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SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.

REFORM SCHOOLS.

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—BY—

J. G. ROSENGARTEN.

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REFORM SCHOOLS.

THE House of Refuge in this city has completed its fiftieth year. The work it has done in saving many thousands of young persons from utter ruin is hardly to be estimated. It is clear, however, that much remains to be done to bring it up to the standard of many more modern Reform Schools in this country and abroad. The Hon. John Welsh was, for many years, a Manager of the House, and during his service as American Minister in England, having visited a number of kindred institutions there, sent copies of their reports to his old colleagues here, and thus set on foot a system of exchanges, from which the latest information has been taken as to the changes and improvements suggested by the large experience of other Reform Schools at home and abroad.

Among all the English Reform Schools, the best are found to be those that are in the country, where the system of living in families can be successfully introduced. The history of this method is a matter of more than usual interest and value. Set on foot in Germany, it was adopted in this country in many State Reform Schools, notably in Massachusetts, Ohio, New Jersey and Western Pennsylvania, with varying degrees of success, but in France, at Mettray, in a Reform School established in 1839 by M. De Metz, it has attained its highest approach to perfection. There eight hundred boys are housed in small groups, and work in the fields and in shops, without walls or bars or cells, yet by means of a system of well balanced rewards and punishments, escapes are reduced to a nullity, while by a careful supervision of the boys after they leave, providing good homes, getting them work, helping them to help themselves, commitments are almost unknown. Mettray is also a training school for teachers, and, like Pastor Wichern's German Reform School, it supplies superintendents and other officers for similar institutions far and wide.

Next to Mettray in results, and even greater in numbers, are the Industrial Schools at Feltham, and at Annesley, near London, the latter with 1,100, the former with nearly 800 boys, where, as in the other English schools of this class, besides farming work,



the boys are taught trades, while the rudiments of a sailor's life are taught by means of full-rigged vessels put in the grounds, and swimming and military drill and gymnastics are also taught. These schools, like that at Red Hill, are all connected with training-ships, colonial and other emigration societies, so that the boys are cared for long after they leave the Home, and until they are able to work for themselves. Every care is taken to guard against hasty discharges, and still more against surrendering boys, from mistaken sympathy, to their parents, who are too often only anxious to get their earnings, and allow, if they do not encourage, the boys to go back to habits of crime, and become worse than they were before. A comparative statement of the statistics of expenses and of results, as far as these can be relied on for their claim of cases of reformation, shows that the true basis of reform is to provide a Home in the country, where the boys and girls can be properly classified, where they can live in small families, thus getting the benefit of close personal supervision, and be saved from the risk of contamination which is inherent in all great congregated systems.

The results obtained in the Farm Schools in this country confirm, although on a smaller scale, all that is claimed for those abroad—but they show also that provision must be made for boys over the age of sixteen, and before they can be considered hardened offenders. The practical inference arrived at is that the city and the state ought to secure for the House of Refuge a farm on the line of one of the railroads leading out of the city, and establish the institution there on such a basis that the family system can be successfully introduced. The present buildings can be used for a Prison for Women, and to supplement the County Prison, now so shamefully overcrowded, or better still, for the boys and girls over sixteen, who are too old in years and in crime to be sent to a Reformatory School, but much too young to be sent to the House of Correction or the County Prison, where the companionship of old and hardened offenders is fatal to their reformation. The money thus expended will undoubtedly be saved many times over again. The private munificence which largely contributed to establish the House of Refuge, will no doubt be freely shown in an effort properly set on foot to renew its activity and widen its field of labor, by removing it to the country, by taking it away from the built-up

city, establishing it on the plan of other Farm Schools, without walls or cells or prison appliances.

In England and in France, just as in this country, the most successful Reform Schools are those that were set on foot by private charity, and after showing the benefit to the state and the taxpayer, were cared for out of the public purse. The system of local taxation and of State grants for the support of the children cared for by private corporations or associations of benevolent persons, seems to work far more effectually than that of merely official guardians. The best way of keeping down our prison population and that which overflows in our Almshouse and House of Correction, is to encourage the reformation and training of children. An effective lesson is taught by the contrast of the condition of the children in the House of Refuge with those of the crowded wards of the Children's Asylum in the Almshouse, and the untaught boys and girls in the House of Correction. Another is a comparison of the House of Refuge, with its high walls and its prison-like limits, and the Farm Schools in New Jersey and Massachusetts, in Ohio, and the District of Columbia. Still the House of Refuge, through an efficient Visiting Agent, Dr. John S. Boyd, reports an average of 87 per cent. of the children leaving it as doing well, and this in spite of the difficulties that attend the control and direction of those who are given up to their parents and friends before their reformation is really effected, and the impossibility of exercising a strict supervision. The dry array of facts, impressive as the figures are, drawn from the reports of other Reform Schools, both at home and abroad, is enlivened by the statement of a recent visit to Feltham, one of the best English Farm Schools, by James V. Watson, one of the most active managers of the House of Refuge, and he and others of the Board, who have seen this and kindred Reform Schools, advocate heartily a move into the country.

THE REFORM SCHOOL OF METTRAY.

In 1839 two Frenchmen, de Metz and de Courteilles, established a Reform School which has become a model for similar institutions far and near. Of forty-five hundred children received in its care, with nothing stronger than hedges to mark its fields, only one escaped, in 1849,—of eight hundred on its books in 1873,

six only died, and from a second and more frequent sentence in seventy-five per cent. of the cases noted before Mettray was opened, of its own inmates in 1873 only four per cent. were re-committed. M. de Metz was a judge until in 1839, when he determined to devote himself to the care of boys. His experience had shown the mischief done to boys sent to prison to associate with old and hardened offenders; he sought to alleviate their lot and to set on foot a reformatory in the country. This he did at Mettray, which was opened in 1840, and so successful were its results that in 1850 his system was adopted throughout France. In visits to this country and England, he found that the moral as well as the physical advantages of farm work and life made that the best possible method for boys either guilty of crime or living in such a way as to be on the high road to it. In Germany he saw a Reform School that gave him the key to the problem he had undertaken to solve,—it was under Pastor Wichern at Horn near Hamburg, where the plan of establishing the inmates in family groups of a dozen under fatherly supervision, was in force, based on the only true principle that could secure individual reform and collective discipline. He secured the co-operation of an intimate friend, M. de Courteilles, an officer of the army, and both giving up their places, and the prospect of promotion, devoted the rest of their lives to Mettray and the care of its inmates. After thirteen years of successful work, M. de Courteilles died at Mettray and was buried among his children in the cemetery of the colony, mourned by those who knew him best, the former inmates, and the friends and beneficiaries of the institution. For twenty years more, M. de Metz worked in and for his reformatory, and his death was the occasion of a general expression of respect for his labors and grief at his loss, that set the seal of public esteem upon his work. His one purpose was to effect the moral regeneration of the children entrusted to his care, and to do this he studied the plans in force elsewhere and selected the best from each, and the best of all,—from America and England, the interior economy and the strict discipline of their Reform Schools, from Germany the paternal government of the Raue Haus at Hamburg. His colony was not a prison, but an asylum where children were to receive the care that ought to have been given them by their own family. He began with a school of instructors, composed of twenty-three young men of good education

