offered at the show to be held at the Royal Botanic Gardens in July next. There are collections of cut flowers, roses, sweet peas, carnations, rock plants; various sections for fruit, hardy and hot-house grown; and for vegetables and salads. Butter, cream, raw and clotted; cheeses, hard and soft; dressed poultry, eggs, honey, preserves of all sorts, bread, ham and bacon (these last three all home-made or home-cured). There are competitions for garden designs; for papers on certain practical aspects of farming or gardening, and then a section for live poultry and rabbits.

And now a word must be said to our sisters of Canada, the States, or any other countries here present. We would like all of you who are interested in culture of the land, or rearing of its products, to join the Union. The subscription is exceedingly small, so as to keep no one out. You can do much for the centre in England by making known openings and posts for our thronging women workers at home; and we can serve you, too, for if you want helpers of bone and muscle, and common-sense, we are more able to find the type required than other agencies where the secretaries do not come in direct touch with those persons, nor have themselves knowledge of the work, and so cannot sift the fit from the unfit among the hundreds who offer.

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### WOMEN AND THE FORESTS.

By JAMES LAWLER, Esq., Secretary Canadian Forestry Association.

At first sight it might appear that forestry was entirely outside of woman's sphere because of the rough character of the work in the woods. And undoubtedly on this side forestry has remained closed to women. But in another aspect forestry appeals to women quite as much as to men. Forestry means the development of forest resources to their highest point of productiveness, and along with that the saving of the streams and the soil; and by regulating the flow of water from the uplands it means the saving of water powers and the protection of inland navigation.

In the United States these facts have so powerfully affected a number of women that they have gone out as pioneers in the new work of conservation. Perhaps the first to enter this field was Miss Myra L. Dock, of Pennsylvania, who has become a lecturer

on this subject known all over the United States. Mrs. Lydia Adams-Williams, of Washington, Corresponding Secretary of the Women's National Press Association, has enthusiastically entered this field and become one of the Vice-Presidents of the Women's National Harbours and Rivers Congress, of which Mrs. Hoyle Tomkies, of Louisiana, is President. This Congress was started at Shreveport, Louisiana, in June, 1908, with seven members, and by January it had enrolled fifteen hundred members and was still growing. But the movement has grown beyond this and Mrs. Adams-Williams shows that through the General Federation of Women's Clubs and other organizations, a million women in the United States are now banded together for conservation.

In a nutshell the situation is this: In order to maintain the proper balance of nature the forest should cover the hills, mountains and sources of streams, and in addition there should be enough left on the arable lands to conserve moisture, to form windbreaks, and to give shelter to insectivorous birds, the best friends of the farmer. If this balance is destroyed, and forests are cut off at the sources of streams, there follows the flooding of the lowlands with the passing off of the snow every spring, and the drying up to nothingness of the streams during the rest of the year. The soluble elements in the soil are washed out into the ocean, destroying the fertility of the country, while the sand and gravel from the hills are washed down by the spring torrents over the fertile lowlands, covering them up and rendering them useless.

The forest can conquer every enemy but man; but up to the present man everywhere has ruthlessly cut and burned down the forests until whole regions once fertile have been turned into deserts. First, there is the loss of the timber itself and of all the revenue and trade therefrom. Taking Canada as a case in point, the revenues from timber received by Federal and Provincial Governments amount to \$4,500,000 per year, while the aggregate foreign and domestic trade in timber runs up to about a round million dollars per year. Since 1868 the export of forest products from Canada has been one-third greater than the export of farm products. Four hundred thousand people, or about 6 per cent. of our population, are dependent upon forest industries for their living. Besides this there is all the trade in supplying the lumberman and the work of transporting his products. The forest is the home of game birds, fish and animals, which means an immense revenue to Canada (estimated at \$75,000,000 per year) in food and furs and as an attraction to the tourist. Destroy the forest and all this is lost.

All history tells the same story. Northwestern China has been made a desert by clearing off the trees from the mountains, and *this desert is eating its way across the country*. Syria and Palestine cannot support a tithe of their former populations because of the desert conditions produced by the clearing of the forests (the cedars of Lebanon) from the mountains. Some of the Provinces

that were once the fairest in Spain are now almost unproductive for the same reason. In France, because of reckless cutting of mountain forests, not only are the mountains bare, but eight million acres of fertile lands in the valleys have been covered with debris brought down by the floods and rendered useless. The Government has spent \$40,000,000 and will have to spend \$100,000,000 more in partly repairing this waste.

This continent is younger, but it is using up its heritage with much greater rapidity and recklessness. Already the alarm has been sounded by ex-President Roosevelt, seconded by President Taft. Signs multiply which show the need of immediate action. Every spring hundreds of rivers overflow and flood the surrounding country. The Conservation Commission estimates the loss through floods to the United States at 238 million dollars per year, without counting the loss through depreciation of property, or the more important loss of life. The loss through erosion is even greater, and was put by the same body at 500 million dollars per year. This soil is washed away from the farms, where it is an absolute necessity, and passes into rivers and lakes, where it impedes navigation.

Looking at Canada, we can see what is happening all over the world where scientific methods of forestry have not yet been adopted. It is estimated that in the Ottawa Valley alone the annual loss from floods and following periods of low water is half a million dollars a year. One town alone, Port Hope, suffered a loss this spring of \$30,000 through flood, and every year the cities and towns along the Grand River and other rivers in spring have their waterworks rendered useless by floods and later suffer from lack of water.

The whole world is looking to hydro-electric power to supply it with light, heat and power to run its railways and smelt its ores. Taking Canada again as a case in point, it is to be noted that the greater part of the waterpowers are in the central part, where there is no coal. Mr. Cecil B. Smith, C.E., estimates that at the present time the waterpowers of Canada are saving two million tons of coal per annum, and that these powers will be trebled in the near future. But the measure of a waterpower is the lowest flow of the stream, and if the forests are cut away from the sources of the streams there will be no forest floor to retain the snows and rains and feed them regularly to the streams and in consequence the waterpowers will be reduced and in many cases disappear altogether.

Abandoned farms seem to belong to some far-away country, and it will surprise many to know that here, in rich and fertile southern Ontario, there are farms which have been worked for years and then abandoned by their owners. This was owing to the fact that these sand lands which grew magnificent forests and which were cleared at great cost of human energy are not fitted to grow anything else. Every country has such lands which should never have been allowed to become anything else

than forest lands. In Southern Ontario there are eight million acres fitted for nothing else than timber production. What can be done, what can the women do in this matter? First of all the public must be educated to the need for conservation. The moral side of forest destruction must be emphasized, and the public conscience awakened. People who would never do anything to endanger a neighbor's wood-shed are criminally careless about leaving fires or dropping lighted matches in the woods that may result in burning a hundred thousand dollars' worth of timber. Campers, tourists, miners, settlers, railway companies and their employees, and all who go into the woods must be got to realize the danger and the crime of starting a fire that may get out of control.

Everywhere the lesson is the same: Destroy the forest and the streams dry up after the spring floods and sterility follows; maintain the forest and the waterflow remains regular and productivity and prosperity continue.

I cannot close better than by quoting several paragraphs from an address by Mrs. Adams-Williams.

"Unless immediate, concerted and determined action is taken by women the forests will be gone and the waterpowers with them; the mothers and housewives of the next generation who will have to depend upon electricity generated by waterpower for heating and lighting their homes, for cooking and for other domestic purposes as well as for transportation, will face a scarcity of natural resources and a monopoly of what remains that will threaten the comfort, the life, the very existence even of those they love and care for.

"Far-reaching results may be accomplished speedily by women educating the men of their families to the work of conservation and the support of those who favor it. Then by inculcating in their children the precepts of economy in relation to natural resources, and by impressing them with the unselfish aim and the patriotic duty of elevating the nation to the highest plane of civilization, the motherhood of the country in a single generation may change the entire sentiment of the nation, and convert this people from the most wasteful and extravagant in the world to the most prudent and conservative."

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### THE WOMAN ATTORNEY AND COUNSELLOR.

By ELLEN SPENCER MUSSEY, LL.M., Dean of the Washington College of Law, U.S.A.

The statistics published by the United States Bureau of Education show that in 1908, 51 women were graduated in law, and received the degree of Bachelor of Law, while 447 women were enrolled as students in law. In England, while women are admitted at Oxford to the lectures at St. John's, the law college,

they cannot obtain the degree it is admitted they have earned. Neither are women admitted to the Law Courts. Grey's Inn has uniformly refused to consider women as applicants for admission to its sacred precincts. The benchers of Lincoln's Inn Court, while refusing admission to women, are considered quite liberal because they have given the use of their books and library to Miss Cornelia Sarabjii, a Hindu lawyer who took her degree from the Bombay University, and has since practised as an advocate in the courts of India. In Canada there are four women lawyers practising their profession, and Madame Henri Gerin Lajoie, daughter of Sir Alexander Lacosta, Chief Justice of the King's Bench, and Mrs. O. C. Edwards, have prepared handbooks of the laws in Canada that concern women.

In France women have met with a comparatively cordial welcome in the legal profession, and have in a few cases achieved distinction.

In the United States 36 women have been admitted to practise before the Supreme Court of the United States. Mrs. Belva A. Lockwood made the fight for woman's admission to this bar and also to the bar of the Court of Claims, U.S. and the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, U.S.A., and was the first one to be admitted in all these courts. Women are now admitted to practise in all the State Courts save Virginia and Georgia. Mrs. Ella Knowles Haskell was Assistant Attorney General for the State of Montana. Mrs. Catherine Waugh McCullough, of Chicago, is a Justice of the Peace, and has written several books on legal subjects. Miss Mary Ann Green, of Rhode Island, has written a book on Business Laws for Women, which is a favorite text-book in young women's schools. One woman, the writer of this address, founded in the Capital of the United States a law school "primarily for women, but admitting both men and women." She has been the Dean from the beginning and is proud of being the only woman Dean of a Law School. The College graduated in May last a class of 10 men and 6 women, and the enrolment of students the past year shows that the student body is composed equally of men and women. Miss Emina Gillett and Mr. Watson J. Newton, composing the well-known law firm of Newton & Gillett, were Mrs. Mussey's assistants in founding and carrying on the Washington College of Law. The faculty now numbers 18, of whom 4 are women.

With a personal experience of thirteen years in teaching law, and in the supervision of a law school, I can truthfully say that women have the same need for, and the same ability to master, the law that men have. The woman who wishes to-day to enter the legal profession is usually the superior of the man student. On the other hand the man has from his environment a knowledge of business life and business methods which makes the law as the rule of conduct more easily understood. But in scholarship the women usually outdistance the men.

Women have attained great success in the medical profession, partly because the need of woman as nurse and medical adviser for women and children was so obvious. It is true that the men in this profession have not generally been generous to their sister physicians.

There is an equal need for women in the profession of the Law. Women are "Those who bear the burden." She has outgrown, the world has outgrown, the conditions existing when the laws governing her and her children were first put on the statute books.

It is not accident that a large majority of the leaders of to-day are lawyers, or men that have studied law.

Women are becoming leaders and in no other way can they so well fit themselves for service either in the ranks or at the head as by the concentration and power that come from the study of law.

The woman attorney will not attain success by intermittent efforts or intention, but by hard study and constant hourly endeavour.

In the last decade the child and his rights are beginning to receive proper consideration. Laws to limit child labor, to compel school attendance, are receiving wide consideration. Juvenile Courts with probation officers are being established in all our great cities.

Under the general head of police power every municipality is being forced to take cognizance of unhygienic conditions affecting the lives of its citizens. What part is woman taking in all this? She is deeply interested and her voice is ever for progress, but the world does not move by prayer alone. There is no woman Judge of a Juvenile Court. There are very few women probation officers and everywhere the cry is for the woman who is thoroughly prepared for all this remedial work.

The old system of justice was to enforce penalties. The new idea is to remedy the evil, to begin with the child and in the home to prevent the growth of wrong conditions. This is the true idea of social service, but it requires intelligent preparation.

Women can succeed in the law, not only in the line of social service, but she can gain the emolument that men have gained in the profession. She must prepare herself thoroughly, and she must be a better lawyer, a harder worker, than her male competitor.

Best of all, however, is the opportunity for service to one's fellow-men.

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## WOMEN AS SHORTHAND-WRITERS AND TYPISTS.

By MISS NORAH E. GREEN, London, England.

Among the many professions now open to women the clerical profession is generally recognized as one which is pre-eminently

suiting to her capabilities. And that this is so is proved by the census of England and Wales for 1891, which gives the increase during the previous ten years in the number of women engaged in this profession at no less than 180%, and the ratio of female to male workers as having increased during the same period from 7.8% to 18%.

The clerical profession we may take as comprising many kinds of workers, from the typist in a large city copying office, whose essential qualifications may be said to be speed and accuracy, to the confidential private secretary, or the energetic organizing secretary, whose fertile brain is ever devising improved methods and new schemes of work in connection with her society.

To consider first the time required for training a shorthand writer and typist. At the best schools the course varies from six months to two years, the average course lasting one year. The fees vary accordingly, from about £10 to £70.

A knowledge of one or two foreign languages is of value and some statistics prepared by Miss Hutchins tend to show that German in particular seems to attract a higher salary. The principles of bookkeeping, the card index system, the conduct of committee meetings and the taking of minutes, may also usefully be studied.

Practical experience of actual work must, however, supplement the training school before the worker can expect to be fit for the best posts, for in this work, as in most other callings, an ounce of practice is worth a pound of theory. The beginner should seize every opportunity that offers of making herself acquainted with the technical details of the work she undertakes, and should endeavour to take an intelligent interest in the letters she types from dictation. By so equipping herself, she will be ready when the time comes to undertake more responsible work.

In these days it seems necessary also to emphasize the desirability of neat and suitable attire. A meeting of clerical workers was held recently to consider this subject of dress, and an antidote to the imitation pearl necklaces and lace collars, the trailing skirts and high-heeled shoes so often worn by the city typist, was suggested in the shape of a uniform. But the meeting was of opinion that it was quite possible to be suitably attired without all being dressed alike, and that the adoption of this proposal would deprive them of what little scope for originality they still possessed.

We sometimes hear it said, "Oh, anyone can type," but experience quickly proves that this is by no means the case, for even among "professional" typists such apparently trifling matters as correct punctuation, paragraphing, use of capitals and division of words, not to speak of what is technically known as "setting out," make all the difference between one who can and the many who cannot type.

The feverish rush and hurry of modern life makes the shorthand writer and typist no longer a luxury but practically a necessity to the busy man or woman of to-day. The very fact of the extreme usefulness of shorthand and typewriting works out, however, often to the typist's disadvantage, since in a busy office the tendency is to confine her entirely to this work, without any prospect of advancement. In many Government offices, for example, the salary of the expert stenographer and typist starts on a level with that of the junior clerk, but while the latter, after spending some months in such work as addressing envelopes, stamping, running errands, etc., is rapidly promoted to a third, second, and finally to a first-class clerkship, each grade carrying with it more responsible work, the shorthand writer is placed on a lower scale, and even though quoted in reports as an "excellent officer," soon finds herself left far behind in the race.

And just because the work of the typist is so mechanical, the need for regular hours, with proper time for meals, is all the greater. It is stated that the best work is never done with an eye on the clock, and in the case of the fully-fledged secretary, with her varied occupations and interests, the hours will doubtless fly only too fast, but the girl who can sit at a typewriter, copying another person's MSS. for 8 hours, and not long for the hour of release, cannot, I think, possess intelligence of a very high order. Moreover, if she is to cultivate her mind and prepare herself for more advanced work later on, her few hours of leisure will be very precious to her.

The woman so often quoted, who works for a pocket-money wage may be regarded, I think, for all practical purposes, as a negligible quantity, but, should we chance to meet her, let us endeavour to educate her, and show her the hardship which she thus unknowingly inflicts upon others. In this case, as in that of some philanthropic societies, which, owing to the scarcity of their funds, seem to have a special temptation to pay their workers less than the market value of their work, it is true that "Evil is wrought by want of thought as well as want of heart."

In order to secure adequate salaries, however, it is very necessary to raise the standard of proficiency in clerical work, for in this calling the number of incompetents is regrettably large. Girls who in former days would have become domestic servants and who often lack the one essential foundation of a good general education, who are quite unable to read a difficult MS. or even to spell or punctuate, train for a few months in one of the many shorthand and typewriting colleges, and then go forth to join the great army of incompetents and so lower the rate of pay. And when many of these so-called "Colleges" guarantee their pupils on the completion of their training employment at a salary of £100 a year, a guarantee which, needless to say, they are often unable to fulfil—we cannot altogether blame the girls or their parents if they prefer this prospect to domestic service.

To meet the want of organization and consequent competition from which this class of women workers suffers possibly more keenly than any other, an Association of Shorthand Writers and Typists was formed five years ago, which aims at raising the general level of proficiency and securing a just remuneration.

From the summary by Miss Hutchins of an enquiry into the hours of work of typists and shorthand writers, conducted by the Association during the winter of 1905-06, it appears that the largest group of earners are those receiving from 25 to 30 shillings a week, while the medium is 30 shillings a week, i.e., the same proportion earns above that sum and below it. One worker earns as much as 80 shillings a week, and another 60 shillings.

The daily period of employment is, in the majority of cases, 8 hours, including an interval varying from half an hour to as much as two hours for lunch.

Overtime does not appear to be general, and Miss Hutchins states that "There is reason to suppose that the practice of working overtime is on the decrease." This is all the more to be desired since in many cases there is no additional payment for overtime. The encouragement of overtime by making it a reason for promotion, as is the custom in some offices, is much to be deprecated, and lends itself to obvious abuses, such as slackness during the day or work being kept back, in order that overtime may be put in. It does not by any means follow that the girl who puts in the most overtime is the best worker, and promotion should depend rather upon the amount and quality of the work done during office hours.

A recent circular signed by the Association states that:—"Ten years ago the position of the shorthand clerk was certainly better than it is to-day. The demand for cheap girl labour in offices and the Commercial Schools which take children straight from the Sixth Standard of the elementary school and make 'Typists' of them in six months for a small fee, have lowered the position of the lady clerk both as to salary and social standing."

And the danger of sending these young, imperfectly-trained girls out to flood the labour market is not an economic one only. From the moral point of view it is most undesirable, and every effort should be made to prevent inexperienced girls of 16 being sent to work in city offices, where there is often no supervision by an older member of their own sex. It is pointed out that these very young girls are seldom employed in the better-class offices.

It is much to be desired that parents and mistresses should be made to realize the importance for girls of deciding upon their vocation in life before leaving school or college, just as is done in the case of boys. They might then devote their last year or two to specializing for their future profession, and thus many of the difficulties with which we have so often to contend to-day would become a thing of the past.

## SHORTHAND AND TYPEWRITING IN SWEDEN.

By Miss THORSTENSEN.

In Sweden the art of shorthand is rather new. It is true that our first stenographer died in 865—Ansgarius, the same who introduced Christianity into Sweden—and it is also true that it was in Sweden that stenography first was officially employed by a Government, in 1662, but in those times stenographers were the exception. Since the beginning of the nineteenth century we have had stenographers in the Diet, but beyond this shorthand was not used until about the last thirty years, since when it has been taught in our Commercial Schools, and stenographers have been to a greater extent employed in business offices.

It is here that women have played an important rôle. In shorthand girls have found an occupation specially suitable for them, and most of the commercial stenographers nowadays are women. The knowledge of shorthand has been a great factor in raising salaries. A clever lady stenographer nowadays gets two or three times as high a salary as a lady clerk did about 15 years ago. Their salaries vary from 125 to 250 Swedish crowns a month (a Swedish crown is about 30 cents in American money) and they generally work from 9 to 5 o'clock.

In our Government offices we are now beginning to employ lady stenographers. Their salary is about the same as in the business offices, but they only work from 10 to 4 o'clock.

Literary and scientific men sometimes employ lady stenographers as private secretaries. For occasional shorthand work the pay is 4 to 5 crowns an hour if it is in Swedish, in a foreign language 6 to 7 crowns.

As concerns the highest art of shorthand writers, reporting rapid speech and discussions, there are very few women who have attained this skill. As far as I know, we have not more than four or five women who have practised as stenographers in this branch. This very year one of these women has been admitted as stenographer of the Second Chamber of the Swedish Diet. She was the very first woman ever admitted to this place and caused a great sensation. Court reporting does not exist in Sweden.

The general use of the typewriter is still more recent in Sweden than the general use of shorthand. We have had stenographers in offices long before we had any typists there; the stenographers had then to translate their shorthand notes into longhand. It is only during the past ten years that typewriters have come into general use, and there are still several smaller offices existing where letters are written by hand.

Typewriting is taught in all our Business and Shorthand Schools, and during the last three years different typewriter firms have established institutes specially for the teaching of shorthand and typewriting. In all these schools most of the

pupils are girls. In our business offices the greater number are women, in our typewriting offices all the typists are women. In our Government offices to a great extent women are employed as copyists. In those offices all the copying was formerly done by hand—in part of them this is still the case; but during the last few years typewriters have been introduced into most of these offices and as a consequence the lady copyists have been obliged to learn typewriting. The lady copyists in those offices generally work from 10 to 4 o'clock and have a salary varying between 80 and 150 crowns a month. The salaries of the typists who are not stenographers are somewhat lower than those of the stenographers. A mere typist in a business office can scarcely get more than 60 or 70 crowns a month, unless she knows one or several foreign languages, when she will get about 100 crowns.

Besides the typists of the business houses and the typewriting offices, we have a great many private female typists, who do copying work at home. Many of these are women who do not undertake the work to earn their livelihood, but rather to obtain a little extra income.

The rate for copying work in our larger typewriting offices in Stockholm is 1 öre the typewritten line, if the manuscript is in Swedish, 2 öre the line for a manuscript in a foreign language or in shorthand.

Let me add re shorthand, that in Sweden shorthand is not exclusively a matter of business; even among ladies a very great interest is felt for shorthand as an art. Several ladies I know have learned it only for that motive. I also know several married women who have learned shorthand in order to help their husbands in their work, and a mother who learned the art at the age of 60 in order to get longer letters from her son, who was a stenographer and a very busy man.

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## WOMEN INSPECTORS.

By MISS HILDA MARTINDALE, Ireland.

When I was so privileged as to be asked to speak at this great Congress I accepted the invitation, intending to speak on some industrial matter, with which my work as Inspector of Factories makes me especially familiar.

After it was arranged that I should speak, however, a request came that I should speak on the question of inspecting as a profession for women. After some hesitation I agreed to read a paper on this subject, although in many ways I feel incompetent to do so, and in some ways handicapped by my position as an Inspector, which makes it difficult for me to take an impartial view on the subject. Early in the year, and on the same day, two opinions were expressed regarding Women Inspectors, and reported in the leading English papers, and I do not feel that I can do better than

begin my paper by quoting them. The first opinion was that of Mr. Runciman, the President of the Board of Education. He says:—

“I hope within my period of office to increase the sphere of usefulness of women inspectors and to increase their numbers.” This recognition of the value of women inspectors in education comes from a man who has made a very special study of education and its problems, and whose only desire is to get the highest standard of work possible.

The second opinion was that of a man who is a member of a great corporation. In this case I may mention that the speaker is the employer of a number of women and girls in London and Ireland, and the conditions of his factories have been such as especially to engage the attention of the women inspectors; he was recently prosecuted by one of them for employing about 200 women and girls for long hours at a stretch in rooms where no suitable heating apparatus had been provided, and where illness had been the consequence. He says:—

“Women sanitary inspectors” (and here I expect he includes women factory inspectors), “have been an abomination and the greatest nuisances. There is no duty done by women which cannot be better done by men. They are not fit to occupy the position. Women inspectors, as a rule, I find, are small-minded, worrying, and fussy, and all fail to grasp the point of anything.”

The papers, which reported these opinions extensively, spoke of them as a tribute to and a criticism of women officials. But I feel that, considering the standpoint of the two speakers, they should both be regarded as a tribute to the thoroughness and value of the work of women inspectors.

Now, it appears to me that what a Congress such as this one will wish to hear, is to what extent in the United Kingdom this profession is open to women, the nature of their work (and here I propose to say something especially about that particular form of inspection in which I am engaged), the need for women inspectors, and the usefulness of their work.

In the English Government Departments women inspectors are found working under the Home Office, the Local Government Board, and the Board of Education.

The first woman inspector was appointed under the Local Government Board, and holds her appointment since 1885. She, in conjunction with two other women, inspects the Poor Law children who are boarded out in homes situated without the Unions to which they are chargeable. There is one other woman inspector working under the Local Government Board, and she holds the position of Assistant Poor Law Inspector for the Metropolitan District, and inspects institutions, lying-in wards, nurseries, etc.

Under the Home Office the first two women inspectors were appointed in 1893, their duties being to inspect factories and workshops where women and children are employed, and to enforce the provisions of the Factory Acts. Since this date there has been a steady increase in the number of women factory inspectors; at

first the appointments were made slowly, a considerable time elapsing between each appointment, and were to a great extent experimental, but they were so soon justified by the work done that there was never really any doubt from that time that the woman factory inspector had "come to stay." Lately, the appointments have been made more rapidly, and at the present time there are no less than 18 women factory inspectors, who are organized into a branch of the Factory Department at the Home Office, and work under the general direction of the Principal Lady Inspector of Factories. Of the remaining 17 women inspectors six are senior lady inspectors who are in charge of Divisions, the United Kingdom being at present separated into five Divisions—Southern and Northern England, the Midlands, Scotland and Ireland.

These appointments are made by the Home Secretary, who nominates suitable candidates. The candidates are then put to the test of a competitive examination. If successful, they are then on probation for two years, during which time they have to take a further examination on special subjects, including the law on industrial questions.

Under the Board of Education the first woman inspector was appointed in 1896, and during the thirteen years which have elapsed their number has increased, so that to-day there are 28 women inspectors with a Chief Woman Inspector at their head engaged in work under this Government Department. I understand that five women inspectors assist in the inspection of Infant Schools and classes, of Elementary Schools for girls, and of Mixed Elementary Schools. The other officers are engaged in inspecting the recognized Training Schools for Teachers of "Domestic Subjects," and special classes for adults in those subjects, and "Centres" and classes for Elementary School children in those subjects. They also inspect any institutions applying for recognition or recognized under the Technological Regulations, in which Domestic Subjects form part of the course, and also those Poor Law Schools where these subjects are taught. Two women inspectors are temporarily employed to assist in the inspection of Girls' Secondary Schools and Pupil-Teachers' Centres. The Scotch Education Department, the Irish National Board, the Department of Agricultural and Technical Instruction for Ireland, the Local Government Board (Ireland), have all appointed women in the capacity of inspectors.

But it is not merely in Government Departments that women inspectors are to be found. In recent years local authorities have been ready to avail themselves of the services of women, either as Sanitary Inspectors, Inspectors under the Shop Hours Act, under the Infant Life Protection Act, and the Midwives' Act of 1902. It is especially to Sanitary Inspectorships that a number of women have been appointed. There are approximately 38 women working in this capacity in London, 26 in Scotland, about 86 in the provinces, and about 22 in Ireland. The increase in these appointments has been large considering that it is only in 1893 that the first woman sanitary inspector was appointed, and not until 1895 that

the appointment was given a legal status by being confirmed by the Local Government Board. The work of the women sanitary inspectors has been especially in connection with the sanitary condition of workrooms, homes of outworkers, kitchens of restaurants, infantile mortality, infectious diseases and tuberculosis. Many of the duties are of a special and delicate nature, and much of the work is educative in character.

I do not feel competent to give you a detailed account of the work of all the different kinds of women inspectors which I have mentioned, so I propose to confine myself to a short account of the work done in the British Islands by the women factory inspectors, with which I am acquainted.

Since our appointment much of our time and attention have been given to special enquiry work, and I think we may claim that a considerable amount of legislation has resulted from this work. Then the women inspectors have been the recipients of an astonishing number of complaints. Information regarding infringements of the law has been sent to them either in anonymous or signed letters, or by the worker finding her way to their office, or by social workers, Settlements, and Trade Unions. During the year ending 1907 over 1,000 such complaints were received by the women inspectors alone. These complaints are treated in entire confidence, and are carefully investigated. A certain number of them are always found to be outside the provisions of the Factory Act, and many of these have shown where fresh legislation is needed. We women inspectors have always confined ourselves to the women and children working in factories or workshops, of whom there are over one and a half million in the United Kingdom.

Although a considerable amount of our time is given up to routine work in order to ensure that the requirements of the law regarding cleanliness, ventilation, overcrowding, temperature, hours of employment, safety, education, and fitness of children and young persons for work, are daily carried out, still, I would say that there are certain directions in which our work has been especially felt. First, I would mention the administration of the Truck Acts. From Donegal in the far west of Ireland to the London slums, in the outworker's cottage and in the largest factory, much has been done to enforce the Truck Acts, which Acts ensure to the worker the payment of her wages in current coin of the realm, and further, that her wages shall not be reduced by fines and deductions which are unfair and unreasonable.

Secondly, we have done something to ensure to the piece-worker that she shall be furnished with written particulars of the price she is to receive for the work before she does it. Until legislation was introduced for this special matter too often a worker was engaged for days on work for which she was unaware what wages she was to receive, and so unwittingly she might incur debts which she would be unable to pay.

Thirdly, I would mention the work which has been done in dangerous trades, trades in which the worker is especially liable to injury either to health or limb, such, for example, as white lead

works, china and earthenware works, lucifer match factories, and aerated water works. These factories are under very special and stringent rules, and the women inspectors have done much in enforcing these rules and learning to know about the special needs of the women working in these trades.

Again, and perhaps rather surprisingly, the women inspectors have given very special attention to the fencing of laundry machinery. You are probably aware of the rapid development that has lately been made in laundry machinery, large heated rollers being used for ironing, and mangling and wringing being done by various forms of power-driven machines. With this development came a number of accidents to workers, accidents which were exceedingly serious and resulted often in the loss of a hand or an arm. To the guarding of such machinery the women inspectors have given very serious consideration, with the result that the standard of fencing has been raised, and the number of accidents considerably diminished, and the worker has been able to follow her occupation with less risk of harmful consequences.

Lastly, and perhaps even more surprisingly, the women inspectors who are empowered to prosecute in the Petty Sessions Courts have made a special success of this part of their work. They have taken many cases into Court and conducted the proceedings, addressing the magistrates, examining and cross-examining witnesses, and not infrequently arguing on a point of law. This is so contrary to the gloomy view expressed even by the friends of women inspectors that I think it is useful to put it on record that for many years they have taken their full and successful share in bringing contraveners of the law to justice and in formulating unsettled legal questions for decision of the High Court.

Now, I do not think it can be denied that the growth of the number of women inspectors has been astonishing, and this rapid growth is due to the pressing demand for them all over the country. Invariably, at all large meetings of women, either for political or social reasons, resolutions have been passed demanding the appointment of more women to fill these offices. I think it may fairly be stated that in no other profession has the demand been so pressing and so urgent. Public opinion has been in favour of women inspectors, and so women inspectors have been appointed, and we find them in all fields of work. I think it is evident why public opinion has favoured these appointments.

It has been felt, and felt rightly, that women can well understand and can grasp the needs of women, and especially of children. Perhaps their power of imagination stands them in good stead here. If we think for a moment of the vast number of women and children in the industrial world, a number which is daily increasing, if we think of them in the workhouses and Poor Law Institutions, in the schools of our large cities and villages, we become almost overwhelmed with the thought of their wants and of their needs. I am convinced it requires women to grasp these needs, and to help in framing conditions which will press less heavily and less severely.

And I would remind you that with our present social and industrial conditions inspection is a necessity. The old order changeth, giving place to new, but through all changes human beings are always striving, sometimes almost unconsciously, after freedom, freedom to live the fullest and best lives possible for them. It is the work of inspectors to help others to attain that end, and it is work that demands our best qualities and our untiring interest, for, as an illustrious American (Andrew Jackson), has said, "Eternal vigilance is the price of liberty."

As a profession I am persuaded that inspecting opens up a field in which the best energies and the highest talents of women may be utilized. In the brief account I have given of the work of the women factory inspectors I think it is evident that the work offers a wide scope, and that women with varied tastes and varied intellectual powers are required. As an occupation for women I *know*, and I speak from experience, such work grows every year more interesting and all absorbing.

There is an impression amongst some people that the work of a woman inspector is disagreeable and fraught with unpleasantness, but surely to ensure to the factory worker better conditions of work, a life less beset with danger to health, and wages not whittled down to a mere pittance by deductions, surely, to ensure good and useful education to the children of the nation, and happy and healthy homes to those children who do not know a mother's care, surely, I say, this is not disagreeable work. It is not, of course, without its disagreeable moments. We often have to deal with people who have not as guiding principle either justice or gentleness, but the work is all the more worth doing on that account. Women have special qualities, discernment, intuition, sympathy, and understanding, and these are, I am certain, especially needed in this work, and if to these be added tact and courage and a determination to carry through what they have undertaken, I am convinced that the woman worker, the child in the school, and the inmate of the workhouse, will know the use of and reap the benefit of the woman inspector.

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#### FRATERNAL BENEFIT ASSOCIATIONS: THEIR ORIGIN, SCOPE AND VALUE.

By MRS. LILLIAN M. HOLLISTER, Detroit, U.S.A.

The fraternal benefit system has taken its place, and had its growth, side by side, with the other benevolences of the country.

By the fraternal beneficiary association provision is made, not only for the protection of the member in case of death, but care and attention is given to the member in the hour of distress and trouble.

The plan of insurance and protection originated centuries ago—in fact, the first organizations were formed for mutual protection in business, social, political and religious circles. In the

last few hundred years, fraternal orders have been inaugurated and associations have been maintained for the protection of the members and their loved ones in case of death.

Whether Germany or Rome is their birthplace, or whether either should have the credit, is a question. In Germany and the Netherlands they were called guilds, while in southern Europe they were known as confraternities or collegia.

These early societies seem to have exercised some function not strictly pertaining to the modern ideas of a brotherhood of mutual protection. The maintenance of a brotherhood for protection and mutual assistance was a feature in both countries, but only one of the objects for which they were maintained. For a time, at least, they seem also to have been entitled, in northern Europe, to representation in governmental affairs.

[Mrs. Hollister then gave an interesting historical sketch of the movement, concerning both Friendly Societies and Fraternal Orders.—Editor.]

In England there are now 10,755 of these societies with a membership of over 7,000,000. All over the Continent of Europe these Friendly or Fraternal Societies are to be found. In Holland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Germany, and Austria, they are almost wholly of a type similar to that which is common in Great Britain.

The Fraternal Benefit Associations of the United States, are similar in many respects to the Friendly Societies of Great Britain or the Mutuality Societies of France, but they are not confined, as in the mother country, to the so-called working classes. Indeed, there is a strong inducement for professional persons, especially those who seek votes, to belong to one or more strong fraternal associations for the acquaintance and influence which the membership gives.

The fraternal beneficiary orders in the United States had their origin in the starting of the Ancient Order of United Workmen, by Father Upchurch, in 1868. Unfortunately, he was wholly ignorant of what had been accomplished in Great Britain. In starting his great work he failed to profit by the seventy years of available experience along the lines of safety and protection. Other fraternal orders followed the A. O. U. W. in rapid succession, but none of them took advantage of similar experiments across the Atlantic. It will be seen, therefore, that the fraternal orders of America, while operating upon independent lines, have in effect repeated the history of the Friendly Societies.

Fraternity is spreading over our broad land, and every city, town, village and hamlet, and every portion of our vast domains, has one or more fraternal orders in its midst. Fraternity is one of the greatest factors in the world in uniting the people of various religious beliefs and bringing together the people of the various countries. The certainty of death is what makes life

protection or life insurance a factor in the social economics of the commonwealth.

Fraternalities teach members to protect each other, to guard the good names of a member's family and loved ones, to care for the sick, bury the dead, and educate the orphan.

They are sometimes called "Secret" societies. However, the term "Secret" is a misnomer formerly applied to mystify. These societies are now known as fraternal or beneficiary associations.

There is not a fraternal order to-day that does not recognize God as the Supreme Ruler of the Universe; and the constitution and laws of the land are the foundation principles of every order. Members are taught to respect the rights of their fellows, to wrong no man, to "render unto Caesar the things that are Caesar's," and to do unto all men as we would they should do unto us.

More than half of the fraternal societies of the United States pay sick, accident, disability, or funeral benefits, in addition to death benefits.

In the year 1908 there were 178 fraternal benefit associations in the United States. The first to be established dated from October 1, 1868. On January 1, 1909, there were 103,985 lodges, with a total membership of 6,683,493 persons, of whom 360,985 were social members, and the great majority—6,322,508—were benefit members. The insurance in force on January 1, 1909, was \$7,601,173,468.

The total expenditure of all the fraternal associations since their organization for death benefits, has been \$1,163,846,581. In addition to this, the thirteen associations which offer sick benefits have paid out for this purpose \$383,804,889.

The expenses of administration of the fraternal benefit associations have been kept remarkably low. A comparison has been drawn between 25 of the most important of the immense corporations of the United States and 25 of the largest fraternal associations. At the close of the year 1908, policies of the 25 life insurance companies had a value of \$9,283,676,288, while the policies of the fraternal associations had a value of \$5,475,691,998.

To-day there is not a country in Europe in which the question of Industrial Insurance does not occupy the foremost place among measures actively considered for improving the condition of the labouring classes. There is no concrete labour question concerning which more has been written in Europe during the last ten or twenty years. The fraternal associations in this country are taking the place of industrial insurance on the Continent; hence, the question of workingmen's insurance is one that is but rarely entered upon the stage of discussion in this country.

The general compulsory insurance of workingmen is an innovation, but their optional insurance, either by private institution, or institutions operated under the auspices of the State, has occupied a prominent place among workingmen's institutions for over forty years.

In the United States there are nearly six million women who are bread-winners. Nearly a million are widows, compelled to support the family; nearly eight hundred thousand are married women whose husbands have failed to be providers; nearly one hundred thousand are divorced women to whom wedlock was a brief mirage and plighted troth a broken reed. These are vast figures and are presented to show what a tremendous factor woman is in the industry of the nation, and how she is growing, year by year, as a labour element which must enforce the creation of laws for the betterment of all the conditions under which woman is compelled to toil.

These women, upon whom others are dependent, have responsibilities which they cannot avoid and are interested in the welfare of their dependents. They are never quite at ease as to their ability to meet the unexpected expense through illness or death. By carrying the protection furnished by the fraternal benefit association they relieve themselves of much anxiety along these lines.

Women, as a rule, are safe insurable risks, as their environment is better and they are not addicted to the small vices of men, such as the use of intoxicating liquors or tobacco.

We are told that in England there are 135 women to every 100 men claiming an old age pension. This goes to prove the fact that women live longer than men.

There are over two million women in the United States carrying protection in a fraternal benefit association. Out of 178 fraternal benefit associations, six of them admit only women, 129 of the 178 fraternal benefit associations admit both men and women, while 43 admit men only.

In the associations admitting women only there are 307,286 members, and fifty-five other societies admitting both men and women have reported 926,501 members who are women.

In the fraternal benefit system, there are nine women who are national presidents, and eleven women national secretaries.

In fifty-five of the fraternal benefit societies that admit both men and women there are 2,696 women employed as field workers, 14,436 officers working without salary, 1,990 salaried officers and 186 state managers.

Through the organization admitting women only, there has been paid into the homes \$17,385,171.

The Roman Catholic fraternal benefit societies follow the same economical principles as the others. Naturally their members are of the Roman Catholic Church, and many of the Priests are very active in promoting the societies in their parishes. This order has paid out during the past 25 years over 65 million dollars in death and sick benefits, and they have now over four hundred thousand members. They are a great factor in the fraternal benefit system and hold membership with the affiliated associations.

The negroes, realizing the fact that many thousands of this race remain without any sort of aid in times of sickness and unemployment, and that they would become a burden on the poor relief unless they carried protection, have also organized fraternal benefit associations among their people.

The fraternal societies have federated themselves into two large groups called the National Fraternal Congress and the Associated Fraternities of America. The purpose of these federations is to discuss the common interests of the lodges, to explain the technical problems of insurance and to influence legislation.

[Mrs. Hollister here gave interesting details as to safe basis of rates in fraternal societies.—Editor.]

There are a few fraternal benefit associations that have not reformed their plans in accordance with their experience and have been severely criticized by actuaries and insurance specialists in the United States. Some of the fraternal associations have declined to provide a reserve fund or have very inadequate reserve; hence additional assessments must be levied at, or near the time of, a matured claim. In consequence of these defects, the rates of assessment rise gradually and therefore the younger members, who must carry more than their share of the cost, fall away from membership, only older members remaining. The burden then becomes unbearable and the association becomes bankrupt.

From the fact that such associations are opposing State regulations and also refusing to adjust the workings of their own society, there is a fixed and definite effort being made to try and read into the statutes of the States, a compulsory uniform rate law.

A resolution passed by the National Convention of Insurance Commissioners on October 4, 1906, indicates the essential points of the reform demanded in the various States.

[Here details were given.—Editor.]

In England each registered society must be valued at the end of five-year periods. These valuations are not required to be made by any official or professional actuary, nor upon any recognized table, but may be made by the secretary or any competent accountant, and may be based upon some mortality table mentioned in the return, or may be based upon the experience of the society itself, but, as a matter of fact, all the large societies have professional actuaries on the executive staff.

Some of the fraternal benefit associations of the United States are taking valuations as a business precaution, comparing the liabilities with the assets of the association. About twenty societies which have adopted adequate rate schedule are voluntarily having valuations made, each according to its own peculiar condition. A valuation is taken by placing the amount of the certificate or contract, promised to pay to the beneficiary, on the one side of the ledger, while on the other side are placed the

assets which are the surplus, interest and future collections from the members. The required accumulation is shown by taking the difference between the present worth of the outstanding protection and the present worth of the future contributions.

The Ladies of the Maccabees of the World is the only association whose laws provide for the valuation of its certificates. An annual valuation is taken upon the same principle that the merchant takes an inventory of his stock at the close of the year, in order to ascertain his financial condition.

Most of the beneficial orders of America, having profited by their own experience and by the experience of the older fraternal associations, are now operating upon a scientific and safe foundation and with proper management; there can be no doubt that they can endure for a time to come, and that the millions of present membership will increase to tens of millions, and that they will go forward fulfilling their mission of teaching the people the great lesson of helping themselves best by helping others most.

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## WOMEN IN BANKING.

By MISS ALICE W. DEANE, of Detroit, U.S.A.

Some fifteen years ago Mr. George H. Russel, President of the State Savings Bank of Detroit, opened up, in connection with his bank, a women's commercial department, which was the first one in the United States under the direction of a woman and of which I have for the last seven years been manager. Two and a half years ago the State Savings and People's Savings Banks amalgamated and formed the largest and strongest bank in Michigan, under the name of the People's State Bank, and at this time it was decided to open up a women's branch. Mr. Russel's innovation was a financial success from the first. The growth has been phenomenal; the deposits in this department alone amounting to more than those of many a good-sized and flourishing bank, which proves beyond a doubt that there is a wide field for women's banks; and there are to-day in the United States thirty-five such departments, though only about five are under the management of women.

Bright, cheerful and well appointed quarters are indispensable to a popular bank, and I say with pride that our women's branch is thoroughly up to date in this respect. The decorations are in white and gold, with cloth of gold hangings, oriental rugs and mahogany furniture; also stationery and a telephone for our patrons and friends. Off the banking room there is a rest room equipped with all toilet accessories, and a maid is in attendance. The location is in the heart of the shopping district and is the most convenient in the city for the busy woman, who must economize her time and conserve her strength in every way.

Another feature of our branch is that only new currency is paid out. Women prefer to handle new money, and many have told me that it makes them economical, as they dislike to part with the crisp, new bills. For our customers we also have specially prepared pass-books and check-books. Having a bank account accustoms a woman to business methods and gives her the best form of receipt for money paid, as a cancelled bank check is considered the very best receipt.