and good family, who for seven months devoted themselves to training for their duties, he substituted for prison discipline, farm labor, family life, moral education, religious and absolute devotion to the work in hand, sacrificing all other ties of family and the outer world to the care of the future inmates, so that they should be the only objects of their careful and affectionate zeal, and that even the children should be convinced when they were punished that it was done in a spirit of paternal devotion. Of the successful candidates chosen from this group, the present Director and Inspector were among the foremost, and the school of instruction then opened has continued from that time on its active operation. Of the first inmates, from prisons and houses of correction, nearly all were in a bad condition, both moral and physical, but such was the satisfactory result of this system that from that time on the numbers have gone on increasing, until now there are at Mettray eight hundred inmates. It has been imitated in France, in England, in Belgium, in Holland, in Germany, in Poland, and in America. When M. de Metz was called on for advice, his text was that the principal element of regeneration was family life, with its cares, its affections, and the duties that paternity imposes. This he sought to secure by making separate families out of isolated groups of children, each with its own house and its own head, assisted by a subordinate and two elder brothers, taken from the young inmates and elected by them. Every such family occupied the ground floor of their house for a workshop, and slept and ate in the upper rooms. The houses were about thirty feet by twenty, and bore names of cities and individuals whose gifts had provided the expense of building them. One is used for the very little children, whose labor makes it a perfect garden of flowers and plants. A building of larger dimensions serves as a home for the Director, and another for the school of instruction,—near at hand are ten cottages for ten families of the institution, and beyond, a chapel and the school rooms and dwellings for the officers. All these are in a great square, with a basin and large grass plots, and in the centre a full rigged three masted vessel for use and ornament. Military discipline has been introduced with the best results, securing regularity, order and activity,—the hours for rising and going to bed, for work, meals and exercises are all noted by trumpet calls,—at the first, the hammocks are all unswung, the boys dress,

say a prayer, and go together and in silence in sections to the lavatories. Then there is a roll call in each family, and they go to their work or exercise in silence under the chief of the house or shop,—when bedtime comes, there is again a prayer, the hammocks are again swung, the boys undress, put their clothes in the proper places and lie down. The boys are employed in agriculture and horticulture, in farm and garden work, in care of domestic animals, horses, cattle and the farm yard. There are workshops for the needs of the institution, and trades suitable for country boys, who become blacksmiths, wheelwrights, carpenters, shoemakers, tailors, masons, stonecutters, housepainters, bakers, and sailmakers. The children coming from seaports are also trained on the three masted ship to be sailors. The work given the children is according to their strength and health, their natural aptitude, the place whence they come, town or country, the occupation of their parents and what they are likely to get on leaving,—work is suspended on Sundays and holidays, and at harvest time all the shops are closed,—there are a number of small farms, each occupied by a family of forty children, with its own chief, and under his orders a farmer,—and five-sixths of the boys are employed in farm work. The instruction includes reading, writing, mental and written arithmetic, grammar and orthography, weights and measures, geography and geometry, sacred history and that of France, and drawing for those whose future occupation may make it necessary. Instrumental and vocal music is taught, and there is a band which plays in church and on all holidays,—it is found to be an agreeable and useful employment and an attraction that serves as a recompense for good conduct and goes a great way with the boys, while later in life for the farm hands it is a great resource, and for those who go into the army it is a great help, too.

The discipline is severe,—the slightest infraction is punished, and punishments are reprimand in private or in public, being kept in during play time, confinement for a stated period, the loss of any position of honor or trust, the loss of rank of Elder Brother, being struck off the class of honor, close confinement to a dark or light cell, on bread and water, and being sent to a prison or penal colony. M. de Metz in his Report of 1841, put the question thus,—to produce a salutary effect, punishment must be accepted and the boy himself must recognize the necessity,—it must therefore

be given calmly and gently and with composure and in cool blood. The head of each family sends the offender to the parlor and the director takes time enough to let all concerned speak and listen in perfect good humor. Even in case of confinement to the cell, the offender is frequently visited by the head of the family, by the chaplain and by the director. His teacher gives him his lessons every day,—and he is employed in breaking stone or cutting wood. To prevent repeated offences and to enable the offender to testify his instant repentance and thus escape punishment, this ingenious scheme has been set on foot,—in a public place there is a large square box with a cover, on it is written 'lost articles,' and if anything disappears search is made next day in this box for it,—if found there, no further search or inquiry is allowed. Good conduct and hard work are rewarded by small money awards which carry interest and are paid over to the boy when he leaves Mettray. Of eight hundred boys in 1873, seven hundred and eighty-four received wages for work, amounting to \$900,—and seven hundred and thirty-nine received in good-conduct rewards \$350, thus encouraging habits of order and economy both in the present and in the future. The honorary rewards that have been most efficacious are the roll of honor and the flag,—on the former boys have their names inscribed for exemplary conduct and exemption from any punishment for three months, and this has gone on steadily increasing. The flag of the colony is entrusted to the family in which no punishment has been inflicted during the week preceding its award,—thus creating a wholesome rivalry between the families, and leading the good boys in each to keep a friendly watch and guard over the bad boys, with the constant warning, 'Don't do this or that, or we shall lose the flag.' On Sundays after service, the results of the week's work and the rewards and punishments are publicly announced,—each chief of family reading his report. The director calls up each family, addresses each offender, presents to the five best boys gifts of a knife, a portfolio, an inkstand, a looking-glass, and a book, gifts made valuable by the kindly words that accompany them,—and then the flag is handed to the family that has been found worthy of this honor. It is handed to the eldest brother, the band plays a march of honor, the family that has received the flag marches out at the head of the column, and the other families follow with their guidons desig-

nating their numbers,—the procession closes with the little children from six to ten, mostly abandoned by their own families and sent to Mettray out of pure charity,—the boys then play,—the band of Firemen exhibit their skill, gymnastics and exercises or the model ship follow, and at last each family goes off to its own home.

The two elements of success at Mettray are the system of the life in families and that of perpetual supervision,—the chiefs of families must be intelligent, trained, good men without being weak, severe with justice,—must study the character of each boy, must gain his confidence, so that every one will do his part cheerfully, receive his instruction with eagerness, enjoy his play, and be in earnest in his religious duties, and this must be shown by that moral resurrection which alone can save the boy from the corrupting influences of his early youth. The boys that have left for places near Mettray come back on Sundays to spend the day with the boys of their old family, dine and play with them,—if they are without employment, they can always stop at Mettray and find work and shelter until a new place is obtained,—if they are sick, they return to the hospital at Mettray to be cured and cared for. The pay of a chief of a family is \$125 a year, with clothing, board and lodging,—the average daily cost of food is about fifteen cents.