Banking hours are not short hours. Anyone who enters the employ of a bank because its doors are open from nine to three will make a great mistake, as it is after the bank closes that the principal work of the clerks is done. The money is counted by the tellers, the book-keepers post their ledgers and the statement of the day's business is prepared, and until at least five o'clock a bank is a busy place indeed.

The positions generally held by women in banks are those of stenographers, telephone operators and filing clerks, but they should hold more responsible and more lucrative ones. My faith in women's ability is so great, that I believe with the development of her natural mental powers, supplemented by energy, perseverance and ambition, she is capable of filling any position in a bank, even that of auditor, cashier, vice-president or assistant to the president. What women most need for success are opportunities and these are increasing every year. There are some advocates of exclusively women's banks, but departments or branches of general banking institutions answer the purpose better. One of the objects of this great Congress is the uplifting of women, and the betterment of their condition, particularly of those who by circumstances are forced to enter the field of labour. We know and regret that often, very often, their environment and associations are undesirable, and this is one reason why I advocate banking as a profession for women. The surroundings are pleasant and refined, the superior officers are men of education and dignity, who treat their business associates with respect and kindness. There is no deception in banking; all dealings are honest and straightforward; there is therefore little or no friction with the customers, and for this reason the profession I represent is a most desirable one for women.

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### WOMEN AS BANKERS.

By MRS. BUCHAN REESOR, Cobalt, Canada.

Without blaze of trumpets or public discussion of any kind women have slowly but surely entered our banking institutions, and have proved themselves willing, capable and profitable workers.

In the United States nearly ten thousand women are employed in banks in one capacity or another; in Canada, the num-

ber is in its lower hundreds, yet to our own country must be given the honour of women's first official or formal entrance into banks as regular bankers.

For years women had drifted in without official recognition, first as stenographers.

An instinctive grasp of the business of banking, as it fell to them along the byways of official correspondence, led to their higher appointments as filing clerks and private secretaries. These positions pay well, but they are not banking. Then it was thought—if women so easily master the details of the executive offices, why can they not—with equal aptitude—faithfully fulfil the less arduous duties of regular bank clerks, and become, in time, professional bankers?

The trial was made, and, in due time, banking was added to the growing list of professions for women.

Mrs. V. F. Church, a banker of twenty-one years' standing in the State of Missouri, is, as far as I know, the first woman who entered a bank with the idea of making banking her regular profession. During eight years she worked steadily on through the junior positions, and thirteen years ago was appointed cashier, a position in the United States equal to a managership in Canada. With the exception of the president and the vice-president, who are both working officials, that Missouri bank is officered by women.

Following in the mind trend of Mrs. Church other women determined to pursue the same profession, and entered banking institutions not in the formal way in which young men do, but wherever they could get in. Only by doing their work in a way which surpassed the ways of young men were they enabled to hold their positions; thus it is readily seen that the ten thousand women in the United States have not gained their promotions—(and they are fast stepping into the higher places)—by any outward influence, but solely upon their own merits—the courage and ability they have to develop themselves.

Now the time has come when young women, in a few, a very few institutions, begin formally to take their places as regular bankers, and are recognized as competent to fill clerkships in the way in which young men have filled them for generations.

The young woman makes a formal application to the chief official of the bank in writing. A personal interview is asked if that application is deemed worthy of it. At that interview every detail in manner, speech, deportment, etc., is noted. If the interview prove satisfactory the applicant may expect to hear from the bank at any time in regard to a position. Having entered the service of the bank the young woman signs her secrecy bond—which makes it binding upon her neither to speak of the bank, nor of the affairs of persons connected with the bank—be they customers or fellow officers.

She makes application for her own guarantee bond, and puts the bank in possession of her personal and family history as far as is required.

Thus every precaution is exercised by the bank in selecting its staff, and the fact that a young woman is a member of a bank staff gives her a feeling of business security that is enviable. After all this she is only on probation, but at the end of the half year she is entitled to enrolment if she has fulfilled expectations. A few concessions are asked of her:

That she dress, during banking hours, in a costume suitable for business.

That perfume and trinkets be left at home.

That she do not accept the offerings of bon-bons and flowers that men customers may bring to her.

These concessions may seem trivial for a high bank official to ask of a young girl, but they would not be asked were they not necessary for the dignity of the institution as well as for the advancement of the clerk.

The junior positions first entered are really apprenticeships, for which the clerk is paid \$250.00 per annum. The training is strict. Unknown to them the high officials are kept informed of their capabilities and their failures. Then, if one branch of work seems unsuited to them, another is tried; it is to the interest of the bank that the very best be brought to the fore in every clerk.

Honesty, integrity, courtesy, patience, endurance, attention to detail, application in work and concentration of thought, together with the gift of intuition—these are the qualities that have made young women desirable bank clerks.

Thus you will realize how good a profession is banking for young women. It is legitimate. In dealing with the public there is nothing to hide. Everyone is of equal importance who deals with a bank.

At the end of six or eight years of bank service a woman may not have risen to a position worth, in money, more than six hundred dollars a year, but she has lived a life replete with interest.

A Master Mind, who overlooks the world, seeing it revolve by the power of money, must keep that money constantly on the move, lest, in places, it clog, and further on there be an insufficiency. The wheels of commerce must be oiled with it, yet individuals must be supplied for their daily needs, while, all the time there is an outlook over Empires, Kingdoms, Republics—where there may be war, or famine, or strike, or disaster—and money may be needed or must be recalled at any moment. Nothing is too small for that Master Mind's attention, nothing seems too great for his undertaking.

And that Master Mind is the chief of a bank—there are many of him.

And woman, while she has proved herself clever as a financier, has led armies, been a diplomatist, managed commercial businesses, founded towns and superintended ranches—yet, so far she has not managed a bank as its great chief, a bank with branches stretching across a continent, in which every detail of work in every branch is known to her. But, we want to help; we want to be on a level with those Master Minds and take our part.

We will do it: perhaps not in this generation, for the banks are not quite sure of us yet in the higher positions, though a little door was opened. They will open and shut, perhaps many times more, and it will be but the few who will receive the training compared with the many young men who receive it—until the time comes when the doors will be kept ajar for women, and it will be by women's own merit that they will be so.

We cannot be leaders until we have been successful followers. Women bank clerks have made a beginning—a good beginning—and, in the generations ahead will be found their full usefulness.

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#### SOME EXPERIENCES AS A LADY HORSE-BREEDER.

By MRS. JOHN M. CLAY, Lexington, Kentucky, U.S.A.

In by-gone times, when other enterprises failed, there were always open to women, as *dernier* resorts, cooking, sewing, which would, at least, secure sustenance.

But happily, there are other paths now, not the main-travelled ones, which may lead to the peaceful solution of the vexed bread-and-butter problem.

While it may be true, that a woman of extraordinary talents, conjoined with unflagging energy and courage, may wing her flight upward on paths of her own selection; the less gifted woman is not so privileged.

She might try farming, for example, in its primary sense, the cultivation of the soil, bearing in mind it is scientific farming that pays.

Also, there are other phases of farm-life, the dairy, the sheep-raising, and I have heard of a cattle-queen. But the phase I know best, is the production of thoroughbred horses, which is pre-eminently, not a feminine occupation, and some details of its operations may afford interest, as proof that all pursuits are open to woman, and that her only limitations lie within herself.

Centuries ago, under the fostering care of the sovereigns of Great Britain, the thoroughbred horse had its origin, and by extraordinary care down to the present time, his blood has been kept pure, without taint of contamination. This has been effected through the instrumentality of the race-course—the only infallible test of the speed and endurance emanating, *de rigueur*, from im-

maculate purity of blood—out of his caste, another horse is as a pebble to the moonstone. Even after death, by difference of texture, his aristocratic bones are distinguishable.

To Henry Clay, whom all the world knows as the great American who "had rather be right than President," some thoroughbred horses had been presented. They were taken in charge by his son, John M. Clay, who, in his heart loved a good horse—and for many years he trained and raced the descendants of "Magnolia" and "Margaret Wood," nearly all over the United States. And "Iroquois," the great-grandson of "Magnolia," to add to his laurels, crossed the ocean to win the Derby at Epsom.

The horses intended by Mr. Clay for racing received their schooling on his private course at Ashland, and I saw much of them at their work, and almost daily went with my husband on his round of inspection of the broodmares and young stock. But—the time came, when I went—alone. The horses seemed frightened—unerring instinct overshadowed them with the irreparable loss. They crowded around me in piteous appeal—I was the friend left. And I resolved to continue my husband's work for the future.

Gentlemen of experience had wrecked fortunes, and failed conspicuously—but feeling pledged to the difficult undertaking, I resolved to do my best, and to rely absolutely on myself. I believed then, as I do now, that when we are really trying to do what is right, an inspiration comes from above to help, advise and console, or I would have made more mistakes than I did.

Certainly, as far as I knew how, the stock was well cared for. To many things my attention was given personally, and acquiring the knack, I was not often disconcerted.

I made a study of turf registers, and became well acquainted with horse ancestry. A turf correspondent, after a visit to my place, published that he had for twenty years been writing about horses, but the way Mrs. Clay rattled off direct pedigrees, throwing in collaterals, made his head swim.

The stock book was kept by myself, and, without assistance, I edited my annual catalogues and made my yearly report to the Jockey Club in New York City; registered the foals, and superintended the preparation of the yearlings for the Spring Sales. A busy life, but I had my innings. One yearling colt I sold for eight thousand two hundred dollars. And better still, my horses gave a good account of themselves when put to racing. Three of my colts won Derby honours, and I had a colt to win the rich Realization Stakes, forty-one thousand dollars. "Curate" won a Cup race—the longest distance race now run—at New Orleans, in record-breaking time. Besides many good stake winners, "Semper Ego," "Woden," "Jove," "Trenet-the-Mere" and "Coligny," were renowned steeplechasers. "El Cuchillo" was last year considered the best steeplechaser in the world, and was sent to France, but died soon after completing the voyage.

To keep nothing back—I make the admission, steeped in humiliation—I never have been able to master the multiplication table; though I have always well remembered a salutary lesson learned from one of my school-books:

“ And oh! if fortune fill thy sail,  
With more than a propitious gale,  
Take half thy canvas in.”

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### SCULPTURE FOR WOMEN.

By MRS. V. HOXIA, U.S.A.

Sculpture is eminently a field for women; no one has ever questioned that her eyes are as true, her thoughts as noble, her touch as delicate as with men, and the field of sculpture is unlimited; the harvest promises to be great, and the workers are few; but sculptors must be born, not made.

To those aspiring to be sculptors I would say that if they feel justified in pursuing the study of art, they cannot too soon place themselves under capable instructors, remembering that anatomy is the basis of their work, and modeling from the life an absolute necessity. To have a correct conception of the human figure is the great essential in sculpture. Gustave Doré told me he drew from the human figure for many years before he really began his work, and then he felt his ability to compose.

I have made two public statues for our National Government at a cost of forty thousand dollars, receiving the awards after competition with others; one of Lincoln, which stands in marble in the rotunda of the Capitol at Washington, and one of Admiral Farragut, which stands in bronze in Farragut Square. I am now making for the State of Iowa a statue of Kirkwood, who was Governor of the State during the Civil War. It is to stand in bronze in Statuary Hall in the Capitol Building in Washington. For each statue I have given two years of study and work to the completion of the nude figure in every detail before putting on the drapery. In my first work, the Lincoln statue, the model of which I completed in a committee room of the National Capitol Building in Washington, which I kept open to the public, I sought and obtained the advice and criticism of the most competent experts in anatomy, and not until they pronounced the figure complete and correct in detail did I venture to clothe it. The nude figure may be always chaste and classic. The draped figure may be refined or vulgar. The art of draping is the art of concealment and revealing, and requires refinement of taste and good judgment rather than artistic skill. It is easy with the flowing folds of old-time costumes. It is difficult with the modern costumes of men.

If one is not able to employ instructors, let her not be discouraged, for real genius will rise above every obstacle.

It has been urged against sculpture for women that it may alienate them from their homes and their home duties. Not at all—every beautiful thought that is developed, every noble inspiration, makes home and dear ones dearer, the home more artistic, the hearth brighter.

The names of successful women are familiar to us all. We look at them with a sort of reverence. Were they less noble wives or less tender mothers? No; their husbands are proud of them and their children do not suffer from neglect.

I am a sculptor, and my life has been a happy one—so happy that I have feared always that I was "eating my white bread" and that some terrible storm was surely to break over me, for it seemed as if Heaven could not give me so much. My work has never been labour, but an ecstatic delight to my soul.

If my encouraging words can help any struggling artist to have new hope I shall be glad. In this field of sculpture disappointments will come, dark days of discouragement, nights of brooding and wakefulness, and we are never, never satisfied with the result of our efforts; but there is a glamour about it indescribable.

# Social Work and Moral Reform.

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Conveners—Mrs. A. M. HUESTIS, Miss A. R. RIDDELL.

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THURSDAY, JUNE 24TH—MORNING SESSION.

Chairman—Miss FITZGIBBON.

Subject—Work for Children and Young Girls.

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## THE VALUE OF PRESERVATIVE WORK FOR GIRLS.

By Miss M. E. CREIGHTON, Carlisle, England.

Half a century ago the title of this paper would have suggested the Sunday school class, possibly the sewing meeting, or the Essay Society, and above all, the promotion of marriage in all ranks, and (as conducive to marriage) of the arts and graces that were esteemed likely to attract young men to that estate.

With the many careers other than that of wife or mother now open to women of all classes, new possibilities, new positions, new perils arise.

Girls of all ranks travel alone, live alone, support themselves by their own labour, seek their own recreation, have their own ideals.

Nowadays a girl does not often fall through ignorance; the laws of physiology are explained to her in the school class or at the health lecture.

Passion such as Byron, or Bulwer Lytton, or Bourget, or de Maupassant portrayed, is not often evident, and from the newspaper reports of various "*causes célèbres*" it seems to me that idleness is the mother of mischief in this matter and that the ruin of girls—at any rate, in the upper classes—is due to the idle hands and empty heads, for whom Satan still finds mischief; and from the influence of older women of low moral standard.

There is not time to go through the various ranks of society, and I might trench on the still sadder side of the subject, the rescue of the fallen, the retrieval of the lost, but years of parochial and municipal work have shown me the need of preservative work and the possibility of it.

The dictionary gives among other definitions of "preservative"—"to keep from injury." Injury to the purity or modesty of girls is irreparable. How can it be avoided? What have been the preservative elements hitherto? To what do we owe the im-

provement in the statistics regarding illegitimacy—the greater decency of life which obtains in these days?

The standard in these matters is perceptibly higher than of old amongst the working classes, so called, and although the abolition of child labour has removed one ground for laxity and possible temptation to immorality, we may believe also that the fact of education being more general, the barrier of class less rigid, and the horizon of women widened, accounts for the distinct improvement evidenced by statistics and observation.

I believe that the effort to provide rational amusements, to give physical culture, to afford the opportunity of reading good literature, the existence of public parks and baths and libraries, has tended to raise the standard of conduct, and at the risk of appearing egotistical I shall venture to tell of my own little bit of work for and with girls.

Many years ago I was responsible for working up and carrying on the first club opened in our city for girls working in mills. When I look back to those beginnings I recall very rough ways and speech, little sense of truth, lack of restraint, a low standard of manners and morals. Also there was the greatest difficulty of understanding the different codes of honour that belonged to the mill girl and to the girl from the more cultured home. It was no easy task to try to keep from injury young, thoughtless, undisciplined girls from the ages of 14 to 18, but it was a most interesting task. There is plenty of scope for tact, patience, ingenuity and individuality in any one who deals with the different characters of a girls' club or class.

Some must be coaxed or teased, some commanded or reasoned with, others scolded or apparently ignored—any method that will tend to strengthen character. Another generation is coming on, for the girls marry early, and the difficulties of to-day are not just those of twenty years ago. One mother reminded me a little while ago, "Do you remember how I lay on my back in the club and kicked and screamed?" We have no such manifestations in the club of 1909 among her daughters' contemporaries.

After a while I found that when the girls were somewhat tamed it was well to invite them to join the "Girls' Friendly Society," of which I was an associate, having a class in another part of the city. This was regarded as promotion. Often we were met with the objection that they did not wish to be good, as they would have to be if they joined the G. F. S. By degrees they learned that goodness did not consist in giving up the theatre or dancing—for in the north country we are great dancers—but in the consecration of all their actions to God's will. In time many of them became good, true members of the Girls' Friendly Society. In the first instance I looked to the G. F. S. to give them (and to give me an opportunity of enforcing) a definite moral aim, that of purity of life, but longer experience has shown the value of belonging to a world-wide society whose members are of varying ages and activities, from the head mistress of a primary school or the forewoman

in a milliners' shop to the young girl in her first situation in domestic service, or earning a few shillings a week in a factory.

The knowledge that they join hands all through their own land, as well as over seas, enlarges and widens their narrow lives, and gives to those lives greater dignity and responsibility; it brings also strength in weakness, and companionship in loneliness.

A girl may become a candidate at 8, a member at 13; she probably marries about 20; if willing, she becomes a branch helper; by-and-by she joins the Mothers' Union, and presently her own girl is at the candidates' class. This continuity is an important factor in raising public opinion.

In the case of one member who married a policeman, her husband urged her to start a candidates' class, as, in his calling, he saw the need of the purity teaching of the G. F. S. I felt this a remarkable testimony.

After a time the girls themselves are a great help. A few kindly elder members will quietly and unobtrusively form a strong but unseen ring round a giddy girl and are kindly and pleasant to the rough, unkempt girl whom they have drawn into the class. They are of the utmost service in keeping their less disciplined sisters from injury, and their own characters develop in the effort. A member said, "It is such a help to see in the street one of our ladies, or one of our girls, and perhaps get a smile or a nod—that just keeps one going." And for the girls who perhaps have no mother or worse than no mother, what a preservative is the big band of sisters of such a society!

A G. F. S. member, a very respectable young woman, once said to me, "You think, as I don't come to the class, that I don't value the G. F. S. I can tell you it was being in the G. F. S. kept me straight in a time of great temptation, and now as a thank offering I go to that class of poor children on our G. F. S. night, as that is my only free night." I was immensely surprised that the quiet, respectable, patient woman should have had such an experience, and I realized what an effort it must have cost her to speak of it.

I do feel that many another has been preserved, through God's blessing, by being one of a band pledged to uphold purity of life.

It is impossible to get statistics, but in two large country districts where 20 years ago illegitimate children were frequent—just a misfortune—now they are almost unheard of. The change is put down to definite purity teaching. The same has been said in the city, by men who publicly expressed their conversion from dislike to approval of the Society by watching the result of its work.

The thought comes, "Am I my sisters' keeper?" Surely the answer is "Yes." How often her mother is no protector, how often the strain of her daily labours drives her to accept low forms of recreation or entertainment in the rebound from the treadmill of her ill-paid task!

Give her sympathy, open her eyes to beauty, quicken her intelligence, cultivate her taste, exercise her powers, train her memory, develop her muscles, and fill her lungs with fresh air and her

hands with flowers, and you will do more to build up character than by many sermons.

Yet the word in season has its use. Most of us shrink from speaking directly on the subject of purity, but the necessity forces itself upon us sooner or later. Cultivated women do not at first realize that there are no curtains in the lives of their poorer sisters, that in a crowded home the knowledge of the processes of life comes early to a girl, that the promiscuous sleeping arrangements court disaster, and that thus plain, direct warning as to self-reverence and self-preservation is a necessity.

One outcome of the close personal relations between club girl and club leader, member and associate, should surely be the mutual helping forward of better housing, and the provision of a living wage.

If we can tide over the early years, if we can provide a vent for the animal spirits of our girls (and yet teach self-control) and a channel for their young enthusiasm, if we can make them feel that they have in us friends, who realize their danger and desire to arm them to meet it, then we may take courage, for the preservative work well begun is more than half done, and in the atmosphere of improved public opinion which certainly exists reserve of demeanour and modesty of behaviour may be looked for as the rule rather than the exception.

No hard and fast rule as to what amusements are lawful and what expedient can be laid down. The half-yearly hirings in the North of England are attended by crowds of farm servants of both sexes.

Up to 1895 the servants at the end of the day adjourned to the public houses, where dancing went on. A lady living in a remote country place noted with sorrow how often a girl's "fall" dated from the "term" dance. Realizing that dancing was a necessity, she interested the yeomen of her neighbourhood, induced them to act as stewards, put the organization on a paying basis, and now from 1,400 to 1,800 young people dance in perfect order and with a grace and rhythm that would shame many a ball-room, watched over by a committee which rarely, if ever, has cause to interfere.

The Chief Constable reports that this has been one of the best temperance movements ever made in the city, and acting on his advice, the magistrates refuse dancing licenses to all public houses on hiring days. The savings banks also report a marked increase of savings, and parents encourage their young people to enjoy a harmless pleasure.

In all work for girls we must not omit to put as much beauty as possible into their lives. We must encourage the working girl to choose the becoming as well as the useful dress or hat, sympathizing with her wish to look pretty and attractive and making it easy for her to talk about her "young man." Not in the way of the girl who said, "Lor, I've had a lad since I was twelve; when I tire of one I throw him off and take another"; but in the spirit

of the self-respecting maiden who realizes that a pure love is one of the greatest blessings God can give her, and that she must train herself to be worthy of it.

Looking back to the various lines on which the club work has developed, I find the love of beauty may be instilled in the occasional ramble amid the beauties of nature, the flowers, the mountain, the running water; drawing lessons will help to cultivate the sense.

Singing competitions store the mind with good songs, and the needful practice provides unconscious discipline. Swimming and drilling develop the body and increase physical strength; cookery, sewing and nursing lectures give preparation for home life, and thrift and temperance (the last a most important preservative) are inculcated by word and example.

All the refining educational influences brought to bear on the girls are instrumental in their uplifting, promoting a true, deep friendship which is a very real force for "keeping them from the evil."

But the lever, without which all the rest would fail of its purpose, is the knowledge that, however imperfectly, we are all trying to walk in the footsteps of Him "who died to make us good," our Lord and Master, Jesus Christ.

"I do not feel quite so lonely on a Wednesday night," wrote a girl who had gone from us to the "Greater Britain" over seas, "for I know that at nine o'clock you are all saying the Members' Prayer, and I can join you."

Decent surroundings, adequate remuneration, trained faculties, education, recreation, friendship, plain speaking, personal sympathy—these have helped and will help to keep girls pure and make them good wives and wise mothers; but I say emphatically, out of an experience of many years, that only in the strength of real personal religion, only by believing prayer, can we hope, or dare we claim, that "in all time of their temptation the good Lord will preserve and deliver our girls."

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## STATE GUARDIANSHIP OF YOUNG PEOPLE.

(MRS.) K. A. CHIPMAN, Canada.

Professor Hobhouse has called Sociology the "Science of Society," and Professor L. Stein, of the University of Berne, has said that "what Sociology is in need of to-day is a programme."

Surely politics, law, government, are the attempt of the chosen minds of a nation to study the science and provide the programme.

A very large place on the programmes of the western half of the world has been occupied for a considerable time by measures for the amelioration of pauperism, for the readjustment of dislocated trade and labor conditions, and for the moral improvement of cities.

In all these the central thought has been the *repairing* of evil, and the cost in money alone shows the mending (some of which is only temporary patchwork) to have been very expensive. A congested district, where such problems reach an acute stage, such as London, affords striking object lessons. Take the subject of poor relief, for instance. The London Poor Law authorities spend four or five million pounds per annum; charitable persons give a sum not far short of seven and one-quarter millions; added to which the great friendly societies spend six millions per annum on the relief of their members. It seems a lamentable expenditure merely to keep the unfit afloat. The thought will rise that had the beneficiaries of all this philanthropic effort been well looked after in youth, a large percentage might no doubt be healthy, self-supporting citizens to-day, instead of contributing ever-increasing virus to that "Cancer of Society," pauperism.

Solely from an economic point of view, would not outlay on preventive measures have paid better? In Canada we are a nation in the making. Why buy bitter experience when we can profit by that of others, and when we have still the chance to take the stitch in time? In the building up of a growing nation a wise and paternal government will not neglect the youth of the country. These are the pence which, being saved, will make up the pounds of good citizenship. It is practical economy. No nurseryman will allow worthless, unpruned, diseased scions to run riot through a valuable orchard. Yet year after year come to our cities youths of both sexes from country parts, from overseas, who, entirely without guidance or parental control, drift into whatever cranny affords a foothold, perhaps on uncongenial soil, very often on soil rankly unwholesome, physically and morally. If in such surroundings a crop springs up by and by to be garnered in gaols, hospitals and asylums, whose the blame, and whose the expense? Surely it constitutes a burden and a disgrace on the country at large. Let us begin on the hither side of harm, and taking the citizen in early youth, insist on well-ordered lives, useful industrial training, with wholesome physical conditions. But where must the responsibility lie for the carrying out of all this?

The strenuous efforts of a thousand organizations towards bettering the social conditions of our country must be imperative unless sustained by prudent governmental measures. Mere philanthropic work can soon be overtaken or undone by the inflooding tide of newcomers to our cities. And what of the young, like spindrift on that tide, tossed on a strange shore into the unknown life of those cities?

The last week in March immigrants to the number of 7,000 poured into Montreal within four days. It is safe to conjecture that amongst these were many young girls for whom, once beyond the truly kind protection of immigration officers, no authoritative care is provided.

Except for the restraints, variable, vague, entirely inadequate, exerted by an employer, or the moral influence of some such society

as the Girls' Friendly or the Young Women's Christian Association, these girls, often mere children, possess untrammelled liberty.

If, as frequently happens, they pass on to pioneer districts, and to the Far West, what are their chances for right and worthy lives on the outskirts of civilization? Is it not in these communities, the raw material of to-morrow's cities, that good beginnings are so desirable; that women, the home-makers, be preserved from worthless, vicious lives?

Thus, as the outward rush of the railway catches up and sows broadcast the bright weeds which Indians have named the "White man's footprints," so are these girls in the onward sweep of immigration borne into this wide land, and too often for want of care and wise control the flowers become weeds.

Young girls from 14 years of age, or even younger, come to our cities from country homes or from the Old World, in many cases fresh from the regulations and restrictions of Work Houses or like institutions, unpractised in habits of self-reliance, ignorant of social dangers and helpless to meet them, an easy prey to irremediable harm. With a mind that has probably assimilated little else than the false views of life set forth in cheap prints and play-bills, and at an age when one so easily pictures oneself the possible centre of romance, the young adventurer feels that having traversed so much of the round world, she now stands on the apex. She is eager for new experience, alert for excitement. Removed from accustomed environment, from traditional family and class opinion—a much more sensitive regulator of feminine action than public opinion—without suitable equipment or ballast, little wonder that these slight craft lose their moorings and drift in strange waters!

For lack of training and experience these raw recruits cannot secure situations or surroundings of the better sort. In shops and factories their wage is insufficient to compass good board and lodging.

Their free hours are beset with temptations to cheap and low amusements. In domestic service, however careful a mistress they may find, it is impossible to supervise their afternoons out, their conduct on the street, or the expenditure of their money. Therefore they frequently contract undesirable acquaintance with loafers about moving picture shows and even at church doors; and the earnings of one or two months are thrown away on a hat that does not last as long, while the purchaser is in sore need of plain, decent garments. If a keener realization be desired of the pitfalls and morasses which lie in the path of girls who earn their bread in a great city, "Sparrows," by H. W. C. Newte, will afford a lurid glimpse.

The moral influence of an employer or philanthropic society may go a certain distance, but it is easily evaded or shaken off entirely.

Many a conscientious, busy house mistress must have longed for an authoritative backer for her admonitions as to late hours.

indiscreet behaviour and extravagance in dress or pleasures. As it is, these points become troublesome, the recipient finds it pleasanter to leave her place. As a case in point, typical of hundreds:

Edith Jones, a nice-looking, intelligent girl of 14, was sent from an English Home to Canada. Her special friend, picked up on the boat, is a pretty child of 13 with a striking coloring of hair and complexion. When out together they attract undesirable attention. Edith is not fortunate in her first place. Certain details reported in her first letter to her G. F. S. associate in England cause that lady uneasiness. By return mail representatives of the Society here are asked to find Edith another place. This is done, but Edith is a most unskilled worker. She destroys her employer's utensils and materials and spends her wages on the flimsiest vanities. Already she and her little friend feel the joys of absolute independence; when corrected she gives notice. She has no ambition to become a good servant, but thinks a certain facility in "saying pieces" augurs a brilliant stage career for her. Consequently Edith changes places six times in six months, and notwithstanding her sufficient natural intelligence and the patience of carefully chosen employers, she will take no trouble to improve, and the prospects are that it will not be long before she shakes off the influence of her church and the G. F. S. If only there were some accredited official to step in and insist on a wise use of opportunity, Edith Jones might become a useful member of the community. As it is, her giddy ways and growing vanity will certainly bring her and her young friend, who follows her lead in all things, and is without the advantage of membership in the G. F. S. or any other helpful Society, to want or worse.

The case of the youthful male runs on parallel lines. Released from school and parental control, he too, in his new-found liberty, experiences that exaltation of the ego which, allowed to run wild, engenders the morbid craving for notoriety so richly contributory to juvenile courts. Many chances to one he comes to grief.

Independence with irresponsibility is a dangerous and explosive combination.

It would be instructive to learn how large a part in the percentage of crime and pauperism has been taken by the unrelated unit. Responsible to no one for the way he spends his time or his money, with vigor and animal spirits of youth to spur him on to action of some kind, it is not wonderful

"How oft the sight of means to do ill deeds  
Makes deeds ill done."

The decadence of apprenticeship, under which system the employer stood *in loco parentis*, has resulted in a large and growing class of unskilled workmen, who in hard times fill the threatful ranks of the unemployed. In France this matter is considered of such extreme urgency as to require the action of the Government. Accordingly a draft of proposed legislation has been drawn up and adopted at a congress of Commerce and National Industries, providing for the compulsory education of young persons under 18 years of age in technical instruction. Representatives of the muni-

cipal authorities, or associations of manufacturers, and of the work people, form committees for the purpose of seeing that the scheme is properly carried out.

A Commissioner of the British Government is now travelling in Canada for the purpose of handling the same problem. Attributing Hooliganism to the lack of training and supervision over growing boys, he recommends that on leaving school all boys, until they become ratepayers, should pass into the active care of municipal officers. He says:—

“Owing to the influence of trade unions, the training of apprentices is now practically done away with, for where a dozen apprentices used to be allowed in the workshop, only one is now allowed. The result is that, after leaving school, many boys, instead of becoming apprentices and settling down to steady work in the learning of a useful trade, become merely messengers or do odd jobs only, and in this way grow up to manhood without any kind of training or any capacity for consistent work. They are ill-fed, ill-paid, and badly clothed, and on this account are refused employment when they seek anything better. Finding avenues for the improvement of their condition closed to them, they become idlers and hooligans. You can find not hundreds, but thousands, of such idlers in every city. Yet they have to live, and the manner in which they contrive to do so is costly in the long run to the municipality. I estimate that in Glasgow every idler costs the city on an average of \$125 per annum—and there are thousands of them there.

We are now endeavouring to counteract the loss of the apprenticeship system by giving manual instruction in the schools, but it is of a very elementary character so far. The educational bill, just passed this year, makes it compulsory, with certain exemptions, for every boy to attend evening continuation school for a year or two after leaving the regular school. That is another step in the right direction. But I think the real way to stamp out hooliganism would be to pass over the school register to a municipal register, and employ a municipal officer to find out where each boy who leaves school was working or what he was doing. If he were working at home and working steadily, there would be no interference, but if he were in a lodging-house and would not work or had been dismissed for irregularity or because he was not properly clothed, then he should be taken in hand and helped. There ought to be constant supervision of this kind over all boys until they become ratepayers—not police supervision, but helpful supervision, and in connection with it there should be a municipal employment bureau.”

What seems to be needed, and needed urgently, before we be overtaken and confronted with the necessity for huge outlay on remedial legislation, is some sort of *legal guardianship* for young persons of either sex who are without parental control. A bureau under State management, the officers of which should take charge of such minors with authority to supervise employment and power to bestow opportunities for better or special training, receiving

reports from employers, insisting on a sensible use of money, and perhaps supervising recreations.

A system of Endowment Insurance or Provident Savings Fund might be included for the promotion of thrift, now so deplorably lacking amongst our working people. Thus when the individual became of age, a little capital would be in hand to start business or as provision against sickness or unemployment. Thriftlessness is a glaring fault of our young people. And thriftlessness, want and vice are never long apart.

Such an item on the State's Sociological programme does not involve an untried experiment. In Berne and other Swiss Cantons, guardianship of young people is carried out in elaborate detail by the authorities of the State or Canton. Institutions for various classes are provided. "Bettering" and Technical schools are found, as well as separate institutions for blind, defectives, etc. "Every boy or girl must, so far as he is able, be put in the way of earning his living as a skilled worker." Boys and girls alike remain under official surveillance until they are twenty; for when they pass out of the keeping of the local authorities, the Cantonal authorities take them in hand and provide each of them with a patron. Any ratepayer may be called upon to act as patron, the reality of his duties and office being shown by his yearly statement in answer to a list of questions set by Government.

If it be objected that the State cannot concern itself with the jetsam and flotsam of our cities; that the manufacture of hoodlums is too small a matter for consideration; that, in short, Government cannot engage itself in nursery legislation, we answer that no more disintegrating element to the common weal exists than the neglected, irresponsible units, whose trend, lacking most of the ordinary incentives to worthiness, is ever towards deterioration.

Deserving of studious attention is the following statement by Mr. Sydney Webb:—

"As it is coming more and more to be the business of Government to deal with minorities, to provide what is required for minorities, to legislate for minorities, because minorities are what the people as a whole is composed of, so we are discovering in one department of life after another that it is upon the specialized, scientific treatment of minorities—often of quite small minorities—that social well-being depends." And again, "By fencing off the downward way we divert the forces of competition along the upward way."

We take measures for the conservation of natural resources—protection of birds, game, forests, waterways. The uprightness, usefulness and thrift of the young life of our population demand, under penalties, conservation as national resources.

### PROTECTION OF CHILDREN.

By FR. DOHNER, Germany.

This lecture ought to have been given by Miss Paula Mueller, the President of our great association of German Evangelical

Christain Women, including about 10,000 members; but as she has unfortunately been prevented by bad health from coming here, she has asked me to speak in her place, and I must beg to be excused if I am not quite as explicit as she might have been, having studied the matters much longer.

I am going to speak to you about the protection of children in Germany. Does there not seem to be a contradiction in all these words? Do children, loved by everybody, looked on as a blessing in most families, want another protection than that of their parents, their natural protectors, on whom, according to our new code of civil law, is expressly imposed the duty of nourishing, educating and watching over their children. But we all know that unfortunately all parents do not accomplish this duty, and in such cases the State has a right to interfere, as the State has an interest in the welfare of all its subjects, including infants; and in order to protect their interest against those who abuse, or who are not able to fulfil their parental obligation, our State has issued only recently revised laws for the protection of children.

The sound development of a nation depends not so much on the number of yearly births, but rather on the preservation of those that are born; therefore it is necessary in the first place to find practical ways for this preservation, to try to diminish the mortality of children in their first babyhood. In Germany there die under four years of age about 28 per cent. of all children that are born, and of these about 40 per cent. are illegitimate children. This enormous number of innocent victims of carelessness shows clearly that there must be done more than before to diminish this great mortality; for even if we regret from a moral standpoint the great number of illegitimate births, about 11 per cent., we dare not increase the fatal consequences by shutting our eyes to the fact.

The first condition for an effectual protection of the baby is a protection of the mother, and since 1903 the German women have tried to improve the lot of poor prospective mothers by founding homes for them or by petitioning that the benefits of the legal insurance against illness might be extended to them. As yet this law does not include these women, but as I want to speak here especially of children, we will put aside this matter.

Orphans have been almost at all times objects of solicitude in a civilized nation, but not so the illegitimate children, and as these growing up under bad circumstances, contribute in a very high degree to the list of youthful criminals, the new law about the public care for minors puts the illegitimate children from their birth till their 21st year under the superintendence of the State. Every child must have a guardian, and as private guardians, especially the mothers acting as such, generally have no great success in getting the money for alimentation from the natural father, the new law prescribes that the private guardian is to be replaced by a professional one—in the town where I live, the director of the Orphan Home, who by his official authority has efficacious ways of compelling the natural father to pay. Generally the babies can-

not stay with their mother, but are given as foster-children into families, which must have a license from the police to receive such children. The superintendence over these families and these babies lies in the hands of women of education; we call them orphan trustees; they receive salary, and their duty is to visit them regularly every four weeks—oftener still in cases of illness—and to report about them to the Council for Orphans. When the babies are two years old the inspection goes over to other voluntary unpaid female orphan-assistants, who have to report in the same way, but only every six months; they work hand in hand with the male trustees of their district.

The care for all other children born in matrimony, as far as they are not supported by the State's administration for the poor, lies in private hands. All the single private endeavours are joined together in great central stations in the principal towns of our different German States. These central stations wish to establish relations between the official authorities and the voluntary helpers, so that the work on both sides may be supplementary, and besides, they wish to bring about among the working helpers a mutual intercourse, an exchange of experiences. They also give information to the public in all matters concerning the helping of youth, and they hold meetings and give lectures where these are discussed and explained. I can only name in a summary way some of these private institutions. We have the milk dispensaries, where good milk, sterilized, pure or mixed with other ingredients, according to the age of the baby, is given in small bottles, each containing one portion, at a minimum price, to whomsoever wants to fetch it. We have cribs for babies, nursery schools for young children, afternoon homes for school children whose mothers are obliged to work away from their own home. We have all sorts of societies for clothing, feeding, sending away sick children into forest schools in summer or to the seaside or other health resorts during the vacations. We have others which try specially to protect children from ill-treatment and abuse by their parents. The latter associations try to fill a gap in our laws, that as yet have no special mention of this crime often committed towards children through brutality, hate or mere pleasure in tormenting. Our law does not know the crime of mental violation by refined and continued cruelties; it only knows bodily violation and punishes according to the heaviness of the damage. It makes a difference between simple and dangerous hurts; the latter are those inflicted with a dangerous or moveable instrument.

One of the most important links in the chain of the entire protection of youth is our new law for trustee education enacted in 1901. This law determines that the trustee education shall take place in order to prevent the neglect of minors. When parents neglect their duty towards their child and lead an immoral or disgraceful life, the Court of Chancery, or equity as you say in America, can order that the child be taken away from the parents and put into another family or an institution, to be educated there.

Formerly children could only be taken in the so-called compulsory education stage, when they were already morally spoilt, but now even good children of bad parents can be taken away and saved from this danger; in this way the new law hopes to bring about a better moral state of the whole people by preventing the increasing criminality of minors. But as this separating the child from its parents is invading one of their chief rights and takes from them the sense of responsibility, the parents can complain against the official decree to bring a child under trustee education. As the proceedings last from six weeks to some months, in dangerous cases the children can be brought immediately into preliminary shelter. On the other side, careless parents, unmindful of their duty, sometimes try to get rid of a child by proposing themselves this trustee education, but only if it is clearly proved that their own means of education are entirely insufficient, is their demand complied with, and not without imposing on them the duty of refunding all expenses of this education that are paid out of public funds. Any youth until his 18th year, having committed a punishable deed, without having had the knowledge of its criminality, can be ordered trustee education.

We have in Germany about 25,000 to 30,000 children in this trustee education, and of these almost 75 per cent. are in families, as in normal cases there is given preference to these under the superintendence of a trustee. There are other cases where an establishment will better fulfil the object of educating a child to be a useful, self-supporting member of civil society; we have many of these under the immediate control of the Chief President of the Province and of medical men; we have as yet no special boards of charity, as in England and America.

Nowadays special care is given to those minors of mental inferiority who require individual treatment. The new law also involves these. Though many physicians say that feeble-minded children do not belong to the care of trustee education, as their brains are ill and they cannot be educated, others say that weakness of mind is not moral insanity, and if such a person can never be morally independent, yet we must not cease to put moral claims on these unfortunate beings and try to bring them by good education into the pure atmosphere of a high standard of life. We begin with these feeble-minded very early; they are put in separate school classes and remain under control till they are twenty-one. Unfortunately these children are also often afflicted with particular sensual desires, either inborn or acquired, from the example of their parents, in narrow lodgings where they hear and see things that excite their sensuality; therefore these children must be taken away as soon as possible into better surroundings.

The only instance where parents can be punished by the police with imprisonment is when they use their children for begging, when they mutilate them, or send them out in ragged clothing to excite pity, or instruct them to tell lies so that they may earn more money to support their lazy parents. As a rule it is lawful

and just for parents to employ their children in a way answering to their faculties and powers to help them either in their house or in some trade, but never must this exceed the child's strength or lead into an immoral channel.

We have a third new law since 1904, concerning this labour of children in different trades, but as yet it is not extended to family or agricultural work. Schoolmasters first called public attention to this matter, as they could best state that children exhausted by work cannot give proper attention in school, and therefore do not reach the standard demanded by the school. In 1891 a law provided that children under 12 years should not be allowed to work in factories or workshops, and at the age of 13 or 14 years, when in Germany the obligation of going to school ends, only six hours daily. Of course the number of children employed in trade diminished greatly in consequence of this regulation, but it increased the domestic work, and when it was found out by a general inquiry that more than half a million, say six per cent., were employed besides those in factories, the new law was enacted, which exercises a sort of protection of those children who work in families or in small workshops. It is impossible to forbid this work, which is necessary to a certain extent; therefore this law seeks only to obviate the abuse of this permission in order to prevent the injurious consequences to the sound development of the child.

The law forbids school children under 12 years to carry out milk, bread, papers or other things in the time between 8 in the evening and 8 in the morning, so that they may have a good night's rest. At other times such children may be employed, but no more than three hours daily. No boy under 12 years, a girl never, is allowed to be employed in public drinking-houses or inns; no children are allowed to act in public exhibitions or theatres, except when they serve the higher interests of art. A great many trades are entirely forbidden as being unfit or unwholesome for children to work in, as, for instance, all work with stone, metal, pottery, tobacco, chimney-sweeping, and many more. Every child must have a license to work from the police, signed by his natural guardian. Parents breaking these rules can be fined or imprisoned, but in general parents who employ their own children in their own house are not controlled quite as strictly, as the law always goes upon the principle that the natural family ties are strong enough to prevent a parent from abusing his child.

Training a child to work is no abuse; regular work is necessary to everybody, and a child that has only played and never learned in early youth the necessity of work, will be in after life a less efficient worker than another that has been brought up to use and develop his own bodily and mental faculties.

I have tried to make you acquainted in these short minutes with our three new laws for the protection of children—the law concerning minors, the law for trustee education, and the law about children's work. All new laws show their true value only after having been tested, for good thoughts are of no more use than beautiful dreams unless they be put into practise.

## AFTERNOON SESSION.

Chairman—Miss Riddell.

Subject—Settlement Work.

## WOMEN'S SETTLEMENTS IN GREAT BRITAIN.

MISS ELIZABETH MACADAM, Victoria Settlement, Liverpool; late Women's University Settlement, London (Eng.)

The first Settlement for women in England, like Toynbee Hall for men, was the outcome of a movement at Oxford and Cambridge. It is known as the Women's University Settlement, and was established in South London in 1889. At the present time there are in London about twenty Settlements, in the generally accepted use of the term, as well as others of a less formal nature, and they are also to be found in most of the great provincial towns, Birmingham, Manchester, Liverpool, Glasgow, Edinburgh, Sheffield, Bristol, Dundee, as well as in a few smaller places, such as Middlesborough, Stoke-on-Trent and Chesterfield, where they are called into being to meet special local needs. It is impossible in a short paper to give any complete idea of the great variety of the work undertaken by these different organizations, so I must confine myself to the brief consideration of the principles which seem common to all, and to some of the individual characteristics of the more representative types.