The principle has been long established that to enable those who have undergone discipline of this kind to resist the temptations that assail them, there must be a continued supervision to complete their education. Other societies limit this to three years,—Mettray maintains it forever,—and even when the boys have succumbed and been condemned, still the help, the affectionate counsel and assistance of its officers, are freely given,—and of this class more than half have thus been saved. The boys in the country are supervised by persons of discretion who personally look after them and report every six months, making and receiving any money advances necessary. In Paris there is a special agent,—a member of the bar served for eighteen years gratuitously, and he was succeeded by an old chief of family. There are over 3,600 boys now being looked after, and from 1840 to 1848 there were expended in caring for them nearly \$100,000,—but, on the other hand, the number of second sentences to Mettray was reduced from 75 per cent. to 4 per cent.

There were at first fears of numerous attempts at escape, for Mettray has no walls,—but only one has escaped, and this result is mainly due to the fact that the boys know and feel that they are there on honor. In 1848, at the time of the Revolution, Mettray was invaded by a band of insurgents, who sought in vain to get recruits,—but not a boy left, and an escort of boys bringing flour to the colony met and successfully resisted an attack made on them. One of the boys belonging to the Fire Department of Mettray lost his life in its service at a fire at a neighboring property,—three hundred of the boys helped to save Tours from a destructive flood in 1856,—the whole institution gave part of its earnings to help the distressed sufferers,—and Tours established an annual medal as a memorial of its gratitude. M. de Metz often left Mettray to go to other places to establish other institutions and always declared that the future of Mettray was assured by the excellence of its discipline and by the strong support secured to it on account of its good results. The revenues consist of an appropriation per capita from the government, of the net profits of the farm and the workshop, and of gifts. The government gives about half the daily average expense of each inmate, which may be roughly put at say twenty-five cents,—the difference is partly made up by the net profit of the work, about \$6000 a year,—but this is subject to a deduction for rent paid for some of the land occupied. The expenses at Mettray in 1874 were \$44,844.98, and of this sum there was spent on maintenance \$43,484.98, and in assistance to those who had gone, \$1,360.00.

Every boy on leaving Mettray receives a full outfit, a pair of shoes, three cotton shirts, two cotton neck handkerchiefs, three handkerchiefs, two pairs stockings, two pairs pantaloons, one pair drawers, one jacket, two coats, one cap,—a certificate of good conduct, and help in getting a place. A printed blank is sent annually to the employer and to the local supervisory agent to be filled up and returned, and the general agent collects and digests them. There is a Special Fund for assistance to the old inmates who have been well conducted for two years, and are over twenty years of age, but they must have an authorization from Mettray to enable them to call on others for help.

There is a daily meeting of all the chiefs of family in the presence of the director, and on Saturdays the chiefs of family, chiefs

of workshops and of each service meet under direction of the Director, for consultation.

There is a Fund for Pensions made up by retaining a twentieth of the annual pay of every employee, and there is a proportionate appropriation from the net profits of the Institution in compensation. In this way teachers and workers are made to feel that Mettray is a home for life for them, while elsewhere many enter upon the same sort of employment only to gain a temporary livelihood until a better place is found.

In the Annual Report of the Director for 1876, he gives the following as the causes for which the boys were sent,—31 for murders, assaults, incendiarism, 48 for attempted theft, 447 for theft, 28 for assaults, 183 for vagabondage and begging,—there were 243 who came with the record of previous offenses,—34 were convicted five times, and more,—of the children, 146 were illegitimate, 6 of parents well to do, 407 of working people, 217 of parents without trades, vagabonds, beggars or prostitutes, 134 of parents in prison, 347 orphans, 12 from asylums.

ENGLISH REFORM SCHOOLS.

REPORTS of leading English Reform Schools may be of use as suggesting a basis of comparison. *The Home for Little Boys under Ten Years of Age, Farmingham, Kent*, according to the Fourteenth Annual Report, has ten Cottage Homes or houses for three hundred homeless little boys, besides other buildings, chapel, school-houses, workshops, swimming bath, infirmary, and other needful offices. The average total cost per head for the maintenance of their boys has been £24 a year,—and of this £4 have been expended in raising the rest. On comparison with other institutions it is stated that in other orphan schools and asylums the cost is given at £23 9s, £27 13, and £30 19,—while the large Poor Law schools, with an average of over five hundred children, on the aggregate system, cost £22 4, a Reformatory with about the same number costs £23 18, and a much larger Industrial School costs £24 6. The Farmingham Home buildings have cost about £100 per head for the number of children provided for, and the committee think it has enabled them to prove the successful establishment of the principle of Family Homes and to call public

attention to it. The boys are employed in printing, tailors' shop, shoemakers' shop, bakehouse, needleroom, on the farm, in the garden, etc.;—the total receipts of the year were £12,307 16 7. and this was entirely expended in maintenance and building.

The Eighteenth Annual Report of the Industrial School at Feltham shows a total on Jan. 1, 1877, of seven hundred and thirty-six boys, costing per boy for food, £7 12 4½, for clothing £2 10 4½. The boys are nearly all sent to sea or to colonies, unless farm work can be found for them nearer home, or they can be enlisted in the army or navy, where their education goes on.

I desire here to call attention to the following very interesting account of a visit to the Feltham Reformatory School for Boys made Sept. 5th, 1879, by James V. Watson, one of the Managers of the House of Refuge:

"I was received by the Rev. Mr. Newton, Chaplain of the Institution (the Superintendent being absent), and conducted through the whole establishment, which is the largest in England, and very complete. There are about eight hundred boys in the institution, who look very happy and contented. They are sent to it by the Court of Quarter Sessions and magistrates, from the streets of the Middlesex side of London, and from that county, and supported by their own labor and a stated amount from the Treasury and School Fund, and a tax stipulated by the Board of Aldermen at a stated time every year. Last year it amounted to about a halfpenny in the pound for purposes of this kind in the county.

No *bad* criminals are received, and no boy can be returned to the institution if he has once been discharged.

There are six sections in the school graded by age and character and condition of morals. The health of the institution is excellent; but four boys were in the Infirmary, and but four deaths occurred last year. The boys are taught trades of various kinds. The buildings are kept in order by the carpenters; the clothes by the tailors; the shoes by the shoemakers; the machinists and blacksmiths keep the engines and iron work in order; the bakers bake the bread, and the boys do all the housework of the institution. The large farm upon which it is situated is entirely worked by the boys; the furniture is made and kept in order by the cabinet makers; in short, all the work of the large institution is done

by the boys under competent instructors who are employed only to direct and instruct the inmates.