All Settlements have to some extent departed from the simplicity of their original aim. This could hardly have been avoided in the complexity of modern conditions. The quiet neighbourliness and the natural homelike existence, with nothing of the nature of philanthropy or institutionalism, which was the idea of those who first came to live their lives among the poor, soon became impossible. The depths of poverty with which they were confronted, the need of specialized work among different sections of the community, the women and children, the growing girls and boys, the sick, the crippled—besides the demand for public-spirited citizens—all this changed the whole conception.

To-day we find the Settlement has become a busy centre of effort of many kinds, with a handful of residents and usually a band of outside workers, taking an active part in local governing bodies and societies, in addition to establishing and managing numerous organizations of their own, to fill gaps not otherwise filled.

In both men's and women's Settlements in Great Britain most of the work is unpaid, but the woman resident, who usually has an independent income, gives up her whole time, while the man, who is often at the beginning of his career, has his business or profession and gives part of his leisure. Most of those responsible for guiding the policy of Settlements are alive to the risk of losing the simplicity and humility of their origin in the pressure of necessary work, but the spirit of equality and neighbourliness need surely

not be lost, but should take a different form, in these days of popular government and many organizations. The Settlement residents should have ample opportunities for meeting their neighbours in the relation of fellow-worker. They are co-members of a neighbouring Church or Mission, a Co-operative Guild, a Women's Temperance Association, a Labour League or a Liberal Federation, or a Suffrage Society, even a School Management Committee or Board of Guardians. There is nothing artificial in the natural relations founded on a true community of interest, thus established.

There are many different kinds of Settlements in Great Britain. There are the University and College Settlements which were first in the field. Some of these are entirely unsectarian, such as the Women's University Settlement in Southwark and the Manchester and Glasgow Settlements. Some are, however, connected with the Church of England, but do not limit their programme to parochial work, including as they do special work of a more general nature. Examples of these are Lady Margaret Hall Settlement, St. Hilda's, St. Margaret's House, St. Mildred's House, Isle of Dogs. Others again are non-college and unsectarian, with no definite body behind them; one of these, the Liverpool Settlement, was established through the National Union of Women Workers. A few are definitely attached to some particular Church, as in the case of the Roman Catholic Settlements and the Grey Ladies, Blackheath, which provides workers for parishes in the poorest parts of London. The most recently established Settlement has been established through the Women's and Girls' Diocesan Association, named the Bishop Creighton House, in memory of the late Bishop of London.

The whole subject of the association of Settlements with religious bodies has given rise to much controversy. There seems to be scope for all the different types just described to suit the inclinations of different people, and I think it may fairly be said, and it is certainly a matter for congratulation, that whether the basis of a Settlement is avowedly religious or not, it tends to become a bond of unity in a district, a centre to which people of all faiths may come to learn how much they have in common.

Another subject in which much difference of opinion arises is that of politics. I think no Settlement definitely represents any particular political body, and no Women's Settlement takes a very prominent part in local politics, though residents have as much individual freedom as possible and free discussion on all subjects is encouraged. Without intending it, however, Settlements often become associated with some particular school of thought, generally because some one associated with the Settlement has unconsciously stamped his or her personality upon it. Thus, while avowedly non-political, one or two of our Women's Settlements have the reputation of being individualistic and conservative, while others are considered socialistic and progressive.

In England there are no Settlements in which both men and women as fellow-residents are to be found, though in several instances a Woman's House has been the outcome of a Men's Settle-

ment, usually, however, entirely independent in management. It is often found that non-resident workers are of both sexes. Thus we have at the Passmore Edwards Settlement for men the well-known work among children done by Mrs. Humphry Ward. In Manchester, which in this respect stands alone, there are two houses of residence at present under one Warden and Committee, and all the work is done in common.

Most of the English Settlements for women are small in numbers, the number of residents varying from five or six to sixteen, and much of the work is done by non-resident helpers.

To turn to actual work. So much is done at the present time by public bodies, that the majority of Women's Settlements both in London and the Provinces find it best to work mainly with, and for, organizations already in existence. Here I cannot do better than quote Miss Sewell, the late Warden, and now Chairman of the Committee of the Women's University Settlement. "To be in a position to co-operate with other institutions, including the clergy, a Settlement must have won its way to their respect and confidence. This cannot come suddenly at the beginning, but is sure to come as soon as it is deserved in any neighbourhood where the harvest is plentiful but the labourers few, and it is in such neighbourhoods as these that Settlements establish themselves. To be friendly without losing independence, to be critical without being hostile, useful but not interfering, able to work with and develop the best institutions without being dominated by any—this is a task which may employ the best energies of a Settlement and which implies an attitude of mind, which no one, not the most ambitious, is likely to scorn as too easy of attainment."

In some Settlements we find Poor Law Guardians, members of Unemployment Committees, Old Age Pension Committees, Education Committees, and almost every London Settlement has workers acting as School Managers under the Education Committee, or working on the Care Committees now established by the London County Council in connection with the poorest elementary schools for the purpose of watching over the physical well-being of the children.

Clubs for girls, sometimes clubs for boys, are found in almost every Settlement. Thrift work of some sort is usually undertaken. One or two Settlements have started branches of Friendly Societies for sick benefit, which admit women and children; others give the use of their rooms for this purpose. Many of the London Settlements are in close co-operation with the Charity Organization Society. Some provide workers and Honorary Secretaries for its Local Committees.

Both in London and in the Provinces most Settlements take some share in the care of invalid and cripple children, and undertake work among infants and young mothers in conjunction with some local Health Society or under the Medical Officer of Health.

Many Settlements are interested in the provision of country holidays both for children and adults, and several have country cottages of their own, to which parties can be taken. At least

three Settlements known to me are responsible for Vacation Schools.

Though the modern Settlement finds its most useful function in acting as a medium between the opportunities offered by existing organizations and those they are intended to benefit, it is often necessary to devise machinery to supply a need not already met, and that machinery is frequently adopted and developed by public authorities or large voluntary organizations. The history of Settlements gives many illustrations of this. The little cripple classes started on humble lines have become the well equipped, special schools of to-day, and in the same way, it seems probable that the skilled employment and apprentice departments, established by many Settlements, will before long be taken over by a public authority and juvenile labour exchanges started in connection with the elementary schools.

The peculiar needs of the district chosen decide the programme which should be adopted, and it is not surprising that while certain kinds of work are common to all, each has its individual features. Thus the Canning Town Settlement has a small and complete hospital for women. The University Settlement has a workshop for crippled lads, and Birmingham has had a weaving school for crippled girls. Manchester and Canning Town have a scheme for legal advice for those who cannot afford to pay. Liverpool had until lately a dispensary for women and children, now independent in its management. Dundee does house management. Most Settlements do not confine themselves to the purely utilitarian aspect of life, but try in every way possible to bring brightness and beauty and joyousness to their district. The Manchester Settlement has a Museum and Art Gallery, and others have annual Bulb and Flower Shows and picture exhibitions and frequent concerts, entertainments and social gatherings.

Another development of the modern Settlement has been the attempt to make more scientific use of its unequalled opportunities for acquiring information as to social and industrial conditions. A prejudice still exists in many minds against using the Settlement for purposes of research or investigation, and there can be no doubt that the attitude of regarding our fellow creatures and neighbours as interesting specimens of abnormal conditions, might easily be fatal to the true Settlement spirit. On the other hand, there seems no reason why Settlement workers, provided they have the requisite faculty of accurate observation, should not record and store up their valuable facts. Interesting enquiries into such questions as Housing, Home Work, Feeding of School Children, the Employment of Lads Between School Age and Manhood, have been conducted and shared in by Settlements in recent years.

The question of training has been of late increasing in the minds of all social workers, and great advance has been made, though even now the need of training is not recognized in Great Britain to the same extent as in America. The Women's University Settlement took the lead in this and established a scheme of training in conjunction with the Charity Organization Society.

The London School of Sociology is the outcome of this. Several of the London Settlements, among others the Women's University Settlement, St. Hilda's, Lady Margaret Hall, offer definite courses of practical training and students attend lectures at the School of Economics or School of Sociology. Liverpool and Birmingham Settlements also have schemes of training; the practical work is done at the Settlements and systematic courses of lectures have been arranged at the local universities. Glasgow and Dundee also offer practical training, especially for those who wish to become familiar with Scottish institutions.

It is needless to dwell on the special value of the Settlement as a training ground. Its manifold interests, the elasticity of its programme, its independent position, its possibilities for intimate knowledge of social and industrial conditions, all combine to give the student almost unequalled opportunities for the study of social problems.

There is no time left to discuss the possible future of the Settlement in England. It is the very essence of the Settlement idea that there must be constant change, constant readjusting, ceaseless casting off what is no longer required, and an unfailing readiness to fill whatever part may be called for by the ever changing circumstances of the time and place.

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## SETTLEMENT WORK IN HOLLAND.

M. G. KNAPPERT.

To start with a paradox: there is not one Settlement in Holland; Holland stands among those European countries where a large amount of genuine Settlement work is done, coming, perhaps, first after England.

We do not want Settlements—that is to say, regular colonies of cultured people among the poor, for two obvious reasons:

1st. Even in our largest towns the local government is central, and our west-end people are elected by and do represent east-end people as well as their own class; this means that one does not need to be a resident in a poor district to represent it in Councils, on School Boards, etc.

2nd. With us the poor and the well-to-do people live at elbow's distance from one another. In our industrial and commercial centres there are hundreds of the upper and middle classes, who do know and do realize how the poor live, and who are in very real and vital touch with them. In England, as far as I know, there are only Settlements in the big towns—London, Liverpool, Manchester, Glasgow, Birmingham. I think the smaller towns do not need them for the same reason that there are none in Holland. But Settlement work there is abundantly in the Netherlands, and it is done everywhere, even in the country. I shall not say a word of all that is done in order to better the conditions of living of the poor: Octavia Hill work, poor relief, district nursing, rent collecting, tem-

perance reform, etc. For, in Holland, all this work has nothing to do whatever with what I should call a Settlement, if settlers there were, with what we call "The People's Hall." A People's Hall in Holland is the embodiment of educational social work for the poor, and I cannot help thinking that such men as Arthur Denison and Arnold Toynbee would have felt at home in our "People's Halls." Almost all the work that Krell House encloses within its enormous walls is done in our cities, but by different corporations and various organizations.

Whatever may be true for England, Holland derives its inspiration directly from Arnold Toynbee, his life and his work, so much so that, up till now, all the educational social work that centres in our People's Halls is called "Toynbee work." A visit to Toynbee Hall is considered as a sort of pilgrimage by our social workers, though very few know where the real connection lies between Arnold Toynbee and the settlement in Whitechapel that is honoured by his name and honours it. As a matter of fact, the work is most conspicuous and most important in those places where it has its own centre of operation in a building erected for the purpose and superintended by a person whose life work concentrates itself in the place. That is why Amsterdam and Leyden come first. It is known that in other places—The Hague, Middelburg, Schiedam, Utrecht, etc.—there are buildings used only or chiefly for social work, but they were not built for the work, and perhaps, therefore, have not taken hold of the imagination of the people as the others have. Rotterdam is building just now an enormous People's Hall, bigger than these in Amsterdam and Leyden. All of these houses owe their existence to the generosity and social feeling of one citizen—Amsterdam and Rotterdam to a man of business; Leyden to a Professor of Law at Leyden University.

In each of these towns educational social work was done before the house was built, but everywhere the foundation roused the well-to-do people, and produced a considerable increase of the number of social workers. What Toynbee Hall is to England, what Hull House is to America, the "People's Hall" in Amsterdam is to Holland, the oldest and best known institution of the kind. It was opened in 1892. A general feature of all our social work is its undenominationalism, though one can be sure that, with many of the workers, a deep religious conviction and a clear spiritual insight are at the bottom of their endeavours.

The outspoken aim of the most important institution for social work is: to develop the so-called lower classes and to establish a sound and natural contact between men of different classes of society. Now, as people have very different ideas, if any idea at all, on what development means and includes, the result is that in the different centres of social work stress is laid on different things. There are places where the principal aim seems to be to procure to the working classes a better opportunity to get "success in life." The ideal, then, is to create courses for adults, besides facilitating free and easy intercourse between men and women of different

social standing. In other towns regular courses are looked upon as desirable in a "Volkshuis," so long only as they are given nowhere else, towns where to increase "success in living" is looked upon as the real aim of the work. In some houses culture and civilization are considered identical; in others they are rather felt as antagonistic in our days of show and sham. In one place the thought that comes first is the *social* welfare of the poor; in another the primary care is to make their *personal* lives richer and happier. In fact, there are places where the main pre-occupation of the leaders is to teach people how to use their spare time, rather than how to be efficient in their daily tasks. But in the large "People's Halls," whatever their leading thought may be, there are lessons and clubs, reading rooms and libraries for children and for adults, concerts and exhibitions and lectures, a poor man's lawyer, and so on. Yet all places of some importance have their own features; so Amsterdam has its most successful classes in physics; the Hague, its conversational lessons in foreign languages; Leyden, its regular weekly exhibitions of wild flowers, and its beautiful collection of framed pictures that are lent for this purpose by their possessors just as books are.

The warden of a "People's Hall" works under a committee in almost complete liberty, but under the burden of a great responsibility. The wardens are either men or women. Whether a man or a woman runs a place means perhaps more than people realize to the spirit and the prevailing interests. It certainly has something to do with the beauty of the surroundings, and the atmosphere of the place. Whenever, coming into a "Volkshuis," you find fresh flowers on the tables, it is a token the warden is a woman.

The workers are recruited among the citizens, but it happens that they come from elsewhere out of sympathy with the methods followed in a house. As a rule the lady workers are the most numerous. In some university towns valuable work is done by men students. We know of a city of about 50,000 inhabitants where the Volkshuis has between 70 and 80 regular workers on the staff. These are acting as club leaders, or they are teaching languages, singing, drawing, needle work, cooking, history, political economy, and so on. A special set of ladies and gentlemen explain at the exhibitions of all kinds, for instance, of wild flowers or pictures, mushrooms or pottery, furniture or national dresses. We are in sore need of workers everywhere. Many people, women especially, I think, just now care much more for their rights than for their duties. Moreover, these people forget that thousands of human beings want to be educated up to the *right* use of larger opportunities.

"What then, indeed,

If mortals are not greater by the head  
Than any of their properties?"

As far as I know, between 1891 and 1905, educational settlement work was started in 45 places in Holland, and the movement is still spreading. The "Training School for social work" at Amsterdam is of much value to keep the work on a high level.

## THE KING'S DAUGHTERS IN SETTLEMENT WORK.

An Adress by MRS. B. C. WHITNEY, Detroit, U.S.A.

The King's Daughters Associations have over a thousand distinct lines of work. In Maryland, for instance, a home for epileptics is conducted. Good work is done in Japan, and in Canada work of great magnitude is done. Work is carried on also among the deep-sea fishermen and the Indians of the Northwest, as well as in the great cities, where numbers of circles are formed, rest rooms are provided and supervised, and many other lines of work are developed. In New York the Margaret Bottome Home is proving itself very useful.

All good social work is one with settlement work in the broadest sense, in that the same broad spirit of loving charity is shown whenever one gives to another that which God has given him of love, happiness, health, opportunity, and all the many other gifts of His great bounty.

There is the broadest spirit of Christianity in King's Daughters work. It is entirely undenominational, and the religious aspect is strongly emphasized.

Fröken Elizabeth Gad, of Denmark, in an informal address, told of the work of a teacher, Julia Rudolph, who fills her life with all sorts of labours on behalf of children. She has travelled and studied in England and Belgium, has formed settlements, and has lived among the people. She first formed classes for the study of sewing and cooking. Seeing the needs of boys, Miss Rudolph, in 1907, opened reading rooms for them in two small rooms, to which friends contributed literature; and the venture was a great success. In the next year she opened larger quarters, and had seven hundred and sixty-five visits in one month. Once a month a social meeting is held. Boys from seven to seventeen years of age come and all wish to do something towards the success of the evening.

There are now eight reading rooms for children in Jutland's capital, with an average of twenty-five child visitors daily.

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## PROTECTIVE WORK FOR CHILDREN IN CHICAGO.

MRS. JOSEPH T. BOWEN.

There is to-day a world movement with regard to the treatment and protection of children, of which one splendid evidence is the establishment of Juvenile Courts in almost all large cities in the United States.

The necessity for such institutions is realized very clearly when we learn that 15,000 Chicago children under twenty years of age were arrested, paroled, or put in reformatories, in one year. And this goes on year after year.

Five hundred million more dollars is spent by the United States in fighting crime than in charities. Too little attention has

been paid to the building of preventive barriers. The Juvenile Protective Association of Chicago tries to do this and thus lessen the work of the Juvenile Court.

Chicago is divided into sixteen districts, with a committee of citizens in each, who watch over the agencies for good, such as settlements, playgrounds, etc., and over those making for evil, such as saloons, dance halls, disreputable houses, etc.

The "block system" was established one year and a half ago. Each district is divided into blocks and one citizen in each block is appointed to look into the conditions of that block. He is to prosecute saloon-keepers who defy the law, as in selling liquor to minors, to prevent the sale of cocaine, obscene postal cards, etc., to indict keepers of disreputable houses, to prevent the display of objectionable posters, whose influence is very bad, as experience has proved again and again; and, in short, to proceed against any person who, in defiance of the law, is lowering the moral standard of the district.

In Chicago at one time there were 425 five-cent moving picture theatres. Half the films of these theatres were obscene or falsely sentimental, raising false standards and laying the foundation of bad morals. Juvenile Court records have proved the truth of this statement again and again. Now the Chief of Police in Chicago, by law, appoints a Censorship Committee, which shall censor all films shown in Chicago. Not long ago only seven films of those in use in the 425 theatres were found on inspection to be poor.

Two hundred and seventy-nine School Principals gave the names of boys known to them who smoked. Those selling the tobacco to these children were summoned before a municipal judge, and the law was explained to them. A second offence brings an adequate sentence.

The use of cocaine powders has grown to alarming proportions. They are terrible in their effect on body and mind. The Juvenile Protective Association prosecuted one druggist and convicted him six times. Each time the hundred dollar fine was promptly paid. The Association found that more drastic legislation was necessary, and now a fine of a thousand dollars follows the first offence.

Last year, in Chicago, 1,500,000 obscene postcards were destroyed and eighty men were prosecuted by the efforts of this Association, and through its agency also many of the worst pool rooms were closed.

The Special Delivery Messengers of the Chicago General Post Office habitually gambled while waiting to be sent out with messages. This was changed by the Association's fitting up a reading room with some fifty odd volumes of interest to the boys.

The Association moved again in the interests of children in connection with the dance halls of Chicago, which were pitfalls for the young. Liquor was sold there to mere children, with most disastrous results. Officers of the Association have been instructed to take these children home and to secure the promise of the parents:

to keep them there, and then to institute proceedings against those who sold the liquor.

When dubious cases come up before judges of the Municipal Courts, the culprits are taken charge of by officers of the Juvenile Protective Association and watched over. Many deluded and betrayed girls come under its guardianship in this way.

Formerly slot machines were planted broadcast throughout Chicago. They really served to foster the gambling spirit. Over 700 such machines were taken out through the agency of this Association.

The Association found another sphere of activity in doing away with the infamous house parties for children, which were given by some evil-minded persons, and at which whiskey and cocaine were given to the children along with apples and cakes, and they were left to their own devices and to all sorts of dissipation induced by the unaccustomed stimulants.

The rest rooms in departmental stores were often used by young girls seeking employment in order to read the newspaper's advertisements of situations. Frequently men and women came to these rooms to entice girls to an evil life. In one week fifteen such men and one such woman were arrested and convicted of this offence. Now employment bureaus have been established by the Juvenile Protective Association in many such rooms.

Some hospitals had, in unacknowledged connection, a baby farm. No record of illegitimate children was kept. In such a state of affairs lay a fruitful source of crime. Some of the women keeping these places were prosecuted and convicted through the active efforts of this same Association.

Foreigners living in Chicago were in the habit of sending their children to the railroad tracks to pick up coal. Cards were sent out by the Juvenile Protective Association, telling them in several languages that this was against the law. This was done so that parents, rather than the ignorant and innocent children, could be held accountable for the misdemeanour, and agitation which resulted in the Contributing Delinquents' Act, was brought about by the Association.

Last, but not least, among the many beneficent activities of the Association (spoken of by Mrs. Bowen) comes the establishment of psychopathic clinics in Chicago, where children may be examined for mental and moral, as well as physical, qualities. Such troubles as adenoids, defective eyesight or hearing, and all kindred ills, are discovered early in a child's career, and adequate measures are taken to cure the child or at least to improve its condition.

Thus it appears that the work of the Juvenile Protective Association of Chicago is not only repressive, but constructive. The establishment and supervision of gymnasiums, playgrounds, swimming pools and athletic fields and practical plans for the bettering and brightening of the physical, moral and spiritual condition of home-life all come within the scope of its work. It aims also at the obtaining of such laws as shall secure for the poor model tenements

with hygienic conditions as to air, sunlight and cleanliness, as well as all such laws as aim at the betterment of general social conditions.

### INTERNATIONAL CATHOLIC ASSOCIATION FOR THE PROTECTION OF YOUNG WOMEN.

By E. VAJ. ELISA AMERIGHI.

Under the Honorary Presidency of H. M. the Queen, and the high patronage of H. M. the Queen Mother and their Serene Highnesses, the Duchesses of Aosta and of Genoa.

The Italian section of the International Catholic Association for the Protection of Young Women originated in Turin in 1902. Prof. Bettaggi drew up the principles.

Twenty-nine Local Committees have been founded.

More than 45 adherents and correspondents in smaller towns have also been instituted by the Committee.

An office has been established at Chiasso, because thousands of girl emigrants pass that way.

Characteristic notice cards of the Association, with information for girls travelling, have been posted in many railway stations. These cards are white and yellow, being the colours where the Association was founded.

The President of the Italian section holds propaganda meetings from time to time in the various cities of Italy, for forming new branches and directing those already existing.

The National Committee publishes a small guide for girls travelling.

The pamphlet of the National Committee contains the Rules and Manual of the Association, and Almanac of the Association.

A pamphlet with notices of the work in Italy is sent to the *Friburg Bulletin* and inserted in the French periodical. Accounts of the work are also sent to Italian periodicals.

The Protective Association should not hold aloof from the great intellectual movement or from the great manifestations of activity which might in any way interest the Association. It took part in the Salesianic Congress, in the Congress for Public Morality in 1903, in the Congress of Family Education in Milan, and in the International Congress of Assistance and Foresight in Milan, and in the International Congress of the Association in Munich, 1902.

At the Milan Exhibition in 1906 the Association was awarded a gold medal and the President of the Italian National Committee a silver one.

The Protective Association took part in the Italian Women's Congress in Rome in 1908.

In order to keep in touch with the various branches and preserve unity of purpose, a General Ordinance for the Local Committees, and a District Ordinance destined for the use of the Committees of the surrounding districts, are published.

The Committee sends a circular with a question form to be filled up, to the Mayors and Parish Priests of all regions where the Association has branches, in order to improve the conditions for the emigration of girls in Italy, and control the direction of its currents to and from Italy.

The National Committee takes a lively interest in the material and more especially the moral conditions which may affect young Italian women on their arrival in foreign countries, and especially in great industrial establishments, to which the greater number of them tend.

Too often the arrangements for sending girls abroad escape control, and therefore the Association not only tries more and more to get the girls to place themselves under its surveillance, but also seeks to restrain emigration by promoting the institution of training schools; and also procures information and rules of institutes, destined for the use of girls, etc., thus putting our special information bureau in a position to give valuable directions to girls seeking work.

The National Committee, in order to keep up to date with the social works relating to women, associates itself with all publications interested in our work. It also enters into friendly relations with similar institutions, helping each other reciprocally.

On the occasion of the Milan Exhibition, together with the Patronato Society and the Mutual Aid Society for young work-women, the Association founded a large Family House for the special benefit of the young women employees at the Exhibition itself.

The Protective Committee has put an end to several strikes away from the Socialist Party.

The National Committee was requested to prepare a notice regarding the work for a Ministerial enquiry (in Parliament), as also to collect data for general information on the Feminist Movement in Italy during the last ten years, to be sent by the Council of Italian Women to the International Exhibition at St. Louis.

Our local institutions generally comprise:—A Secretary's office; an employment office; lodging-house for girls travelling and also as a fixed abode; recreation rooms with gymnasium, for performances, promenades, etc.; patronesses' festival; Sunday school; school for domestic, professional and summer works and for un-cared-for children; service at the station; notices in villages, trams and carriages.

Two Committees have founded Mutual Help Societies. Two Committees hold conferences periodically for moral instruction. One has a Domestic Servants' Association. One takes an interest in imprisoned minors and has opened a house for fallen girls. Some Committees have instituted Ladies' Workrooms in aid of the poorer ones among the girls.

Besides these, a laundry, circulating library, savings bank, winter evening catechisms, etc. Through the Secretary's office marriages have been facilitated, and free medical attendance provided. Small co-operative societies have also been started.

The National Committee also takes measures against the White Slave Trade, obtaining precise information as to the clandestine traffic in young girls over the frontier and taking suitable steps to prevent this.

In the employment office, domestics, lady clerks, governesses, both foreign and Italian, are allowed to inscribe themselves.

The National Committee has, besides, solicited all the local Committees to procure a list of all factories where one can trust girls and to exchange such lists among the above Committees.

For placing single girls abroad, as in the case of governesses, etc., the National Committee acts as intermediary among the Italian Committees and the central one, which publishes the notices relative to the matter in the bulletin of the institution.

Many Committees have instituted restaurants and recreation rooms where working girls can find good, wholesome hot soup at mid-day at a low price, and may consume any other food brought from home, afterwards remaining there as long as they wish. At closing time they can pass into the sitting-room with the ladies, where they may read, write or work.

This, in brief, is the work of the Protective Society in Italy, which is very happy to come over the seas and introduce itself to a sympathetic Congress held in Canada, where charity makes us all sisters, and where we hope our work will be loved and appreciated.

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#### A REPORT OF WHAT IS BEING DONE TO CHECK VAGRANCY IN NORWAY.

By MISS THORA STORM, Trondhjem.

For centuries gipsies have roved about the valleys and mountains of Norway. The real gipsies have mixed with roving Germans, Swedes and also Norwegian vagrants.

The vagabonds in Norway—their speech and character bad enough, but yet not devoid of redeeming qualities—have been totally disregarded, despised and jostled about up to the middle of the 19th century. Rigorous laws were issued, severe punishments were inflicted without the Government's succeeding in checking the nuisance. They were regarded as outlaws that ought to be chased from every place. And this state of warfare made matters worse. The danger and the insecurity sharpened their cunning, made them keep still more closely together, and increased their hatred of the peasants living peacefully on their farms. To them the vagabonds have been and are indeed a scourge. When they arrive—men, women and children—at the solitary farm, requiring shelter and food, the peasant dare not breathe a word, no help being near. He is obliged to shelter them; otherwise they may perhaps avenge themselves by setting fire to his farm or by "bewitching" his flocks. No wonder that the tramps were hated and despised and that there was no room for love and compassion in their case.

In the middle of the last century, however, when more humane ideas as to the poor and unhappy were put forward, we learned to regard the gipsies as miserable brethren, that ought to be enlightened and drawn into Christian society.

The man who in those days consecrated a great part of his life to working for the gipsies, must not be forgotten; his name was Eilert Sundt. For twenty years he worked for them by writing about them, by travelling about the country to study their life and manners, their peculiar language and their genealogy. For these people, in spite of their misery, are proud of their pedigree. It was especially the real gipsies he studied, but feeling warmly for all poor and afflicted, Eilert Sundt made careful investigations everywhere as to the life and conditions of the lowest grades of society. He got a travelling pension from the Government, and most valuable information as to the life of the gipsies was acquired.

The result was that work-houses were established, and money was granted by the Government to teach them to earn their livelihood in a lawful way. But what was done in those days was not sufficient. Neither was the work taken up in a practical way. Little was thought of the children, and to get at the root of the nuisance they ought to begin with them. Eilert Sundt perhaps did not see this clearly, but in our days—"the child's century," as it has been called—we understand this. Eilert Sundt was misjudged and misunderstood; he was no longer supported by the Government. He retired from the work and died as parson of Eidsvold in 1875.

Those who have taken up the work after him have benefited by his rich experience. About ten years ago was founded "The Society for Checking and Preventing Vagrancy," on the initiative of Rev. Mr. Jacob Walssum, who is the warm and interested leader in this act of charity. What especially is aimed at is the erecting of Homes for Children, and the establishing of Labour Colonies, where the families may settle down and earn their livelihood honestly.

According to statistics recently worked up, there are in Norway 211 institutions for 9,907 children. Out of 89 "Homes," with 2,427 children, four are "Homes" for 100 gipsies' children. These children—boys and girls together—are here received at an age of one to four years, and they stay at the "Homes" till they are grown up. They are taught to make themselves generally useful in the household and at the field work. At the age of 10 to 12 years the boys are removed to the fourth "Home," which is only for boys. Here they are taught handicrafts and all essentials of field labour.

The gipsies are not forced to send their children to the Homes, but once placed there, they cannot be removed. If the parents try to do so, they are prevented by "The Board of Guardians." There is in every municipality a Board of Guardians, consisting of a judge, a clergyman and five other members; two of them at least are to be women. It is an institution only known in Norway and lately also in Denmark. Great authority is, upon the whole,

placed in the hands of the Board. They may remove all neglected children from bad homes and place them in trustworthy, honest families or in some reformatory school. They may even, if necessary, deprive parents, neglecting their children, of their parental authority. Parents who by force try to remove their children from any "Home," are liable to punishment. Consequently the Board is a great help in dealing with the gipsies.

Great exertions are now being made to check vagrancy, partly by private agency, partly by legislation. Idleness or any attempt on the part of a man to shirk the work of providing for himself, may be punished with imprisonment or detention in a work-house, according to the sentence passed. If, however, the vagabonds willingly try to improve and to work, they may go to the Labour Colonies established last year at Svanviken, near Kristiansund. This considerable estate is bestowed on the above mentioned society for checking vagrancy by the heirs of the deceased minister, Mr. Astrup. Here may as well be mentioned that Miss Ebba Astrup, the minister's daughter, administers Rostadbarnhjem, a home for about 30 children, and the home separate for the boys in the Diocese of Thronhjelm.

Miss Astrup has consecrated her life and her riches to this work, and to her and her family we owe the progress of the work. Svanviken is an estate mostly bog-land, but partly cultivated. It shows the most considerable cultivation of bog-land in Norway, and the work was arranged chiefly by Mr. Astrup himself. It was given away with farming implements, machines, live stock (100 cows, etc.,) and furniture. There have been, by the society above named, up till the present, put up eight small "Homes," and more houses will be established when the means are produced. Vagabond families who will come here may stay for a year or two. They are taught to work by cultivating the estate and to live a quiet, regular life. If they behave well they may remove to other homes, built for them. By industry and diligence they will in time become owners of these homes, to the erection of which the Government now has granted a sum of money. If they are not willing to stay at Svanviken during the first year of probation, they are forced to go to the work-houses that will be erected by the Government according to a coercion bill issued last year.

The interest in the Labour Colonies is spreading all over the country. The King and Queen have given a donation towards the building of one of the probation homes at Svanviken; and this year a man at Bergen has offered to build two small homes at Svanviken.

Also in the south of the country a Labouring Colony is to be established. A Christian Society for assisting miserable and homeless persons has given all its means for a Labour Colony for vagabonds without wives and children.

Much is still to be done, for 4,000 gipsies and 1,500 vagabonds are still roving about. But the Government and private agencies are now working together hand in hand. So we have the firm con-

viction that the sincere efforts to check this "national" nuisance will not be in vain.

Miss Anderson, Scotland, said that in the Women's University Settlement of London, where she had worked, the idea of patronage had been banished, and extreme good-fellowship existed between helpers and helped.

[Further discussion followed, which exigencies of space prevent us from inserting.—Editor.]

[For the joint sessions on Friday, in the morning with the "Education" and "Philanthropy" Sections, and in the afternoon with the same Sections, see under "Joint Sessions," Vol. I.]

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### MONDAY, JUNE 28TH—MORNING SESSION.

Chairman—Mrs. A. M. Huestis.

Subject—Prison Reform.

#### "THE ONE DIVINE WORK IS TO DO JUSTICE."

Address by MRS. G. E. SPENCER (Wm. Loring Spencer), United States.

"Do unto others as you would that they should do unto you" has been the keynote of all right-minded effort throughout the ages.

Mrs. Spencer instanced several cases of injustice in the name of law which she had been able to relieve.

These instances had caused Mrs. Spencer to resolve to give her services to the poor in the criminal courts to see that they received equal justice with the rich.

She brought method to her work; she secured a pass, visited the prisoners frequently, chatted with them and won their confidence. Recognizing the worth of her work, the police finally helped her to serve subpoenas, so that the accused might have every chance to establish their innocence by witnesses. She would chat with the accused, learn his version of the affair, and secure as large as possible a list of names of possible witnesses in the affair, so that the prisoner might have the benefit of their testimony. In this way she had been able to help, and save, many who might otherwise have spent their lives as criminals.

With such instances as these, Mrs. Spencer illustrated the crying need of the personal touch—and its efficacy—even in the affairs of justice. For it should never be forgotten that to reform, not merely to punish, is the highest end of justice.

## THE TREATMENT OF WOMEN IN PRISON.

By DR. TERESA LABRIOLA, Professor of the Philosophy of Law,  
University of Rome, Italy.

Italy is at present passing through an interesting period in her endeavour to alter ideas and opinions with regard to the treatment of juvenile delinquents and the reform of prison regulations.

As is generally acknowledged, Italy may be called the birth-place of criminal anthropology. In spite of the exaggerated opinions of some of its promoters, the fact remains that the study of criminal anthropology has been the means of shaking the old ideas on the subject of crime, and on the functions of the law as regards prevention and repression.

Though Italy has reconstructed her political system, she has largely conserved her old ideas and her old methods. It is particularly to be noted that while in the political field a fierce battle is in progress between Clericals and ultra-Conservatives, on the one hand, and Radicals and Liberals on the other, there is as yet no sufficiently widespread modern and sensible pedagogic criterion built up on a scientific basis, and which, having risen above the strife of parties, might be a safe and secure guide towards a radical reform of the punishment system and of the management of prisons. And this is the very country that has been accused of audacity in attempting sudden and radical changes (aimed at the very foundations of the juridical structure) advanced by the promoters of scientific movements, among whom I would like to mention the names of Lombroso and of Ferri as worthy of all honour.

The fervour of the upholders of the new ideas has by no means died out. Although in a practical direction comparatively little has been done, still it must be admitted that a great movement is on foot for considering the functions of the State in the matter of the prevention and the repression of crime which fall upon it as a duty and hold it responsible for the material and moral well-being of the community.

Among the most recent interesting changes in this connection I must mention the introduction of the indeterminate sentence. The results attained by this innovation are really remarkable, for the offender, with the fear of punishment on the one hand, and the assurance of its remission on the other, as the result of his good conduct, has a strong inducement to conduct himself in such a manner as to insure the remission of his sentence. This new regulation, due to the efforts of the present Minister of Justice, the Honourable Mr. Orlando, is an evidence of an important triumph of the most modern ideas on the question of the efficacy and the function of punishment. It is a clear indication of the abolition, it is hoped permanently, of the old terroristic methods in vogue until quite recently.

Another very important departure is in the method of dealing with juvenile delinquents and in the conduct of the courts of justice for children. The Minister of Justice has passed an ordin-

ance declaring that all proceedings against minors shall take place on specified days and at certain hours. It is needless to point out of what great benefit this wise provision will be in respect to the morals of children and of young people, particularly in the case of young girls.

I should like specially to draw the attention of the women of this Congress to the great improvement that may have been made in reformatories for juvenile delinquents. A too slight acquaintance with the nature of children had, in the past, induced legislators and administrators to establish reformatories for children in the very prisons themselves. Children and young people were kept in the same establishments as criminal adults, and thus minors of the tender age of from 10 to 12 years were left in the hands of ordinary gaolers, regardless of the pedagogic criterion. The introduction of the pedagogic criterion is due to Comm. Alessandro Doria, the present Director-General of Prisons and Reformatories in Italy. In a report addressed to the President of the Council of Ministers, Comm. Doria lays before them the evils of the system of reformatories as organized in the past, and gives an account of the difficulties encountered in their reorganization. The staff for supervision and education has been entirely changed. It has been very sensibly arranged to divide the delinquents in groups according to their ages. It has been considered wise to adopt a much more liberal treatment of the delinquents. Culture has been largely increased. I shall not continue to enumerate the good results of the new system; my special object is to show that delinquent girls have received less benefit from these reforms than delinquent boys.

Com. Doria explains how the rules established for boys' reformatories may be adopted by reformatories for girls as well, with but few modifications. In his report he says:—"It might be remarked, that seeing that these reformatories for girls and boys are State institutions, it might have been preferable to sever them entirely from any connection with the religious orders, and organize an independent administration with a special staff possibly better fitted to develop in young girls both civil and domestic virtues. This objection would be justifiable if in the special circumstances the present administration could not hold forth particularly good reasons for continuing the old system, which might be objected to on the ground that it did not correspond to the altered conditions and manner of life of the present time.

"Moreover, we have in Italy only one State Reformatory for girls, that of Perugia, which has always been carried on in a regular manner, although not always to the entire satisfaction of the Government. This reformatory is under the management of Sisters. When young girls cannot find room in this institution, the Administration has taken advantage of other private institutions of similar nature, organized under the same system and managed by Sisters. The treatment of the inmates has always been found satisfactory, both as regards their education and mode of correc-

tion, and no complaint has ever been made in connection with them. At the same time the Government keeps a strict watch over all these institutions and employs direct means for ascertaining that all the stipulated conditions are strictly observed by the Sisters with regard to the care and instruction of the young girls and the management of the institutions themselves. With a view to ensuring perfect control, it is my intention to appoint a lady who by her special qualities and her womanly tact will fill the position to which she will be appointed far better than any other functionary. She will have authority to inspect all institutions for women, to study their internal management, discover their shortcomings and mistakes, and finally she will be expected to make suggestions as to the necessary improvements.

"It is worthy of remark that the number of delinquent girls is smaller than that of delinquent boys; moreover, the parents and friends of girls who are convicted, probably by reason of old tradition or from force of habit, generally prefer to commit the education of their children to the Church, considering it of more weight and better suited for the correction of their juvenile misdemeanors and for the repression of their unruly dispositions. We must admit that even if this opinion does not strictly correspond to our ideas of the truth, there is no doubt that the nuns have a distinct aptitude for teaching and for the observance of discipline, and this more particularly seeing they are prompted by a sentiment of true charity and a love of doing good. They always obtain satisfactory and often brilliant results from their system of education."

Here ends the report of the Director of Prisons. Later on he adds "that under these considerations there seems to be no good reason for changing the old system. However," he observes. "if in future it should become necessary to give to the education of delinquent girls a different direction and a secular control, or if anything should occur to partially or entirely change the present conditions, the Administration would lose no time in making the necessary provisions."

This is, in brief, an impartial account of the general management of prisons, impartial in so far as it represents the most optimistic or at any rate the least pessimistic view of the condition of things and the problems arising therefrom.

The fact still remains that all reformatories for girls are under the charge of Sisters who are never asked to show any diploma or document that will establish their aptitude or preparation for that particular branch of pedagogy which makes a study of the correction of delinquents, and the sick and deficient in general. There also remains the fact that besides the Perugia Reformatory and those institutions that are under the State, there are many houses that may be called altogether private, which are outside all possibility of public action. And these institutions, being private establishments of the Church, are exempt from all supervision by the State. There is not even a correct register of these houses, and their exact methods of working are not known. To judge by a few

facts that have come under my observation, I have to conclude that the above mentioned houses are not judiciously managed, nor do they answer to the requirements of modern ideas of education and responsibility.

It has been impossible to alter the management of the prisons in such a manner as to completely change the treatment of women prisoners. People of different views and political opinions have deemed it indispensable to leave the charge and supervision of them in the hands of the Sisters.

The same reasons given by Com. Doria for this conclusion as regards reformatories for minors, hold good in regard to prisons for women. A lady of most liberal views and independent political opinions, Marchesa Zina Tartarini, while acknowledging the many shortcomings of the influence of nuns in the prisons, is willing to admit that they are most valuable in this field of work, and although her opinions have been greatly controverted by women of modern ideas like the valiant propagandist Linda Malnati, she still is firmly fixed in her belief. And this even after a special appointment made by the General Director of Prisons, enabling her to visit and thoroughly investigate even the most secret recesses of the prisons and enquire into their general management.

Very serious accusations have recently been brought forward by a young woman (belonging to a secret society), Maria Rygiel, who had been imprisoned for the spread of antimilitaristic opinions. She does not exactly find fault with the system of the old psychology (which upholds a system for the repression of crimes that are now not admitted), but she accuses the female staff of acts of loose morals which are not in accordance with normal psychology. These serious charges have been answered by Marchesa Tartarini, who has shown that such painful facts do occur in several houses of correction, and that they must needs happen out of a fatal necessity. She does not place so much importance on them and says that they are not very frequent. She does not blame the Sisters in general for these conditions, and writes:— "Where else would one find such a patient, humble and tolerant element, which for years struggles and dies silently without proclaiming to the four winds its virtues and its bravery. Where else do we find women who for the sake of education, civilization and humanity, are as those Nuns to-day, who work for the love of God alone?"

But setting aside these accusations, probably exaggerated, made against the Sisters who are supposed to be guilty of acts not only reprehensible, but absolutely condemned, or even acknowledging that the monastic government of prisons is carried on without great disadvantages, still there always remains the serious drawback of a pedagogic system that has not the preparation of a solid and extensive culture. The term of expiation of the punishment which should be the means of the improvement of the delinquent, is often rendered almost ridiculous, amounting only to a mere social responsibility without in any way giving the women the means for the acquisition of those spiritual qualities that might

be called "character," those strong vital forces, the true energies that will counteract the effect of their surroundings and will act as the natural outcome of the intuitional part of their nature. The lack of these qualities is for the most part the cause of immoral behaviour, especially in women during the period of puberty and adolescence (and this really extends beyond the age of minority), and it is just for this reason that the prison system should be such as to contribute to the development of the active forces. Now, the old system is characterized by the fact that such methods of education and repression tend to decrease rather than increase these active forces, these real energies, and this particularly in women, accustomed as they are to a passive life of humility and resignation.

To this most serious failing of the old system, of which the Sisters are very often the representatives, must be added the danger of the contact of women not corrupted with those already hardened to vice and crime. For this reason the consideration is very serious that there are not separate houses of correction for the punishment of political crimes and for those committed against the freedom of labour, etc. I may add that the appointment of Inspectresses of Prisons is not always adequate. Often eminently respectable women are called upon to lend their services gratuitously without any regular and clear instructions as to what is expected of them. It often happens that the Inspectress, instead of being alone with the prisoner, is accompanied by the Director or the Chaplain, etc., and almost guarded from the immediate sight of evil, and prevented in consequence from enquiring into the causes and the roots of it. The visits of the Inspectresses are generally expected and things are prepared for them with so much unnecessary display, that their work is often useless and a sinecure. The Marchesa Tartarini is the only woman who has succeeded in bringing the Italian public in close contact with the painful conditions that exist inside these female houses of correction. It must also be borne in mind that we have no police matrons, consequently even girls of the tenderest years find themselves entrusted to the care of men who are often too much hardened to the sight of vice to understand the suffering caused by a woman's sensibility of feeling. Moreover, and this is very important, the examination of prisoners is in Italy carried on secretly, and it is therefore very difficult to introduce into the court even a regularly appointed corps of police matrons during the time of the examination of the accused. All those present have to be functionaries of State, and so far women have been excluded both by the letter and by the spirit of the law from filling any position that implies sovereignty, e.g., the office of magistrate.

As voluntary Inspectresses I have pleasure in mentioning to her great honour, Signora Gina Mazza, of Rome, who is well aware of the present evils, and suggests remedies both for the moral and material side in the manner of assisting delinquents.