All the dormitories are open, with an officer lodging at each end of the room, and the night watchman entering it every hour in the night. The punishment is confinement in cells about six feet square with one window of good size for light and air, but inaccessible to the boy. Whipping is administered by the superintendent or chaplain only; there are no dark cells; very few attempts at escape, though no walls enclose the institution, or farm, which is surrounded entirely by a thorn hedge about four feet high. The farm is large and very productive, and gives employment to very many of the boys, who are sought for eagerly by the farmers of the country.

Mr. Newton states that they have no trouble in finding places for their boys, as the instruction given them in the institution makes them desirable help in almost all fields of labor employment,—the demand is greater than the supply. The schools are kept up regularly. Reading, writing and arithmetic are generally taught, with grammar and geography,—no attempt at other instruction except in navigation.

The institution has a large full rigged ship, called "The Endeavour," sunk into the ground water deep, for the complete instruction in seamanship of boys suited for and adapted to it. They are taught to man the yards, reef and unreef the sails, set and take in the sails, and do everything a sailor must do on a ship, and in the proper season live upon the ship, bunking as sailors do. Connected with this is a large school and workroom, with complete models of rigged and unrigged ships, charts of the English coast, with all its harbors, and docks, and navigable rivers and inlets, its lighthouses and buoys; and the boys in that department are taught in the winter season all of the lessons in seamanship. The shop is for their instruction in tying knots, repairing sails, and ropes, etc., for use in the ship in season. The inside dormitories of these boys are open, and different from the others; they mess in them, upon tables arranged as they are upon ships, to be set up and let down to allow room for their bunks after mess, and in the evening their beds are swung over the table board for the night, in the morning taken down and rolled up neatly, and put in an appropriate place. In short, these boys are taught to be good

sailors, without being on the water, and they are sought after by vessel owners because of their proficiency, and are thus disposed of quite as fast as they are ready to be discharged. Mr. Newton is of the opinion that boys instructed in this way are better prepared for ship service than those taught on ships, for the reason that they have a milder and more conscientious training, and their book and school exercises are additional, and there is more care taken of their morals. I thought this part of the school admirable.

The infirmary and workshops are entirely separate from the large buildings, as is also the large and beautiful chapel, with its neat and well kept ground back of it. Service is held in it regularly on Sundays, and the Episcopal Church service is read to the boys every day in the schools, by the teachers, who are all males. The boys are regularly drilled and become quite proficient. Many of them go into the army and navy, and their training at this school has that destination in view for those best suited for the service.

They are also trained in music by means of brass bands, and those boys go into the army as musicians in the bands, and drummer boys.

Mr. Newton was extremely polite to me and several times expressed his satisfaction at being able to show and explain to an American from Philadelphia their institution. He had recollected the visits of one or two others from our House of Refuge, with satisfaction.

There are many things about this great house which confirm me in the belief that an institution located in the country, away from populous centres, can be more successfully managed than as we are situated. The large farm upon which the Feltham House is built is itself a great auxiliary to reformation, the labor upon it is one of the best employments boys can have or be trained to in this country, and one or two years experience upon it during the process of reformation makes them desirable for farm apprentices, when ready to be discharged. Their labor upon the farm produces a large proportion of their means of support at Feltham.

Another great advantage derived from being in the country is that of more freedom and less restraint upon the children; walls are not necessary to keep them within bounds. The Feltham House is on the South-Eastern Railroad, about fourteen miles from

London, the railroad bounds one side of the farm, the yards on one side of the house are enclosed with low stone walls, about three feet high, with low double gates leading into the fields, and to the shops which are out in the fields, and the boys go and come to the house at suitable times, without attendance; thus all prison appearance is removed from the institution, and the boys do not think of restraint as ours do, and are not so restive under confinement. The Infirmary is in a building away from the house, and the greatest care is taken to keep the sick and infected away from the mass.

The day I was at Feltham, some of the boys were playing a match game of base ball in a large field in front of the house. The inmates surrounded the players, who had been training for the game then under way; the chaplain, Mr. Newton, was the umpire, and kept the scores and was the friend of both parties. There was the greatest enthusiasm, every good hit was hailed with shouts and cheers, the interest manifested was intense, and I question whether the poor Refuge boys at Feltham were not happier that pleasant Saturday afternoon than those employed in playing elsewhere in more fortunate and prosperous circumstances. I watched the play for some time with great interest, and at the end shouts went up for the victors, equal to any ever heard at the Royal Ground of Windsor."

The average cost of maintenance and management at Feltham amounted to £24 6 3¾, of food, £7 12 4½; of clothing, £2, 10, 4¼,—and the staff of officers, etc., counted sixty-four persons, including three pupil teachers and some others who had been inmates of the home. The total receipts for 1876 were £20,159 12 5; out of this £837 were from farm and garden, and the carpenter's shop, tailor's shop, smith's shop, and other trades produced their share,—small, but enough to show that they were useful as saving expense, as well as employing the boys, and the value of builder's work done amounted to £1,851 15 3.

The *South Metropolitan District School, Sutton, Surrey*, reports for 1873-4, 1,600 children from four years up; 514 boys were employed in industrial work, 174 were apprenticed to various trades or enlisted in the army or navy, while some of the pupil teachers have shown great success in this experiment which has been tried for five years. This school cost £41,925 17 9, and the average

cost per head per week is 8s. 2d. 1f.,—and of this maintenance and clothing take about 4d., while the interest on the loans made, principally for the buildings which cost over £90,000, must also be deducted from the balance to make a fair average.

The *North Surrey School District* report takes credit for the fact that 28 of its employees have been educated in its school, that swimming and training for the sea have been added, that short hand is taught to children who, by reason of lameness, etc., are physically unfit for work, that 104 children were sent to service, that an average number of 837 children cost for maintenance and salaries 1s., 9d., while the cost per head for common charges, loans and interest, was 2s., 4d. per week. A very instructive basis of comparison will be found in the tabulated list of officers and servants with their salaries;—the residents including superintendent at £165, a matron at £60, school-masters at £69, £50, £85, £57, a trainer in cookery and laundry work at £30, drill and assistant band-master at £50, pupil teachers at £40 and £36,—others at £15 per week,—a resident engineer at £2 per week without rations;—and non-residents, a chaplain at £250, a medical officer and a clerk each £200, a band-master £60, a gardener at 35s. per week, a tailor at 25s. per week, a carpenter at 35s. per week, and his two assistants at 4s. per week each, plumber and painter at 36s. per week, baker at 30s. per week, bricklayer at 35s. per week, nightman at 25s. per week, and laborers at 24s. 6d. and 22s. 6d. per week,—a total of £3,676 18 expended for the year on eighty and more employees. The use of pupil teachers in these homes is something that might well be applied here, for it is in itself an incentive of the highest kind, a reward for those who have done well and an inducement to others to do their best, while it gives each home a substantial reward for its success and a proof of the efficiency of its work. The thorough system of inspection by government officials is one of the distinguishing features of English Reformatories, and it certainly secures the matured opinion of very experienced and impartial observers that cannot but be welcome to those in charge. The characteristic of all English schools of this class, training for the sea, is very well worth transferring to our own, and as the first requisite is erecting in the grounds a mast with proper shrouds and gear and a competent expert instructor, it is likely to secure the same result, that is prove a means of inducing boys to choose the

sea as their occupation in life, and make it easy for them to find places on board the training ships supplied by the government, where the boys can complete their preparations for future usefulness.