I will limit myself to stating how such Inspectresses, and in particular Signora Mazza, advocate a wider extension of the func-

tions of lady visitors. These in their estimation should be appointed Inspectresses in order that they might privately receive the confidence and complaints of the unfortunate inmates; by means of the example of great men and by the help of moral literature, they may be enabled to elevate and broaden the spirit and the moral standard of the convicts. They desire to make it possible to carry on untiringly the education of women who in the future might be able to fill the position of assistants and guardians of the delinquents with untiring energy and uprightness. This scheme of reform does not in any way intend to throw blame on everything that has been done in the past, it simply means that the prisons for women should also participate in and enjoy the fruits of modern times, that the spirit of high ideals should be allowed to penetrate within these gloomy walls and cheer and elevate those who are within. The spirit of energy and sacrifice that has been the mainspring of philanthropy in the past is not sufficient, no more is the strenuous modern scientific spirit. Loving-kindness and mercy should, as in the past, abide in our prisons for women, but it should be assisted by a knowledge of hygiene, which demands radical improvements, and it should be enlightened by a psychology which studies and traces the development and the degeneration of the human soul. We already have in Prof. Maria Montessori a careful and watchful teacher of defective children; we need in our women's prisons the same spirit of minute analysis and radical cure.

Moreover, we still need in our women's prisons, as well as in many other institutions, a delicate spirit of morality, so as to put an end to the last, but not the least, regrettable elements of violence and cruelty.

Gaoler Aguzzino represents the extreme means introduced by a civilized society to repress evil. But Gaoler Aguzzino may be supplanted to a great extent by the educator as well as by the woman of modern spirit.

Nowadays, especially in a Catholic country, we encounter difficulties in finding women willing to shut themselves up in a living tomb in close contact with all the sorrows and vices it contains, women willing to renounce the pure pleasures of maternity, unless they are either Nuns or Deaconesses, or represent the religious idea in some other way. The most difficult of all problems is this:—how to combine these offices which demand an unconditional sacrifice, with the function, which is woman's mission, of wifehood and motherhood, but the problem of the staffing of women's prisons is the most evident of all. I do not pretend that the solution of it is easy; in fact, I believe that the improvement of the material side of the problem (a thing that with us generally takes place rapidly) is very much easier than the solution of the moral side. In the meantime I would present to the Congress of Toronto a programme that I have already presented on December 12th, 1908, as a matter of study and consideration to the National Council of Italian Women, which has been unanimously approved of and graciously accepted by our illustrious and beloved President,

Countess Spalletti. If the propositions of this programme be well received in Italy, we will feel that we have made in our country great strides in the direction of progress in the treatment of women in prison.

Here follows the programme:—

The defence of female minors requires:—

1. Juridical reform, revision of several articles of the penal code as regards crimes against morality.

2. Police reform, especially with the object of introducing a corps of women to assist delinquent women from the first moment of their examination (in court?)

3. Reform of the Houses of Correction for female minors already in existence, and the founding of other similar establishments.

This Section considers it necessary (a) that the Minister of the Interior have a complete list of all Houses of Correction for delinquent female minors, etc.; (b) that fundamental rules for their management be re-established regularly; (c) that he should have at his disposal a number of Inspectresses, whose duty shall be to watch over and supervise the already existing and the new Houses of Correction.

This Section is of opinion that the institutions already existing must not be abolished, but deems it necessary that a better discipline and supervision should be exercised, and above all, that a better scientific criterion as to the appreciation of the moral and intellectual qualities of the delinquents should be introduced.

4. The formation of a corps of Inspectresses, who shall have the duty and right to visit the prisons and report secretly thereon to the Minister of the Interior.

5. The formation in all communities of the nation of Committees of Morality, which without being necessarily composed of functionaries of State, shall have laid upon them the duty of investigating and denouncing any crime against morality.

During the discussion which followed, and in which a number of workers in prisons took part, the need of Female Inspectors of women prisoners was emphasized, and cases were cited of much good done by these.

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## JUVENILE COURTS.

By Miss ROSA BARRETT, Ireland.

The object of Children's Courts is to *separate* adult and more hardened offenders from those beginning, or in danger of beginning, a career of crime, and to try to reform rather than merely to punish. Many of the younger law-breakers sin through ignorance, never having been under discipline or training, others from bad example, others from love of excitement, while many of the offences for which juveniles are summoned are technical ones, not real moral offences. Thus, at a sitting of the Juvenile Court in

Dublin at which I was present, nearly every offence was an innocent one, if that is not a bull. One tiny dot, hardly five, appeared in its father's arms; one had climbed a tree and broken a branch; same had bathed in the canal (surely a laudable attempt at cleanliness); others had played football in the street or thrown stones. But what child is there who does not do this sort of thing, if he has any spunk? Why punish a poor boy for it; why of all absurdities imprison such a lad and so make him start life handicapped?

We are, however, learning that a fence at the top of a cliff is better value than an ambulance at the foot, and to imprison a child is now recognized as folly. Such a state of things is no longer possible. We can work on in hope, for every country is moving in the right direction; and just as leprosy and typhus have been almost stamped out, not by cure, but by prevention, so we are beginning to fight moral dangers also, and seeking to prevent crime more than to punish. We in England are slow to move, but when we start moving, we keep at it and happily we always have our more spirited Colonies to push us on and set us good examples.

As regards this special work among juvenile offenders, South Australia, as most know, was the first country to institute Children's Courts in 1890. Children charged with offences may be wholly released, or released on probation and subject to supervision till they are 18 or less. A friend wrote to me the other day from South Australia, that she had just seen the street Arabs there being converted on a peach farm into Apollos. Victoria, New Zealand, and in 1905 New South Wales, have all followed this example by passing acts establishing separate courts. Parents pay one-half the cost of children dependent on State in New Zealand, so recognizing their responsibility for children with a special magistrate. Those accused may be released on probation or on such terms as the court thinks wise, and the parents, if they have conduced to the child's offence by neglect may be fined—an important and too rare provision. As a result, the prisons and police courts are now cleared of children in this colony. Relapses among those placed under First Offenders' Act are hardly known. The system is both less costly than imprisonment and far more successful in reforming.

In Great Britain, Children's Courts are now compulsory, but they had previously been started experimentally and voluntarily in a few towns—thirty to forty altogether—among the first being Birmingham, Dublin, Belfast, Bradford, Leeds, etc. Birmingham, under the able and enthusiastic guidance of Mr. Courtenay Lord, has been the most thorough in this. I have been present at the sittings here and elsewhere. Before the Court was established, in 1905, 166 children were sent to prison; in 1907, 20, and in 1908, only eight, and none from Birmingham City. Offences, as well as prisoners, not the same thing, have decreased wonderfully; moreover, only 16 made a second appearance before the court. Of 687 cases, only 15 re-appeared; in fact, of the 650 to 680 cases dealt with in a year, only 3 per cent. are recidivistes, as compared with 40 to 45 per cent. among juvenile prisoners.

Under our new Act, most of which came into force on April 1, 1909, and the rest relating to juvenile offenders, is at latest, on Jan. 1, 1910, the trials of juvenile offenders—that is, of all under 16—except in a few very serious cases, must be held quite apart from those of adults. When such an one is arrested he may not be sent to prison, nor be associated with adult offenders in police station, cell or vehicle, nor be tried with them.

Chicago was the first town in America to institute separate Children's Courts; now in at least 21 of the States there are separate Courts at work—more than one in some States, in different towns, and altogether some 250 are now at work. In 40 out of 46 States Juvenile Court laws have been passed. Colorado was the first State to pass an Act punishing those responsible for or aiding a child's delinquency (Illinois and Nebraska and only these three, have similar laws). For this, the parent or guardian is liable to a fine or imprisonment, but the sentence may be suspended if reform is promised.

The first Court in the State of New York was opened in Buffalo (?), and the first building in the world built specially for a Children's Court was opened in New York in 1902—the probation work here is carried on by the S. P. C. C. (the first S. P. C. C. in the world New York claims to have started in 1875), and the children on remand are sent to the shelter of the S. P. C. C. Since the New York Juvenile Court was opened in 1902, 6,579 children have been released on parole, and of these 5,543, or 84 per cent., have done well and not re-appeared in Court. New York now seeks power to separate adult from juvenile probation work, as different treatment is needed.

In Massachusetts—always in the forefront of good work—juvenile culprits or inmates of reformatories may be boarded out, remaining under control until they are 21, and subject to recall; but the preventive work is so good that juvenile prisoners and inmates of reformatories and industrial schools have diminished 50 per cent.—a half—in ten years. The average stay in Lancaster Industrial School is 18 months, and 72.5 per cent. of those who have left are doing well.

Most places claim great success for the probation system—Philadelphia, for example. Here some 95 per cent. are reformed at home, and only 5 per cent. had to be sent to institutions. In Ottawa this is more marked still: of 240 cases, only three, or one per cent., had to be removed, and of these the parents are paying for two. A dozen are not quite satisfactory, but only six re-appeared before the Court.

I hesitate to say much of a country with which others here are so much more familiar, but as early as 1894 Canada passed a law for the separate trial and detention of juvenile offenders. In Ontario the Act required special places to be provided for such trials or Juvenile Courts in all towns of over 10,000 population. Since 1903 the child may be discharged or placed under a probation officer, and since 1905 a Children's Committee has been formed

in each district, those responsible for the child's delinquency may be punished, the imprisonment of juveniles is abolished, while those under 14 must be sent to some safe place of custody, not a prison, while awaiting trial. Over 1,000 children each year come before the Toronto Children's Court, which I have attended; of these nine-tenths are simply warned and return home, but there is too little subsequent supervision.

Ottawa has a good Children's Aid Society. Children's Courts and the probation system have been adopted, or are about to be, in many countries, Italy, Holland, Brussels, France, Germany (Berlin), Austria, and even in Cairo and Asia.

The evils of imprisonment are obvious—the young think themselves heroes afterwards; they lose the dread of prison—a wholesome fear—become contaminated and handicapped at the start of life. Generally, too, the sentences are far too short for education or good habits of industry, etc., to be taught—or any trade. No worse use can be made of a child.

#### CAUSES OF JUVENILE CRIME.

A large number of prisoners are physically or mentally defective. There are from one to 200,000 feeble-minded in England and some 30 per cent. among prisoners, while only 55 per cent. are physically equal to hard work. In Elmira it is found that some 37 per cent. are mentally defective on admission, nearly as many physically, and 19.9 tubercular.

In every country the majority of prisoners are very illiterate. For long among prisoners in England the uneducated prisoners were 95 to 97 per cent. of the total. This has improved, but even now five per cent. only are well educated, seven out of 10 badly. Even now in England among prisoners, many lads over 16 are quite uneducated. In the States the same fact holds good—prisoners are eight times as numerous among the uneducated as among the educated class; 73 per cent. of the prisoners are quite illiterate in the U. S. In France 95 per cent., and in Switzerland 83 per cent. prisoners are uneducated. In Belgium, while the uneducated decreased from 44 per cent. in 1850 to 18 per cent. in 1880, crime decreased in the same period one-half. In New Zealand illiteracy fell from 24 to 16 per cent. and crime decreased 17 per cent. in ten years. I have brought some diagrams with me to illustrate graphically the effect education has had upon juvenile crime in Great Britain and Ireland.

But for really hopeful results we must look at such countries as this glorious one where we are now meeting—Canada. Here, with an increasing population, crime decreased between 1870 and 1897, or rather the committals to prisons and to reformatories decreased by one-half and vagrancy shows also a marked decrease. Though I hesitate, as a visitor, to enlarge upon local statistics and facts, I think there is absolutely no doubt that the main reason why one country differs so much from another in crime has its root in the indulgence in, or abstinence from, strong drink. Seventy-two per cent. of the crime of Scotland is directly caused by

drink, and in Europe generally 65 per cent., while in France crime has increased by a fourth since 1880, when free sale of drink was allowed.

In New Zealand the consumption of drink decreased 50 per cent. in 10 years; crime, 17 per cent. But the consumption of alcohol in Canada is only one-third of what it is in the United States—one-fifth of what it is in Great Britain. This is a digression, but it is impossible in dealing with juvenile crime not to touch upon this subject, and in Canada—in the States, too—you are being rewarded for your magnificent onslaught on this, the greatest enemy of child-life.

#### MANUAL INSTRUCTION.

In connection with juvenile crime, I must touch upon one other cause—and remedy. On an average four-fifths of the younger criminals know no trade—more than half are casual labourers or of no employment—only a sixth of the male prisoners are skilled workers. In Scotland three-fifths of the prisoners were casual labourers, and of 5,000 tramps, 80 per cent. were unskilled, the other 20 per cent. mostly drunk. This class return again and again. Yet we are bringing up new generations without any trade, and the State is largely responsible for this. In England the State employs 20,000 lads from 10 to 19 years of age as messengers, etc.; when too old for this work—at which they can earn 5/ to 15/ a week—they are also too old to learn a trade, they are fit for nothing, it is a "blind alley."

In Germany 94 per cent. of the juveniles arrested are found to be neither at work nor learning to follow any regular employment.

Street trading is even more pernicious. In Leeds over 60 per cent. of those sent to Industrial Schools had been street hawkers. Street trading is indeed one of the chief manufacturing grounds of crime, yet there are 2,000 to 3,000 in Birmingham alone. Happily nearly abolished in Canada, but even here I see little ragged children selling papers in the street.

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### CHILDREN'S COURTS VERSUS REFORMATORIES.

SIGNORA BARTLETT, Italy.

In considering these two methods of treating juvenile delinquents, the methods of Children's Courts, and the method of Reformatories, we are considering really the rival claims of idealism and materialism, or, in other words, we are pitting the new school of thought against a school which is now slowly but surely losing ground.

The life of the reformatory addresses itself to the outer side of a delinquent child—it changes his circumstances and temporarily, by coercion, reforms his conduct. The methods employed by the Juvenile Court leave unchanged the circumstances, in great part at least, and address themselves to the strengthening of char-

acter. The believer in reformatory life also expects, of course, to attain by such treatment the reformation of character but he says: "We work through conduct to character," and the believer in Children's Courts says rather, "We work through character to conduct."

This is the essential difference in the two methods of treatment—the Reformatory begins from the outer side, the Children's Court from the inner. And a very short consideration of the situation will show us that both methods are needed. The difficulty in the past has been that there has been only one method employed indiscriminately with most varying types of children. The progress of the future is going to lie in the wise balancing and blending of the two methods.

How necessary this is we see instantly if we consider the case of ordinary honest children: there is the unresponsive, unimpressionable child, with whom argument and appeal are ineffectual—to such we give orders, contenting ourselves with the formation of good habits, and trusting these may later pass into tastes. These children find their counterpart in the penal world, and for such, the hard and unimpressionable cases, the Reformatory is the only method of treatment. But we all know amongst the children of our acquaintance that there is another type of child to whom the wise educator never gives an order without a reason—the sensitive child, who is easy to lead, but impossible to drive. This type also finds its counterpart in the penal world, and for such children as these the Reformatory is ruinous, and the gentler, more friendly methods of the Children's Court and the Probation Officer, assisted by the Detention School, are the only ones through which reform can be attained.

There is little to be gained through the study of statistics in approaching a question like this, partly because statistics are frequently so fallacious and misleading, still more because they tell so little even when they are reliable. They tell us that a certain number of cases have been cured by a certain method. But what kind of cases, and by what application of the special method? We are no further forward if they tell us the technical offence, and that the treatment has been "Reformatory" or "Probation." We want to know the type of the child, and the type of the Reformatory or Probation Officer that dealt with him, before we have that amount of information on which alone true conclusion can be based, and no statistics carry us so far into the heart of things as this.

Not a knowledge of Government reports therefore, but a sympathetic knowledge of child nature, is rather what the students of this problem need to bring to bear upon it. They must be illumined by certain guiding principles, and work for the application of these principles. They should understand clearly what Reformatory treatment and Children's Court treatment (generally represented by probation) stand for—that roughly, they represent respectively, coercion and persuasion—and trying as far as possible to keep their minds clear of fixed ideas, such as "always we must

get children out of bad homes," or "always we must preserve the integrity of the family," they must try to deal freshly with every case as it comes up, deciding to which type, sensitive or insensitive, the child belongs, and to which method accordingly, the persuasive or the coercive, it may with most likelihood be expected to respond.

So much for the choice of the system—and then for the application? Here again we find the need of blending and find that each system works best where its administrators have learnt to take something from the other. Education is the chief note in good Children's Court and probation work—education taken in its broadest sense; both Judge and Probation Officer are alive to the necessity of comprehending, and developing, rather than controlling, the children that pass through their hands. Eliminating the element of liberty, which is peculiar to probation, we find this idea of education appearing increasingly in the best reformatories also now. Not only are the inmates taught trades so as to render them self-supporting in the outer life, but an ever increasing attention is also being paid to the quality of the men and women charged with the task of teaching and supervision. A notable instance of this is the change which in recent years has been made in the State Reformatories of Italy—reformatories which can rank with the best in America. In these reformatories of Italy the staff of warders has been entirely replaced by masters drawn from the elementary schools; one sees the idea has been accepted that a man must be a natural educator before he can work reform—in other words the new idealism, the power of suggestion as a strong factor in conduct, is beginning to creep even into institutions representative for long of merely mechanical treatment.

In the same way if we consider probation work we find that it undoubtedly works best in those countries and cities where there is a developed institutional life in the shape of Boys' Clubs, etc., to lead co-operation. Freedom is the main condition of probation, as supervision is the main condition of the reformatory. But with the freedom of probation there must also be frequent opportunity for contact with and study of the child—such opportunity as clubs and other rallying places afford. These of course are not reformatories, but they represent institutional life in modified force, and one sees the unwisdom of condemning either system entirely—the collective or the individual. Both have something to offer.

But whilst both systems are undoubtedly needed to deal with the many types of delinquent children, there is one great advantage attaching to those systems of supervised liberty generally employed by Children's Courts which does make them greatly superior to the life of the reformatories, and which should cause them to be the treatment chosen wherever possible—this advantage is that the child left at liberty is supervised and trained under normal conditions. The value of this is so obvious that to expatiate upon it would be superfluous. The boy or girl in the reformatory is doing well under artificial conditions which cannot be continued—when he or she returns to the life of the outer world,

what guarantee is there that the improvement will continue? The child under probation on the contrary is pursuing its training under conditions which will continue—the conditions of its often most unhelpful home life. If despite the handicaps of this home life the probation officer succeeds in inspiring a taste for work and a healthier outlook on life, he has given to that child not a temporary, a removable, amelioration of circumstance, such as the reformatory affords, but a permanent stock in trade—a strength which can combat the untoward circumstances of the present, and the possibly harder circumstances of the future. All reform of conduct which does not reach to character is a building on sand, and it is well that we should recognize it as such whilst admitting that yet this, it is, which makes reformatory life so unsatisfactory—conduct is easily judged of, but character can only really show itself in liberty. In this connection it is instructive to recall something once said by Mr. Harn, the Superintendent of Concord Reformatory, Massachusetts, to a probation officer: "Never send a boy here," he said, "until you have lost all hope of him." And yet Concord is probably one of the best reformatories in the world.

Concluding with this opinion of a man of wide experience we may say that whilst repressive methods are still necessary, and will doubtless always be necessary for the treatment of a recalcitrant minority, the methods introduced with Children's Courts, Detention Homes and Probation, are yet the methods of the future—they represent the new idealism—the increasing faith of humanity in the power of sympathy, comprehension and brotherliness, and may thus safely be trusted to win their way as humanity may be trusted to progress.

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### THE JUVENILE DELINQUENT'S ACT.

MR. W. P. ARCHIBALD, Canada, Dominion Parole Officer.

Humiliating as it may seem to confess it, the confession must be made that, notwithstanding all our methods or codes of punishment, and all our philanthropic efforts for the reconstruction of the delinquent, society is still in a state of siege by a large and dangerous army of criminally disposed persons. If you doubt it, you have only to notice the bolts and bars on every hand, the police and watchmen needed everywhere. After 4,000 years of a social order of one kind or another, and after 2,000 years of the propagation of Christian ethics which, if ever universally adopted, would do away with everything criminal, it still remains a fact that those who have must still hold their possessions by the influence or the force of might. The "mailed fists" of Governments are necessarily held over every home and trust in the civilized world, and it must be so for many centuries to come.

All things considered, the delinquent and the criminal problem may be looked upon as practically permanent, and certainly we have none more complex or important. The question is a vital

one, when considering the protection of the law-abiding portion of a community from the portion of society which is disposed to prey upon it. The most desirable thing to do is to get rid of crime itself, either by transforming the law-breaker into a law-defender, or, better still, by preventing the citizen or child from ever becoming a criminal. The possible prevention of crime is a subject by itself, and the possible reformation of the criminal is another, but the prime object of the law, thus far, is founded on the protection of society itself. It is this object which underlies all sound legislation and judgments given. It is this consideration which compels the judge to turn away his eyes from the suffering of the individual offender, and even from the greater suffering which generally falls upon the family or friends, and to keep his eyes fixed on the thousands of innocent people whose safety demands that the consequences of law-breaking must be made painful. I do not believe in taking an attitude toward the violators of law, young or old, which would lead them to look upon their offence as a trivial matter, or encourage them to look upon themselves as the victims of wrongs or oppression, or upon Governments as their debtors, but I do believe in taking a passionless, patient and impartial attitude toward them, making it as easy as possible for all offenders to do right, and as difficult as possible for them to commit a criminal act, keeping well before them the prospect of redeeming themselves, and that they have within themselves, to a great extent, their own destiny.

One of the ruling factors of our age is that of evolution—the idea that in the lowest forms of life there exists the promise or potency of the higher forms. It is the capacity of betterment which redeems human nature from its littleness and its meanness, and this principal should be remembered in our treatment of the delinquent classes, for they have been, generally, the victims of neglect, and have been soured and broken in their youth, and, notwithstanding all our advanced systems, they generally feel that the great forces of our civilization are against them.

The adoption of the Juvenile Delinquent's Act, passed by the Federal Government last year, is already producing excellent results. Manitoba is the first Province to enter under this new system. The city of Hull and district have made application, and Ottawa district is also falling into line. The Provinces of Alberta, Saskatchewan and British Columbia are appointing probation officers, and working out the necessary organization for this movement. Quebec, also, is inquiring into this system, and we hope that within a few years every Province will avail itself of this Act. The conditions of the Act are as follows:—

(1.) That a proper detention home has been established, and will be maintained, for the temporary confinement of juvenile delinquents, or children charged with delinquency. The institution must be conducted more like a family home than like a penal institution, and must not be under the same roof as, or in the immediate vicinity of any police station, jail, lock-up or other

place in which adults are confined or may be imprisoned. (See Section 11.)

(2.) That an Industrial School, as defined by Clause H of Section 2 of the Act, exists, to which juvenile delinquents may be committed.

(3.) That there is a Judge or Magistrate having jurisdiction in the city, town or other portion of a province in which it is sought to have the Act put in force, willing to act as Juvenile Court Judge (if any) provided for without recourse to the Federal authorities.

(4.) That remuneration for an adequate staff of probation officers has been provided for by municipal grant, public subscription or otherwise. (See Sections 25, 26, 27 and 28 of the Act.)

(5.) That some society or committee is ready and willing to act as Juvenile Court Committee. (See Sections 23 and 24 of the Act.)

I had the honour to examine the organization of this new movement in Manitoba last January, and report to the Minister of Justice how the system is working out. Out of 198 cases of juvenile delinquency (children under 16 years of age) only two had proved unsatisfactory cases. The Honourable Mr. Daly, the Juvenile Judge, informed me that the new system had reduced the number of juvenile delinquents in the Court over 50 per cent. for the past year. This is an evidence of what we hope for and expect, not only in Manitoba, but in the other provinces when the system is completed.

Under the Juvenile Delinquent's Act no children under sixteen can be classified as criminals, or placed under arrest in a jail or lock-up and brought before a police court or herded together with other criminals. The whole method is humane and sane.

The great problem of juvenile delinquency cannot be considered apart from environment. It is impossible to adequately judge any child who commits an offence apart from his surroundings, and especially from what they generally term "home." A great majority of delinquents who find their way into the hands of the law may be traced back to the miserable alleys and hovels which exist in our larger Canadian cities, a standing reproach to our twentieth century civilization. No one who knows how these children live can wonder at their offences against society. While we are striving in the name of a common humanity for many reforms, juvenile courts, probation and reformatory movements, all virtually essential for our common good, let us not neglect to use every influence within our reach to remove, as far as possible, these breeding places of vice and criminal spawn, and establish in their place clean and wholesome dwellings. Let us throw the dark alley open to the light of the day. Let us plant trees and open up children's play grounds where they are most needed, and give our down-trodden poor a few breathing places, made wholesome and beautiful with sun, air and flowers, all of which appeal to the better instincts of the child, or the parent, compelled to live under unfavorable circumstances.

Canada must never cultivate the slum, if our efforts are going to be effectual in keeping down the criminal population to a minimum. I have often wondered at our city authorities spending so lavishly to make the splendid avenue look better than ever, while so little attention is given to the dark, unwholesome places where the unfortunate and the erring are compelled to exist, and consequently suffer.

If we are obliged to admit natal defects in children, are we not also obliged to admit natal excellencies? But natal defects may be eradicated and destroyed, and so indeed may natal excellencies. Children may possess criminal tendencies, but these criminal tendencies may be destroyed by a proper "home care" or environment, for they have no such fibres or roots that they reach from the cradle to the grave. Children may possess the dispositions or tendencies of angels, but these tendencies have no such roots or fibre as to defy extinction. The social conditions which are competent to uproot the vicious instincts of the delinquent, are also competent to firmly root the dispositions which are not vicious, but full of virtue and truth. I firmly believe that there is nothing found in youth of a criminal tendency, natal or acquired, which, with proper treatment, may not only be minimized, but in many cases may be wholly destroyed.

Ruskin says, "The true history of a nation is not in its wars, but in its home and household; the hope of the world lies with the children."

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### JUVENILE COURTS.

G. BOGUE SMART, Chief Inspector of British Immigrant Children,  
Canada.

In company with Mr. Courtenay Lord, J.P., of Birmingham, I had the privilege of a seat on the Bench at a sitting of the Juvenile Court, which, by the way, is the original Juvenile Court of Great Britain.

The first Children's Court in England was organized in 1905, and, like similar institutions in the United States, very soon demonstrated its usefulness. As constituted, there are three magistrates, who deliberate collectively and I was pleased to find an entire absence of that judicial atmosphere, which, as a rule, pervades Police Courts. The offenders, or delinquents as they are designated, are summoned for gambling, tossing pennies constituting that charge, vagrancy, sleeping out, being found under pre-judicial guardianship, and other more serious misdeeds, such as theft in its various degrees. When brought into the court room the children are spoken to with kindness and tact and given to understand that they are amongst friends and have nothing to fear. I had not been in the court room many minutes before it was apparent to me that the Magistrates on the Bench were gentlemen chosen on account of their sympathy with and desire to help unfortunate children.

The officials of this model Court do all that they can to prevent a conviction being recorded against a young person who, they believe, is not competent to know what is right and what is wrong. Such a one has never been taught what constitutes good conduct, does not know how to act without committing offence. This coincides with my long-formed and deep-rooted opinion that no child under the age of fourteen years should be considered competent to answer in court for any transgression, as at such an age its character is still in a plastic condition and is not sufficiently formed to bring it within the range of individual responsibility. In the Birmingham Court there is neither undue haste nor formality in the proceedings. The Magistrates are most patient with the children and parents, who are required in nearly every case to accompany their child to the Court. Since the more humane mode of dealing with youthful offenders was adopted, there has been a remarkable reduction in the number of children committed to prisons.

It is reasonable to anticipate that with the adoption of Juvenile Courts in Canada, similar results will follow.

#### JUVENILE EMIGRATION.

Canada is the only part of the Empire to which the emigration of juveniles takes place in a systematic manner. The work at present forms a branch of the activities of certain of the philanthropical societies engaged in child rescue work. These societies have gradually elaborated an organization in the Dominion which is both economical and efficient. Their children are under the supervision of our Federal Government.

It was as a partial remedy for the distressing conditions of children in the larger cities of the homeland that the emigration of children to our shores was inaugurated in the year 1869. The work has gone forward unostentatiously "these forty years" amidst much hostility and discouragement both at home and abroad, and notwithstanding the obstacles placed in the way over 60,000 boys and girls have been settled on our shores and hundreds of these are on the highway to prosperity and have become useful citizens. The following is a fair sample of the material dealt with:

Thomas.—Father a fitter, intemperate. Grossly neglected his son and was constantly on the move from place to place. For nearly a year the boy had slept out. Found by a woman who gave him food. Was placed in a training home. Despite temptations to which he had been subjected there was nothing against his character.

The emigration of children has always been a voluntary work as far as concerns the Government of Canada, and, from my point of view, must so continue in order to be successful. No propaganda is, therefore, promoted on behalf of the Federal Government for the emigration of juveniles. The movement can be consistently carried on only through charitable and religious organizations and thus preserve the lofty design of its originators.

The classes of children sent to Canada may be described as follows:

1. Those from Poor Law Unions.
2. Those from Industrial Schools.
3. Those from private schools and homes (or certified schools).

"Before Queen Victoria ascended the throne there was not a single measure for the saving of the children; when her reign closed there were over one hundred."

The State has at last awakened to her responsibility in this matter and to the national and economic importance of segregating the children of the neglected class and is actively co-operating with the private and voluntary agencies engaged in this great undertaking.

While a cause such as this necessarily makes demands on the State exchequer and on private charity, it is far above all monetary consideration and cannot fail to return to the nation more than is absorbed.

The awakening of the public conscience in Britain to the rights of suffering and neglected children has spread to Canada's shores, for in nearly, if not all our Provinces, laws have been enacted for the protection and elevation of Canadian children, and Children's Aid Societies have been formed and are doing excellent work in many cities and towns—and particularly in the city of Ottawa. In the existence of such enactments and for the solution of a great sociological and economic problem the juvenile emigration movement was undoubtedly a leading factor in bringing to the attention of the people of Canada the manner in which children similarly situated were dealt with in the Mother Country.

On reaching Canada the children are placed under indenture with agriculturists. The terms of the indenture provide for public school tuition, church and Sunday school attendance, clothing and wages, the amount of which is calculated on the age and capability of the child.

The children are periodically visited by persons connected with the emigration agencies, who report on them individually.

Children from Poor Law Unions are doubly inspected, i.e., by the societies' officers and members of my staff. These inspections are as effective as possible. No notice is given of the coming of the inspector and the child is interviewed privately, and apart from its foster parent or employer, as the case may be.

Before leaving this branch of philanthropic and charitable work I should like to express my opinion on the national and economic value of the emigration of children from seven to fourteen years. The juvenile emigrant comes to Canada at the plastic age, and is more readily moulded to his new life than the adult. He has spent the major part of his life in one or other of those excellent training homes in the Motherland. His habits are unformed and he has not been exposed to the deteriorating influences of casual employment. In short, he comes to Canada without the memories of past disappointments and has only the goal of success in anticipation.

The character of any people is the factor that determines their destiny. It is our mission to be the almoners of others' bounty.

The duty devolves on some of us to dispense national funds set apart for the reclamation and reformation of the juvenile flotsam and jetsam of our civilization. The true object of our life task should be to distribute these first necessities so that the growing youth in our care may become healthy, happy and capable of useful service throughout their lives.

For the formation of character the chief factor is to be found in the animating influences of religion, in the anticipation of affection and the sustaining power of industry.

With all the cares of a mighty Empire resting on her shoulders Great Britain is still careful about the welfare of the helpless, orphan and neglected child.

In conclusion let me say that the admirable efforts which are being made in Great Britain and in nearly all the Christian countries of the world, on behalf of the poor, neglected and downtrodden juvenile, whose condition has been in some measure a stumbling block in the paths of national and moral progress, cannot be over-estimated. The spirit of growing interest and enthusiasm amongst moral reformers in the field of philanthropic action is being manifested on every hand and particularly so in the United Kingdom by the Children's Bill of 1908, which has enacted that the conviction of a child or young person shall not be regarded as a conviction of felony for the purposes of any disqualification attaching to felony, and that no young person shall be sentenced to penal servitude for any offence.

In the discussion of these papers the value of the indeterminate sentence and of preventive work was specially emphasized.

[In the afternoon a joint session was held with the "Education" and "Health" sections, for which see under "Joint Sessions," Vol. I.]

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## TUESDAY, JUNE 29TH—MORNING SESSION.

Chairman—Mrs. Day.

Subjects—Emigration, The Protection of Young Travellers, Immigration.

### EMIGRATION.

#### THE ATTITUDE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

By the HON. MRS. JOYCE.

The attitude of the United Kingdom as regards emigration is very different from that of other European nations, from the relative size of the Island, compared with that of the States which form the Empire.

The Empire has been created by emigration from the Motherland in past ages. It had its centre in the Island, but its size and its strength lies outside the Motherland.

It has been through the enterprise of her sailors in their discoveries, through the adventure of her sons and daughters, that the peopling of lands formerly wasted by a meagre population of savages and the wild beasts they preyed upon, has been accomplished.

The characters and the forces built up by the fusion of races of Saxon, Dane, Norman, could not be kept within the bounds of the Island home.

The most splendid illustration of the characteristic feature of the growth of the British Empire is presented in the grand Dominion of Canada, to which, it has been wisely declared, the twentieth century belongs. When Captain Hudson rediscovered the bay to which in 1610 he gave his name, he laid the foundation of the most loyal possession of the British Crown.

Charles II. in giving a charter to the company, and the name of his nephew, Prince Rupert, to the miles of country stretching from the Atlantic to the Pacific, spread a rough carpet for the feet of adventurous traders.

In another part the hardy men of French and British origin began that thrifty tillage of land which makes Canada the granary of the west.

The historic Tercentenary of last year illustrates very happily the emigration and fusion of two peoples, its tender sympathy and admiration for the brave men of old of both races, chronicle the happy reign of the Angel of Peace.

Canada is the proud possessor of a body of immigrants whose manner of emigrating as British subjects is absolutely unique in the history of the world. In 1775 the United Empire Loyalists declared their fidelity to the Crown and the flag after seven years' civil war, true to the principles for which they fought, they abandoned their property, they exiled themselves from their wealthy and comfortable homes; 15,000 came over from the Provinces of America and started to make their homes in forests and swamps. Their privations were pitiful, their sufferings were borne with a heroism which amounted to a religious sacrifice.

They peopled Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, they occupied a great portion of Ontario. Toronto has cause to be proud of a patriotic heroism which is the highest patent of nobility.

The great continent of the Commonwealth of Australia has been peopled, so far as it is peopled, within the last 150 years, by the first settlers beckoning out their relations and their friends, and as they grew wealthy, taxing their revenues to give passages, so that nature's magnificent offerings of varied soils, of many climates, of minerals and metals, should not be wasted or neglected.

The great Intercolonial Exhibition in Sydney in 1870, marked the growth of one hundred years of work on the land, reclaiming it from a jungle of tropical vegetation.

The first offer to fight for the Motherland in another quarter of the globe came from "our boys" in New South Wales, in the war in the Soudan.

New Zealand, in the Southern Island, illustrates another form of occupation. In the Canterbury Settlement men of every pro-

fession and trade and employment went out together, their clergy and teachers went with them, they settled down to reproduce old English life without the fetters of conventionalities or the limitations of ultra civilization. To-day a great company of sheep-owners is one of the great sources of meat supplies of mutton and lamb, and of the wool which covers them, for the Island home.

It has neither been the continued purpose nor the consecutive policy of the British Government to provide funds for emigration. There has been action when urgent necessity required it. Grants in aid of emigration were made by Parliament in 1821, '23, '25 and '27. In 1834 emigration agents were placed at various ports of the United Kingdom, and from that time up to 1878 sums varying in amount up to £25,000 were voted annually by Parliament for emigration purposes.

In 1840 the Colonial Land and Emigration Department was created to deal with matters connected with emigration and the Colonies, but the Colonies soon after that time, recognizing that prosperity waited on population, provided funds for assisted passages and established their own agents general to see to their interests.

The indirect action of the State, however, is far-reaching. The Board of Trade exercise the keenest supervision over every matter referring to the safety and welfare of the third class emigrants. Before every voyage official inspection is made of each vessel, the quality and quantity of provisions and supply of water is examined, the adequacy and sufficiency of passengers' accommodation is ascertained. The personnel and number of crew examined, fire drill and boat drill performed. Two boats are prepared every night with a lighted lantern and a supply of biscuits and water.

Whilst declining to provide funds from the exchequer to pay for passages, there is another indirect action which has conduced especially to stimulate the emigration of children. The permissive power given to Boards of Guardians to draw funds from the rates to the amount of £10 or £12 for expenses, opened the door to the children of the State.

Following out the general policy of the British Government in utilizing voluntary agencies, the Boards of Guardians in the United Kingdom have made use of such already existing agencies as Miss Rye, Dr. Barnardo, Miss Macpherson, Mr. Fegan, Mrs. Birt, Mr. Quarrier, etc., and of organizations such as the Salvation Army, the Waifs and Strays' Society and the Catholic Emigration Association.

In this way the children's transit to their new home is made easy by the experience of experts, and it is a necessity that there should be a home in the new land, such as those belonging to these societies, ready to receive them in case of their having to leave their new foster parents.

The records of the various societies show that many of the home boys of a few years since are now the owners in fee simple of the soil they till, and rejoice in an independence of the most sturdy character.

The girls are sometimes so thoroughly accepted into the families of the parents who have adopted them, that they are given the family name, and a Smith becomes a Macpherson. As the native born Canadian child stepped out to order its own life apart from its parents, the small Englisher took its place, did the chores and grew up in households where willing hands were wanted, and the motherless heart twined round the kindly parents it found in the new world. Miss Rye emigrated 4,000 children in her time. This last year fourteen societies have sent out 1,272 children.

But child emigration bears a small proportion to the exit of the adult.

How then has this great exodus, which amounts from the year 1840 to 1906 of 3,791,330, been effected?

It is the product of three different forces. First the enterprise of the individual, stimulated by the interests of the shipping companies, assisted latterly by knowledge spread all over the United Kingdom by the Emigrants' Information Office. Secondly, by the needs of the Colonies expressed through their agents general, taking the shape of assisted passages, and employing agents to collect for them. Thirdly, it has been stimulated by societies, who having obtained reliable information, have selected the individuals, directed their destination, fostered their self-help, and in many cases provided the amount of money needed for their exodus.

Even if some of these societies were more interested in the bettering the condition of the emigrant than in his importance to the land of his adoption, the Colonies owe them a great debt of gratitude for the educational preparation of the traveller, for their care of his equipment, for their investigation, which rejected the utterly unsuitable, and for providing by the disagreeable process of collecting funds for the expenses of his emigration.

Societies by their deputation to Ministers of State, by their pressure on shipping companies, have caused laws and regulations to be passed, and improvements in ships' accommodation to be effected which have resulted in the present first-rate accommodation of our third class passengers.

It would be impossible to do justice in such limited space to the combinations of names of noble women and able men who, each in his or her own decade, have worked at that detail of emigration which at the time required the most attention. The names of Miss Rye, Mrs. Chisholm, Mrs. Blanchard, Miss Lewin, stand out in bold letters.

Probably the aim of the Council, in asking for a paper on Emigration from Great Britain, will be best satisfied by stating the features of protected emigration for women of to-day for Canada.\*

By 1884 great attention had been directed to Australia and New Zealand as regards both the selection and the status of the emigrant. But women's emigration to Canada had not been spe-

\*The list of societies at work in 1908 is given in the Appendix.

cially safe-guarded by the many certificates necessary for assisted passages to Australia. Emigration at this end was very much in the hands of the shippers, who were enabled by Government grant to sell tickets for £3. 0. 0.

The Government Immigration Buildings at Quebec were first rate, the reception there by a Government matron was thoroughly well arranged. The disembarkation system was admirable.

The Girls' Friendly Society is not an emigration society, but it had already established its organization for the reception and distribution of its own members by the Colonial branches of the society in Australia.

The head of its emigration department visited Canada in August, 1884, for the society, as a member of the British Association; being profoundly convinced of the importance of introducing only women of ascertained good character and purpose, she presented for the approval of the Minister for Agriculture, at Ottawa, a very rigid form of certificates for character, capability and physique. It was the first form of its kind by which any society had voluntarily tied its own hands by a promise to send out only women rising to the standard of these certificates. Mr. Pope and Mr. Lowe highly appreciated the purpose of raising the standard of women's emigration. The form was accepted. It was subsequently approved by Sir Charles Tupper and Lord Stratheona as High Commissioners. Besides this the preliminary application form of the G. F. S. is extremely inquisitorial in its enquiries.

The society, after a slight evolution from "Englishwomen's Emigration Association" to "British Women's Emigration Association," based its work for women on these two forms.

In the self-imposed use of a form of certificates for morality, capability and physique, this association has given to Canada an absolute pledge that the Imperial interests of the Empire are dearer to it than the emigration of the individual.

There has been a noble Imperialism in parting with valuable domestics, who are even more highly prized here as essential to our comfort than they are in the Dominion. The British Women's Emigration Association have from the first taken their stand on the patriotic duty of sending, as far as they could judge, only their best of each class, to build up the growing Empire.

The number, including a few men and some children, reached, up to last year, to little short of 10,000 persons. These numbers could easily have been higher, had their standard been lower.

The conception of protected emigration is to procure proper protection on the voyage, adequate reception on arrival. If possible to retain sight of the travellers for two years.

Societies charging themselves with the emigration of women in parties to Canada, apart from their relations, accept these responsibilities; if they do not organize parties themselves, some of them hand over their womenfolk to the care of the British Women's Emigration Association.

Its realization of its duties leads it to provide a *Hostel* in London, at 22 Upper Westbourne Terrace, for the collection of its

clients the night before they leave England. This involves a very heavy expense. The matrons it employs for each class of travellers take them either to Ontario or to the Pacific Coast, handing them over to the secretaries or their personal friends.

Its correspondents supply by regular reports the address and status of the travellers.

The training of educated women for the position of home-helps has been carried on since the year 1890 by a small independent committee. It is absolutely practical in its system, as no servants are kept. Cooking, housework, dairywork, laundry, are all taught, whilst some teaching in poultry and bee-keeping is added. The address of this Colonial Training Home is Stoke Prior, Bromsgrove; it has trained 400 pupils. This appears to be the only college devoted solely and entirely to training for emigration. Other Colonies, such as Swanley, have a Colonial side, and send out individuals after thorough training.

For all classes excepting the domestic servant a loan fund is established—the maximum repayment has amounted to 72 per cent. It varies greatly from year to year, the most prompt returns being made by the industrial worker. Probably these returns are somewhat higher than in other societies, because they include repayments from the members of the Girls' Friendly Society and the Young Women's Christian Association, the two leading societies of a religious character for women in the United Kingdom.

The medical inspection of their candidates is conducted by over 1,100 medical men, who hold Government appointments, for selecting for official Government employment.

The classes emigrated through this Association are principally the domestic woman, but the very highest paid in the old country never desire to go, and she wants an underling to do her work.

The professional woman is not encouraged to go unless a definite opening awaits her, and these are ascertained from the Colonial correspondents.

The British Women's Emigration Association has ventured on the introduction of unemployed industrial women, who have had some little knowledge of housework. The greatest success has attended this experiment, as they are welcomed in the small houses as willing workers and absorbed into the life of Canada.

The home-helps trained at Stoke Prior find ladies specially interested in placing them in British Columbia. The one stipulation being that they should be gentlewomen. The travellers mostly come from the country districts of the three sister kingdoms; they belong to that healthy vigorous class, the daughters of the clergy, the medical man, the officers of both Services, who have been used "to do things for themselves." They are bright, courteous girls who love country life, little children and all live animals. One recent letter epitomises many.

"I am living with an elderly gentleman and lady and am treated just as a daughter, they are both as kind as possible. I felt quite at home from the first day."

The record of their useful, happy, social lives is very satisfactory to their friends and adviser.

It could hardly be supposed that details of women's emigration to the Southern Hemisphere would have much interest for the Conference of to-day, it is included in the totals of emigration.