Swimming is now also taught to the boys by the drill-master, and to the girls by the drill-mistress, in the North Surrey School at Anerley, and the result is very satisfactory, the expense very trifling. Still another valuable suggestion is that of providing instruction for children who, on account of lameness, loss of an arm or deformity, are physically unfit for ordinary work. Short hand is taught at Anerley for an hour and a quarter a week to that class of children, and to such of the teachers and pupil teachers as can make time for it, and this for an annual outlay of a little over a hundred dollars.

The 19th Annual Report of the *British School Ship Society*, gives the total cost for the 248 boys on board in 1878, as £5,897 7s, say \$30,000, an average per head of \$120, and the industrial profits as \$1500. The boys are never taken for less than three years, none less than thirteen nor more than fifteen. Of the 1587 boys received since the opening of the school, 855 had not been previously convicted, 418 had been convicted once, 185 twice, 70 three times, 32 four times, 27 above four times. Of the total income, \$20,000 were granted by the Treasury, \$380 were subscriptions and donations, \$2000 were paid by counties, etc., for boys sent on board. The principal items of expenditure were:—for salaries and wages, \$5000, for provisions, \$12,000, for clothing, \$3500, for washing, fuel, light, etc., \$1,000, for repairs, insurances, taxes, etc. \$4,000, for furniture, bedding, ships-stores, etc., \$2,000, for printing etc., \$350, for travelling and police charges, \$9,600, for medical expenses, funerals, etc., \$500, for rewards, gratuities, etc., \$500, for outfits, \$1,000, for shipping boys, \$350, for assistance to discharged boys, \$20.

The Boys Home, Regent's Park, London, was established in 1858, to provide a home for such boys as from their character, circumstances and associations are in danger of becoming criminals; vagrants, destitute and disorderly boys, not convicted of crime, but those who, when grown men, almost to a certainty fall into the criminal class, unless rescued by such an institution. The family system is observed, the boys have good elementary schooling and

careful domestic education, they are taught to make and mend and wash their own clothes, cook their meals, and generally to be handy and useful,—carpentering, tailoring and shoemaking are carried on in the house. When fit, the boys are put to skilled trades, some emigrate, some go into domestic service, some become soldiers or sailors, some enter into military or naval bands. With all constant intercourse is kept up after they leave the house, and for this purpose an annual newspaper called *The Boys Home Budget*, is sent to each of them. The dietary table supplies meat four times a week for dinner,—the other meals are made up of drippings, vegetables, bread, cocoa, tea, treacle etc. The average cost of the boys at this Home is \$90 a year or under, but of this \$15 goes for rent, taxes and poor rate, the last item at the rate of \$2.50 per boy annually. A similar institution in Sweden costs \$110 per day,—while the average cost of such schools in England is over \$100.—Out of it have grown a Boys' Farm Home, a Girls' Home, and a Home for Young Workmen, while a Seaside Home for sickly or convalescent boys is proposed. A system of weighing and measuring the boys showed that the proper annual increase among boys should be two inches in height and eight pounds in weight, and a change in the diet table was marked by a decided improvement.

A band of music, gymnastic and athletic sports, cricket, football and other out-door sports, have been found useful in themselves and as affording a means of competitive trials with other similar institutions. A list of good conduct boys is kept, and these are distinguished by wearing a badge in silver and gold, according to the rank thus obtained. Besides giving liberal permission to spend a day at home, a fair share of the money earned by the work of the boys goes into their own pockets, and some of them leave the House with useful sums of money, to which additions are made when their steadiness and diligence have been certified by their employers. There is an annual seaside treat, when Master, Matron, Teachers, Workpeople and the one hundred and twenty boys encamp long enough to gain health and strength.

The Philanthropic Society's Farm School for the Reformation of Criminal Boys, Redhull, Surrey, provides for the care of children of convicted felons or those who have themselves been guilty of criminal practices,—between 12 and 15, of sound bodily and mental health. The sentences are usually five years, as the reformatory

training can hardly produce a permanent effect in less than three years. A considerable portion of the cost of care, maintenance, etc., is paid by the Government, but the expenses of industrial training are met from other sources. During 1878 there were 86 boys admitted, 50 for five years, 12 for four years, 22 for three years 1 for two years.

One boy was the cause of great mischief, inducing five others to desert, but cell punishment and flogging were both used to restore discipline. While in 1876 there were 92 per cent reported as reclaimed, in 1878 there was a decrease of over 5 per cent, and the percentage of those who relapsed into crime was almost doubled. In 1878 there were, out of 308 boys, 116 confined to their cells and 24 flogged. These boys are distributed in five houses, and of 23 cases of desertion in 1878, as against 7 in 1877, and 5 in 1876, there were 22 from two houses. The boys were paid £180 for labor in the year, and were fined for the desertions and for minor offences, amounting to £22.—223 boys are employed in the field lots, 10 in the cow house, 14 in the garden, 13 as tailors, 11 as shoemakers, 13 in the house, 3 in the stable, 3 in the laundry, 2 in the kitchen, 2 as bakers, and so throughout the list. Of 85 boys discharged in 1878, 23 emigrated, 28 got employment, 25 went home to their friends, and the statistics of earlier years show that emigration gives 91½ per cent not reconvicted, 6.84 per cent reconvicted, while home discharges show 83.89 per cent not reconvicted, 14.76 per cent reconvicted. On the basis adopted at Mettray, the result as applied to the total of 1500 boys discharged from this school would give only 1½ per cent as the failure for 1877.

The profit from the farm was £446,—a little more than half that of the previous year,—from the trades department, £30,—a reduction of cost per head of £1 10 11. The net cost per head for 1878 was £22 7 5,—nearly £1 more than in 1877. The gross cost was £23 9 1. The cost of food per boy per week was 3s 1¾d. That of clothing, 11½d. The parents of the boys paid £578 19. The time table and dietary are given in full. Under the head of Boys' Rations per week, there are given, meat 24oz, suet 2oz, bread 9lbs, flour 1½lbs, butter 6oz, milk 10½pts, potatoes 7lbs, sugar 3¾oz, cocoa (when milk is less than 10½pts) 5¼oz. Of the total receipts of £12,243 18 4, the expenses for the maintenance of the boys was £6,902 9 10, and the balance went to

paying the expenses of the industrial departments, emigration and home expenses of the boys discharged, etc., etc. Of the income the government paid £4 643, counties and boroughs, £1,612, subscriptions and donations £225. The farm showed a loss of £400. The Society itself was established in 1788, and incorporated in 1806. Donors of 50 pounds are founders, of 20 guineas life members. The annual subscription is one guinea.

In 1858 the total number of children committed to prison in England and Wales was 10,329,—twenty years later it was reduced to 7,584,—a result largely due to the successful adoption of the Industrial School and Reform System.

Few things are more striking than the rapid and successful introduction in England of a thorough system of Reform Schools. In the last report of the London School Board, the chairman, Sir Charles Reed, who is well remembered as a visitor to our public schools, reports the results of the nine years of active work of the London School Board, in which he has taken a leading part. Parliament has given the Board the power of compelling children to go to school, and that Board enforces its power by bringing the parents before a magistrate who can fine or imprison. The Board has taken out of the streets over five thousand vagabond children and sent them to industrial schools or to the training ship which it has established, or to its own Infant School. Of the children thus saved from crime, the Inspector reports that 85 per cent of the boys and 79 per cent of the girls were doing well in the places found for them as apprentices and in homes. These facts and figures are taken from a summary of Sir Charles Reed's Report, recently printed in the *Philadelphia Ledger*,—a journal that has always shown an active and intelligent interest in thus contributing to form public opinion in favor of such reforms as will bring our system of education and reformation of poor and criminal children up to the standard already obtained both abroad and at home by wise legislation.

AMERICAN REFORM SCHOOLS.

The Report on the Prisons and Reformatories of the United States and Canada, made to the Legislature of New York, January 1867, by E. C. Wines and T. W. Dwight, Commissioners of the Prison Association of New York,—Albany, Van Benthuysen &

Sons, 1867, 8vo pp. 303,—gives, at p. 42 etc., a series of seventy-seven interrogatories relating to Juvenile Reformatories. At p. 65 the Commissioners give their judgment based on the answers, which are summarized at pp. 399-457. Their emphatic approval is given to the introduction of the family principle, either exclusively or in combination with the congregate, and to subdivisions, for boys, into three classes,—those who have just entered on a course of pilfering, those who have more confirmed habits of stealing and lying, and those who, having reached the ages of 16, 17, or 18, have become habitual thieves and have discarded all other means of obtaining a livelihood. These separate classes of juvenile offenders require each a different discipline and training, and should never, if it can be avoided, be brought into contact with each other. Of female juvenile criminals there are but two classes, requiring different treatment, viz., those who have formed only habits of pilfering and idleness, and those addicted to unchaste practices. The classifications named in both sexes require, in order to obtain the best results, separate houses and yards, not to contain, if possible, over one hundred inmates, with subdivisions of (say) twenty to twenty-five, constituting so many distinct families, each with its own eating, sitting, reading and sleeping rooms. They recommend separate prisons for young offenders, not Houses of Refuge or Reform Schools, but prisons in the strict sense, withdrawing from such youthful transgressors the frequent spectacle of men and women who have been convicted of crimes and who are undergoing punishment,—a sight in itself demoralizing and which is often followed by contamination through promiscuous intercourse. At pp. 353 to 363 there is a summary of the answers given, and the opinion of the Commissioners on Juvenile Reformatories, based on them, is that our Juvenile Reformatories are the best managed and most effective institutions we have for the prevention of crime, but they are far, very far too few in number, and need to be increased many fold. They bear no proportion to the same class of institutions in the various countries of Europe. In the eighteen states visited, the whole number will scarcely exceed twenty-five to thirty on the most liberal allowance, whereas in the countries of Europe there are from 800 to 1000, not counting the Industrial and Ragged Schools, of which the number, in some European countries, is very considerable. There were at that time

(1867) in Great Britain about 120 Reformatories proper; in Prussia 255; in Bavaria 122; in Wurttemberg 23; in Saxony 23; in Hanover 11; in Baden 21; in Switzerland 51; in Sweden and Norway 15; and in France [see *Statistique des Prisons et Etablissements Penitentiaires pour l'année 1874*] 35 for 6,950 boys, and 24 for 1,635 girls. Of those for boys 10 are public and 25 private,—while of those for girls 3 are public and 21 private institutions. By far the larger number of European Reformatories are established on the family principle, while the great majority of ours are on the congregate system, although the judgment of experts and the results of experience alike give the advantage to the former. Connecticut has a Reform School with 160 acres, Illinois one with 27 acres, Maine one with 160 acres, Maryland one with 50 acres, Massachusetts one for boys with 275 acres, one for girls with 150 acres, Michigan one with 134 acres, Missouri one with 20 acres, Ohio one with 10 acres, Pennsylvania one with 500 acres, New Jersey one with 100 acres, the District of Columbia one with 567 acres, Rhode Island has one with 2½ acres, and Wisconsin one with 70 acres. The Philadelphia House of Refuge covers a lot 685x400 feet, and the Colored Department covers an area of nearly two acres.

The average cost in 1867 was, in Illinois, \$104, Maine \$118, Maryland \$92.92, Massachusetts, boys, \$112.63, girls, \$119.08, Missouri \$130, Ohio \$157.90, Pennsylvania, white, ('64) \$92.76, colored, ('65) \$110.60,—note the contrast with figures of 1879,—see p. 32, does the change hold good of other places too?—and the steady increase from '56 when it was \$66.70,—Wisconsin \$190.

The average stay was, in Connecticut 2½ years, Missouri 1½, Illinois 2, Ohio 2½, Maine 2¼, Pennsylvania, white, 1, colored, 1½, Maryland 1 2-3, Massachusetts 2½, Wisconsin 2, Michigan 2½.

In a letter from Mr. John Bailey, the late President of *The Reform School of the District of Columbia*, enclosing the Reports of that institution and the laws governing it, he says, By all means remove the House of Refuge to the country,—have as much land as you can work,—work the boys on the lawn in summer, and send them to school in the winter,—make as many farmers as you can,—don't lock them up,—if they will run away so far that you cannot recover them, they are active boys and "fit to travel." The Reform School of the District of Columbia was organized in 1862 by the Guardian

Society, and opened in 1865, and subsequently chartered by Congress in 1866, and since then it has received aid from that body to carry on its useful labors. It was not until 1870 that it began to receive boys, and it now owns a farm of one hundred and fifty acres, and leases another adjoining of 117 acres. Buildings old and new are made to serve the purpose, "bars, bolts and walls are unknown, and fences are used only to keep the outer world from intruding, and not to restrain the boys or prevent escape, for kind treatment is appreciated and the sympathizing efforts and judicious management are incentives that so gain the higher nature of the boys, that the majority of them can at all times be trusted to go anywhere on the farm and even to the city, without being attended by anyone, and without any danger of their escaping." In 1877-78 this House provided for 225 boys, and at the close of the year 1873 were still there at a total cost of \$34,000, of which Congress gave \$15,000, the District of Columbia \$17,135, being at the rate of \$2 per week for each boy, and \$1,914.80 was the product of the labor of the boys and the sales from the farm, etc.