That for South Africa is under the elaborate and careful organization of the South African Colonization Society, which has H.R.H. Princess Christian for its President.

Women have only to study emigration records to know that every woman is wanted in some part of the Empire, that in the right part of the world her work will be highly paid and her presence valued.

In conclusion, on the part of the Women of Great Britain, I should like to thank all those who have held out friendly hands to those landing in that country which gives the heartiest welcome and whose loyalty grows with its magnificent expansion.

## APPENDIX.

### LIST OF EMIGRATION SOCIETIES.

British Women's Emigration Association.

South African Colonization Society.

Young Women's Christian Association, Girls' Friendly Society, Metropolitan Society for Young Servants (travelling with the British Women's Emigration Association parties).

Colonial Nursing Association. (Imperial Institute.)

Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge.

Charity Organization Society.

East End Emigration Fund, 34 Newark Street, Stepney, E.

Self Help Emigration Society, Memorial Hall Buildings, Farringdon St., E.C.

Tower Hamlets Mission Emigration and Colonization Fund, Great Assembly Hall, Mile End Road, E.

Jewish Emigrants' Information Board, 63 Finsbury Pavement, E.C.

### CHILDREN'S HOMES.

Miss Macpherson's (the late), 29 Bethnal Green Road, etc.

Waifs and Strays.

National Incorporated Waifs' Association.

Mr. Fegan's Homes, 95 Southwark Street, S.E.

Children's Aid Society, 32 Charing Cross.

Children's Home and Orphanage, Bonner Road, N.E.

Catholic Emigration Association, 377 Harrow Road, W.

Children's Emigration Homes, St. Luke's Road, Birmingham.

Mrs. Birt's Homes, Myrtle St., Liverpool.

Manchester and Salford Boys and Girls' Refuges, etc.

## DESTINATION OF EMIGRANTS.

Year.	To North American Colonies.	To the United States.	To Australia and New Zealand.	To South Africa.	Total.
1840....	32,293	40,642	15,850	.....	90,743
1845....	31,802	58,538	830	.....	93,501
1850....	32,961	223,078	16,037	.....	280,849
1855....	17,966	103,414	32,309	.....	176,807
1860....	9,786	37,500	24,302	.....	123,469
1865....	14,424	118,463	36,683	.....	174,891
1870....	27,168	153,466	16,526	.....	202,511
1875....	12,306	81,193	34,750	.....	140,675
1880....	20,902	166,570	24,134	.....	227,542
1885....	19,838	137,687	39,395	.....	207,644
1890....	22,520	152,413	21,179	10,321	218,116
1895....	16,622	126,502	10,567	20,234	185,181
1900....	18,443	102,797	14,922	20,815	168,825
1901....	15,757	104,193	15,350	23,143	171,715
1902....	26,293	108,498	14,345	43,206	205,662
1903....	59,652	123,662	12,375	50,206	252,950
1904....	69,651	146,445	13,910	26,818	271,435
1905....	32,437	122,370	15,139	26,307	262,077
1906....	114,850	144,817	19,331	22,804	325,137
Total. . . . .					3,791,830

## A REPORT CONCERNING EMIGRATION FROM ITALY.

CONTESSA MARIA LISA DANIELI CAMOZZI.

The problem of emigration is becoming more and more serious and intricate for the Italian Government, and in consequence of its great difficulties the Italian Council for Women, during its organization for its first Congress last year, instituted a special Emigration Section presided over by Countess Maria Lisa Danieli Camozzi.

Countess Danieli called upon several ladies to help her in her difficult task and the work presented by the Emigration Section at the first Congress of Women was found so satisfactory, and was so much commended by those who attended the Congress and the Royal Commission and by all other societies interested in the emigration question, that the Section was constituted into a permanent Women's Committee of which Countess Danieli was re-elected President; Madame Enrichetta Chiaraviglio-Giolitti and Miss Carolina Amari, Vice-Presidents; Miss Beatrice Berio, Secretary; Miss Ribighini, Delegate to Canada, etc., etc.

Although the Segretariato Permanente Femminile is especially interested in the study of emigration in its relation to women and children, it is impossible to entirely separate the emigration of women from that of men and it becomes a matter of necessity to study

the problem of emigration in its entirety. The working element of our Italian population penetrates into the most distant regions and contributes to the commercial and economical development of the different countries to which our emigrants turn their steps.

Emigration in Italy is free, consequently every Italian man who has served his term in the army can emigrate whenever and wherever he likes.

Italians born and residing in foreign countries are subject to the same duties and enjoy the same privileges as the Italians born in the Kingdom and are expected to serve in the army if they wish to retain their Italian nationality.

At present the transatlantic emigration does not require the close attention of the Segretariato, as our women emigrate with their own families and are in consequence looked after by their natural protectors, while in the south of France, in Germany, in Austria and in Switzerland the number of emigrant working-women is becoming larger and larger every year.

The efforts and care of our Segretariato are therefore especially required to direct and protect this part of our emigration which greatly needs all the help the society can give.

The temporary Italian emigration to the transatlantic countries (United States of America and Canada) takes place generally from April to August, while the emigration to the different European States is almost constant, it increases, however, during the months when the working element of the countries is not sufficient for the urgent need and the Italian workmen are called for help. These emigrants are employed in factories, in the mines, in buildings, in the workshops, etc., etc., and they are stone cutters, field labourers, builders, etc., etc. The emigration in the States of Europe takes place generally by contracts drawn by agents and it has a temporary character, but in later years since the emigration in Europe has been steadily increasing, we find many workmen emigrating in search of work without any previous engagement.

The emigration to the United States may be divided in two categories: the permanent one, which is the most numerous and is composed of those Italians who emigrate to America in search of fortune, and the temporary one, comprising the workmen who are engaged for a season and return to Italy when their work is done only to emigrate again when the dead season is at an end, and so on from year to year.

The Italian women emigrate alone to Germany, to Switzerland and to the south of France, they are nearly all previously engaged by agents who come to Italy to bind them by contracts and take them to these countries to work in factories of clothes, cotton, chocolate, cigars, sweetmeats, bricks, etc.; in France they are also employed in gardening work. The efforts of the Segretariato Femminile are especially directed towards the protection of these women, whose conditions, on account of the bad treatment and the many hardships to which they are exposed, are particularly in need of wise help and advice.

Notwithstanding the laws that have been passed for the protection of minors, there are many of these unfortunate little ones who are working in strange countries under the most deplorable conditions and are driven to death by greedy speculators (to whom they have been sold by ignorant parents) who expect from them an amount of work far superior to their strength and age. The Segretariato will devote all its attention and energy to the protection of these children and will insist on the strict enforcement of the labour laws not only in Italy, but in France and in Austria, where our Italian children are more especially employed.

Over 100,000 Italians emigrate yearly to the Argentine Republic, where their conditions are generally good, particularly for land labourers, the country being especially productive in agriculture. The Italian women who emigrate to Argentine, go there with their families or are called by relatives who have preceded them; the married ones attend to their domestic duties and the unmarried go out as servants or exercise their trades as dress-makers and milliners; a small number work in factories. Beside the permanent Emigration there exists in Argentine the temporary one called the "swallow migration" which takes place from October till March and which is composed of the labourers who work in the field to gather the harvest and return to their native country when that work is over. Owing to the race affinity, the beauty of the climate, the fertility of the soil, our emigrants are rapidly acclimatized and become fond of their new home and with the exception of "swallow migration," Italians generally like to settle permanently in Argentine where most of the prominent families of that country are originally from Italy.

The children of our emigrants in Argentine are all sent to school, public instruction being compulsory there.

The Italian Government appoints a special Commissioner to travel on every steamer leaving the various Italian ports for the different ports of the two Americas. The duty of the Commissioner is to look after the interests of the emigrants during the voyage, and as he is generally a physician as well, he is expected to take care of them in case of illness.

Very few Italian emigrants leave from Havre or Hamburg, but these few exceptions are expected to enjoy the same privileges that the different States extend to their respective emigrants.

With the exception of Canada, where the Italian emigration is almost exclusively temporary, our emigrants do not turn their steps towards any of the Colonies of the British Empire.

In the year 1908 the total number of Italian emigrants who sailed from the different ports to transatlantic countries amounted to 167,500, while those who returned to Italy numbered 179,222. We must not forget that the financial crisis which created such a panic in the United States had a great influence upon our emigration which has never been so low as during the last two years; on the other hand the terrible disaster that overcame this year the provinces of Calabria and Sicily will no doubt greatly increase the exodus of the population from those regions to foreign countries.

In Italy there are innumerable societies, private, religious and secular which are directing their attention to the welfare of our emigrants.

I will limit myself to mention the principal ones, beginning from the Royal Commissariat—an emanation of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs—whose duty it is to protect and to watch over the interest of all emigrants in general.

The Italian Colonial Institute, with headquarters in Rome, which last year (1908) promoted the Congress of the "Italiani all'estero" with the object of preserving and promoting the interests and ties which bind our emigrants to their mother country.

The Society "Dante Alighieri," for the diffusion of the Italian language and Italian culture in foreign countries with corresponding headquarters in the principal cities of the world.

The Society for the Protection of Italian Working Emigrants in Europe and the East, directed by Catholic missionaries with the object of preserving in their heart the memory and love of their mother country and religion.

The "Umanitaria," whose object is especially to protect emigrants in European countries.

The "Society of Saint Raphael," instituted for the protection of the transatlantic emigration.

The international society, "Amie de la jeune fille," for the protection of young girls.

The "Segretariato Permanente Femminile," for the protection of emigrant women and children, a section of the National Council of Women of Italy, of recent foundation whose purpose it is to further the interests of emigrating women and children and to promote the union of all other societies interested in the emigration question.

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### THE PROTECTION OF YOUNG TRAVELLERS.

Paper Prepared for the International Congress of Women, Toronto, June, 1909.

By WM. ALEX. COOTE, Secretary, National Vigilance Association.

Read by Miss Janes.

It goes without saying that the travellers to whom we shall refer in this paper are young women. Young women who have need to travel abroad, whether for business or pleasure, have a claim to protection from whatever quarter the menace of danger may come. Apart altogether from the moral, or the religious side of the question, it is the interest of every well-governed nation to see that the young women passing through their country, or earning their living in it, should be safe-guarded as far as possible from the snares of those who lie in wait for the virtue of the young and inexperienced who seek employment in a foreign country.

The object of this paper is to show the effective nature of the means which are now provided for the protection of young women travellers of all nationalities and under all conditions.

Over thirty years ago an organization was formed in Neuchâtel, under the auspices of that saintly woman, the late Mrs. Josephine Butler, to offer friendly protection to young women on their arrival in a foreign country. For this purpose the services of ladies were enlisted, who attended the various railway stations and, awaiting the arrival of the trains, sought out the girls travelling, and offered them assistance and advice, and thus saved them from falling into the hands of undesirable characters. The work of *Les Amies de la Jeune Fille* spread, and the railway station work became an important branch of philanthropy in Europe.

In the year 1899 when the special effort made by the National Vigilance Association for the suppression of the white slave traffic commenced, attention was called to the various methods by which the traffickers lured many victims to their moral ruin. In this connection special attention was called to two sources from which the traffickers were known to obtain them. (1) The railway stations and ports, and, (2) by advertisements offering apparently excellent positions abroad, which on investigation were found to be simply traps to ensnare innocent young women.

Having carefully studied the methods of the members of these syndicates of evil, we knew exactly the kind of organization needed to counteract their wicked designs, and the necessity of making careful enquiries respecting the situations thus offered.

It was therefore essential in arousing Europe to the need of some joint action on the part of the European Powers to bear in mind the need of providing measures to cope with these two aspects of the question.

Part of the programme submitted to the people of Europe was the necessity of inducing the respective Governments to hold an official conference to mutually decide upon certain measures for the better protection of young women travelling or accepting situations in any part of the world.

This Official Conference was organized chiefly by the National Vigilance Association and the European Powers, and others were officially invited by the Government of France to take part in it. In July, 1902, in response to an invitation from the French Government sixteen countries were represented by thirty-six delegates, who met at the Foreign Office in Paris, to consider what measures could be adopted to effectually break up the syndicates of evil men and women who traded in the virtue of young women in the same manner and even with more keenness than the merchant with his merchandise. After five days' deliberation the outcome of their labours was the drafting of an International Agreement, which, in our opinion, if adopted by all civilized countries, would so fully protect young women, that the moral risks attendant upon their travelling in any part of the world, either for business or recreative purposes, would be greatly reduced, if not altogether done away with. The soil being already prepared the decisions arrived at by the Official Conference found ready acceptance by the National Committees of Europe. The subsequent working of this

agreement has fully demonstrated its value and effectiveness in the suppression of the white slave traffic.

We purpose referring to three of the clauses in the agreement which we feel is a woman's charter of moral liberty, and as it has been accepted by all the countries of Europe, and by North and South America, the moral interests of young women ought to be fully protected from the Machiavellian efforts of the white slave traders.

Article 2 of the International Agreement is as follows:—

“Each of the Governments undertakes to have a watch kept, especially at railway stations, ports of embarkation and en route, for persons in charge of women and girls destined for an immoral life. With this object instructions shall be given to the officials and all other qualified persons to obtain, within legal limits, all information likely to lead to the detection of criminal traffic.

“The arrival of persons who clearly appear to be the principals, accomplices in, or victims of such traffic shall be notified, when it occurs, either to the authorities of the place of destination or to the Diplomatic or Consular Agents interested or to any other competent authorities.”

We had by our investigations discovered that the chief places of danger were the ports of embarkation or debarkation and the railway stations of the various countries. Here it was that the strange young woman would be spoken to in her own language by apparently a sympathetic lady, who would offer her every assistance, even to providing her with a lodging, which the new arrival in a strange country would be only too ready to accept. We knew this, we had become familiar with the fact that the railway stations at home and abroad were the hunting grounds of men and women engaged in the white slave traffic. It was on these facts and this evidence that Article 2 was agreed upon by the delegates at the Official Conference.

We are all familiar with the fact that all laws, however good, are comparatively useless unless they are breathed into by the national life of the country where they exist. Their use is in proportion to the energizing power of the people interested in their administration. This Article 2 was formulated in response to the desire of the people, and when it was granted was welcomed by them with warmth and enthusiasm which augured well for its future successful administration. We are glad to be able to assert that the high hopes to which it gave birth amongst the people of Europe have been more than realized.

Immediately on the ratification of the Agreement the National Vigilance Association, by deputation, and through the mouth of His Excellency the Right Hon. the Earl of Aberdeen, pointed out to the British Government that the duties involved in carrying out this Article were hardly such as could be entrusted to policemen, not even to men, who if they were placed at the ports or railway stations of the United Kingdom would not be likely to win the confidence of foreign young women coming to England. This, apart altogether from the fact that the persons stationed at the ports or

railway stations would require to know several languages, as well as to be possessed of much common sense and discretion. To undertake this work this Association offered to engage a large number of lady workers, possessing a knowledge of European languages, if the Government would authorize them to do so. This they agreed to, and the National Vigilance Association commenced a work which they have carried on for the last five years, during which time their workers have met at the railway stations in London and at several of the most important English ports 16,000 young women, 80 per cent. of whom have been of foreign nationality, and quite 40 per cent. of whom would have been in moral peril had it not been for the assistance rendered by the workers on their arrival in England.

Thus Article 2 has done much more than establish a clear and definite method of protection for young travellers. It has roused the heart of Europe and drawn the attention of the people to the need of being in attendance at the railway stations to assist young women, and to protect them from the men and women who frequent those places for the purpose of decoying them from the path of virtue.

As I have already said, the Society *Les Amies de la Jeune Fille*, in its early days, realized the danger to young girls travelling, and thus early commenced to safe-guard them against it. Much was done, but nothing commensurate with the great need that existed.

When the Governments agreed to Article 2 of the Protocol, every National Committee in Europe felt such a sense of their responsibility that they, as we in England, placed workers at the railway stations of their respective countries.

But, perhaps, the most remarkable development in connection with Article 2, was the spontaneous and marvellous manner in which the Roman Catholic Church aroused itself and provided a number of ladies as station workers throughout Europe to look after and care for the moral welfare of Catholic girls.

The Baroness de Montenach, a Catholic lady residing at Fribourg, Switzerland, who had attended the first Congress for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic, saw the opportunity which Article 2 offered, and at once appealed to the women of the Catholic Church, who responded with so much enthusiasm, that to-day they have one of the finest and most carefully planned Catholic Associations for Railway Station Work. We know it from personal observation and can speak in the most unqualified manner of the devotion of the Catholic ladies throughout Europe who give their time and money for the protection primarily of Catholic girls, though they are always ready to assist girls of other creeds.

Thus by means of this Article we now have Europe covered with a network of Agencies, which protect young girls from moral trouble in a most efficient and striking manner.

The railway stations in every country were also known to be the chief rendezvous not only of the traffickers, but of men and

women of evil repute. The testimony of the railway officials as well as of the workers is that not only are the young girls arriving looked after and cared for, but that the railway stations have ceased to become the resort of vicious men and women as formerly.

The organization we have in Europe, and which we heartily invite our Canadian friends to join, is a three-fold one, and so complete, that so far as Europe is concerned, it is well-nigh impossible for a young girl to fall into moral trouble, if she will but avail herself of the help which is ready at all times and in all places. Three active and efficient organizations are at work in Europe, *Les Amies de la Jeune Fille*, primarily, but not exclusively, for the care of Protestant girls; the International Catholic Association for Befriending Young Girls, primarily, but not exclusively, for the protection of Catholic girls; and the ladies connected with the National Committees for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic, who work at the railway stations on behalf of girls of all creeds and all nationalities.

The more we understand the practical side of the railway station work the more we are convinced that in it we have the work which, properly organized, enthusiastically and efficiently carried on, will relieve society of the need of much of the philanthropic effort which comes into operation when moral trouble has overtaken the unfortunate young girl.

I have left myself very little room to do more than simply quote two of the other articles of that remarkable International Agreement to which I have referred. Article 3 says:—

“The Governments undertake, when the case arises, and within legal limits, to have the declarations taken of women or girls of foreign nationality who are prostitutes, in order to establish their identity and civil status, and to discover who has caused them to leave their country. The information obtained shall be communicated to the authorities of the country of origin of the said women or girls, with a view to their eventual repatriation.

“The Governments undertake, within legal limits, and as far as can be done, to entrust temporarily, and with a view to their eventual repatriation, the victims of a criminal traffic when destitute to public or private charitable institutions, or to private individuals offering the necessary security.

“The Governments also undertake, within legal limits, and as far as possible, to send back to their country of origin those women and girls who desire it, or who may be claimed by persons exercising authority over them. Repatriation shall only take place after agreement as to identity and nationality, as well as place and date of arrival at the frontiers. Each of the contracting countries shall facilitate transit through its territory.

“Correspondence relative to repatriation shall be direct as far as possible.”

This clause when properly worked by the various philanthropic agencies in connection with the authorities will be the means not only of rescuing many who have been flung into the way of shadows, but of bringing to justice the men and women

responsible for their moral ruin. I have only to point to a recent Act in America, passed by Congress more than twelve months since, based upon this very article, to show how great will be its preventive character, if put into operation by any country.

The American Act to which I refer, states that any young girl of foreign origin, who is found to be leading a life of prostitution within three years of her landing in America, shall be arrested, and if she has been induced to lead the life by another person, he or she, on proof, shall be liable to arrest, and on conviction to very severe penalties in the shape of imprisonment and fine, and if of foreign origin to deportation. Already this Act has proved most salutary in bringing to justice some of the men and women whose lives are devoted to decoying and entrapping young girls, and a decided check has been given to vice in America in one of its most hideous forms.

In London the operation of this clause has been demonstrated by the improved condition of our streets. The open parade of flaunting vice has been much modified, and the foreign element of evil has found it far more difficult to carry on its ramifications than formerly.

There will be no difference of opinion amongst us as to the usefulness of Article 6 in the protection of young girls, which is as follows:—

“The contracting Governments undertake, within legal limits, to exercise supervision, as far as possible, over the offices or agencies engaged in finding employment for women or girls abroad.”

It is common knowledge that the Servants' Registry Office has, like the railway station, been too ready a means in the hands of the unscrupulous traders in vice. An application for a servant, governess, or a companion to a lady, offering good wages and a comfortable home, in a foreign country, has always met with a ready response, and by such methods these traders have been able to command the flower of girlhood. How many scores of young women have by these means been inveigled into a foreign land to find themselves hopelessly enslaved into a life which is worse than a living death. The nature of the evil was well-known to those who took part in the Official Conference, and they set themselves to work to prevent these Registry Offices being the means, even innocently, of acting as agents for the traffickers in vice. That their efforts were effective is proved in those countries where Article 6 has been put into operation.

We can bear testimony to its efficient working in many places in England. Where it is in operation the Registry Office proprietors are compelled to ascertain the *bona fide* character of the situations abroad offered to young women, and in this way it has foiled and defeated the efforts of those who were hitherto accustomed to use these agencies to decoy young girls to their moral ruin.

I have only been able to refer to a few of the many plans for the better moral protection of young travellers provided by the work for the suppression of the white slave traffic, but sufficient

has been adduced to show how many new weapons have been forged in this direction by the International Agreement for the use of individuals as well as of nations. It is a woman's charter, which for the first time in the history of the world, regards the moral well-being of a young woman as a national asset of great value to the country in which she lives. But the Agreement can only be of real value to those countries where the peoples have sufficient interest in the welfare of their young women to organize themselves into National Committees to assist their Governments in its working. Let me here pause to emphasize what I am about to remark. Although every country in Europe has organized a National Committee, and is working in co-operation with its Government to give life, energy and reality to the clauses to which I have referred; and although the Argentine Republic, Egypt and the United States of America have also organized large National Committees, yet for some reason, no, it is most unreasonable, for some cause, the people of Canada have refused, or at least have not yet taken steps to create such a Committee, and the young women of Canada, are thus without the rights and moral security which that Protocol would confer upon them.

It is essentially an Agreement which calls for the co-operation of the peoples with their Governments, if the young women of the nation are to receive the full benefit of it. In every country we have visited, the Governments have welcomed the formation of these National Committees, and have readily accepted their assistance. How then is it that we have no National Committee in Canada? Who is to blame? The blame rests with the women of Canada, who should have seized the opportunity of the Agreement to organize a representative National Committee to look after its administration.

In January, 1907, it was our privilege, by invitation, to conduct a campaign in America, for the formation of a National Committee for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic. Up to that date the American Government had not signed the Agreement. There was some excuse, as the inter-state law raised difficulties which were not easily overcome. A National Committee was formed and we appealed to the American women to so conduct a campaign as to compel the Government to come within the four corners of the Agreement. Their response was whole-hearted, and in less than twelve months the signature of the American Government was attached, and the Committee is working in the closest union with the Government.

I appeal to the Canadian people, men and women of like passions and sympathies with their English brethren across the sea. I appeal to them in the name of God and our common humanity to wipe away this reproach from their national honour, and to come into line with the other civilized nations of the world, in the care and protection of young women of all classes, whether when travelling or when pursuing their daily avocations in the land of their adoption or birth.

We appeal especially to the women of Canada to rise in the dignity of womanhood, and at once to organize a National Committee for the whole of Canada for the suppression of the white slave traffic, and thus give their young women those rights and that protection which is now the common heritage of every young woman in Europe. Let me close by quoting Lowell's words which on many occasions have proved a trumpet call to some forgotten duty:—

“ Once to every man and nation comes the moment to decide,  
In the strife of Truth and Falsehood, for the good or evil side.”

### LA PROTECTION DES JEUNES VOYAGEUSES EN SUEDE.

Rapport écrit par M<sup>lle</sup>. CLARA WAHLSTRÖM, et lu par la  
Comtesse Lagerberg.

Le sujet ou plutôt un des deux sujets dont la section suédoise contre la traite des blanches et pour l'unité de la morale m'a chargée de vous entretenir un moment aujourd'hui est un des plus humiliants et des plus douloureux que nous puissions aborder. Ce mot de traite des blanches, qui revient si facilement sur nos livres et sous notre plume, nous ne devrions le prononcer qu'avec le sentiment profond de ce qu'il comporte.

Je n'ai pas besoin, Mesdames, de faire devant vous un exposé historique complet, qui dépasserait de beaucoup les bornes de cette réunion. Vous savez toutes que dans l'antiquité l'odieux commerce connu sous le nom de Traite des Blanches avait un caractère individuel et local, mais qu'aujourd'hui il revêt un caractère international. Tous les pays du monde comptent des victimes de ce commerce, et ni la Suède, ni les autres pays scandinaves ne sont exempts du terrible fléau. Toutefois il convient de dire qu'en Suède la traite n'a pas exactement le même caractère que dans beaucoup d'autres pays, vu que chez nous il n'existe pas de maisons de tolérance dans le sens technique prêté à ce mot; les maisons publiques, bien que tolérées et secrètement protégées par les pouvoirs publics, ne sont point autorisées par la loi suédoise. Il en résulte que l'importation de jeunes filles ne peut être de grande conséquence dans notre pays; par contre l'exportation de la marchandise humaine monte certainement à des chiffres considérables, quoiqu'il ne soit guère possible d'en donner une statistique. S'il en est ainsi, cela vient peut-être d'une certaine faiblesse du gouvernement en ce qui concerne l'expulsion des trafiquants, faiblesse causée en grande partie par l'imperfection du Code pénal indigène.

En m'excusant à l'avance de revenir sur certains détails que plusieurs d'entre vous connaissent sans doute déjà, je m'efforcerai cependant de donner un compte rendu de ce qui a été fait dans mon pays pendant ces dernières années tout au point de vue de la lutte contre la traite des blanches que pour l'unité de la loi morale.

Le Comité national suédois pour la répression de la traite des blanches fut fondé en 1902 par M. Hugo Tamm, membre de la

Diète. L'année dernière la mort subite du fondateur de notre oeuvre a plongé dans le deuil non seulement le Comité National mais encore tous les membres de la section suédoise de la Fédération abolitionniste dont M. Tamm était depuis plus de dix-huit ans le vénéré et bien-aimé président.

Pour rendre plus efficace l'action de notre oeuvre le Comité suédois pour la répression de la traite des blanches a fondé, en 1904, une association "Vaksamhet" (Vigilance) qui compte de nombreux membres en Suède. Dans la ville de Gothembourg il existe de Vaksamhet une succursale dont le bureau est entré en relation directe avec le bureau central de Stockholm, dirigé par le Comité national suédois. En outre l'Association a partout dans notre pays des membres qui s'occupent de l'oeuvre d'une manière active, en faisant des recherches au sujet des personnes soupçonnées de chercher à attirer les jeunes filles hors de leur pays et en donnant aux jeunes voyageuses des conseils et des informations.

A l'assemblée constitutive du Comité national on s'est mis d'accord pour donner à l'oeuvre le programme suivant:

1. Création de succursales, strictement contrôlées par le Comité national.
2. Dénonciation par la presse et aux autorités compétentes de tous les cas où les jeunes filles auront été trompées.
3. Contrôles des annonces publiques.
4. Renseignements sur les places offertes à l'étranger aux jeunes filles suédoises.
5. Collections et contrôles des imprimés, publications et statistiques en rapport avec la question de traite.
6. Fondation de homes pour les jeunes femmes en voyage.

Autant que possible nous avons tâché de suivre ce programme. Les travaux du Comité national et de l'association fondée par celui-ci ont été partagés entre le bureau central établi à Stockholm et les succursales fondées dans les provinces.

Outre les placards que nous avons placés dans les gares et sur quelques bateaux à vapeur des grandes compagnies pour avertir les jeunes filles de la protection offerte et pour leur donner l'adresse de nos bureaux de renseignements, nous espérons pouvoir, grâce à la bienveillante coopération de nos principales compagnies de chemins de fer, placer aussi nos affiches dans les wagons de deuxième et de troisième classe. Nous ne pouvons pas toujours apprécier nous-même les résultats de ces efforts; cependant nous recueillons, ici et là, de la bouche de nos protégées le témoignage de leur utilité.

Le nombre de jeunes filles qui se sont adressées à nous pour avoir des renseignements et des conseils s'élève cette année à 130. Notre bureau central est maintenant bien comme en Suède, et les jeunes filles ne manquent pas de s'adresser à nous pour obtenir les informations qui leur sont nécessaires.

En donnant aux jeunes suédoises, qui s'expatrient, le guide publié en suédois par notre association nous tâchons d'exercer une certaine influence sur nos protégées, par des enseignements

moraux et religieux, par des conseils pratiques pour le voyage ainsi que par des adresses de homes et de bureaux de placement de bonne réputation à l'étranger.

Grâce à l'amabilité des Comités nationaux et des associations des divers pays, nous sommes en état de donner des informations exactes et promptes aux jeunes filles qui s'informent à notre bureau avant d'accepter un engagement à l'étranger. Plusieurs fois nous avons pu avertir les jeunes filles qui étaient sur le point d'accepter des engagements douteux.

De temps en temps nous avons pu prêter secours à de jeunes compatriotes, trompées par des commissionnaires suédois qui les avaient fait partir pour l'étranger, sous prétexte d'y obtenir un bon emploi, et qui les avaient entraînées dans des maisons publiques. Sur les instances du Comité national suédois les jeunes filles ont été rapatriées; sans cette protection elles auraient été perdues.

Le Comité national suédois continue en outre de s'occuper activement de la propagande nécessaire pour éclairer l'opinion public. Le secrétaire du Comité continue toujours à faire des conférences pour mettre le public au courant des dangers de la traite des blanches et de la lutte contre celle-ci. Vingt conférences sur ce sujet ont été faites l'année dernière dans les différentes contrées de notre pays. Nous distribuons des publications et des brochures en vue de prévenir les jeunes filles exposées à subir les tentatives de ceux qui cherchent à les attirer, dans une mauvaise intention, hors de leur pays. La grande publicité donnée par la presse aux faits signalés y a puissamment contribué.

Il faut en même temps mentionner les mesures gouvernementales.

Après avoir adhéré au Projet d'arrangement administratif de la conférence de Paris en 1902 le gouvernement suédois, aux termes de l'article 1 de ce Projet, a désigné le chef de la Police de Stockholm pour centraliser tous les renseignements sur l'embauchage des femmes et des jeunes filles en vue de la débauche à l'étranger.

A la loi d'émigration du 4 juin 1884 le gouvernement ajouta des dispositions qui soumettront les agents d'émigration à une surveillance beaucoup plus rigoureuse qu'elle ne l'était auparavant.

Sur les instances du Comité national le gouvernement a nommé une commission spéciale chargée d'étudier la question de l'émigration des femmes suédoises, surtout au point de vue de la propagande que font actuellement en Suède les mormons américains.

Le Comité national suédois pour la répression de la traite des blanches se propose d'avoir des rapports suivis avec les autorités et d'élaborer des mesures pour mettre en vigueur les décisions du Congrès de Paris en 1906.

C'est quelque chose, n'est-ce pas, de penser que dans tout les pays les autorités et les particuliers ont enfin été émus de pitié pour les victimes de cette misère insondable qui a été si bien nommé

la traite des blanches. Mais il y a encore un pas à faire. Comment penser, en effet, que la traite des blanches pourra être combattu efficacement aussi longtemps que les Etats, protégeant les établissements de débauche, ne pourront sévir sérieusement contre ceux qui les pourvoient? Comment la traite cesserait-elle aussi longtemps que ces établissements réclament des victimes?

Si l'Etat autorise la vente d'un produit, il est obligé d'en permettre aussi l'achat et le transport. L'absurdité de ce système d'autorisation saute aux yeux. La réglementation de la prostitution est une honte à la justice. Et en prononçant ce mot de justice je me trouve amenée à aborder la deuxième partie de mon rapport: celle qui concerne l'unité de la morale. Si nous sommes d'accord pour appeler morale l'ensemble des principes qui proposent la marche vers le bien, le vrai et le juste, nous devons aussi accepter que ceci s'applique à l'homme aussi bien qu'à la femme pour arriver à la même morale pour les deux sexes.

Les associations qui, en Suède, travaillent à l'avancement de l'idée de l'unité morale sont: la section de la Fédération abolitionniste et le Comité national pour la répression de la traite des blanches ainsi que l'association Vaksamhet, fondée par le Comité; la plupart des membres du Comité national, sont en même temps membres de la Fédération. Il faut encore mentionner les associations du Ruban blanc et de l'Union chrétienne des jeunes filles, en même temps que le Comité des Femmes (fondé le 5 février 1902 et à cause de cela appelé aussi le Comité du 5 février) qui a pour but de lutter contre la réglementation de la prostitution. Toutes ces associations s'efforcent de propager l'idée de la même morale pour les deux sexes, en organisant des conférences et en distribuant des publications. Elles ont tâché, dans un but de préservation sociale d'obtenir des autorités la fondation d'écoles professionnelles de jeunes filles; mais en même temps elles ont compris que ce qu'il faut s'appliquer à développer surtout c'est l'éducation de la volonté qui aguerrit la jeunesse contre les vicissitudes et les amertumes de la vie. Depuis quelque temps nous avons établi dans un grand nombre de nos écoles supérieures de jeunes filles ainsi que dans les écoles primaires l'enseignement de l'hygiène sexuelle, enseignement basé sur le principe de l'unité de la morale pour les deux sexes, et dans l'égalité responsabilité sexuelle de l'homme et de la femme.

A Stockholm on a commencé, il y a quelque temps, une lutte acharnée contre la réglementation. Les femmes suédoises, quelles que fussent leurs opinions en matière civile, sociale et religieuse, ont compris qu'il s'agit ici non pas simplement d'une question d'hygiène ou d'ordre dans la rue, mais bien d'une grande question de principe et de moralité dont l'aspect sanitaire et policier n'est qu'une des faces. Une pétition contre la réglementation, signée par 16,000 femmes de Stockholm, a été remise aux autorités. C'est sans doute en grande partie à ce mouvement des femmes que nous devons la nomination, par le roi, d'une commission chargée d'étudier la question des maladies vénériennes. Cette commission,

dont les travaux ne sont pas encore terminés, s'est livrée à des études considérables dont bénéficieront les abolitionnistes en Suède, et il y a lieu de croire que la statistique élaborée dans notre pays sera d'une grande importance pour la cause en général; car cette statistique prouve de la façon la plus concluante que la réglementation est d'une importance absolument insignifiante, quand on considère les difficultés de son application.

Il convient d'ajouter que le Conseil national des femmes suédoises s'est livré à l'étude de la question de l'introduction de femmes dans la police et qu'à Stockholm on a essayé d'introduire des gardes-malades dans la police administrative ou préventive. Nous avons de fortes raisons pour croire que cette institution sera d'une grande utilité et qu'elle sera bientôt introduite dans nos autres villes.

Outre les oeuvres de relèvement et de préservation, qui déjà existent dans mon pays, le Comité suédois pour la répression de la traite des blanches a ouvert l'automne dernier à Stockholm et à Gothembourg, un Home pour recevoir les jeunes femmes en voyage et a commencé en même temps une oeuvre régulière de gare.

Dans notre pensée notre Home ne doit pas être ce qu'on est convenu d'appeler une oeuvre de charité. La pension que les jeunes filles paient, est proportionnée à leurs gains et aux chambres qu'elles occupent. Nous espérons qu'un jour viendra où cette oeuvre pourra se suffire en grande partie, bien que peut-être plusieurs années soient nécessaires pour arriver à ce résultat.

Voilà, en peu de mots, le rapport de ce qui se fait en Suède tant au point de vue de la lutte contre la traite des blanches qu'au point de vue de l'unité de la morale. Bien souvent, et le plus souvent peut-être, notre travail nous paraît comme une goutte d'eau dans l'océan, et pourtant nous avons la conviction que ce qui importe avant tout ce n'est pas la *quantité* de travail accompli, mais *l'esprit* dans lequel il est fait.

Joséphine Butler, notre grande contemporaine dont la foi ardente et la parole entraînant nous a toutes mises à l'oeuvre, disait dans un de ces discours qu'elle était persuadée que les personnes, hommes et femmes, qui ont l'esprit plein non seulement de charité mais de hardiesse lutteront contre le mal jusqu'à la mort.

"Jusqu'à la mort." Oui, soyons fidèle à la mémoire de l'initiatrice du grand mouvement en faveur de la cause de la femme et de la justice sociale. Essayons d'aller toujours en avant avec un nouveau courage.

En avant pour mériter le beau nom de combattants pour la vérité et la justice!

En avant pour travailler au service de Dieu pendant qu'il fait jour!

## THE CHILD OR GIRL WITHOUT A MOTHER, AND THE MOTHER WITHOUT A CHILD.

MISS SADIE AMERICAN, U.S.A.

Miss American said:

Madam President, Ladies and Gentlemen:

I am in a peculiar position this morning. Some time ago I gave an address on the subject of Immigration; a gentleman was put down to discuss my paper. In his speech he "wandered all over," and the aptness of doing so was that Immigration itself was wandering all over. My address this morning will be on Immigration in just this sense. From correspondence in three different quarters there was a great deal of misunderstanding as to just where it belonged. Perhaps it will really belong between Immigration and Emigration. Before I begin, I would like to define emigration and immigration as going from the home to the shop, from the shop to the streets, from the home to the streets, and back again. This is a kind of emigration, because it is the girl who emigrates in this sense in her own city of whom I am thinking not merely in the sense of travelling from one place to the other.

I am under particular obligation to Mr. Smart for having introduced my subject as he did, giving us a sort of thread connecting the questions of emigration and immigration; the thread I wanted.

One thing I want to emphasize strongly in the beginning. In the countries where immigration is more important than emigration, we are very apt to say—as has been said on this floor this morning—that immigration is the cause of many evils. I do not believe it, and I protest against it. It is because our local conditions are not such that immigrants get the ideal life they are looking forward to, that most often they fail when they do fail, and not because of any fault of the immigrants whom we invite. We expect immigration in large measure for the good we get out of it, and we have been forgetting our duty to see that the immigrants get all the good they have a right to expect. Our sins have been sins of omission, and we have come to the day when sins of omission are no longer forgiven; and we must have the thought and good sense to provide beforehand for what has to be done. Canada, for instance, has had to cure certain evils before she realized that if measures of prevention had been adopted she would never have had to begin to cure. We must have the imagination and sympathy and understanding to create a public opinion which shall force prevention and protection and so minimize the necessity of cure.

I make these general remarks because it hurt me to have the question of the White Slave Traffic discussed under the head of immigration at all; and I am delighted to see that in the National Council of Women we have a separate Committee on the White

Slave Traffic, and a new Committee on Emigration and Immigration. The two subjects must be kept apart, or you will be doing great harm to womanhood and the home.

The cause of the white slave traffic lies back in the uncontrolled passions of human beings, and would exist if there were no question of emigration and immigration. I feel so strongly on this subject that I cannot help insisting on it.

Then there is another note I wish to strike. I have heard a great deal about girls who have been sent here, and girls as young as twelve. It is very easy to take care of girls who are sent out, and no girl of twelve ought to be sent: she ought to be taken care of at home at least until she is fourteen. But it is not the girls who are sent that we have difficulty with; it is the girls who in these days of free flux of population come because they want to come, and come under the impression that they are able to take care of themselves. You yourself may be told "not to walk down a certain street, it is dangerous," or you may be told that there is an epidemic in a certain district. You say, "I am not afraid; I know how to take care of myself." This is true of these girls; they do not realize their dangers until too late. You cannot warn a strong healthy person in this condition of individual independence; yet those are the girls who more than any others need your protection.

Mr. Smart stated, and thought he stated a fact, that these girls got along and were all right. But how do you know? Our experience in the United States is that we have thought so, until years after their arrival we have discovered in many cases that help offered came too late; the time when they did need help was on arrival, help and a guiding hand. We do not follow them long enough; we do not familiarize them with all the friendly forces which are at their disposal if only they will come to make use of them. They are ashamed to apply when spiritually, or mentally, or morally poor, just as those in material poverty will not apply to charities until the last moment. We ought to prove to them that we are real friends and that they must come to us in the moment of need; then we can indeed help perhaps a great many.

Now I may enter upon the subject upon which I am expected to speak. When we take up emigration and immigration we must deal with people on the fundamental basis that they are human beings, whatever their race or creed. What is influence to the young girls? Let us look at some fundamental causes; one of the most important lies in the industrial conditions. Even in those countries where child labour is more or less controlled—that is to say, the labour of children under fourteen—there are yet many between the ages of fourteen and twenty who are forced into the industrial world and who may become more efficient than their parents. The parents under modern conditions may not be able to earn enough to support the entire family, they may have to have their earnings supplemented by those of their children. It is a fact that in every home that member of the family who is economically independent will not allow herself to be dictated to by her parents as she would

if she were economically dependent. That applies with peculiar force to the immigrant peoples, of whatever nations. The Italian, Slav, or Hungarian comes to this country, used to the slower methods and lesser pressure of his own country—and is not able to adapt himself to the higher pressure of America. He does not learn English as readily as he might. In many places in the United States the Poles, Bohemians, Italians, Jews, and other immigrant groups live in colonies. There are greater aggregations of Poles than in Poland, there are more Jews in New York than have ever been gathered together in any one place in the world.

Those people gather together, talk their native tongue; and they can get work and even get married without learning English; so why should they bother about learning English? Learning English means learning the customs and ideas of the country. But the children go out and learn English, and they come home feeling—as we saw in America—“very cocky”; they can teach their parents, and they feel superior to their parents. Some have been controlled in a strict religious life, and come to America, where we believe we are very religious, because we have something like four hundred different creeds in the United States. Four hundred and thirteen was the last count I heard, and it may be five hundred by this time. The man who goes out and founds an independent creed is thinking along the line of his creed and cares about it; it is an indication of the intention to solve for oneself the problem of God and life and the universe. The children come here, learn, work and earn, and the first result is a reaction against everything of the old country; the religion, the social customs. The parents lose control; all the old sanctions are broken down. New ones not yet found. What must be the result in the lives of these young people? Again, all the world over to-day we find—we find it even in China—the trend towards the city.

If the Canadian ladies went to Russia, the first thing they would do would be to look up some other Canadians. If Hungarian people come to Canada, they try to look up some other Hungarians. We all look for the people we know. If I walk along a street in Italy and hear some English words I turn round to greet somebody whom perhaps I would not look at in the United States.

That is the way immigrants segregate themselves, and it is perfectly natural. We talk about assimilation in the United States, but it is only partial, because the Italian marries the Italian, the German the German; and you would be astonished to find how the customs of the home country maintain themselves in the United States. It would be well if we could conserve these things, and change the feelings of the young people when they look down upon what their parents have done; they should rather be proud of what their parents have brought over and tell them that they must conserve them as a gift to the United States—that they have been giving the best they had of tradition and custom and all that sort of thing.

Some of us are trying, and we must all try, to build a solid bridge over that chasm, the first transition period, which in every

immigration in the world is bound to form between the parent and the child; so that the family shall again weave itself together and shall weave itself in with the country. This brings us to the young girl who feels that she is not controlled by the customs of her people nor by the best customs of her country. Some of us have had experience with immigrant girls who have been taken into our homes to replace other servants. The first thing the girl says, when you tell her to do so-and-so, is, "This is a free country; I can do as I please"—irrespective of the fact that you are paying her to do what you please in your own house. If you understand it you can get along. They come, believing that the new land, Canada as well as the United States, is a land of individual freedom, a land flowing with milk and honey. Hitherto they have not been allowed to do as they pleased, and here they expect to do everything they please. They have no conception of the difference between liberty and license, no conception that liberty is a social thing. We may ask—Are they alone in this? Do we, all of us, understand that liberty is social, that liberty is self-imposed restraint as against restraint imposed by other people. It implies regard for others—a thing too often forgotten. Robinson Crusoe on his island was not free—he was alone.

It is the easiest thing in the world to be amiable all alone in your own sitting-room; but when you sit beside someone who irritates you every moment of the time and you remain amiable, it is quite a different thing. This principle applies all along.

The young girl living in the congested quarter of a big city wants, ladies, just what your daughter wants; and when we stop saying "they and we," and say "we," then we shall do for her some of the things we ought.