The Institution is upon the family plan where the boys are made to feel at home. All semblance of a prison or prison rules is done away with. "No worse use of a boy can be made," says the Report of 1878,—"than to surround him with high walls over which he cannot see, shutting him out from God's sunlight, locking him in a lonely cell at night, and reminding him day by day that he is a convict. We have nothing of this sort, and our whole aim, from the time a boy comes to our institution until he leaves, is to teach him and give him to understand that he is not sent to us for punishment, but to be educated and taught some useful occupation, and when he is fitted to go out into the world, he goes not as a convict, but as a young man fresh from school, ready to begin the battle of life, without any stain or stigma upon his name. That of Washington is organized after the well known Ohio Reform School, which takes the lead and is the parent institution of the schools on the open and family plan in this country." Fully 90 per cent of the boys are reported as doing well, and the authorities endeavor to trace and watch the career of each of their boys and to encourage them to keep up their intercourse with the institution. In his Report for 1876, Mr. Bailey said that there were, according to the census of 1870, thirty reform schools in the United States, and not

less than 7,000 youths who had taken the first step in crime, and were placed there to remove them from temptation and evil influence,—their support cost about one million of dollars, while the annual expenditures for the support of criminals and paupers are put at 35,000,000,—that but 4 per cent of the criminal classes are met on their way to prison and placed in reformatories, and that their cost is only 6 per cent of that paid for support of paupers and criminals.

In the transactions of the Fourth National Prison Congress, held in New York in 1876, Mr. E. C. Wines gives an account of his visit in 1875, to the parent institution of the Raue Haus near Hamburg, founded by Wichern, to try to reform criminal children by means of home life in the country. It was founded in 1833,—on a farm of over 15 acres, with the use of an adjoining property. The establishment forms a considerable village, containing more than twenty different structures, irregularly placed,—eleven houses for the accommodation of as many families of children, eight for boys and three for girls,—and there were 97 boys and 45 girls, in all 142 children there. In the forty-three years of its existence, there have been received 875 boys and 262 girls, in all 1137. The records for 34 years show the result of the test with 783 children of both sexes,—of these 12 had died and 11 escaped,—604 had been regularly discharged,—of this number about 4 per cent have been reconvicted, about 5 per cent tried and acquitted,—10 per cent have done fairly well,—8 per cent have emigrated or otherwise disappeared, and the remaining 73 per cent have turned out thoroughly well in all respects,—so that it may be roughly stated that nearly 90 per cent have been saved from a life of vice and crime.

Of the teachers or brethren trained in and for this work, there have been 750 from the outset; 59 have come to this country as teachers and preachers, 53 are employed as superintendents of Reform Schools, 71 as officers, 28 in lodging houses for the poor, 19 in poor houses and hospitals, 6 as watchers of the sick, 22 in mission work in cities, and the remainder in working for the poor in various capacities. The Raue Haus is distinguished by its three leading characteristics,—Family Life, School, and Labor. The boys live in houses each consisting of a large family parlor, a dormitory for twelve children and the brother who presides, a playground and garden,—boys of different ages live together, and the school has

its own division according to capacity and progress, while the boys all are employed in the garden and the field, in shoemaking, tailoring, joinery, smithery, baking and other pursuits, in all of which the 'Brothers' are teachers and fellow workmen. The printing establishment has grown to very great importance, both as a source of profit and as a vehicle for making known the results of the work carried on in kindred homes.

It has been copied closely at Berlin in an establishment with twice as much land, about two-thirds the number of buildings, and about the same result as to the employment of its inmates. These are nearly all friendless and helpless, and not, as at Mettray, criminal children. There, just as at the English Reform Schools, the children come under the sentence of a Court, and in England, the government pays from a dollar to a dollar and a half a week for children sent to any institution duly certified by its inspecting officer,—and each locality and every religious denomination can and does establish its own reform school, securing as much private help as it needs.

In England the care of the poor and the education of pauper children have been for years the subject of legislation,—but private charity has pointed out the way which has now been taken by the government, national and local, in its provision for its most helpless wards.

In France nearly all the charitable institutions have been established by private persons, and only when their success became an admitted fact did the government come to their aid with money grants and official inspection and administrative sanction. Such was the origin of the Paternal Society, which, starting out with very modest plans, finally adopted a scheme for a system of reform schools throughout France, with a mother colony in Brittany, a central colony for each department, and branch colonies wherever they were needed. They were to have a normal school for the teachers and other officers, a school for employees, a school of foremen, a school of farmers, workshops for apprentices, and a normal school for priests to serve as directors. While the work has fallen short of this great scheme, much has been done in the direction thus pointed out, and the results have been very striking. Mettray is still the best model of reform schools, but it has been closely followed at Citeaux, with its seven hundred acres, costing \$200,000, its population of between six and seven hundred children, and its growing success.

While Ohio has a large and most successful Farm School at Lancaster,—it also has a House of Refuge in Cincinnati with 250 children, about one-fifth girls,—in a walled space of about seven acres. The superintendent claims for the congregate system in a large city these advantages: that less space is required than for family schools, outside help can be got for Sunday school work, ministerial aid is readily obtained for Sunday services,—the attendance of friends and strangers relieves the monotony of institutional life and gives increased interest and attention,—frequent visits and other entertainments for the children afford them a wholesome relaxation, the superintendent has a closer knowledge and care of his wards, the managers give more time and attention, visit frequently, observe the children as well as the officers, teachers and other employees, see and converse with the children frequently, take note of individual cases,—the monthly meeting of the Board is only a tithe of the work done by its members as committees and individually,—the workshop is better suited for city children than the farm, the restraining power of the congregate system with its walls, locks, gates and bars, enforces obedience and encourages reform, is necessary with the class of children who know nothing of kindness or home life or industry, prevents the boy who has already been perverted from influencing the others who may yet be saved by seclusion,—the success of farm schools abroad is largely due to the fact that superintendents, officers and teachers work from motives of religious or philanthropic devotion, not for mere money wages.

The Reform School at Lancaster, Ohio, has a farm of 1,100 acres, bought twenty years ago for \$15,000, when land was cheap,—it has one large building, nine family buildings, two farm houses, accommodating about 550 boys and 50 officers and employees at a cost of \$196,000. There is a great deal of care taken to classify the inmates, so as to keep the criminal from the merely unfortunate,—and out of the 3,500 boys who have gone through the institution, the history of 3,000 shows that they are making good men. One of the managers of the Lancaster School, who visits the school at the monthly meeting of the Board, said that he thought the children in the Family Homes had an air of depression, which he attributed to their isolation and not being brought in contact with the public as are the boys in a city institution.

Then again, the City School can and does look after its boys when they go out into the world, finds work for them at the trade it has taught them,—unless our Farm Schools can do as de Metz did at Mettray, get local inspectors to volunteer to look after his boys and keep them out of mischief,—it is to this that is to be attributed the fact that Mettray claims to have saved 95 per cent. of its inmates. The first men in every part of France help in this work, keep a careful watch on their wards from Mettray, report to the authorities there every few months, and maintain a kindly and effective superintendence and intercourse that often ripens into a fast friendship which lasts for years. This influence is a saving one, while the same boy returned to his own family and early surroundings is almost necessarily lost, for the antecedents of vice and crime that first brought him to grief, are only too likely to be renewed with added strength.