I heard yesterday a protest against ruining health and strength by giving so much entertainment in vacation time to the children in our social stratum. The same thing is true in New York. The idea of children demanding and compelling from their parents that they shall have the same rights and privileges, and that if their parents entertain they shall do the same thing! By allowing this you are not only taking away the strength of your child's character; you are making her blasé before she has had time to enjoy anything.

All girls are alike in the fundamental passions and principles which move them. They want a good time. They ought to have it. They are pressed on by a force which neither they nor their friends understand. The adolescent period is a period of restlessness, a period of wanting they don't know what, a period of being driven by the greatest forces of Nature; and we do not recognize the importance of all this. We do not recognize that we have got to satisfy in them what ought to be satisfied. It is a matter of record that the greatest number of girls who fall from virtue fall between the ages of fourteen and seventeen. Why? Largely because they have not "a good time"; largely because there is nobody to consider them as you consider your daughter. They have to go to work; they are all tired out at night. If the family has even four rooms, which is quite palatial for families of working people, the girls have

no place they can call their own. There is poor light, very little air, no entertainment, and the baby is crying, and the father comes home late and his supper is cold, and he growls and wants a little quiet, and he lights his pipe and walks out—to the saloon. The girl, if she is a good girl, helps her mother; and finally there comes the thought, "I am going out for a walk." She goes out on the brilliantly lighted streets—whether in a small town or large there is this wonderful electric lighting—she goes out, and it is light and gay, and everybody is there, and it is cool; she is having a good time; and finally she gets back home at ten or eleven, or perhaps twelve o'clock. That goes on for a time; then she meets somebody who says, "Come to the dance hall," and she wants to dance, and she does, and—I will stop here.

I want to tell you this: that unless you are going to provide decent well-lighted attractive dancing places for your boys and girls they are going into improper places. It is as natural for boys and girls to run and dance as to breathe, and unless you enable them to use properly this natural and proper expression of the life and activity and rhythm and joy of the young people, it is going to be used improperly, as we now know from the experience of our great cities. It is almost a platitude to repeat that the forces for evil do provide attractive places, and you cannot overcome the attraction by saying "Don't." I do not know of a better way to get anybody to do anything than simply to say "Don't." A doubtful play is put on the stage, and your friend has gone to see it, to find out whether it is proper or not; and having seen it she says, "I don't think you ought to go." You resent your friend's putting her judgment against yours, and so you go to see for yourself. Don't let us preach to young girls; they won't stand it. Even if you keep them from doing the thing you tell them not to do, eventually you raise in them the desire at any rate to find out for themselves. We are not the first to say "Forbidden fruit is sweet." No. Thousands and thousands of years ago it was said, and has been repeated all the world over again and again.

May I give you an individual instance? I was talking in Boston to the mother of a little girl five years old, and emphasized this fact of impressing by "Don't" the thing we are trying to avoid. That evening the mother wanted to go to a social function, but the little girl would not go to sleep. She remembered our conversation and gave me the following account of what happened: "I said to the little cry, 'Don't you stop crying and don't you go to sleep.' She sat up and looked at me in surprise, instantly stopped crying and said, 'I will go to sleep.' With that she lay down and went to sleep, and I and her mother went to the function." I do not always have such good individual practical instances as this on hand, and it was really too good not to tell you.

Not only do these young girls walk up and down the streets where the forces for evil are working in one way and another, but there is another thing. Our young girls are forced to work by the fact that the parents can no longer get a wage sufficient for our modern standard of life, and also by the fact—for it is not this

alone—that the girls wish to feel their independence and wish to have an ownership in what they earn over and above the clothes and things which father can or will furnish. It is very curious that it is not yet conceded that a woman has the same right to go out into the world and satisfy her desires and wants that a man has. We hear that a woman makes too much competition when she goes out into the world. But the time has passed for saying this. I sometimes wonder at the grey-haired, well-dressed men employed in business establishments and wonder how they keep it up. I presume it is only because of the help of their sons and daughters who are at work.

These girls go out to work and have low wages; in New York perhaps not over five dollars or five dollars and a half. They cannot get respectable board and lodging of the most meagre sort for less than three and a half, and they have to provide their lunches and clothes and shoes. What have they left? But in addition to this, do you know what it means to thousands of girls to stand all day long for three hundred and fifteen days or more in the year? Not very long ago we forced legislation which put seats behind the counters, and after we got the seats there we discovered that the seats remained there but the girls were not allowed to use them. Then we had to force proprietors to allow the girls to use the seats provided by law for them.

Now, ladies, I want particularly to remain in your minds the needs of the young girl. The young girl comes home and is too tired to sleep, or she has not a quiet enough place to sleep and so she goes out. There are places provided, more places where she may go wrong, than proper places. But it is not only the girl who goes wrong. Yesterday Mrs. Franklin spoke of immorality. Is it not immoral to work a young girl sixteen or eighteen hours a day? Is it not immoral to have her wages forced down to two shillings a day, as told yesterday? Is it not immoral for us not to realize the social needs of the young girls and provide means to satisfy them? We have got to recognize immorality in other than the one thing, to recognize it in our sins of omission against those whose fundamental needs we have not yet learned to satisfy and whom we must learn to regard. And so I plead not for the immigrant young girl alone, but for the young girl before our eyes, the young girl whom we neglect, the young girl whom often we condemn. What she wants is the joy of life—and a little petting. There is but little petting in the homes of the poor; they are too tired to give it. They are mute sometimes when they are full of love and emotion. Sometimes I have seen a child start when I put my hand on its head, as if it expected a blow. They want a little expressed love; they want the joy of life; they want that, as you use them for obtaining wealth which is not theirs, you should provide for them, not as philanthropy, not as a privilege, but as a right which they may claim as a right; they want that you shall provide leisure for them—that you shall not give to them, but that you shall provide that they may take when they will, as they need, such things as you especially and individually provide for those close to you.

I repeat what I said here the other day: leisure is the time in which character is formed, the time when the conscious will takes in ideas and forms ideals. Oh, for that time will you so provide, you who mean well for the young girl, that she, when she grows older, shall have the full tide of life run high in her veins. May this be so.

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## IMMIGRATION.

By M. AGNES FITZGIBBON.

The "coming into a country" is a large subject to even attempt to compass in such limited time as allowed for papers to-day.

The size of Canada—500,000 square miles larger than the Republic to the south of it. Hundreds of thousands of acres still untilled would alone furnish matter, and does, for many volumes.

The "few arpents of snow" for the loss of which the influential Madame Pompadour consoled her Louis is now the richest jewel in the British Crown; the fringe of cultivable land north of the Lakes, so often spoken of by those who wish to compare the United States favourably with Canada, has been proved to reach to the Arctic Circle. The great wheat belt, so ably spoken of by the American Consul to Winnipeg, whose enthusiasm won for him the sobriquet of "Saskatchewan Taylor," will ere long be repeated on the northernmost banks of the great Mackenzie River—for where wild roses grow wheat will yield a great crop.

But it is not of the breadth, depth, products or possibilities of the wheat belts that I must speak to-day. It is of the people coming to cultivate the soil, to fill the many avenues of labour opened by its needs—needs increased by the very people coming to supply the need.

We are rich in land and products—poor in people to till and produce.

I know the West, the Northwest and our own banner Province of Ontario and of them can speak more particularly. I have worked in all and know what can be made as the result of honest labour and faith in its ultimate success.

In another hall to-day they are talking of Women in Agriculture and I regret that our meetings have fallen at the same hour, as I should have liked to add my testimony to the story of what women of honest purpose and perseverance can do in agriculture either in the West or in Ontario. In the West I have seen cities grow in a year from a tent to a Court House or fashionable club. Men arrive with a yoke of oxen, a plough, some bags of seed, who spent their last sixpence in sweeties at the last store en route to their quarter section because it was too much trouble to take care of it, come out at the end of the three years with a well-stocked farm and a bank account and know that prairie trails of the seventies are the high roads of commerce to-day. But it is not of this immigration, the rush of arrivals of men and women of all nations to the West (to some centres at the rate of 500 a day) but

of that portion of it which has come more particularly under my care during the past few years that I must speak.

Since my response to a request from the office in London to see what the Women's Council could do for immigration and later when the opportunity arrived of co-operating with those sending women and girls, I have met and placed or sent forward to their destination in Canada upwards of 2,000 women and children. At first I had no house in which to receive them, but as the number grew, the need of one became imperative and the Women's Welcome Hostel was established by the generosity and interest of our Toronto Women and the aid of a Government grant. In this Hostel upwards of 1,800 have been received, cared for and placed as domestics, nursery governesses, home helps, dressmakers, charwomen and nurses; a few have found work as stenographers. Some who came out as domestics returned to the industrial work they had been accustomed to before leaving home—many only for a time because, owing to the difference in the running of the machinery and the standard of speed in turning out the work set by our more alert Canadian workers and the high cost of board and lodging, they could not make a living wage, and having tried to work at their trade they decided that housework, which provided good board and lodging and a fair wage in their hands at the end of the month, was preferable.

Others who were expert operators and saleswomen have done well, their ability and industry winning for them good positions.

A number have married and married well; the percentage of failure in that lottery has been so small as to be hardly rateable. These have been due to hasty choice or mistaken faith in the honesty and truth of the man who beguiled them.

The women and girls who go into domestic service save more than in other employment. Within the last two years I have taken charge of an increasing number of savings bank account books. Owing to our early closing hours the girls cannot deposit their savings themselves, so bring the amount to me on their evenings out.

Many of the girls who come to the country through the British Women's Emigration Association have loans for passage money to be returned and these paid they continue to save a like sum each month for themselves. I have a wee woman who has been in the same situation since she arrived a year ago who has refunded a seven pound loan and saved \$61.45 since on \$12 a month she has earned. She came to me to draw \$40 of it to buy things for her wedding. She is marrying a good steady workman who has a home ready for his bride. Others earning much higher wages have savings in proportion. One is a small landed proprietor, owning a cottage and lot on which she has made arrangements with a builder to put up two other cottages to be paid for from the rent of the three. Others again have brought out and established their whole families.

The Hostel has become not only a receiving home for the newcomers to the country but a centre to which all who have passed through it return, when needing advice, information or board and

lodging, a rendezvous for friends, a bank in which to deposit savings, a permanent postal address, an employment bureau, a safe deposit for valuables, etc.

If I am advised of the boat on which they are sailing the newcomers are met at the station, given twenty-four hours' free board and lodging and a situation found them.

The demand still far exceeds the supply. These applications for the services of maids come from all parts of Ontario and I have maids and families now settled in all the principal cities and towns as well as the country districts. Many remain a year or more in their first situations or locality, others have gone West, until in almost every centre as far as Vancouver Island I can now hear of a Hostel girl. The success of one in each locality is the usual prelude to a number of applications for others. "Can you send me a girl like the one you sent Mrs. ———" is the burden of many letters received from new correspondents. The majority have come from England, Scotland ranking second—recently Ireland's contribution is increasing, a few from Wales and Norway, one or two have been Italians who came to definite places, a very few Germans (who have not been a success due to their being the wrong class for Canada).

Apart from the special or factory fund in the hands of the B. W. E. A., which is used to help the out-of-work industrial workers or families to emigrate who through slackness in their trade at home are willing to enter the ranks of domestic service here, there is I believe no fund from which loans for passage money can be obtained. Girls earning £14 to £24 a year at home as maids can generally command from £26 to £40 in Canada. The wages are larger in the cities where more trained service is required than in the country on farms.

Recently one or two of our best agents have loaned the £7 or £8 necessary, with the understanding that upon being satisfied with the investigated references and seeing the girl, the employer refunds the full amount through the Hostel and recoups herself in such instalments as are agreed upon by mutual arrangement. This has been found satisfactory and we are following the plan in larger numbers this year.

We do not advise anyone to send the passage money home for a maid. In cases where it has been done it has not been satisfactory.

We also urge all agents and societies working with us to place the women sent out only through the Hostels and not to send them direct to situations offered by letter. For while there are many who would be excellent employers there are others who take an unfair advantage, and those sending out the girls are not sufficiently familiar with the conditions of life in Canada to enable them to place the maids suitably.

The twenty-four hours' rest given the women on arrival, free board and lodging gives an opportunity to learn more of the class of place, the sort of work they can undertake than any written or typed references. It enables us to tell them of such laws as will

affect their lives, warn them against pitfalls and so get in touch with them as ensures their coming to us for advice or sympathy when it is needed. A knowledge of such trifles as the fact that Canadian flour takes up more moisture than the English, that the salt used is stronger and the stove draughts more intricate prevents failure in a cook's first place. This getting in touch with the women and making them feel they have a friend here and that the success of the Hostel is dependent upon their success has borne good fruit. Unless when she desires to remain a day or two longer to rest after a bad voyage or the work she requires is technical and not immediately available, the maids who arrive are generally placed within forty-eight hours. If placed out of the city they are encouraged to write to us—if in the city they are welcomed at the Hostel on their day out; use it as their permanent address and generally look upon it as their home in Canada. That it is appreciated the letters I receive and the frequent calls upon my attention prove.

All appearance of an institution has been kept from the Hostel in Toronto, it is more a private house to which the girls have the privilege of coming and this privilege has never been abused by a sane girl. I say a sane girl because, whether it is the effect of climate or not, those of weak intellect do not improve in sanity by coming to Canada.

Owing to the excellent restrictions in force under the recent Immigration Act the "failures, the misfits" are less in number than formerly. This Act has been amended but its provisions may be stated shortly—

"Money is expended and administration is exercised with the object of securing immigrants whose purpose in life is to occupy farm lands either as owners, tenants or labourers, and for the exclusion of those whose presence in Canada would tend to add to the congestion in towns and cities and only in those countries calculated to supply the most suitable immigrants is there any official effort made to obtain them."

The exclusion provisions of the Act against the entrance of the physically, mentally and morally unfit are mandatory and apply to all classes and all nations. Others excluded for financial reasons are charity aided immigrants, Europeans not in possession of \$25 cash besides ticket to destination; those who do not come by continuous passage from or on ticket purchased in the country of their birth or citizenship. Asiatics must have \$200 besides ticket (with the exception of the Chinese and Japanese). The former must pay £500 head tax—the latter must have a passport as well as the \$25. The demand for domestics and farm labourers being so great provision is made for relaxation in the case of those going to assured employment or to relations capable of supporting them.

When in Quebec last summer I went to the Immigration Office and, guided by the genial Mrs. Corneille, Immigration Matron, I went over the comfortable quarters provided by the Government.

A group of nice-looking people were pointed out to me as having been detained until their friends had been communicated with that the above provision of the Act might be enforced. I am glad to say a telegram arrived while I chatted with them and I saw several sent on their way rejoicing.

In the case of loans being made, the emigrant's reference and medical certificate of health must be passed by the Government emigration official in London and a card furnished by him to ensure their entrance into the country. A brief epitome of these regulations is furnished to all emigration officials and they are held strictly to account for this enforcement of the Act.

The result is that there are fewer cases of deportation, and as the three years' limit expires there will be less.

Charitable people in Great Britain have the mistaken idea that in sending one who has fallen, "met with a misfortune," as they term it, to the new world they are giving them a new chance. There can be no greater mistake; they remove her from all the safeguards inseparable from parish life at home and send her to a country where she has far greater liberty, less individual care or interest taken in her, not from any lack of charity—but from lack of time and the leisure class who spend their time and energies in such parochial work. We have no such leisure class and as yet no pauper class to require their attention. She is at first accepted as honest and while she keeps straight and her own counsel, gets on—presently in a weak moment either physical or mental she confides her past to a fellow-worker and immediately is avoided or led into temptation by those who are ever at hand to take advantage of weak women—the evil men—often her own countrymen. Again, the old Scotch law which has sapped the moral sense of many of its women of the working class leads them into trouble—to find too late that there is no redress in this country—no laws to enforce the care of mother or support of the child on the father; and that the man who has caused the trouble is the first to desert her as a disgrace to him.

Yet I would not have laws enacted to provide for them, rather impress upon all women and girls coming to the country the absence of such laws if not for their own guidance, that they may be a help to others to avoid temptation.

There are numerous publications issued by both the Federal and Local Governments on the advantages to the immigrant who settles in Canada on the land. There is certainly a great opening in Canada, particularly in Ontario for the better class of settler, retired Army Officer, small landed proprietor whose income is not sufficient to support the land at home and educate his children. Poor in England he will be comfortably off in Canada and the small holding of land he may acquire at a moderate cost will, if worked well on intensive farming lines, bring in a considerable addition to his income. The educational facilities are less expensive and equally good, his children grow up with the country, are self-supporting earlier in life and thus may reach independent

affluence by working to develop the resources or industrial opportunities of the new country. As the cities grow, fed by this quality and success of the agricultural land surrounding them or for which there are markets, riches increase, more comfortable living arrives and more men and women are required to continue that development. This is most applicable to the farm hands and domestic servants. There is no peasant class in Canada as at home from which they can be drawn, the majority of our early settlers are sprung from the better classes of the old world and their descendants are ever striving to get back to the same social plane as that occupied by their ancestors. Therefore the only source of supply is through immigration.

Many plans and schemes by which the necessary supply may be obtained have been spoken of and hints are thrown out that the question has passed the stage of the Government's serious consideration and that they are now about to take practical steps towards supplying the demand. A lady speaking in another Section referred to 900 applications for maids being on her books. I announced that the Government were taking steps to fill these at once. Certainly the need is here. One cannot see the wide acres of rich unoccupied lands in the North or West, God's promised land, the over-arching unclouded skies, the life-giving air, the space to breathe, the sunshine, without contrasting it with the overcrowded old lands and wishing that those out of work through no fault of their own could come to it before the degrading influences of idleness and poverty have lowered their manhood, sapped their energies and physical ability to work, and drawn them down to swell the crowd in the slums and alleyways of the great cities of the old lands.

We do not want the unfit but the fit before they become unfit. Nor is it wise of the Motherland to ask us to accept the unfit. Why poison the Greater Britain or transplant the sores of the old land to the new and thus destroy what may reasonably be expected to be the support of her old age, the granary from which her food supply must come?

The aid and encouragement given to women to come to Canada to fill places as domestics is not the mere supplying of Mrs. Jones or Mrs. Brown with a parlour maid, it is of sound political, economic value. The women who are the mothers of the race cannot do their duty to home or state without this help and retain the health needed to fulfil these duties.

Women and girls of the working classes—women of the better classes equally willing to work, with no false pride or mistaken ideas that honest work is derogatory to their dignity, their class—healthy, strong young women with clean bodies and minds—willing and ambitious to do their work well, to take advantage of the opportunities, to earn a better wage and eventually homes of their own where a strong, healthy race may be born and brought up for the future health and wealth of a great nation. These are the women needed and wanted for Canada.

A nation made great by climatic influences, prosperous industry, strenuous endeavour, righteous living, honesty of purpose, unswerving loyalty to home ties both past and present and faith in the possibilities of the future, the result of their labours. An Anglo-Saxon race governed by a responsible people, where the King's English is spoken in every language of the globe, law-abiding citizens of the greatest Empire the world has known.

"Eldest daughter in her mother's house, mistress in her own," a people who, building on foundations laid in the far past have in less than two hundred years, realized the dream of the early discoverers, found a passage to the east by the west and obtained responsible government without separation from the parent state.

Canada is a land to come to—here welcoming hands are held out to receive offering prosperity to those who work for it, success to tillers of its soil and workers in our homes who take for their motto that of the proudest family in Scotland, the command left us by the Master of all life—to *serve*.

Who will raise service once more to the dignified ranks of life—love it, trust to it, take pride in it until they have made it their own and the land they have grown to love will answer back through its abounding peace and prosperity.

Well done thou good and faithful *servant!*

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## IMMIGRATION SCHEMES ADOPTED BY THE COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA.

By SENATOR THE HON. HENRY DOBSON.

The Commonwealth of Australia is just beginning to realize the importance of immigration, and some of its six States are now adopting a vigorous policy in this direction. The example of the United States and the great progress made by Canada partly in consequence of her large immigration schemes have stirred up the Australians. The area of the Commonwealth is 2,974,581 square miles, thus comprising a territory as large as all Europe with Russia left out. Although large portions of good land have been alienated by the Crown during the past century of Australian history and are now occupied by a population of under 4,500,000 persons, thousands of square miles remain unoccupied and offer employment and prosperous homes to millions of immigrants who care to settle in the Island Continent. Australia is a land of sunshine, and although a portion of it is tropical and semi-tropical, the climate in far the largest part of it is one of the best in the world. The intending immigrant will get the best idea of the great productiveness of the soil and its great mineral wealth and the numerous industries which can be carried on in the Commonwealth, by a few figures showing some of the exports for 1907.

## EXPORTS.

	Pounds.
Animal food stuffs. . . . .	5,746,903
Vegetable stuffs. . . . .	7,173,986
Animal substances, wool, etc. . . . .	32,020,929
Oils, etc. . . . .	1,301,567
Stones, etc. . . . .	1,345,970
Specie. . . . .	6,885,797
Metals, ores, etc. . . . .	14,190,576
Wood, etc. . . . .	840,985
And many other articles making a total of. . . . .	72,824,237

The following table shows the trade per inhabitant of the Commonwealth and some other countries, i.e., imports for home consumption and exports of domestic products including bullion and specie:—

	Trade per Inhabitant.		
	£	s.	d.
Commonwealth of Australia for year 1907. . . . .	28	10	10
United Kingdom. . . . .	22	6	5
Canada. . . . .	21	1	11
New Zealand. . . . .	40	0	9
Belgium. . . . .	30	13	3
Denmark. . . . .	17	8	4
France. . . . .	10	19	7
German Empire. . . . .	10	14	6
Sweden. . . . .	10	16	5
Switzerland. . . . .	30	12	2
Uruguay. . . . .	14	8	0

It will thus be seen that Australia is, according to its natural productiveness, one of the richest countries in the world, standing very high on the above list with a trade and soil production of £28 10s. 10d. per head. The British Emigrants' Information Office in London in its report of 1908 states that the number of enquiries respecting Australia by intending emigrants had increased by 41 per cent. compared with 1907, and was nearly double the Canadian enquiries at their office. The departures to Australia during 1908 numbered 21,894 as against 7,613 for 1907.

Australia's exports exceed her imports by many millions and she has a total trade of over £125,000,000.

The following particulars will show what the several States of the Australian Commonwealth are doing to encourage immigration:—

## NEW SOUTH WALES (904,212 SQUARE MILES).

Immigration in this State is under the control of the Intelligence Department and the Government has arranged to give assistance towards the passage of persons who intend to settle on the

land or engage in any form of rural industry, also domestic servants or any others who can satisfy the Agent General in London that they will make suitable settlers, together with their wives and families, if any. Nominations may be made in New South Wales for assisted passages for immigrants approved by the Agent General in accordance with the regulations. If the immigrant desires a second-class passage from Great Britain to this State by the Orient Line, the usual price is £41 16s. 0d., but by taking advantage of the assisted immigration scheme, the fare—after deducting the Government contribution of £4 in respect of each full fare and £2 on each half fare, which may be increased to £6 and £3 in case of persons who settle on the soil, and the shipping company's rebate—is only £31 16s. 0d. A third class fare may be obtained—after deducting the shipping company's rebate and the Government contribution of £4—by the Orient Line, Aberdeen Line, Lunds Blue Anchor Line and the Federal-Houlder-Shire Line, as follows:—Open berth, £8; berth in four-berth cabin, £10; berth in two-berth cabin, £11; children between three and twelve years of age travelling with their parents, half fare. In order to encourage the immigration of persons who desire to engage in any form of rural industry or domestic service, although the above fares must be paid, when the immigrant satisfies the Intelligence Department that he or she is actually engaged in one of these forms of employment, a further subsidy of £2 will be granted, bringing the total Government contribution up to the £6 before mentioned. The fares are thus reduced in these cases to £6, £8 and £9. Any person desiring to nominate an immigrant must give an undertaking that employment will be found for the immigrant on arrival or that adequate provision will be made for his or her maintenance, and the passage money must be forwarded to the Intelligence Department together with a Nomination Form duly filled in. Where a man nominates his wife and family, if the Department is satisfied that the full passage money cannot be paid immediately, a Passage Certificate may be issued on payment of not less than one-third of the amount required, if an undertaking is given to pay the balance by instalments within twelve months and a satisfactory guarantee is provided. The fares by Nord Deutscher Lloyd's (third class) from Bremen or Antwerp to this State are the same as before quoted, and from Genoa or Naples the amounts are £7, £8 and £9 respectively. Applicants for assisted passages from the United Kingdom can make all necessary arrangements with the Agent General for New South Wales, 123 Cannon St., London, E.C., but before any assisted passage is given that officer must satisfy himself as to the eligibility of the applicant. On arrival at Sydney the immigrants are advised to communicate at once with the Intelligence Department where every advice and assistance will be rendered to them free of charge, and they will be brought into touch with land available for settlement or places where suitable employment may be obtained. Nominated immigrants will be carried at half rates on the railways and will be allowed a special reduced fare for their baggage, etc. Immigrants are mainly selected from Great Britain,

but a portion of them may be drawn from Canada, South Africa and other parts of the British Empire, also from the United States and European countries. They must be of sound mental and bodily health and of good moral character and shall not exceed fifty years of age. Any immigrant who settles upon the land as owner, lessee or labourer within a reasonable time after his arrival shall be entitled to a remission of one-half of the railway fare for himself and family when travelling to the district in which he shall be settling, and also one-half of the railway freight charged in respect of his furniture, stock and implements brought with him. At the time of writing this paper, the pamphlets from New South Wales explaining the terms upon which lands in that State can be acquired had not reached the writer, but all classes of land can be purchased from the Crown on very easy terms and land can also be acquired under the closer Settlement Act upon very advantageous conditions.

#### VICTORIA (87,884 SQUARE MILES).

Up to the present time no amount has been specifically set aside for emigration purposes in this State. Two or three years ago the Premier directed that twenty families of immigrants, whose relatives wished it, should be assisted to come to Victoria, and he had a number of such families assisted out as nominated immigrants. When this was done a sum of £1,000 was made available for a similar purpose, and when that amount had been expended a similar amount was again made available and this amount is now being expended. The conditions of nomination are:—The nominator in Victoria must lodge a deposit of £4, being one-third of the reduced fare of £12 per adult—children pro rata—and pay the balance in equal monthly instalments over a period of twelve months. If the person nominated establishes his permanent home in Victoria a rebate of £4 per adult is made, thus making the actual passage money £8 per adult, £4 for children. In addition to nominated passages a reduced passage may be obtained in London through the Agent General's Office at £12 per adult and £6 per child up to twelve years of age—children under three years free; if more than one child is under three the extra number are charged one-third or one-fourth fares according to the line they are travelling by—no rebate is made in these latter cases. No advance is made to the immigrant on arrival, nor is he provided with free board and lodging. An officer meets all boats which are known to have immigrants on board, and assists them by his advice and experience and sees that their baggage is cared for by respectable agents, and if necessary it is stored free for one week. He also advises the immigrants as to the proper means to adopt to obtain land or employment, and also the best boarding-houses to put up at. By following the officers' advice the immigrant will have his luggage looked after and obtain good accommodation at a minimum cost. So far the immigrants who have arrived in Victoria have usually been mechanics and agriculturists. It is preferred that clerks and mechanics be not encouraged, although if they come

out on their own initiative they are treated generously. Skilled agriculturists with a moderate amount of capital will find good investments, and either Crown or private land or land provided by Closer Settlement Acts will be ready to meet their requirements. All immigrants, other than those nominated, are sent out by the Agent General from London. Victoria has no immigration agents and pays no bonuses to private organizations or societies, nor does it subsidize any shipping company. The Salvation Army has made to Victoria certain suggestions with regard to immigration, but up to the present time these suggestions have not been acted upon. Free grants of land are not made to immigrants, who have to face the same competition as local applicants and pay the same prices. Crown lands unimproved are sold at from 10s. per acre and upwards—the usual rates being:—First class, £1 per acre; second class, 15s. per acre, and third class, 10s. per acre. In special cases, where the circumstances justify it, rates may be increased to what is judged to be a fair and reasonable value. The payments may be extended over forty years without interest. The price of land obtainable under the Closer Settlement Act cannot be fairly compared, as regards its price and condition, with Crown lands. Closer Settlement Estates are generally well improved, and very often include a homestead and outbuildings with more or less fencing and clearing, and generally speaking years of work have been done on the land before the settler takes possession. The price to be paid for this land is a fair valuation according to market price, and the areas are large enough to maintain the settler and his family, with the advantage that he can start producing as soon as he gets on to his holding. He is allowed  $31\frac{1}{2}$  years to pay for the land, and the interest charged is  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. on the balance of unpaid capital for the time being due. Advances are made to the immigrant to assist him in building and fencing. A sum of £250 may be advanced to him for this purpose; such advances are repayable over a period of sixteen years and bear interest at 5 per cent. Suspension of payments is allowed under the Closer Settlement Act if the settler meets with an exceptionally bad season or other misfortune, and the amount which can be suspended is equal to 60 per cent. of the value of the improvements he has effected. The price of Closer Settlement land ranges from £3 to £12 per acre. Crown lands and Closer Settlement areas are being made available from time to time and will provide such land as may be required for immigrants as well as for local applicants. As to land in Victoria for grazing areas, leases may be issued for any term of years expiring not later than 29th December, 1920, for areas not exceeding 200, 640 or 1,280 acres of first, second or third class and at annual rentals according to classification of not less than 3d., 2d. and  $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. per acre respectively. These leases are transferable with the consent of the Department. The popular selections are to take up 200, 320 or 640 acres of first, second or third class land at £1, 15s. or 10s. an acre. Giving 200 acres at £1 per acre as an example, the selector has to pay 1s. an acre for 20 years, or 6d. an acre for 40 years, and to reside on the land, and he obtains his grant at the

end of 20 or 40 years as the case may be, without paying any interest, provided that during the first six years he shows that he has spent £1 per acre in improvements.

QUEENSLAND (670,500 SQUARE MILES).

This State voted for the years 1908-09 the sum of £53,530 to encourage immigration and its policy is a very active one. Immigrants can obtain an assisted passage at the rate of £12 for each adult passenger, and in addition the Government refund to the shipping company the Suez Canal dues paid by the latter on all immigrants, and any steamer securing a less number than 200 adult steerage passengers whether Government emigrant or otherwise, then the Government will on the dispatch of the steamer pay to the contractors in London on the sailing of the steamer a sum equal to £4 per head on the number by which the number carried is short of 200. No advance is made to the immigrant on his arrival in Queensland, but he is provided with board and lodging pending his obtaining employment, unless he exhibits a morbid distaste for work. Where necessary he is provided with a free passage by coastal steamer or rail to his intended place of residence. The Immigration Agent in Queensland looks after all immigrants on arrival and supplies them with all necessary information. The immigrants which Queensland is trying to secure are chiefly agricultural labourers and female domestic servants. This state has no agent in London and does not work by a bonus system or commission paid to the shipping companies. The Agent General engages all the immigrants. No immigrants so far have been received through the efforts of the Salvation Army. No special grant of land is given to immigrants, but they can select under the same conditions as everybody else. Free homesteads, however, up to 160 acres, can be secured on payment of £1 and the prescribed survey fee on a five-year bonus, during which period the selector must occupy the land by personally residing on it, and must effect improvements to the total value of 10s. per acre. The settler then appears to be entitled to his grant, but a free homestead cannot be sold or mortgaged until the grant is obtained, but these free homesteads are not available unless specially so proclaimed. As to agricultural selections, the largest area that may be acquired by one person is 1,280 acres, and the price ranges from 10s. an acre upwards as may be declared by proclamation. The term is twenty years, and the annual rent is one-fortieth of the purchase price, and the payments are credited as part of the price. The land must be continually occupied by the selector residing personally on it or by his manager or agent doing so. Within five years from the issue of the license to occupy the selector must enclose the land with a good and substantial fence or make substantial and permanent improvements equal in value to such fencing, and on completion thereof the selector becomes entitled to his lease, and may thereafter mortgage it, or—with the permission of the Minister—may subdivide or transfer it.

**WESTERN AUSTRALIA (975,920 SQUARE MILES).**

This State set apart last year about £7,000 for the purposes of immigration, and £2,500 of this vote is spent by the Department in lecturing and advertising expenses. Immigrants may obtain assisted passages to the extent of from £6 to £15 10s, according to the line of steamship they travel by and the berths they select. No advances are made to immigrants on arrival, but they are provided with board and lodging for a few days at the Immigration Depot with the exception of nominated immigrants. An Emigration Officer is stationed at Fremantle, who receives the immigrants and affords them whatever information they require. The Information Bureau in Perth in connection with the Lands Department advises generally, and issues railway passage to inspect land, etc., under the conduct of land guides. The class of immigrants consists chiefly of agricultural labourers and their families with some domestic servants and a few skilled mechanics.

Immigrants may be nominated by friends in this State or may come through the Agent General in London. No special grants of land are made to immigrants, but free homestead farms of 160 acres under the provision of the 74th Section of the Lands Act are largely availed of by them. The cost is £1 registration fee, and £3—being half cost of survey. The other conditions of acquirements are:— Personal residence for five years, habitable house—value £30—to be erected, expenditure within the first two years of 4s. per acre, and within the last two years 3s. per acre, making an expenditure of 14s. per acre in all. Of the total prescribed value of improvements only £30 for the house is allowed. Half the land to be fenced within five years—the whole within seven years, and when these conditions are complied with the 160 acres becomes the property of the settler. Other modes of acquiring land are, by conditional purchase of from 100 to 1,000 acres at from 10s. per acre and upwards, payable in 40 half-yearly instalments, and certain improvements have to be effected, together with personal residence for six months in each of the first five years. Other lands can be obtained by direct payments and also by grazing lease, and land for orchards, vineyards or gardens may be acquired to the extent of from 5 to 50 acres from 20s. per acre and upwards, payable in three years, together with the execution of certain improvements.

**SOUTH AUSTRALIA (309,850 SQUARE MILES).**

This State has no Immigration Department, and as a fact they have no regulations as to giving assistance to immigrants arriving in South Australia. A large area of Crown land is, however, open to selection. Rich and improved lands are re-purchased for the purpose of Closer Settlement. No advances are made to the purchaser of Closer Settlement lots, and each purchaser has to finance himself. Areas suitable for farms may be taken up of sizes varying according to quality of a value of £5,000 or of pastoral land enough for 5,000 sheep—or in dry areas, enough for 10,000 sheep. This land may be held either on perpetual lease or agreement of purchase. In the latter case, the payments, half-yearly, go towards the purchase

money, and on 60 such payments being made the purchase is complete. Land held under the Pinnaroo Railway Act, which must be held under agreement of purchase, may be purchased outright at any time. Completion of purchase of other lands—except land repurchased for Closer Settlement—may be made after holding it for six years. If taken on perpetual lease the annual rental will be—according to the value of the land—from about  $\frac{1}{4}$ d. to 1s. per acre, according to quality. If on agreement of purchase the price will be from 5s. per acre to £1 per acre. Land purchased under the Closer Settlement Act may be held up to £2,000 worth unimproved value—improved lots and grazing land up to £4,000 worth and the purchase money may be paid in seventy half-yearly instalments. (The first ten payments will be interest only—which will be 4 per cent. on the purchase money.) Purchase may be completed by paying the balance of purchase money after holding the land nine years. Homestead lots up to £100 worth may be taken on perpetual lease or agreement of purchase. These are meant for workmen's homes—not to make a living on, but to devote their spare time upon while not employed elsewhere. Advances up to £50 may be made by the Commissioner to any homestead block holder who has complied with the conditions of his lease or agreement, to assist in erecting permanent improvements on the block.

#### TASMANIA (26,215 SQUARE MILES).

For some years past this State has had no scheme of immigration, but the Government are now establishing one under the control of the Tasmanian Tourist Association. This Association, however, in circulating information in connection with its tourist work has during the past twelve months secured some settlers who are each bringing to this State various sums amounting to about £10,000. The Association is also securing retired military officers and non-commissioned officers and other officials from India who have pensions and some capital. There are splendid openings in Tasmania for orchardists, growers of small fruit and potato growing and the raising of lambs for early market, timber getting, and mixed farming generally can be carried on to advantage. There is no more delightful occupation than that of an orchardist, and there is no better country in the world to grow apples, pears, apricots, etc. Many orchards produce 500 bushels of apples and pears to the acre, but the average crop is, of course, less, and in some cases 1,000 bushels and upwards have been picked off an acre. The flavour of this fruit and its keeping capacity are second to none in the world, and each year from 400,000 to 500,000 bushels of apples and some pears are exported to England and foreign markets. Prices at which the fruit is sold here run from 3s. 6d. to 4s. 6d. per bushel, in London it realizes from 7s. to 14s. and even 16s., according to quality, and in the Interstate markets apples average from 5s. to 8s. per bushel. The settled climate of Tasmania gives the orchardist here a big advantage over the fruit growers in other Australian States.

In the afternoon a joint session was held with the Philanthropy Section, for which see under Joint Sessions, Vol. I.

WEDNESDAY, JUNE 30TH—MORNING SESSION.

Chairman, MRS. A. M. HUESTIS.

SUBJECT—"THE MOTHER."

## THE MOTHER IN PUBLIC LIFE.

By MARY HIGGS

It is not too much to say that the future of the State, the future of the world, depends on public motherhood. Nature is very slow in her evolutions, but very sure, and she reveals in a thousand ways whither she is tending, long before the end is accomplished. It is for us to read her riddle in advance and work with her for her great future end. This is the great difference between man and the lower animals. Long before there was a land animal multitudes of Amphibia were generation after generation progressing towards emergence from the water, yet they blindly followed Nature and could not co-operate. Even so, as Henry Drummond has shown us, ages and ages went to the blind evolution of the human mother. But now she has arrived! The significant fact is that she has arrived at an epoch when it is possible for man to understand. It is possible for him to co-operate in the making of the finest type of woman; it is possible for man and woman working together to become the finest type of "father" and "mother" and so crown their fatherhood and motherhood. It is possible by utilizing the highest qualities of humanity in the service of collective humanity—the community—the State—to advance the common interests of humanity by leaps and bounds, and thus to gain for humanity in a few centuries what has not been attained in thousands of years. And if this is possible in any country, if anywhere can be garnered the fruit of the past as the heritage of the future, it should be in such a country as this—the country of the homestead, the country that can make the child the centre of all its thinking. The emergence of the mother in public life will mean, when its full significance is attained, that every child shall be well born, well developed and wealthy. Wealth is what we are, not what we have, and it is attained by only one path, that of good birth and breeding. But for good birth and breeding the good mother is the essential. Therefore public life, the Commonwealth, depends not only on the manufacture, or rather the breeding of good mothers, but also on the application of the principle of motherhood to public life itself.

For after all, motherhood itself in the sense of the bearing and rearing of children, is but an incident in a woman's life. Before it lie years of preparation—years that have slowly lengthened, until we are told that for perfection of motherhood twenty-three years should be passed, a good third of most lives. Then between this age and 45 or 50 at most, lie most of the urgent claims of motherhood itself. One by one the babies, even if tenderly nurtured at home, pass to community care in the school and to

community life with its larger struggles. They lose, not gain, by being tied too long to "mother's apron strings." But the mother herself—what is her function now? Is it simply to relieve the upgrowing daughters from just those efforts and experiences that would make them good mothers also? Is it simply to offer an easy but unintelligent sympathy to the young man in his world struggle, to the daughter of the new era? Is not the mother to-day called to public life as she never was before? Already the community bears half her burden; it demands from her her child; it furnishes her with a thousand facilities for easier life, light, heat, water, traction, manufactured products, manufactured clothes. Is her life to become narrow as her daughter's widens? Are women to remain spinsters because it is the wider life? Nay, is it not just the mother that the community needs in public life; the woman who has tasted life's full cup, passed through life enlarged by dual experience, gained in the laboratory of the nursery insight into its crucial problems?

I maintain that the State is suffering in all directions from the lack of public motherhood for which our times are ripe; that a national housekeeping is prodigal for want of just the "mothering" that should go along with the "fathering." But above all that the motherhood qualities are just what Nature herself is aiming at and requiring of human nature, and that they cannot be supplied in any other way than by the acceptance of women who have graduated in the school of motherhood as co-partners in public life with men who have graduated in the school of fatherhood.

Let us think for a moment what an uplift would be given to girlhood and to womanhood by setting before us from the first the larger ideal, "You are expected to qualify for motherhood, you are called whether to individual motherhood or not, to the larger motherhood, to community motherhood." The qualities most finely developed in the best mother are just what the State needs. Motherhood is an essential of the true teacher, of the social worker, of those who man, or rather woman, our State institutions, our orphan asylums, our infirmaries, our poorhouses, our prisons. Because we have run so many of our institutions in the father and not the mother spirit, they have failed. Whenever a womanly man has cropped up, as in Judge Lindsey, of Denver, he—by importing mothering into State work has effected a revolution. The modern good woman, such as Elizabeth Fry or Catherine Booth is simply the woman whose large capacity for mothering is placed at the service of the community.

For want of motherhood in the guardianship of the poor, in the councils of our cities, in the education of our children, many things have gone astray. Set before you the larger ideal; claim of your girls that they become patriots, that they educate themselves for the larger motherhood. The community that does this will advance by leaps and bounds in the natural path of progress, for it will have as its asset the well-born, well-nurtured and wealthy child.

Let us see the bearing of this loftier ideal on the three stages of motherhood.

1. Preparatory. The twenty-three years of preparation are preparation for what? Let us say boldly—for motherhood; then will all our ideas suddenly clarify, because to those hands are to be trusted the frailest and most delicate of all tasks, the care of the child. They must be trained for all delicate ministry. It is not the wife alone we have to make, it is the mother. It is the woman who among a thousand incessant claims can concentrate on the wants of helpless claimants for love and service, can feed, clothe, nurse and nurture the most helpless of beings. Therefore the hand and the head must be most skilfully trained, for more than the mechanic or the "handicrafts man" does the mother require skilful training for her difficult task. How long shall we regard motherhood as an unskilled industry?

But even more, if possible, than skill of eye or hand does she need mental equipment, for from her does the child gain his view of life, his first education. Is it too much to say that not until each mother has gained by right education her full mental equipment can we reach the flower of the human race? "All Nature's are biddings." We are called to use the highest that is in us for the sake of our children, every potential mother is called to take the Motherhood Degree—would that we had it in every country.

(1) Spinster of Arts, in all matters of manual training, cookery, house-cleaning, cleansing, clothes-making, nursing, baby-tending, kindergarten work.

(2) Mistress of Arts, in hygiene, economics, child psychology with a special degree in the highest attainable development of individual faculty in art, music, philosophy, science, literature—because to pass on the best is our duty to the community.

Such an education would bring us to:

2. The Practical stage, where the education attained is tried in the laboratory of experience. The best of all such laboratories is the home. But when shall we understand that we must give our women time and opportunity to be mothers? Perhaps not till women have claimed enough share in public life to redress the balance. It is a significant fact, for example, that in Australia, where woman by having the franchise can apply motherhood to public life, the children of the widow are boarded out with their own mothers under State supervision. Yet after all, what absolute common sense! All our State aided institutions cannot replace the mother. We cannot hatch out children in incubators wholesale; but we can recognize the mother as the most important State asset, and in a thousand ways facilitate her hard and delicate task.

There are a hundred signs of the oncoming of a revolution in community thinking on this important subject. Is it too much to expect that some time it will be recognized that every mother should have the wherewithal to feed her child? Is it too much to expect that the folly of under-employment of men and all employment of women—and those women, mothers—who are struggling

to get bread for born or unborn children will be recognized? Will not the slaughter of the innocents be recognized as a blot on the twentieth century? Will motherhood always be the great unpaid sweated industry?

The answers to these questions depends largely on those who are now in the practical stage. The young mothers of to-day hold in their hands the shaping of a new generation of men as well as women. The place women occupy in this vast commonwealth, the absence of the feudalism of Europe, but its survival of chivalry to women, justifies the hope that women's wrongs may be redressed without undue insistence on Women's Rights, because the new generation of fathers and mothers make the child, not themselves, the centre of all their thinking.

We now come to the third stage:—The penchant should enlarge.

3. Produce. Every Canadian expects produce. He would not care to till and sow a field and then let the harvest go to waste. Surely there should also be a harvest in a woman's life, the garnered grain of ripened experience—food for the nation's life—not simply for "the family circle." All around the larger motherhood is needed. Mothers qualified to lead mothers. Mothers qualified to uphold mothers through difficult times. Mothers as teachers to the State of the art of State mothering of the defective, the epileptic, the feeble-minded. Mothers who understand homes and better our home-building, our city creating mothers as State housekeepers. Unmarried mothers, women with the instinct and capacity of mothers to care for orphans, sick and poor. The Catholic Church has long recognized and consecrated the Divine gift of the larger motherhood. But now the State needs it, needs to seek for it as hidden treasure, this secret flower of womanhood hidden away often as a violet hides among its own leaves, yet there to be plucked for community need. Shall we not recognize this community need all through all nurture of girlhood? Shall we not say, "It is your duty from infancy to understand national aims and national needs. Your nation wants you; you can serve her in a thousand ways; you must understand not politics but commonweal; commerce is only national housekeeping; arithmetic is the key to national accounts; geography is the key to the nation's estate; history is the story of the past; economics the key to the triumphs of the future"?

Let us set before them the ideal of social service and make them burningly anxious to be women workers. For this great International Association of Women stands for the emancipation of women from the selfishness of the individual outlook, even the individual homelook, and the consecration to education and progress, to the fine art of living carried into public life by women who have graduated in the School of Motherhood for the Service of the People.

Nor is it the woman of leisure alone that must be enlisted. It is the working woman who must become the woman worker. Our President, Lady Aberdeen, has shown us how the home-maker can be enlisted in the fight against tuberculosis. Denmark, with her

High Schools for the peasantry, shows us the national uplift that comes from an educated mother in every farm. Canada with Macdonald College has found out the road—the royal road—to progress, an enlightened peasant proprietorship, an educated motherhood.

Will you not harvest your golden grain by enlisting in the name of common sense every trained and educated woman as a woman worker for the uplift of your nation on to high levels of "plain living and high thinking"? Shall not Canada be crowned by the glory of self-sacrificing womanhood, the heritage of the past, the glory of the future, the true mothering of your nation!

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### A PLEA FOR MOTHERS.

By MRS. BAYFIELD, read by Mrs. McClellan, Canada.

The world is crying out for mothers—good mothers. We are recognizing what we owe to them, how much we need them; many people think there are too few of them. But in spite of the mistakes in modern education we still have some left, thank God.

May I have just five minutes of your valuable time, to remind you that they need help; that they are working under difficulties which did not exist a few years ago, and which grow more intricate every day. "The old order changeth giving place to new," but in the process of this change social conditions seem upside down.

Brides begin their housekeeping too often in utter ignorance of all they need to know. Respectable young women with a livelihood to earn, would almost rather starve than go into their homes to help them, lest they might meet with that modern bugbear, "menial work."

Money will not purchase trained help, even when the need of it endangers the life of the over-tasked mother. Her hands are too full, her mind too weary, to think out social problems.

Can we not do it for her?

Sisters of the Council, if you love solving difficult questions here is one worthy of your attention, *many-sided, far-reaching and hitherto so neglected.*

We submit to you a few suggestions, and beg of you to consider them. to add to them, to suggest others.

The first suggestion we would make towards improving the present state of things is to so rearrange our public school system that no girl can attend without learning something of what we call domestic science—so that even the poorer children who leave school at about twelve years of age will know something of it. To accomplish this, the subject must be compulsory; beginning with the younger children must continue on in each successive grade.

Then in the high schools we would like to see an advanced course in which diplomas of different values, according to the time spent upon the subject, might be obtained in domestic science and home economics. Part at least of this course to be compulsory.

The result of this would be that five years hence every girl who has passed through the public schools would have some technical knowledge of housekeeping. There would be at least a little definite knowledge, where at present there is blank ignorance.

This is being actually done in Vancouver schools to-day; and so far with happiest results.

Through the public schools we can influence the main body of future mistresses as well as servants. There can be no doubt that part at least of the domestic difficulty lies with the mistress. Probably it cannot be otherwise in a new country such as ours.

A gentlewoman does not quarrel with her servants; there is that about her which makes them respect her, and willingly accede to her wishes; it is in fact something inherited.

But in Canada to-day many women who employ servants were, a few years ago, in a much lower social position than a respectable domestic is now—wealth has come to them suddenly, there has been as yet no time for culture. Their attitude towards those they employ is defiant and distrustful; from them servants receive very little consideration; they show no respect to them, and in return they receive none.

The only real remedy for this is to teach all children rich and poor the true dignity of the home, and of the work connected with it.

It ought to be a most honourable position to work in a home either as mistress or helper—and that brings us to our second consideration.

We have need of a new profession—just as much need as there was for the professional nurse when Florence Nightingale took the matter up, and began to train them.

What shall we call it? The profession of Domestic Economy? Servant is an unpopular word now; and indeed for many who call themselves by that name, there is no place in a well ordered household—untrained, and with no wish to learn, they cannot be said to earn even the lowest wages.

But for the trained Domestic Economist; thorough mistress of her work; gowned in a neat uniform, and worthy of trust, there is an unlimited demand, salaries far higher than those of stenographers or shop clerks, comfortable homes with the respect of their employers, and a life more sanitary and healthful than office work can ever give.

The training for this profession if we can once get the compulsory science course in the public schools throughout Canada, will not cost the girls anything, will, in fact, be cheaper than learning stenography.

The public schools could furnish instruction for the lowest grade certificate; the high school's second and third according to the time spent on it; while the domestic colleges could carry it higher still.

Practical lessons in housework, which would certainly be necessary, could easily be arranged in connection with the high schools

in towns, by having matrons to take the pupils to private houses to work under their direction. The matron's certificate of proficiency should be considered as necessary as that from the school. The matrons would receive wages for this work, and pupils would understand that it was part of their course of instruction.

Incidentally these classes of girls would be a great help in cities; to ladies who require occasional help or regular help for a few hours each day.

Then for our third suggestion. It seems to us that we have in Canada material for good servants which at present goes to waste. I mean the children in orphanages and homes, supported by the State or by private charity.

These children now get the usual sort of education which we all acknowledge as useless as far as making housekeepers is concerned. Why not give the girls a thorough course of domestic science? Then they would be fit to manage homes of their own or to work in other people's.

To speak once more of Vancouver, this will shortly be done there.

But why should not the boys learn too? In British Columbia a good China boy gets from \$30.00 to \$60.00 per month, with board and lodgings. Cooks in lumber camps get \$70.00; and there is an increasing demand for "white men," now that there is so much prejudice against Orientals. There are many boys, particularly those neglected in early infancy, who are not physically very strong; if trained they might be healthy and happy in domestic work and better paid than at most other work. Why not try it?

Fourth. So much for better education in home economics, and better help in homes. But who is to set before us the ideals of wifehood and motherhood?

A wife and a mother is so much more than a housekeeper; and our efficiency is just equal to the clearness with which we see our ideals.

Then there is so much we like to forget. Divorce with its ruined homes and shattered hopes becoming more frequent in our loved Canada. And behind that, as those who are urging mothers to inculcate an equal standard of morality for both sexes know well, the sad fact of sin and its surely falling punishment. So many of us shrink from the thought of social evil, and think it better to keep a happy ignorance, which we call innocence, and so it is perhaps, if only our children do not have to pay bitterly for it.

But if our home-making is to be a reality; ideals, clear, definite and high, of "that state of life to which it has pleased God to call mothers," we must have.

Possibly, I make the suggestion with some timidity, an appeal to the recognized teachers of religion might help us.

If the clergy of every denomination were respectfully petitioned to make instruction on the duties of wife and mother part of the yearly course of instruction to their people, they would most likely not refuse the request.

The result would not be uniform teaching on the subject, it would perhaps be better, instruction from different points of view on a many-sided question. It would certainly draw public attention to the subject of woman's place and duties; and perhaps show, to those who have not before considered it, that we have drifted a long way in the wrong direction.

But you say this will all take time; mothers need help now.

Well, there is emigration. It has been practically a failure as far as servants are concerned.

The Dominion Government is now offering to selected booking offices \$5.00 per head for each domestic servant brought into Canada.

Surely it is a hopeful sign that men see the need at last—that the Government are willing to give financial help. But are booking agents likely to choose the right girls? I think not.

But if our National Council of Women took the matter up, secured the Dominion aid, and perhaps further assistance from the Provincial Governments, could we not make a success of it?

We know our mistakes in this line now—that it is useless to try to combine philanthropy with business, as we have done.

If we could send intelligent women to Scotland to choose for us, girls are still to be had who would make good servants. English girls need higher wages than are usual in Eastern Canada; Swedes make good servants; and Japanese women are thoroughly trained and learn our language in a very short time. I could say so much more if time permitted.

But do think it over, and do something. Every local council should have its Home-making Committee. Every Christian congregation should have one; every thinking woman can help, and the need is great.

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### THE MOTHER IN HOME LIFE.

By HON. MRS. FRANKLIN, England.

In training our girls to be mothers too much emphasis is put upon the purely material side—the preparation of food, etc., as is evidenced by the curriculums of our great colleges of domestic science.

A child has two parents and therefore will include the father's as well as the mother's tendencies, qualities and capacities.

Too much time is spent in specialization in our domestic science colleges, inasmuch as it lacks some important elements of true education. Girls can learn all that they really use of the merely technical side of their education in much less time than they are now required to give to it.

Let us begin the new educational campaign with the mothers and fathers of the higher classes and the education will filter through to these of the lower classes through Mothers' Clubs, etc.

In all the sections of this Congress it is noticeable that the papers all come back to the same point—the importance of social service. Each of us must hold ourselves responsible for the life and happiness of others. We are guilty by our sins of omission, if no more.

It is this feeling of responsibility which makes it important what constitutes our mental food, as in books, what our aesthetic food, as in statues, pictures, music, etc., and what our moral food in our moral decisions, as to the use of sweatshop products, shoddy products and adulterants, or in regard to cheating the customs, for example.

Therefore the influence in the home of the mother who is morally, mentally and physically well-developed is incalculable.

We must not shut our eyes to the homes of discontent and want of good-feeding, whether in the upper or lower classes. Higher standards are often found in lower homes. We cannot ignore the important bearing upon the national welfare of the spirit that emanates from the home.

In England a mother cannot take her child into a public house, nor may she sleep in the same bed with her baby. There are laws to that effect. It has been found that the "instinct of motherhood" often fails to guide women aright in these matters; therefore the strong arm of the law had to be brought to bear to make and enforce laws for the protection of the younger generation. But unfortunately the law fails to warn mothers of the higher classes to prevent open admiration of their children face to face; it fails to prevent their taking their children to the theatres and giving them other and elaborate entertainment unsuited to their tender age, and it fails to provide that these mothers shall exercise the most absolute care in choosing the right associations and environment for their children, so that without the danger of those hot-house conditions which arise from lack of knowledge, they shall be guided and strengthened morally and given wise direction. Mothers are first the educators of the God-given soul of the child that has come to them.

As a result of keen, general interest along these lines an organization of an eminently helpful and practical nature has been formed in England. It is called the Parents' National Educational Union and its address is 26 Victoria Street, London, S.W. To it belong parents and teachers and others of great influence, such as the maiden aunt and the spinster of motherly propensities.

Doctors and other experts give talks on vital topics, such as sufficient sleep, absence of nervous excitement for the child, rest, relation of body and mind, habits of self-control, stemming of the neurotic tendencies of the times (which is to be done partly by forming the habit of submission to authority of a rightful sort), environment, habit-formation, reading aloud as a great source of common interest in the home life and many other topics of similar importance.

Eminent pedagogues give lectures on such subjects as child psychology and the education of children and thus the parents are helped to select instructors and choose schools wisely. The need of co-operation between parents and teachers seems to be felt by all. Dr. Parkyn and Dr. Osler often lecture before this Union.

One point upon which nearly all eminent educationalists agree is the inadvisability of emphasizing competition in school life

This Parents' Union publishes a very helpful magazine called the Parents' Review; it urges the cultivation of enthusiasm for nature; and its secretary gives valuable help to parents seeking advice in their many perplexing problems. Correspondence classes have been formed to help parents who do not live in the great centres. Hints about how to fill a child's time judiciously, during vacation as well as during the rest of the year, are given through these correspondence classes.

I have gained much practical good as the result of membership in this Union.

One thing should be urged upon parents: Do not fill up definitely every moment of a child's life. One help lies in feeling that, no matter how much we learn in times of definite activity, there is a great lesson and power to be received in the times of apparent inactivity; for "except the Lord build the house they labour in vain who build it." We must leave something to the child and to God.

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### WOMAN AS WIFE, MOTHER AND HOME-BUILDER.

ELIZABETH B. GRANNIS, President, National Christian League for Promotion of Purity.

The topic assigned to me on which to speak is, I infer, not intended to imply that all responsibility or honour depends upon the woman, wife or mother, in successful planning or achievement of home-building.

Women have accomplished much in home-building who were neither wives nor mothers. I have known spinsters who have proven successful home-builders for variously constructed families. Some of these have earned their financial capital, while others have inherited it. My allotted time could be profitably spent in speaking on what I have known of private and philanthropic home-building by unmarried people, both men and women.

Wives and mothers generally serve as the chief corner-stones of model homes. Sometimes they embody the pillars, the framework and the embellishments in addition to the financial support. The delicate, artistic touches of all home sentiment are expected to emanate from the heart, brain and hand of woman. She performs the bulk of service from the foundation to the capstone of the home. It may be remembered that we have had no more popular lecturer on home-building than Joseph Cooke, who declared that every model home must be the habitation of a husband, wife,

at least one baby and one grand-parent. A wife to do her best in home-building should have acquired knowledge from both scientific and spiritual research, relative to mating in marriage. Such knowledge not only benefits the chief partners in wedlock and their offspring, but it aids every member of the home. Natural laws which are God's laws relating to mating and marriage have been ignored, not alone by ignorant people but by most scientific students in the past. If the Church and scholarship have failed to render helpfulness in this most important relationship in life, shall we not appeal on this momentous subject to our modern women thinkers?

Why do women and men fail, according to their noblest desires and best intentions, in seeking to marry whom they have substantial reasons to believe to be able to aid them to the highest all-round development?

Every woman considering wedlock should first seek the one man whom she believes to be able to aid her and be helped by her above all others, through marriage, to attain her highest achievement in wifedom and motherhood; or, in other words, to the highest spiritual, mental and physical citizenship. A woman thoroughly well informed on matters of general interest, adds much to comradeship with an intelligent husband and proves an able and competent mother of children. The heart and brain forces of women neither lessen their graces, detract from the daintiness of their attire, nor in any respect restrict their fascinations to worthy men. There is no responsibility in a woman's life which equals that of selecting her mate in marriage. Wedlock not only involves the fatherhood of her children, but the life partnership in home-building for all who are to share their haven of human rest.

Most of us are familiar with the unwise and flippant expressions of the thoughtless relative to the most sacred relationship of human life, such as, "Oh, she is too much in love with her husband!" There is no possibility of a wife loving her husband, children or home too much! She may however love unwisely and, lacking self-control or firmness to hold to her good judgment, she may permit herself to manifest injudicious indulgence to members of her family.

Every woman should decide this question before she assumes the responsibility of wifedom. Is she the one best fitted to develop, restrain and prove the true helpmate for the life companion upon whom she has bestowed her purest love? She should be convinced that the man of her selection will prove her truest friend to aid her to attain her best in every human association!

Home-building in all its varied phases is neither dependent exclusively on the woman nor the man. Society so-called, has largely restricted and stultified the duties and privileges of the sexes. Each should be the counterpart of the other. Each is dependent on the other, and each is to supplement the other when necessity or emergency requires.

While the wife and mother is the chief factor in the home, her duties and privileges should not be dwarfed by conservative adherents.

Who is authorized to decide the specific privilege or duty devolving upon either half of the unit in wedlock which jointly builds the practical model home? If one of these partners possesses musical or artistic talent for the elevation of the people, who is to sit in judgment and nullify these gifts by preventing their cultivation? Shall narrow prejudice continue to barricade the development of wife or mother, or any phase of womanhood on account of sex?

Woman is equally accountable with her brother to develop and exercise every dormant gift and talent, whether for scientific discovery, research, mechanics, stock-raising, railroad and mining promoting, or along any other line from which substantial aid may accrue for the successful building of the home. Every girl child should be trained from infancy that it is her right and privilege to earn money in skilled industries, the proceeds to be applied according to her best judgment to home building or to any other worthy object.

That which is woman's work is man's work, and vice versa. It is as absurd to humiliate the male-man inventor or researcher because he is not a successful money-getter, as it is to stigmatize the wife as unwomanly for attempting to utilize and develop her God-given talents to earn money for family and home-building.

What about the knowledge to be sought by a wife and home-builder on her decision to become a mother: The advent of the first baby is an event seldom equalled by any other factor in home-building, and every Christian virtue should be possessed by a well-equipped mother, to aid her in the discharge of her increased responsibility. The love and responsibility of parenthood is only surpassed by the fulfilment of the highest conception of the Creator for both partners in marriage.

No home-builder should thoughtlessly assume the responsibilities of motherhood. She should be thoroughly persuaded that she can do her full part to clothe an immortal soul with a human body able, mentally and physically, to render at least seventy years of good service to its fellows. A mother should have the knowledge that she is best fitted by her Creator and her heredity, to know more of her own child and render it better service than any other individual except its father. Parents should know better than anyone else the strong and weak qualities possessed by each of their children—a lesson learned by a study of their own heredity.

A mother above all others should acquire implicit self-control in order to exert a helpful influence by her example upon other members of her home.

No home is so humble that it can evade its responsibility or be ignored in its influence upon national home-builders.

Who could estimate the increased influence of the Scriptural triplet—"Love, Joy, Peace" in the modern home if the medical

profession were absolutely supplanted by a health profession? Avoid even the thought of such expression as Utopia, visionary, crank or any symbol of modern humbug and remember that nearly every majority which has been of service to the race has emanated from a very small minority in its beginning.

When the greatest civilization known in the history of the human family has learned to teach the masses to practice according to physiological and hygienic facts, "Love, Joy and Peace," will greatly increase for home-builders and their dependents. There is a small minority of progressive, conscientious, self-sacrificing physicians of regular practice who are working toward mighty reforms in the restriction of the use of drugs and are talking about revolutionizing the financial methods of the medical profession.

Every intelligently managed home would greatly prefer to pay a district health official its allotted stipend for keeping the home in good health by natural methods, than to pay a doctor to treat its diseases, most of which are caused by ignorance of natural laws and self-indulgence.

Much depends upon woman in the partnership of home-building to reorganize the home in its relation to the medical profession. Most modern homes are sorely burdened by fashion or an almost universal custom of patronizing the doctor of medicine, who in most cases knows far more about his medicines, his professional etiquette, business methods, etc., than he can possibly learn, under ordinary conditions, about the individual needs of the patient he is ostensibly called to serve.

Every aspirant to successful home-building should first know how to build and keep in order his or her own body in order to know how to produce and provide for other bodies.

The home-builder who is competent to see that a child sleeps well, is properly aired, wholesomely fed, well bathed, and enjoys free scope in natural exercise, can, when whooping-cough, measles or even scarlet fever knocks at her doors, prepare for these disorders in a natural and mild form.

These and similar illnesses can be provided for with nature's common remedies, good ventilation, warm beds, plenty of cambric tea, etc., and there need be no fear of any consequences to patient or home.

New Thought, Christian Science, Emmanuel Movement and various other innovations upon the medical profession and religious evangelical bodies are rendering splendid service by warnings and examples to evangelical Christians and all who co-operate with the medical profession. Robert Ingersoll's declaration relative to Christian Science is the best I have ever seen in print. I doubt if I could have enjoyed it more had it come from an evangelical pen. It is, in effect, that whatever the imagination creates, it is competent to destroy. In my judgment the great secret of the unprecedented success of the Christian Science Cult is its utter ignoring of the medical profession in its practice.

Where can an intelligent person be found quite willing to make over his entire right and title to his individual pocketbook and all earthly possessions, to even the best financier ever heard of, to use according to his best judgment for the welfare of the owner! Yet the heads of homes recklessly cast aside personal responsibility and relinquish their own bodies and those which are dearer to them, to the absolute rule of him whom they term the young scientific doctor of medicine—

“Alas, alas, alack a day!” for many thousands of cholera infantum babies in the tenement house districts during July and August when the hordes of young doctors are given full license by the Health Board. These young boy doctors practice the use of narcotics, alcoholic stimulants, sedatives and what not—but all poisons, on the poor little wretches whose ignorant home-builders have permitted this furious fermentation in stomach and bowels from mixing of sauerkraut, decayed fruits, push cart candy and the ice furnished by the New York Herald’s Benevolent Fund, using no intelligence or instruction as to the mixture of these most dangerous elements of bodily destruction.

The luxurious homes of wealth and text-book training are often equal sufferers with the very poor and ignorant, but from different management.

When the trained nurse is the mere automaton of the boy doctor, and the assistant nurse has learned implicit obedience to the command of her superior, there must necessarily be more woe for the baby. The child in the rich or poor, intelligent or ignorant home, needs natural mothering.

Babies who survive modern scientific training to sleep thus and so; to be turned in just such a length of time as the doctor prescribes, to be fed so many ounces from a glass tank by a rubber hose in two hours, so many minutes and seconds, prove their individual vigorous inheritance.

The skill of the modern young doctor has not yet discovered that the same elements exist in infants which represent the individualities of the parents, in assimilation.

Now for a word on the mother-in-law and grandfather. Some of us will doubtless wisely contemplate the advantage to the average home of the historic, loving, wise counsellor in a mother-in-law like Naomi. In many cases the home, including each occupant, owes much to and is truly dependent upon, the heredity which produced the wife and mother, who is the chief home-builder. It is a common incident for an audience to be either entertained or disgusted by weak, flippant allusions by public speakers to mothers-in-law. An audience is seldom cajoled into manifesting amusement at the expense of fathers-in-law. We have many Naomis of to-day, who are reaping the harvest of loving home environment in which they have been a producing factor in building their Ruth’s homes. Both mothers and fathers-in-law have proven equally interesting studies to me in home-building.

It might be profitable for any audience to look into the life-history of home-building in its relationships to fathers and mothers-

in-law. It was my good fortune to be entertained during a Church Missionary Convention recently for a period of four days, in the home of a "Beloved Physician" in Canada. I learned there many of the factors which produced an attractive home life. Even the husband, father and son-in-law exemplified as much genuine filial affection to the old Scotch Presbyterian mother-in-law, as of loving companionship with his little daughter. And not least interesting was the fact that his mother-in-law and grandmother was really only the spinster sister of the real mother of the wife. She took her deceased sister's child into her own household when she was but three years old and later was convinced that she could better adopt a son than live without the daily companionship of her niece and foster daughter. No one was more honoured or efficient at social functions, in the care and supervision of the children, and in sharing all the weighty responsibilities of home-building in this charming home, than this loving old mother in Israel!

Another home with which I have been intimately acquainted for more than twenty years is that of a wholesale coal merchant in New York City. He is husband to a very dear wife and father to six children. This partner in home-building has often expressed to me his conviction that he had in his mother-in-law more of value in his home for his entire family than could be summed up in any other one member. "Why, mother is our legal counsellor. I appeal to her judgment in business, both for wife and myself, realizing that we even owe the lives of the children to her care."

He often says he believes a double portion has been meted out to him in his mother-in-law, because his own mother died when he was but six years of age, and that he has enjoyed his mother-in-law and his wife and children in his twenty-two years of home life more than most men have enjoyed from babyhood throughout the three score and ten years allotted to man.

There is no question of greater moment to be considered by the State than that of marriage and home-building. The family and home life of the Church and State largely decides whether they are to become an example or a warning to all peoples.

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THE MOTHER IN HOME LIFE (AS NURSE, EDUCATOR,  
PHYSICAL, MORAL, SPIRITUAL COMPANION,  
PROTECTOR, HOME-MAKER).

By MME. ORLANDO, Italy.

Those ladies taking part in the Congress, or others interested in reading my short dissertation, must not attribute to a spirit of patriotism all the good I have to say of the Italian woman. I would have them take it as a sincere and disinterested expression of the truth; indeed, those foreign writers, who, having sojourned in our beautiful country, have wished to study the Italian woman, have been constrained to recognize her great qualities as wife and

mother—praising the depth of her love for her family and her house; to these it is she dedicates with passion her activity and her greatest energy.

To have a home of her own, a corner where she is the centre of the affection of her loved ones, is the fondest dream of the girl and of the wife.

And how she loves that home! It must be as beautiful as she can make it, it must show the bent of her tastes, it must bear the impress of her personality; the minutest details interest her, for in everything she wishes her children to find all that their youth may enjoy, her husband to have all to gratify his tastes. And in these home surroundings she spends the happiest hours of her life, finding the fullest depth of quiet gladness in the privacy of her family.

By nature the Italian woman is a good housekeeper—domestic cares have for her no unpleasantness, rather does she interest herself in them voluntarily, seeking only to procure the comfort of her husband and children.

Children! That is the desire of her heart, the greatest aim of her life! Maternity is not a trial to be supported, but a joy ardently desired. From the first moments of motherhood, she surrounds, with an almost jealous affection, her child, whom she nurses herself, unless forbidden for physical reasons. The troubles and discomforts of nursing are borne with joy, and the height of her happiness is reached with the first smiles of her baby, unconsciously grateful to its nurse. And who can explain the happiness of the mother hearing the little stammering attempts at her name, seeing the first timid steps of her child! Before understanding the word it already divines the looks of the mother, who leaves it as little as possible, and never consents to trust it exclusively to a governess or relegate it to a nursery. The child grows in its own family surroundings, always beside the mother, who renews her youth for its sake and becomes its companion at games, its confidante and consoler in its first little sorrows. She lovingly follows its development and always remains at the child's level, speaking a language which it understands. It is the mother who forms the child, in the truest sense of the word. During the first years it belongs to her, and later she is still and always there for it to turn to. From the mother, who tries to make her life an example of her precepts, the child hears the first words of virtue, of duty, of morality and receives those deep impressions which last all through life. Her solicitude guides it through the first difficulties of study; to help it she takes up again those books in which she studied as a girl and tries to increase her knowledge so as to be able to keep in touch with the progress of her child's studies.

The duties of motherhood, so profoundly felt by the Italian woman, do not prevent her from taking a deep interest in intellectual development and in all that can tend to the clearer understanding of her sacred mission of up-bringing. She has realized what pleasure it brings to the mother and to the wife to be the intellect-

ual companion and participator in all that was considered, until quite recently, the exclusive field of action of man, thus bringing about a radical change to compare with the last generation—held in as it was by family surroundings, remaining at a lower intellectual level, and wrapped up exclusively in domestic cares. On the contrary, the modern Italian mother has increased the field of her activity. She takes the deepest interest in the grave social questions of the day, in the sciences and in art, upon which she brings to bear the influence of her work and into which she initiates her children with such conscious security, that to them she remains always the wise friend, the precious counsellor to whom they turn trustful and sure of being understood, even in later years.

The vicissitudes of life do not break the link of affection and esteem which binds her to her children, who never forget the protective, anxious and tender love which has surrounded them and guarded them from their birth—the hand so firm and gentle which has modelled their character and armed them for the battle of life. This deep, insatiable love for her family makes of the Italian woman a being who lives doubly—first, in the joys and sorrows of her own children, and then, in later years, of her grandchildren. Her affection, which does not permit her to separate herself from her children, has one great drawback as regards her boys, and that is, that these do not leave their home as soon as their age should permit the separation, and therefore do not early learn to face alone those difficulties which they perforce must meet, once in contact with the world. But this is nothing in comparison with the enormous moral and psychological advantage, which the character and education of the Italian receives directly from his mother, so that it can be affirmed in all truth that the Italian woman is a mother in the purest, the holiest, the noblest sense of the word.

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## THE EDUCATION OF WOMEN FOR THE BATTLE OF LIFE. THE PRESENT AND THE FUTURE.

MME. GIULIA BECCIANA.

The subject which I propose to treat of in this short address is so wide that it would need another mind and another pen than mine; still the nobleness of the theme and its breadth of range may atone for the poverty of my thought.

Having made this apology I shall take up the question itself.

Social life, as we have it at the present day, is a field of battle where the different forces and various ideas fight one against the other with a tragic tenacity which disputes the ground step by step, and demands from the woman, who, however, is a very important part of social life, an energy and a strength of feeling which the state of education at the present time and the habits of inertia gained during the long centuries of subjection do not permit her to develop.

The changed economic conditions and the great importance of the struggle which is going on continually around her necessitates, at any rate for a large portion of the human race, some active part in the work of the world. Up till now such action has been misunderstood and distrusted by most people. The worthiness of the mission of woman demands from our sex that they shall awake from their long sleep, and show by their intelligence and their work, that they are no useless and negligible portion of humanity on whom the stronger sex has the right to exert authority, but that they must face the study of the most difficult problems with the greatest courage, in order that together they may arrive at their solution.

Woman as she appears to-day (you must excuse me, ladies, if I speak somewhat plainly) is a heavy weight for man to carry. It is for this reason that he regards her with contempt and rules her, while at the same time he loves her either from necessity or instinct. This is because up to the present time woman has been educated either to be a slave, a treasured slave and guardian of the house, or to be a dangerous and costly plaything. I said guardian of the house with intention and not guardian of her sons, for unfortunately the mother has hardly any authority with respect to the education of her sons and unfortunately she would not be capable of directing it with success. From the earliest age the woman is forced to recognize her slavery, and be conscious of her weakness and her timidity. They teach her that she must always be obedient, to her father, her husband if she has one, if not, to her brothers, that she must be submissive. That for her there must be no will, no initiative whatever. That she is a feeble being, that the world sets traps for her, and that therefore she ought to keep out of its sight. Alone she cannot possibly defend herself. If she rebels misery will come upon her.

More terrible and more galling than the heaviest chain she will be met with the smile of irony and compassion, with the defiance of those who from convention, acquired or sincere, or from a scorn, either avowed or hidden, see their gospel forgotten and unheeded, and look on the victims of their conscious or unconscious hatred to discover in them the evidence of defiance, weakness or hesitation. Then they say, "Crucify her." And so between the two portions of the human race, who ought to be united to form one perfect whole, there arises a strife and a separation which makes the relations between the two sexes both harmful and difficult. Instead of which these relations ought to be, by the law of nature and for the good of mankind, most harmonious and friendly. Man, and I don't know where he got this idea, believes himself to be superior to the woman in intelligence and in moral strength, and he treats her as his natural subject, and considers himself the despotic ruler of her destiny. Woman, as the result of her long slavery and the foolish conventions which forbid her all exhibition of her ideas and her thoughts, which gradually teach her to be deceitful, discovers that in order to gratify the man, her master,

she must charm and bewitch him. So the courtesan has arisen, this was the only way she knew of, all she was capable of. And so she lost a large portion of her dignity (not to say was entirely ruined) and spent in the struggle the most of her energy. And it was an unequal struggle, between those armed with legal weapons on the one hand and with illegal ones on the other. She lost too the most fruitful portion of her spiritual life, which was buried under a mass of prejudices, of deceits, of fears and weaknesses. And so we have reached the state which we deplore, and which seems such a contradiction in view of the amount of civilization and liberty enjoyed by the world to-day. As a result we have a woman who is incapable (there are exceptions) of any energetic action, any useful effort in the ever growing struggle for existence, in the forever increasing race of humanity in search of truth, justice and social equilibrium.

Woman, as she is to-day (and it is with sorrow I have to say it) as she is to-day, and as she may be to-morrow, is the useless burden which will cause the vessel to sink or stop when the flood would carry it on. A useless burden, I repeat, because neither does she follow the same path as the man nor does she possess the same habits, the same rules, the same ideas as he has, for her education has not yet developed her intelligence and so she feels herself inferior to him and even makes way for him. It is as if a general had to keep such a careful guard over his prisoners of war and therefore could not carry on the conflict. This state of affairs is not even lessened by the noble duty of motherhood. This duty, often forgotten and despised, only serves as a pretext to bind the chains more closely round us.

Even the name of mother, which is as a crown of glory to the woman because it contains the sublime mystery of the continuity and renewal of life, loses much of its meaning because the woman is so little prepared for its complete accomplishment, and so fails to grasp its profound significance.

There are still women, and unfortunately many in number, to whom is denied this sacred duty, and to whom for many causes fate has denied the solace of love. And are these women who are condemned to a loneliness of heart as great as the solitude of the desert, are they to have no intellectual development which may make up for the joys that are not theirs?

*Society in Italy does not accord the right of choice in marriage to the woman, that is reserved exclusively for the man. So that the man, who finds so much to distract and has so many resources, often does not think of marriage, and the founding of a family. A family, because of the incapacity of the woman, that would give him such a weight of responsibility. And the woman, to whom convention forbids the liberty of choice can do nothing but wait till the choice falls on her, and so the majority of women marry in order to gain a position in society, and they have little regard for the marriage itself. often do not even love their husbands. Such marriages result in the want of unity which is ever increasing among us to-day and has such bad results on the family.*

There are other women who do not have the opportunity of marrying because of the larger number of women than men, and we must add those women who refuse to marry under present conditions from a sense of pride which refuses to allow them to sell their liberty. Such women have no place in the world, they may not become mothers, neither may they engage with men in the battle of life because they are neither armed nor trained for the fight.

It is therefore urgent to give a practical turn to feminine activity and intelligence, which may place the woman in a position, not as the rival of the man, but as his equal, capable of helping him in all the many vicissitudes of life. To attain to this we must strike a blow at the edifice raised by prejudice, which has however been crumbling for long, and prepare to free woman from the domain and the supremacy of man. An end must be put to an injustice which is as illogical as incoherent in view of the civilization of to-day and is more like the paradox of a sophist than a sad reality. It may be remarked, and this is a very general objection, that if the two sexes were on an equal footing there would be a great increase of rivalry. I may say here that I cannot and I have no desire to enter into the consideration of this matter in this short address. The remedies it requires are bound up with the whole social economy of our times. I will only say that when the woman reaches a profound and complete knowledge of life, of its struggles, of the work she can bring to it for the furtherance of good, then she will become an intelligent and wise collaborator and not a more or less despised rival.

Then when the number of those who are ready to do battle is increased, human activity will be banded together with a new hope of victory on the immeasurable field of conflict. New methods will be found available, and these in turn will provide means for still further activity for the common good, and in the ever-increasing channels of usefulness woman will find consolation and satisfaction.

Having said all this it only remains to indicate what, according to my idea, are the principles which should be adopted to further the development of women, mentally and morally. If but one of my humble thoughts may be of use in this time of need I shall be satisfied. I would wish in the first place that woman might be relieved of all the prejudices imposed on her as so vital for her well-being, prejudices which her education imposes with the view of making her recognize her dignity and call into being her sense of pride, but which have the result of entirely destroying her independence, and her liberty of action and of spirit. One need not fear that a too large amount of freedom will injure the delicate feelings of the woman, because in her is germ of the mother sense and this will always give her the gentleness of spirit which not even the most intense and ardent intellectual life can ever destroy. I am of the opinion that it is just because women have been surrounded with such an atmosphere of repression which has grown up in deference to more or less worthy conventions, and taught to believe that they are in the midst of real or

imaginary dangers, that the feeling of restraint has caused them to become diffident, and given them at the same time a false idea of their value to society. She recognizes that she has within her a force capable of ruling the destiny of mankind, seeing that they fear the eager contact and vital strength of woman in the daily struggle, but at the same time she herself will take no steps to fit herself to become the equal of man in the direction of affairs.

"You are a slave and so you will be used only as the prizes taken in battle," this is what education tells her, but we would like to correct these words and say "You are free, strong, equal, you alone have to think of and defend the position you have to win in life."

Women have to learn that in life there is nothing false, nothing corrupt, nothing diseased, that must be hidden from her, that her hands which till now have only been used to bandage the wounded, shall be active and brave in caring for and healing the grievous sores of our society, and that her heart, only accustomed to be loved, must learn to love strongly, divinely, the whole of humanity, if she wishes to love her own children truly. We must convince the woman that her power in life is enormous, but that this power should from this time forward teach her to throw away her hidden arms and stand forth serene, sincere, strong and free in the dawn of a new and grander civilization.

And so woman must be taught to be woman, that is to say human not effeminate. Leave to her unchanged her noble sentiments of love, of pity, of abnegation and sacrifice, but add to these the sense of her value, of her strength, of her pride, of her mission. And her mission consists in the softening by her sweet and gentle smile the hard struggles of weary humanity, and in her intimate knowledge of the beginning and development of every idea that leads to progress, to all of which she has till now had to consider herself a stranger.

Only by following such principles, and by introducing into the education of woman the sense of the mission to which she is called, and in having regard for the development of the woman's soul, shall we gain the victory. In that day the two sexes, no longer the one against the other, like master and slave, but together like common friends, and free, free to take each the hand of the other, will go on together in mutual sympathy, serene and strong, in the pathway of everlasting good, of illumination, of truth and of love.

#### AFTERNOON SESSION.

Chairman, MRS. DAY.

SUBJECT—EQUAL MORAL STANDARD.

WHITE SLAVE TRAFFIC AND EQUAL MORAL  
STANDARD.

By LADY BUNTING.

During the past year perhaps the most active progress has been made in America, where in many of the States committees

have been formed and where the authorities also are stirred up to greater activity in meeting the difficulties arising through the ease with which the traders in girls can pass from one State to another.

In New York a Government Department has been formed headed by a lady whose business it is to arrange for all incoming boats and trains to be met, with the view to ascertain what girls and young women are arriving, under whose care, if any, and to what destination they are bound, and if things do not seem satisfactory they can be detained for further enquiry.

In South America the Argentina is still to the fore in its efforts to stay the traffic in girls at Buenos Ayres and other ports, and there is no doubt that this watchfulness is having a distinct effect in checking it.

In England the vigilance of the ladies who meet trains at the Central Railway Stations, has produced a marked decrease in the number of cases of a suspicious nature arriving by the ordinary routes. But it is necessary to be on one's guard in supposing that the traffic is really stopped. The police, who all along have co-operated warmly in this work, feel convinced that new methods are being resorted to which as yet even their vigilance has not resulted in fully tracking. Still there seems to be no doubt that both here and on the continent of Europe a real fright has been given to the traders, and that with constant official and private vigilance the trade is "scotched though not killed."

The work goes on steadily in France, Germany, Italy, Spain, etc. And there seems to be evidence that the knowledge of the dangers to which girls are exposed has stimulated good women to open homes of refuge and give more public warning of the dangers.

The Committee at Alexandria, under the earnest direction of Major Hopkinson, is again at work and doing its best to save the large number of Greek girls who come over from the islands to get work in Egypt and who are constantly beguiled away from their homes by the false promises of traders who find it worth their while to go round and visit the islands and persuade the girls and their ignorant relatives that they will get fine places, high wages, and every comfort if they will go with them to Egypt. The legal difficulties are very great in getting cases prosecuted there. The "Capitulations" and Mahomedan law are a source of great weakness and delay.

It would be a great boon if a Committee could be started in Constantinople where, it is feared, a large number of girls from Central and Southeastern Europe are drawn down and eventually shipped off to supply the traffic in Egypt and the East.

The Conference in Madrid on White Slave Traffic which was to have been held this year is postponed to 1910; but there seems to be no doubt that active work is going on up and down through Spain.

A Conference was held in Geneva in September, 1908, to discuss the connection between the "Maisons de Tolérance" and "the traffic."

The general result arrived at was that the "Maisons de Tolérance" can only carry on a profitable existence by the supply of girls being constantly kept up through the traders. The prices paid for young fresh girls are very heavy.

There is no doubt that the "Maisons de Tolérance" are directly fed by the traders and their business could not be carried on without them. But we rear it is useless to hope that the trade in girls would be killed even if all the "Maisons" were closed. It is too lucrative a business lightly to be destroyed and the traders run many risks because the reward is so high.

During the last year there has been a vigorous campaign against the evil literature disseminated both in England and abroad, which does so much to stimulate vice. By legal action certain books of a vicious nature have been withdrawn from publication and existing stock still in hand destroyed.

Following the example of the National Vigilance Association the police have also taken the matter in hand directly and have quite lately carried through a successful prosecution.

At a seaside library a lady bought a new book which she found to be very objectionable. She went to the bookseller who said he had not observed it. He satisfied himself that she was right and at once withdrew the remainder of the stock, which amounted to 150 copies.

After many years' effort the Bill against Incest was passed during last Session (1908).

Several prosecutions have been successfully made through the amending clause to the Criminal Law Amendment Act passed in 1907 where the "Three Months' Limit" for giving information against a man who had "wronged" a girl was extended to six months.

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#### DR. LOUISA MARTINDALE'S ADDRESS TO LADY BUNTING'S REPORT.

I have been asked to speak to you for a few minutes on this report. I am especially glad to do so, not only because it gives me an opportunity of saying how grateful we are to Lady Bunting for her many years' work in connection with this subject, but also because it gives me an opportunity of publicly thanking Dr. Morton for the very brave, strong and scientific paper she read us at the Public Health Section on Monday. On one hand Lady Bunting gives us much information on the present state of the traffic in women; on the other Dr. Morton has dealt very fully and carefully with some of the fundamental truths concerning the cause of immorality and its consequences, and I think you will agree with me when I say that it will not be an easy task for us, as a Congress, ever to thank her sufficiently for the help she has given us by bravely facing the subject in the way she did on Monday.

From the tone of that meeting and from the remarks that I have heard made concerning it, one can come to but one conclusion

—that women to-day realize that they must have what they have never had before, more knowledge, and especially accurate and scientific knowledge, not only with regard to human physiology, but also with regard to the greatest social evil of to-day, prostitution.

And it is just because accurate and scientific knowledge on the subject is so hard to get, that I venture to bring before you a few of the difficulties that the newer workers in this reform may be met with.

First of all, many people will tell you that *vice is necessary* to men; and that for their health's sake fornication is occasionally necessary. Doctors have been known to prescribe it, and women who have been taught this vice from their men folk, have believed it. Probably a great many here this afternoon still hold this view, because they do not know any better, they make the mistake of being too tolerant and allow in their sons a moral laxity that they would never dream of allowing in their daughters. Well, all the good men of the world and especially all the better physicians will tell you that this is not so and that there has not been one single case in which a nervous or hypochondriacal patient for which it had been prescribed has been any better for it. (Sir James Paget, Prof. Osler and all the best doctors deny the necessity of vice.)

Then again, those of you who have only recently taken up this work will be met with the difficulty of how to treat those men and women who have through immorality contracted venereal disease.

If you will allow me I should like to point out why you can never treat venereal disease in the way you would treat other infectious diseases, and why every man and woman should have more knowledge about these diseases.

The two chief diseases are, as you know, syphilis and gonorrhœa.

Now, no amount of sexual excess will cause either of these diseases unless there is direct infection. Just as you cannot contract diphtheria unless you come into direct contact with the diphtheria bacillus, so you cannot contract gonorrhœa unless you come into direct contact with the gonococcus, the microbe causing the disease, and so also with syphilis. But in every case the infection only occurs in sexual intercourse. Therefore, to avoid contracting these last diseases is easy. It lies in avoiding all such chances of infection.

At the present time only a very small percentage of men marry having avoided these chances. I think one of the saddest things in every doctor's practice is the number of pretty young girls who come back to one a few weeks after their marriage having contracted one of these diseases from their husband. In these cases no doctor ever tells his or her patient the real cause of her trouble. Men doctors have always naturally protected the husbands. Some of us women doctors are beginning to wonder whether the time is not far distant when it will be considered better and fairer to give the patient the accurate diagnosis, rather than conceal it, and

whether it would not make for more real happiness, at any rate in some cases, for the wife to realize the origin of her illness at once, rather than to have the gradual awakening which must come when the results of such diseases begin to make themselves felt.

Then, too, when speaking of avoiding all chances of infection I should like to remind you of the fact that all matrons and nurses attending syphilitic and gonorrhoeal patients cannot be too careful to disinfect their hands and to learn thoroughly what is known as surgical cleanliness. If this is carried out there is no danger. Newly born babies may contract ophthalmia conatum which, in more than 80 per cent. of cases, is due to venereal disease in the mother. Hence the preventable blindness we hear so much of nowadays would be best dealt with by preaching a higher moral standard.

Now, venereal diseases cannot and ought not to be treated in the same way as other diseases. For one thing they take a very long time to cure—two, three or more years of treatment before the patient can be considered safe to marry. During this time they are generally perfectly well able to work and earn their own living and should receive proper instruction as to how to live so that they may not be a source of contagion to others. You will never get men to isolate themselves for so long until they are free of disease. So why isolate only half of those infected, and those the women?

In France, Austria and some other European countries, and also, I am ashamed to say, in some of our British Colonies and dependencies, there exist Contagious Diseases Acts, which were also in force in England until 1883. By these Acts any woman suspected of leading the life of a prostitute can be arrested by a policeman in plain clothes and subjected to compulsory and periodical medical examination.

I need not describe to you the danger of such acts and the terrible abuses they lead to. Often innocent girls are arrested and the enforced medical examinations are in themselves a source of danger, as not infrequently one prostitute is infected from another by a careless doctor using unsterilized instruments. (I need not say that doctors of any high standing and position very rarely touch such work.) If found diseased, the prostitute is not allowed to continue her profession, and the traders in such girls have to get fresh, innocent, healthy girls to fill her place. This means that professional seducers have to be employed.

And this whole system has been devised not with the desire of curing or reforming the prostitute, but with the desire to make vice safe for profligate men. The system has not decreased the amount of venereal disease for it has never aimed at curing the syphilitic men who are left free to infect their wives and other healthy women as much as they please.

There are many ways in which every woman here can help to *root out the social evil.*

Prostitution is only possible in a class economically dependent upon another. Among free women, who have full liberty, who are able to earn a living wage and who are therefore independent of all other means of support it could not exist for a moment. Therefore we must work not only for a living wage for every woman but see to it that every woman, rich or poor, should have a trade or profession which will make her independent and make it unnecessary for her if poor to adopt prostitution as the only well-paid profession or if better off, marriage as the only means of livelihood open to her.

Secondly, Lieut.-Col. Melville says in a book recently published about the health of the British Army: "The fall in the number of men constantly sick from syphilis in 1900 compared with 1884 is not easy to account for. Probably there are a multiplicity of causes, but I have little doubt that increased temperance is by far the most important of all. As temperance has increased, venereal disease has steadily diminished. Other causes which have co-operated are probably the personal influence of regimental and other officers and lectures on the advantages of temperance and continence."

He says again that "the main fluctuations in the incidence of venereal diseases are independent of the presence or absence of repressive acts, and that dating from the middle of the 90's there has been some other strong social influence in the Army (probably temperance) acting to reduce their prevalence, and this not in isolated commands only but throughout the Army generally."

Immorality cannot exist to any great extent without alcoholism. If we do away with alcohol we as surely do away with far the greater part of immorality, so that one of the simplest ways of obtaining the social reform we need is by promoting temperance and a knowledge concerning the dangers of alcoholism.

Then, too, a girl should be taught her own value. As much money should be spent on her education as on that of the boy. She should have the same opportunities of education, and above all, every woman should have that fuller right of citizenship—the suffrage—which alone will procure for her economic independence and direct influence in the legislature of the land.

And lastly, and with this, will inevitably come one single standard of morality for men and women.

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### THE NATION'S PERIL—A DOUBLE STANDARD OF MORALS.

By MRS. KATE WALLER BARRETT, U.S.A.

It is interesting to note the stand that the International Council of Women has taken for the higher standard—the single standard of morals.

Men must answer to the same standard as women. We ask for the single standard because of the untruthfulness involved in the

double. There is really no such thing as a double standard of morals. We must choose between the higher and the lower type of living; but we shall be judged by the one standard.

I am the product of the moral nature of both my father and my mother. We must have a pure father as well as a pure mother to have a pure child. By way of illustration let me tell you the story of a beautiful young girl, who was for many years the mistress of a man of great wealth. Later he married for the sake of having an heir whom he could acknowledge before the world and he told the girl that he would have married her, had he not felt that he must have a pure woman as the mother of the child who should be his heir. We brand such a man callous and worse—and marvel at his lack of a sense of moral responsibility. He did not realize that a child of his would tend to inherit his nature and his standards, even if its mother were a pure, good woman.

In tolerating a double-standard of morals: the nation loses in many ways. Firstly, by the great physical waste of the vitality of a section of its people through vice; secondly, by financial waste in the large sums which it costs the government to cope with vice; and, thirdly, by the waste of moral tone and capacity in those who lead vicious lives.

Years of repentance is often the result of ignorance. Your boy has been wrongly taught. Who taught him? Public sentiment. Who is responsible for public sentiment? Women, in a social sense.

Good women are often believers in the double standard of morals and thereby countenance its hideous results.

Many a Christian boy has gone out of a Christian home ignorant of his responsibility to his potential fatherhood. We care for our girls but not for our boys as much. Teach your boys and we shall have a magnificent standard of fatherhood. Don't wait until they are husbands to tell them, but tell them when they are old enough to realize what it is to have a father. There is a tremendous waste of capacity for noble fatherhood as things are now.

Jezebel was a wonderful, strong character with a powerful influence for evil. Because she believed with her whole heart and soul in her own religion of evil, she made others believe in it. We need the same force at work for good. Jezebel's influence may be read in all history. No one taught her to spend her splendid forces for good.

Take another illustration. An English girl used the money given her for a half year's schooling and ran away to America. Here, almost immediately, she contracted measles and then scarlet fever and was just recovering at the time of the Slocum disaster. She swam out and rescued nine adults and children before some frenzied man broke both her arms. She was rescued and at a public meeting was given great praise. A position as cashier was obtained for her when she was able to leave the hospital. Soon after she was short in her accounts, owing to her ignorance of American money. A man whom she had come to know helped her

out. Afterwards he tempted her. She loved him and she fell. Her baby was born in a hospital from which she was dismissed in ten days. She planned suicide, was rescued in the very act of carrying out her intention and was taken to the Florence Crittenden Home, where she was put upon the right track again. She was given training as a nurse and made a splendid one. Mr. Roosevelt, having heard her story, when President, asked her to come to the White House, and talked with her and encouraged her.

I know thousands of pure men and I know that many more would be pure if they had had proper teaching at the hands of the women who had their training in hand. Oh, let us, in the first place, train our boys aright and then let us also throw the gate of the new life wide open to the woman who wishes to leave a life of sin and enter upon a life of righteousness.

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## THE ABOLITIONIST MOVEMENT AND SOCIAL HYGIENE.

By DR. SYLVANUS STALL, U.S.A.

I am glad to be in this city of beautiful homes, this city which takes a high stand for social purity, and I am glad to speak to so many of those earnest women who are thinking and working for social betterment.

More has been done to help on the good cause in the last fifty years than in all the years before, firstly, through the vast reforms in thought and practice brought about after the discovery of the germ of that terrible disease gonorrhœa was made by Dr. Neisser in 1879, and, secondly, through the efforts of those good women who had worked enthusiastically and with singleness of purpose for the cause of social reform.

I worked for temperance in Pennsylvania when it seemed futile and of no avail. A few years later the cause was active all over the country. Who brought it about? The President? A group of men? No, but it was brought about by the devoted bands of women who have quietly been working for years for social reform—the members of the Women's Christian Temperance Union and all other workers of kindred aims.

A great revolution is coming upon us rapidly and the reforms will be brought about by the good women of the land. Ten years ago we couldn't have found an audience of women who would have listened to the painful things I have to tell you. But public opinion has educated women to the necessity of listening for the good of the nation and the race.

God made the one standard of morals, not two. We must hope that the whole world will come to measure up to this single standard of the moral life; for the moral quality of an act is not dependent on the sex of the person committing it. It is dependent on the immutable nature of the God-head. It is the soul—not the body—which will be called to account at the final reckoning, whether it has been lodged temporarily in the body of a man or

a woman. Man is as strictly accountable for the acts of his soul as is woman.

The early idea of woman counted her as a chattel. Now, surely, we should realize that she is entitled to the same respect and reverence as man.

The ground on which the double standard of morals is made to rest is that man's physical being requires certain indulgences which women do not require. This is the argument of physical necessity. It is a lie.

After the germ of gonorrhœa was discovered by Dr. Neisser, of Germany, a society was formed to educate the world, and it has revolutionized the practice of medicine. The idea of physical necessity was discussed by these men and other medical experts in conference. They were men who had largely believed in the "red light district" with adequate inspection. A resolution was passed at that conference that continence was not prejudicial to man's highest mental, moral and physical well-being. This was done first at a convention held in Brussels, then at one in New York and then at another in Chicago. Now, men and women should go up and down the earth heralding this splendid news.

Ignorance renders life unnecessarily perilous for young men and women. In large shops, for instance, older men often debauch the morals of the younger newcomers, even to the point of disease. But many come through such experiences pure and spotless as women: but they don't boast, and so one is likely to be shocked by the tale of the many who fall.

Every athlete knows that he is not at his best unless he is continent—at least during the time of training.

India believes in the double standard of morals and is therefore enervated and dragged down as a nation.

It is a well known fact in the medical profession that a large proportion of the men who have led impure lives is found to consist of men who are also otherwise diseased. Continent men need less medicine than others.

The results of wrong teaching along these lines are far-reaching and terrible. It ruins men, young and old, and it ruins the sanctity of the home and of the home relations. Because of it the White Slave Traffic flourishes and there is a widespread dissemination of venereal infection.

The new teaching revolutionizes society and benefits mankind. Since Dr. Neisser's discovery of the germ of gonorrhœa in 1879, we know that a man may have this terrible venereal disease for years lying dormant. It is not absolutely curable in three weeks, as was formerly believed to be possible, if a man rested and kept from liquor and labour. Physicians can recognize the germ of venereal disease by microscope now, even when infection has been dormant for some time.

A society has been formed called the Society for the Dissemination of Information Concerning Venereal Diseases. It publishes three series of pamphlets: the first concerning the protection

of prospective brides and unborn children from venereal contamination; the second for the instruction of young men as to the disasters—remote as well as immediate—entailed by venereal diseases; and the third, instructing parents as to the necessity of guarding boys as well as girls from illicit sexual practices.

Syphilis, as the name of a disease, is kept out of the government records and even out of the records of physicians, though it causes more ill-health and death and is more disastrous in its consequences than anyone can ever know till we have different laws requiring every doctor to report cases of gonorrhœa and syphilis to the local board of health to be quarantined as one would quarantine other dreadful and contagious diseases.

Let us protect our daughters, our sons, our wives and our friends by a revision of our laws.

The issue of this question, the solution of these problems will be brought about by women: for the secret is out now and women will spread the information through the land.

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### WHITE SLAVE TRAFFIC AND EQUAL MORAL STANDARD IN THE NETHERLANDS.

By MISS A. DE HOGENDORP.

Since the middle of last century a great amount of rescue work was done among us, but the workers themselves felt dissatisfied. Pastor Heldring opened the first Refuge in 1847, and found a lady of a well-known physician's family of Amsterdam to act as mother to the poor girls who applied for admission.

"But," he writes in one of his reports, "we do little in building hospitals for the poor victims crying for help, as long as we do not openly raise a common protest against iniquitous laws and erroneous public opinions. You, women of the country, you can do much. You cannot will it, that your children grow up amid the polluted streams of vice, you must work for a nation that, vigorous and decided, says these things shall not be allowed by us."

The women worked and protested each in her own small circle. They worked for the woman who would show them, what no man can do, how to work in the open field, how to enter their protest among the rulers and law-makers of the nation, how to raise and educate public opinion in matters of purity and righteousness.

That woman came to us when Mrs. Josephine Butler visited The Hague on the occasion of an International Abolitionist Congress held there in September, 1883. No foreign name is so well known and so dear to the heart of numbers of Dutch women, many of them ignorant of a word of English, but blessing her memory for the new potency she has brought to bear upon their labours of love.

About twenty ladies who had attended the Congress, continued to meet regularly to consider the subject and see what

could be done. In February, 1884, they founded the Netherland Women's Association for Raising the Moral Standard, which association celebrated its 25th anniversary on May 4th of this year amid tokens of general sympathy. Its first public act was a petition to the States-General in September, 1885, signed by 15,000 women, requesting national and international measures against the vicious traffic in women and girls. This enthusiastic response of a whole nation was very encouraging, and so was the reception it met with from our representatives. Treaties were concluded in consequence between the Netherlands on one side and Belgium, Germany and Austria on the other, for the protection and repatriation of women and girls entrapped for immoral purposes. In 1902 our Government deputed three of their ablest men to the Paris Convention, where most of the States of Europe and America drew up a series of measures for the repression of the White Slave Traffic.

A National Congress on Public Morality was convened at Amsterdam in the spring of 1889 by the Society for the Suppression of Legalized Vice\* with the concurrence of the Women's Association. The discussions were earnest and exhaustive. It was decided among other things to make a call upon the nation and the organization of a great national movement denouncing State regulation of vice (the *police des mœurs* and the *maisons tolérées*) was confided to the Women's Association, which had its branches in over a hundred towns and villages of the Kingdom.

We found the work, when we took it up in the following winter, much harder than in 1885, for two reasons. 1st, the enthusiasm had had time to cool down and wise people were shaking their heads and talking about the folly of being carried away by their feelings, and the danger of breaking down existing barriers. And 2nd, the end in view was somewhat different. It is one thing to help poor, deceived girls, stolen from their homes and sold from one country to the other; it is quite another to go to the root of the matter, to oppose unrighteous laws and public iniquity. The women of our country did arduous and resolute work in those winter months of 1889 and 1890, aided by a few noble men. Public meetings were held and an immense deal was done by the slow but effective means of private conversation. The petition was sent up in March with 40,000 signatures, nearly equally divided between men and women—not a bad result in a small country with not quite five million inhabitants.

The law requested by the petitioners has not been promulgated yet, but the moral result was very effective. The *police des mœurs* is with us a matter of municipal regulation. It existed in 37 towns and had to be fought in each place in succession. Public attention, once aroused, did not go to sleep again. The hateful thing has been abolished by the force of public sentiment in one town after another, and at this moment none but remnants of the old Napoléonic system have survived in two or three places. Still, we are not certain that it will not be reintroduced in some other form. We

\*A society consisting, with very few exceptions, only of men.

want a law that would make it impossible for our municipal councils to make such regulations. There was a national movement in favour of such legislation in 1903, and the present ministry has just brought in a bill before the States General, containing very strenuous clauses against the houses of ill-fame and the traffic in women for immoral purposes.

As regards this last-named evil, the action against it received a new impulse when our esteemed and well-known friend, Mr. William Alexander Coote, founded the International Society for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic.

A national branch of this association followed immediately, and its first move was to set on foot a thorough inquiry into the traffic as it was carried on in the Netherlands, both national and foreign. A police functionary, a good and sagacious man, Mr. Balkestein, was engaged, and facilities were obtained from the authorities. Mr. Balkestein's report was laid before the International Association's Conference at Amsterdam in 1901, and showed a regular trade in girls, spreading its meshes over the whole world, with its central offices, travelling agents, tariff of prices, and its yearly directory and manual of information. Amsterdam furnished two or three addresses in this most curious document, but since the Town Council prohibited the "*maisons de tolérance*," a few years ago, I am glad to say the name of Amsterdam has disappeared from the list of addresses, so intimate is the connection between these officially tolerated houses and the traffic in girls.

I will now try to give a rapid sketch of what is being done at this moment in the Netherlands in order to counteract this heinous traffic in human ware, and its necessary complement, the providing of facilities for satisfying what the Bible calls "the lusts of the flesh."

First we have the National Committee just named, a branch of the International Society for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic. This Committee is composed of delegates representative of 14 different societies, all working in moral and social matters. It has as a centre of action a Bureau of Information, Wetering plantsoen 22, Amsterdam. To this office requests and inquiries come in from all parts of the country, varying in importance, but requiring careful treatment. Since last year a Government office of the same nature was started, also at Amsterdam, according to the Paris agreement. We are very glad of this, as in Germany, for instance, the Government started their office some years ago. The new office does not supersede the old one. Both are necessary. The State office can call to its aid the whole machinery of official agencies. The Committee Bureau knows better where help is needed and how it can best be applied. Working harmoniously together as they do, much good can be effected.

Then we have our work at railway stations and steamboat landing-places, in which Protestants and Roman Catholics go hand in hand. A few instances will give a clearer idea of this work of love than a great deal of description.

A girl arriving by train accosted the lady wearing the badge

and asked the way to her new employer's house. She had accepted a situation by advertisement as "*dame de compagnie*." The station lady suspected the address, and on consulting her list of immoral houses, found it there. The girl would not believe it, so they went together, and on seeing the faces at the windows the young woman was convinced and declined to go in.

A young girl fresh from the country was addressed by a well-known *souteneur*, who after some conversation left her in the waiting room. As soon as he was gone the lady in charge, who had observed the little scene, went to the girl, and heard that the man had promised her a splendid situation in Brussels, and had gone to buy her a ticket. The lady explained to the girl in a few words what would probably happen, and persuaded her to follow her out of the station before the man's return. When he came back his victim had escaped and the next day was sent back rejoicing to her home.

It is not only with arrivals that the station ladies have to do, as will be seen in the case with which I close.

A young woman came running up to the railway station and seemed very troubled and excited. She asked when the next train would leave for Antwerp. The lady in charge spoke to her kindly and tried to find out what was upon her mind. It very soon appeared that she belonged to a respectable family, had disgraced herself, and was now going to hide in Antwerp, where no one knew her. A gentleman, she said, whom she had just met in the street, had given her an address in Antwerp, where he would join her in a few days and find her a good situation. The lady gained the poor girl's confidence, obtained her reconciliation with her parents, and later on a place in a maternity asylum, where her child was born and whence she found a good situation. She is doing well. Inquiries set on foot at Antwerp confirmed our worst suspicion.

In this way numbers of girls and young women are preserved from falling into the snare of the fowler. It is a work which demands unceasing watchfulness, a vast deal of care and tact, and an amount of the milk of human kindness that is proof against distrust and rebuffs. It also requires great firmness and resolution in dealing with the unprincipled men and women who make it their object to mislead the unwary and entrap the volatile.

Station work at the Hague is carried on by the Women's Association for Raising the Moral Standard, and by the International Roman Catholic Society for the Protection of Girls. Work of a similar nature is done elsewhere by the Union of Friends of Young Girls. Amsterdam and Rotterdam have their "station ladies" as well as the Hague, and a few smaller towns where some amount of commerce is going on.

Rescue work is not included, strictly speaking, in my subject. For completeness' sake I will add that the first Refuge for fallen girls, erected by Pastor Heldring, mentioned in the beginning of this paper, is surrounded now by several homes for women and girls, including a maternity asylum. Two other such asylums exist

in Amsterdam. Refuges and Infant Homes are found in many of our towns under the care of independent societies, both Catholic and Protestant. And a great deal is done in a private way to keep young girls under good moral influences and interest them in pleasant and wholesome subjects.

At the Berlin Quinquennial of 1904 the subject of Public Morality was put on the I. C. W.'s programme. The National Council of the Netherlands did me the honour to elect me as their representative, having been in the work for more than twenty years and taken an active part in many Congresses of the great International Abolitionist Federation, founded by Mrs. Butler in 1875. To my mind it is an act of great importance for the I. C. W. to take up the great causes of the day, and that of morality among them. The International Committee members have each to represent these causes in their own countries, to gather up all the items of interest in their special cause and put them before their sisters of other countries. I am glad to do so before the gathering of the present year, and wishing the Quinquennial of 1909 all success, I beg to send my sisterly greetings to the President and officers of the I. C. W. to my sisters of Canada, and to all the earnest women assembled at Toronto.

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### EQUAL MORAL STANDARDS FOR MEN AND WOMEN.

Mrs. STYANT BROWNE, Australia.

In this present age, when the equality of women with men is more generally recognized and admitted than it once was; at a time, too, when equal educational advantages afford to women the means of acquiring such knowledge as fits them for the professional and business avocations now open to women, the question naturally suggests itself, Why should the moral standards of the sexes not be equal too? or why should women be expected to advocate and adopt a code of morals that men may without public censure disregard?

To the womanly mind it would appear to be a perfectly just and reasonable condition of things if men were held as morally responsible as women themselves; and if in their lapses from virtue the former had to pay the same penalty as the latter. That this, however, is not usually the case, a multitude of sorrowful women will admit, nor shall we expect a denial of the fact even from the men themselves; though probably for purposes of self-defence, and also on behalf of their fellows, they will argue that for certain reasons women may naturally be expected to set or follow a higher moral standard than they themselves do. By what peculiar process of reasoning they arrive at this deduction it is difficult to imagine. Seeing that a well-developed race of women, made strong and vigorous by our national pastimes, and fitted by those to become sturdy mothers of sturdy sons, may be expected to have the same affinities for men as men have for women, and also the same need to exercise self-restraint.

In dealing with this wide question of equal moral standards for men and women, it will be well to bear in mind that there are three distinct sections of laws, each of which affect the common or material interests and, indirectly, the moral welfare of all classes of the community. There are, first, the unwritten, moral or ethical laws or standards, that are supposed to control the mind and actions of every sane or responsible individual. The other two, the civil and criminal laws, that are designed to protect the community at large, by making legal or legitimate, or illegal or illegitimate, certain actions on the part of an individual or group of individuals.

It would appear that of these three different forms of law, that which we know by the term criminal law is the most equitable to the two sexes. If, for instance, a man under the influence of liquor creates a disturbance in the streets, or inflicts an injury upon another, he renders himself liable to the same penalty as a woman does for a similar offence, and so on all throughout the criminal calendar. We are not, however, prepared to admit that civil law is on the same equitable basis. In some directions it certainly deals as fairly with women as with men, but in others it does not. Yet the future outlook is hopeful, and we believe that within an appreciable short space of time these inequalities will disappear, for the alterations in and additions to the statutes made within the last few years show a desire to respect the rights of women to a greater extent than formerly. For instance, in years gone by it was a common occurrence for a woman in possession of her own income to be utterly ruined by an extravagant or dissolute husband, the law at that time only protecting such property or personal effects as might have been left to a woman independent of her husband's control. This saving clause alone prevented a man from using or squandering his wife's money, or the law from seizing her goods or property, in the event of her husband's bankruptcy or financial ruin. This, however, is no longer the case, and the Woman's Property Act in Australia now secures to her the right of her own private means, irrespective of her husband's business vicissitudes or personal habits or mode of living. She is now held responsible only for such debts as she herself incurs or allows others to incur, and this being so, it is obvious that in this direction an injustice has been rectified and a wrong made right.

It is with respect to the ethical law, or the social and moral standards, that women are the most hardly dealt with in the event of any lapses from virtue. While in the same direction the sins of men are the most readily condoned. Why the man who has set the moral law at defiance, and who is, to say the least of it, equally guilty with the woman, should still be admitted into the society of refined people, while she whom he has ruined is treated as a pariah or social outcast, is a question not easy to answer. One can only suppose the sin of the man is more readily excused, simply because he is a man and has imbued society with the fallacy that nature intended him to have greater license than a woman may claim, and therefore that his is but a venial sin, while hers is inexcusable and unpardonable. That her mental and physical sufferings

are so much greater than his does not appear to be taken into account at all, nor the fact that the man can go about with unblushing face, secure in the thought that few or none besides himself know of his offence against morality; while the woman is painfully conscious that her own sin, or its result, is patent to every observant person who may be acquainted with her. With the written laws that deal with this question we have no fault to find, for though they demand that a woman shall report to the proper authorities the birth of her illegitimate child, and thus publish her own shame; yet they also recognize her claim upon the male parent for the support of the child, and since such happenings are usually the result of persuasion on the man's part, and of compliance on the woman's, it is difficult to conceive of a more impartial adjustment of such cases; for it would be manifestly unfair to mete out a more severe form of punishment to the man than to the woman (except where physical force has been used); seeing that women now claim equality with men, and may therefore be expected to display equal judgment and strength of will. For, to be consistent, the penalty our sex must pay for equal laws and equal privileges with men is the sharing of equal responsibility.

But it is, as we have already pointed out, the unwritten or social codes of morality that are so unequal, and we are disposed to think that women themselves are to a great extent answerable for this condition of things. It would appear as if the desire to guard their own daughters from immorality, added to the general acceptance of the theory that there is one standard for the man, and another, and much higher one, for the woman, had developed an exaggerated idea of the enormity of the woman's share in the offence against public morality, while the majority of *men*, conscious of their *own* moral weaknesses, view with greater equanimity the woman's participation in that guilt, and also the guilt (in this direction) of their fellows, whom they shield on every possible occasion, and often at some cost to themselves, probably with a view to their own future contingencies or delinquencies.

Yet, however much consideration we give to this question of equal standards of morality, we fail to see how they can become entirely equal, depending as they do to a very large extent upon sentiment and individual judgment. It is a comparatively easy matter to get an unjust or inequitable Act repealed, if it be one that appears in our statute books, because there is something definite about a written law that every man or every woman in the country is expected to obey. But it is quite different with the social standards or codes of morality based upon individual opinion. These are more intangible, less easy to comprehend, varying in degree even as individuals themselves vary, or differ in their conceptions of morality as their ideals may be high or low. It therefore is not to be expected that within a very short period of time we can reasonably hope to see a complete change of public opinion in this direction. There seems to have been a wrong conception from the first, and the difficulty of sweeping away misconceptions or canons which have prevailed through many generations, so that they appear

to form a part of the very foundation of the social structure, will be obvious. It must necessarily prove a question of time and education. So far as the civil laws (and these, of course, include municipal laws too) are concerned, we have sufficient faith in our law-makers to believe they are in the main actuated by a sense of justice when passing laws. If those that deal with morality should appear to be more lenient to the man than to the woman, it is probably because the lawmakers themselves have become imbued with the fallacy that men may claim or really need greater license than women may or do, so that on their part any infringement of the laws of morality is to be considered only in the light of a venial sin, while on the woman's part it must be regarded as an unpardonable transgression. Men, as a matter of fact, can only feel and think as men; they cannot enter into the thoughts and feelings of women as women themselves can; and upon these subjects the voice of the woman has been silent too long. Actuated by a false sense of modesty, she has hitherto refrained from making the assertion (though we consider it is one she can make without loss of modesty or of womanly dignity), the assertion that nature has not in the sexual sense made any special distinctions between the male and the female, except in form. That given a healthy man and an equally healthy woman, their desires and affinities will be equal too, and that (providing the woman's occupation and environment be the same), she will need to exercise the same restraints; and if, among the race, there are to be found thousands of pure-minded and pure-bodied women who have lost their chances of wifehood and motherhood, they may claim our highest praise and admiration, in so far as they have resisted temptation and maintained their self-respect and purity.

In writing a paper upon any practical subject or social evil or injustice, it will be of but little value unless the writer has something to offer by way of solution of the problem under consideration, or is prepared to make some suggestions as to the *modus operandi* to be carried into effect in order that the evil or injustice may be rectified, and this we shall endeavour in some small measure to do.

In our desire to be fair to the lawmakers we have expressed the belief that in passing new laws they are actuated by a desire for justice, and of late years and so far as the passing of laws that concern women go, this laudable desire on their part has probably been stimulated somewhat by the knowledge that woman is now beginning to assert herself; that she is no longer willing to take everything for granted, as in years gone by, but insists (upon the broad grounds of common justice) her rights shall be co-equal with those of the man. And this being so, we fully believe that in the next decade the civil laws at least will be equal, if only women will earnestly and consistently advocate their claims to equal justice; and this should be done, not with noisy vehemence, not by fantastic or freakish behaviour, that defeat rather than achieve their desideratum, but by logical argument and dignified persistence; and by keeping the subject well under the public eye by means of the public papers, seeking to show adequate cause for the rescind-

ing of unjust or unequal standards of right and of wrong, and for the passing of fresh laws that shall prove entirely equitable.

As regards the unwritten standards of morality, the press will again prove invaluable as an educator of public opinion, and through its medium and by means of magazine articles and the reading of papers at the conferences of the N. C. W., as well as by personal influence, much may be done towards undermining the old and fallacious idea that there should be a strict standard of morality for women and a lax one for men. We would also like to point out that when men are known to be *roués* it is always within the power of women themselves to show disapproval of their conduct, and if, as the penalty for licentiousness, men were debarred from entering refined homes and associating with refined women; if, in short, they had to choose between the moral life and social ostracism, they would soon begin to wonder if their liaisons were worth while.

It is a self-evident proposition, then, that equal moral standards for men and women may in time be brought about by women themselves, though in those countries where they have not yet been granted the franchise their progress may be slower—must be slower, in fact—because it is only by the influence of the woman's vote that equal moral standards will come to pass. So long as men alone control the Invoice Laws, the C. D. Act, the Licensing Bill, through the question of employing barmaids, etc., the laws will remain unequal. If women desire there shall be but one standard for men and women alike, they must have equal voting power. The withholding of this power will in itself be an injustice to women. When they have the same privileges as men in this direction they must sufficiently realize the importance or value of their vote to use it worthily. Then, and not till then, may we expect to see equal moral standards for men and for women.

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## THE ABOLITIONIST MOVEMENT IN GERMANY.

FRL. ELLA HAGEMANN.

Some years ago a German Professor of Medicine, in a discussion about sanitary measures against the spread of venereal diseases, remarked that of all the startling demands made by modern women on behalf of their sex, the demand of an equal moral standard for men and women was the most preposterous. The reasons he gave in this instance were not very cogent and could easily be controverted, but the opinion he uttered so unhesitatingly and unreservedly is shared by the overwhelming majority of men. The view that man *cannot* restrain his passions, and that woman's nature does not justify sensual indulgence, is buttressed by innumerable theories and arguments drawn from history, physiology, psychology and many other sciences appealing in a peculiar way to the German masculine mind, which is so strongly swayed by preconceived theories and abstractions. United to this we have to consider the sense of superiority with which every man regards woman

as created for *him*, his passions fostered by unrestricted indulgence, confirmed by legal enactments and social customs, pandered to by huge vested interests, whose ever active servants, with devilish ingenuity constantly devise new temptations and allurements for men, and compass the moral downfall of thousands of women.

In view of this phalanx of hostile forces the attack of a small band of reformers, and in my country almost exclusively women, might have seemed absolutely hopeless, had they not known of similar struggles in other countries, notably of the work and success of Mrs. Butler in England, who has been an inspiring example to many.

The conditions under which the struggle has to be carried on in Germany differ materially from those which surrounded Mrs. Butler in England. She raised the standard of revolt against an *innovation* which deprived a class of persons of their constitutional rights, and ratified by statute the iniquitous proposition, that women exist for men, some to honour, others to dishonour. Her call to arms was in the name of justice, and as a free English woman and a citizen she appealed to English men not to brook an attack on the chartered liberties of their country, and gave them to consider that an attempt now applied to the weakest and most forlorn, to deprive them of their rights, might, if unchallenged, be tried against themselves.

The struggle in England, therefore, was political and concentrated on *one* point: the repeal of certain laws. The battle was won, but the fighting organization was kept up to watch against any attempt to re-introduce these Acts, to agitate against them in the Colonies, and to assist the Abolitionists on the Continent.

The International Abolitionist Federation had been founded by Mrs. Butler in 1875. She had proclaimed as its basis the principle of the unity of the moral law, which is equally binding on men and women. The practical aim was the abolition of all State-regulated vice, because this violates the principle of equality and oppresses women in the interests of men. The scope of the Federation has been called narrow and its aims negative, but on no other basis could an international organization have been kept up. The positive work and the methods of working had to be left to each country, the Federation only watching that its vital principles are not disregarded.

For reasons that cannot be discussed now Germany had kept aloof when Mrs. Butler in her crusade had called on men and women of all countries to join her. Only ten years ago, in 1899, were the first branches formed in Berlin, Hamburg and Dresden and affiliated to the International Federation. A few years later, when branch associations increased, it was found necessary to establish a connection amongst them in order to facilitate work, to have one representative head who might keep more easily in touch with the International Executive in Geneva. The German branch was formed in 1904 with Frau Scheven of Dresden as its President, which office she still holds.

To understand the difficulties of abolitionist work in Germany it must be realized that unlike England, where regulation was *enacted* and could be *repealed* by Parliament, we have local regulation by the police, by municipal authorities, by edicts of the Administration which have the very slightest legal foundation, are very often in defiance of the law, arbitrary, tyrannous, depending on the good or ill-will and personal views of individual men. The German public has been so long accustomed to paternal government, to police and bureaucratic interference in all departments of life, that by-laws which had existed for generations and were oppressing a class of outcast women, gave no offence and were regarded rather as an anchor of safety and a boon. The leaders of the Abolition movement knew any direct attack on State regulation would be quite useless and that the work must be initiated by propagating ideas with special insistence on the unity of the moral law and the demand of an equal moral standard for both sexes.

Of enormous advantage to the new movement was the great organization of German women, whose various associations had been federated some years previously under the name of "Bund Deutscher Frauenvereine," a section of which had made of the morality question a particular study. The Abolitionist ideas were at first not welcomed by this section, their advocates had to enter into a serious controversy, but in the end they carried the day, and Abolitionist principles now dominate in the large organizations of the German Women's Federation. Many associations offered to Abolitionist speakers their platforms and thus greatly facilitated the agitation.

It was necessary to show that prostitution is not an isolated phenomenon, but the result of social conditions, that the unfortunate women, who are made outcasts by regulation, are victims, and should be lifted up instead of being chained to a life of vice by the regulation system.

The low wages of women, the miserable housing of the lower classes which admit of no development of decency, the danger run by the feeble-minded, the mentally defective and the degenerate of the female sex, were brought forward as some of the causes of prostitution, and by practical efforts, speech and writing the Abolitionists pointed out the way to positive reform work.

Another important part of the propaganda was controverting the universally accepted dogma of the necessity of vice for men, on which the whole system of regulation rests. The fact that self-restraint and purity are not injurious to men's health, that continence is quite possible was asserted and proved, not only by Abolitionist speakers, but by a great number of medical men over and over again. The drinking habits of men, the prevailing intemperance, was pointed out as by far the most fruitful source of sexual immorality and the fight against drink as the most efficacious fight for sexual purity. A great stress was laid in the agitation on the importance of teaching the young certain facts of physiology, enlightening them in the course of lessons or occasional talks on structure and functions of the human body, and by clear

and simple words to deprive the subject of the morbid attraction of secrecy. Later on, when adolescence is reached, plain speech was advocated for parents and teachers, to point out the dangers to health and happiness by impurity of living. This branch of preventive work has been greatly taken up by medical men and occupies the attention of school authorities and measures are considered to train teachers to give such instruction.

There was no meeting or congress of any society whose aims in any way touched the interests of the Federation, but one or other of the watchful leaders was present to advance or advocate Abolitionist principles. So in the society against the White Slave Traffic the promoters were told on their own platform by Frau Scheven that they were inconsistent, for they wanted to stop the traffic, but refused to close the market; viz., the licensed houses of vice, and that they could never succeed on such lines. The facts have amply verified Frau Scheven's words.

The German Societies for Sanitary Prophylaxis, which unlike foreign societies of the same kind, have *not* inserted the word "moral" in their name, are trying with admirable perseverance to stop the terrible growth of venereal disease by sanitary measures and instruction in hygiene. They have in their Annual Meetings always heard an Abolitionist's voice telling them that their attempts must remain fruitless as long as they eliminate the moral factor and don't demand self-restraint from men.

Thus, by indefatigable and self-sacrificing propaganda, by speech and writing, the comparatively very few workers have proclaimed the demand of an equal moral standard for both men and women throughout the land, and the new idea is slowly gaining ground. This short sketch would, however, be very incomplete without a mention of the efforts made by the leaders to influence the Legislatures, the Federal Council, the various governmental and local authorities, by sending in addresses and petitions.

A reform of the German Penal Code is impending; the difficult and important work of drafting the amendments is in progress. The Executive of the German Branch have had ample opportunities of collecting evidence where the present laws are most defective and unjust, out of harmony with the moral sense of the nation to-day. Over all the dealing with crimes and misdemeanors in the sphere of sexual morality, one can see writ large, though with invisible letters: "There are *two* standards of morality and justice—one for men, another for women." Petitions with elaborate exposition of the reasons have been sent in to the Ministry of Justice and the Revisional Commission, not only asking for the removal of hardships, but also for more protection for the weak and the young, more enforcement of responsibility on men.

The scandal that, in open violation of the existing laws, tolerated houses of vice exist, not only with the connivance, but with the authority of the police or Town Councils, has been made a subject of representations to the Governments before, but was now reiterated and suggestions made how to ameliorate the contagious effect of vice.

What the result of all these arduous efforts will be cannot at present be conjectured. It may, however, be stated as a hopeful augury that in December of 1907 the Prussian Ministry concerned issued an edict to the police authorities, prescribing a more humane and considerate treatment of the unfortunate women on the register of vice. Although the rescript may not have any notable practical result, as a sign of a change of attitude in the official mind with regard to these social outcasts, it is not to be underrated, and can doubtless be put down as a direct result of the Abolitionist agitation. Perhaps the most notable effects of the ten years' work may be found in the deepened interest that women take in the subject of morality and the heightened sense of their responsibility in the matter. They have not joined the Federation in large numbers, but are imbued with its teaching. We have seen the spectacle undreamt of some years ago, that women organized in unions, with various aims, have joined in towns where attempts were made to open tolerated houses of vice, or to sequester prostitutes to certain streets, and entered public and solemn protest against such degradation of their sex and demanded that such temptations be not offered to their young people. With the letter of the law and righteousness on their side, these valiant women in several cases averted the danger to their towns. This happened in Hanover, Heidelberg, Oldenburg and others. Lastly and quite lately in Görlitz, where the President of the Federation, Frau Scheven, helped herself in the agitation.

Light is dawning; that the advocates of a higher morality must acknowledge, but it would be self-deception to ignore that dense darkness still covers the land and that large portions of the population don't even see the gleam yet. The dogma of the inferiority of woman, of her sexual subjection to man, still holds the fields. It will take generations to establish justice and equality, and such a change can only be brought about slowly and be brought about only by woman herself. Join the cry, "Wanted, Mothers!" Mothers must inculcate in the hearts of their sons finer sensibilities, a higher morality. Women only can change the old order where the right of the stronger rules, and bring about the new order where justice holds the scales.

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## THE TRAFFIC IN WOMEN IN DENMARK.

FRÖKEN ELIZABETH GAD.

Of course you all know what "White Slave Traffic" means; this terrible curse which threatens our young sisters, and whose existence is so depraving that it is difficult, almost impossible, to believe, that it is of so great extent as it is. Yet it has always existed, and will continue to exist, till the moment has come when mothers shall give their sons an education which makes them purer in mind and stronger in will, so that they may be able to lead a better life than some of them are leading now.

Until the last years of the past century this traffic had a very peaceful and agreeable existence, nobody interfered with the agents. But then Mr. Stead, the English editor, and Mr. Alexander Coote, began a campaign against their vile doings which at last opened the eyes of the whole world for the horrible facts, and now all the European Governments, except the Balkan States, have joined in the combat against the traffic. Committees have been formed everywhere, and their first work has been to procure laws, equal for all countries, so that the agents, while punished in one State, might not take their refuge in another. Denmark joined in the work against the white slave traffic in September, 1902. A Committee was formed, of which I have the honour of being a member; delegates sent to the Paris Conference (August, 1902), and to the Frankfurter Congress (October, 1902). Its President is now the Colonel Liliefalk, who has been in New York and Chicago, 1904; its Secretary Skovgaard-Mortensen is a very active Secretary, who has already saved many a young girl from the threatening danger. The traffic has never flourished in our dear little land, but "preventing is better than cure," and there is very much to do only in warning the young girls, in giving useful information and in making inquiries about situations for our girls in foreign countries and for foreign girls in our country; nowadays girls want to see the world and like change. The Committee has already received many grateful letters from parents or from girls warned and helped in time.

#### EXAMPLES:

Eight young Danish girls had been enticed to Berlin from Copenhagen by some "artists," variety artists, who had promised them high wages which they never got. The Committee succeeded in saving six of them. Another young girl went with a fiance to Berlin; all was joy and happiness and fine clothes in the beginning, but soon they were short of money and she was sent "on the street," poor girl. She is now home again, an experience richer. Just the same thing happened another girl, but her fiance took her to New York, and the first night she slept there all her beautiful golden hair was cut off.

Denmark has passed several new law paragraphs against public immorality and for protection of youth. Several institutions, both private and public, have been opened for destitute children. Their are heavy punishments for demoralization of minor girls, alike for both men and women (*l'unité de la morale*).

The Committee has a subvention from the Danish State and is greatly helped by the police and the press; its work is appreciated by all the authorities, and I am glad to tell you that the agents shall not find Denmark a privileged place for their vile traffic, the meanest of all human doing.

All occasions are used for their evil traffic. When the earthquake had spread confusion and sorrow over Sicily, and Messina lay in ashes, the agents sought between the ruins for young girls, and promising them to lead them to their relations, brought them

away to Argentina or other South American places—hundreds of them—saved them for a life worse than death.

Ladies, are not we women those who, directly or indirectly, suffer most from this evil? Is not this traffic, as long as it exists, as a blow in the face of every gentlewoman? Ought we not all to work for a higher moral standard—you in your country, we in ours? I think this is the best international labour possible, and I thank the International Council of Women for gathering us together and helping us to fight for all that is good and pure and noble.

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### WHITE SLAVE TRAFFIC IN ITALY.

MME. TURIN.

At the sitting of the I. C. W. in Geneva in September, 1908, we presented an extensive paper to Mme. Avril de Ste. Croix, the President of the Permanent Committee against the White Slave Traffic and the "*Unité de Morale*." After the lapse of these few months we have no further facts to add.

The terrible disaster which befell Italy through the earthquake on the Sicilian and Calabrian coasts absorbed all social energy to the exclusion of any other matter.

Associated with this unique calamity is an accusation which concerns the white slave traffic, and which, therefore, we must mention without being at present in a position to prove or deny it authoritatively.

The "*Bulletin Abolitioniste*" (Organe central de la fédération Abolitioniste, Mois de Mars, Genève) mentions a despatch sent to the New York Evening Journal by Dr. Green, Treasurer of the Coal Company, of Kent, in which he states that the agents of the white slave traffic fell on the devastated regions of Sicily and Calabria and exported and sold hundreds of young girls to Buenos Ayres and other South American cities. The fact that Dr. Green was sent by his company to the seat of the disaster with means of relief, and that the truthfulness and trustworthiness of his character is said to be above suspicion, gives an overwhelming weight to the accusation. On the other hand, there is the fact that already on the third day martial law was proclaimed, and that the utter confusion and the difficulty of locomotion following the catastrophe must during those first three days have obstructed the purposes of the evildoers quite as much as the efforts of charity and humanity, even granting that a gang of white slave-holders could have been organized and ready to start at the moment of such an unforeseen catastrophe. Then there would be the question of the ships—to our knowledge in no wise prepared in the harbour, and the question of a large sum of ready money, without which such an exportation on a large scale could not have been accomplished.

Nevertheless the mere suspicion of so black a crime carried out unhindered is so horrible that surely the Italian Government ought not to let it rest there, but should have it properly enquired into.

We have asked the "Bulletin Abolitioniste" how far and by what testimony Dr. Green can prove his accusation, in order that we may take further steps in the matter and eventually present a memorial to the Minister of the Interior regarding this matter.

[The Editor regrets that it has been necessary, owing to lack of space, to omit some papers which were handed in but not read, and much valuable discussion. In giving the papers, in order to avoid confusion, the names of those who wrote them have been inserted, but not, except in a few cases, the names of those who kindly read them where the writer was absent.]