Thus an examination of the results reported from far and wide, as to the working of Reform Schools, seems to bring us back to the starting point,—that to do the work thoroughly and well, it is necessary to go out in the country, to establish a Farm with its Homes where the boys can be treated as members of a family, and then to teach them a trade or pursuit by which they can earn their livelihood when they are discharged,—then, too, to keep up a close supervision of them during their later life, helping and encouraging them until they are able to stand alone, and especially warding off from them the influence of vicious family associations, often criminals and paupers, from whose mischievous examples they have been rescued. The results that are thus reported in the accounts given by the officers of these Reform Schools, have been noted by actual visits to them,—visitors who have gone thoroughly over the Farm Schools of other states and other countries, Westboro and Lancaster, Feltham and Red Hill, come back more than ever urgently impelled to do what lies in their power to secure a change that will put our own House of Refuge on a suitable farm in the country. Even if the congregate system be a necessity for criminal boys of a hopelessly perverted character, let the boys and girls who can be saved be kept by themselves, out of the reach of corruption, which spreads so fast, be placed in homes where they can enjoy that family life which has been too often denied them in their early youth.

The Reform School in Western Pennsylvania was for twenty-two years, from 1854 to 1876, conducted under the congregate system, behind high walls and with bolts and bars, in Pittsburgh. In 1877 it was removed bodily to the country, where its family of 300 children are housed in a main building and five family buildings and all are profitably employed,—the girls in household work, the boys in farming and gardening. The city property was transferred to the state for penitentiary purposes, and the state in turn will no doubt make abundant provision for the new establishment now on its trial. The farm is the great workshop, but shoe and tailoring shops are also in active operation, making all the shoes and nearly all the clothing for the institution, giving the boys employed in them a practical knowledge of these trades, sufficient to enable them to earn a living after their discharge. All the domestic labor required daily throughout the establishment is performed entirely by the boys. The change effected by the transfer has been found productive of great good.

Mettray has a farm of 600 acres and an average of 800 boys, it has forty workshops and sixteen families, and it has sent out 4,000 boys in the thirty-five years that it has been in operation. The French Reform School has had the advantage of giving its inmates a training,—indeed M. de Lhuys, the President, says the average stay of its inmates is four years, and in France, as in England, the rule is to send children to these reform and industrial schools for a fixed term, generally five years, and the discharge at an earlier period is the reward of uniform good conduct, the best test of their success in dealing with their inmates.

The question of money is only one of the factors in the problem of the success of making useful men and women of those who are sent to this and similar institutions. Their work is to save men and women from vice and crime and pauperism, and to save the state the burthen of these in later years.

In the last Report of the House of Refuge Mr. J. Hood Lavery, who has for nearly twenty years been at the head of the Colored Department, summed up the reasons for and against walls and no walls. He shows that in an institution located in the city, walls seem to be a necessity, as well to protect the community from the depredations of mischievous or vicious boys from within, as to prevent communication with former corrupt associates from without. The community without as well as the community within

seem therefore to render walls necessary. The large numbers of the inmates who have visited the Park, the Zoological Garden, the Permanent Exhibition, their own homes, have shown by their good conduct their appreciation of the privileges thus extended them. Mr. Laverty, speaking with the knowledge and experience acquired in a lifetime spent in the House of Refuge, urges an increase in the number of reform schools for juvenile delinquents, and emphasizes the fact that an aggregation of a very large number in one institution prevents the proper reformation of individual cases. He urges, too, the establishment of an institution intermediate between the House of Refuge and the Prison, for that large and growing class of boys, vagrant as well as criminal, who need a sharper discipline than that of the House of Refuge, while they stand in need of a sheltering and protecting care that cannot be exercised in the crowded condition of the County Prison or in the short term meted out in the House of Correction. At a recent meeting of the members of the Legislature at the House of Refuge, Mr. Barclay pointed out the work done since its establishment in 1826 by a small number of public spirited citizens; he was one of their number,—and he is still zealous and active in forwarding the interests of those who are entrusted to its care. He thus summed up its story: "It was organized and it has steadily labored to reform neglected children and to secure for them after their reformation, some useful trade or employment. The inmates of the House spend three hours a day in school, six in the workshop, and the rest in play and recreation, in the dining room and asleep. Nearly two hundred thousand dollars have been contributed by private benefactors towards the establishment of the House of Refuge, and it is still in the receipt of gifts and donations for its work. Over fourteen thousand children have been trained in the House of Refuge, and a very large proportion of them are to-day useful men and women, owing to their life spent within its sheltering walls. What it has done in the past, is the best guarantee that it will go on in the future in the same direction, and to do so more effectually, it needs the means to introduce and secure the reforms that have been tried elsewhere."

The average cost of supporting the inmates of the House of Refuge necessarily increases with the diminution of the number there,—thus 500 white children in 1868 cost an average of \$1.52 a week, while 396 children in 1878 cost on an average \$2.85,—but of

course there have been marked improvements in the interval, an increase in the accommodations, in the number of teachers, in outlay for food and clothing, and in all the other essentials tending to the welfare and comfort of the inmates. Again, in the Colored Department, an increase from 125 inmates in 1868 to 152 in 1878, has been accompanied by a decrease in the average cost per week from \$2.65 to \$2.52, while the returns from the labor of the inmates have increased in the one case, and diminished in the other, because with the large population of the colored department, new and lucrative employment has been found for them, but with the diminished forces of the white department, not in itself to be regretted, the shops have of course been less profitable. The earnings of the boys in the white department in 1868 were nearly \$30,000,—in 1878 less than \$12,000, but with the improvement of the current year, 50 per cent. of the girls and every available boy have found work, and the earnings from this source will of course increase, while the introduction of a system of proportionate rewards may perhaps secure steadier and more profitable work from the inmates. The earnings in the colored department were \$4,000 in 1868; in 1878, for want of employment, this was reduced to a nominal sum, \$332,—but now that a new industry has been introduced, which gives employment to every boy in the department, the returns for the current year will no doubt show marked improvement.

In 1868 labor of the boys was paid for at from 25 to 30 cents per day, in 1878 at from 15 to 20 cents per day,—but the lesser sum is due partly to the fact that the trades now taught in the shops, although less profitable, are more important and more useful for the children. Thus boys have been so trained that they could go out of the House and at once find employment at from three to five dollars a week, and in many cases with the same employers for whom they had worked in the house,—the time spent in learning their trade was therefore well spent and secured a full return. With its present accommodations and a staff of seventy-six officers, teachers, etc., a large additional number of inmates could be cared for at a very small increase of expense. The improvements of recent years have entailed additional outlay, but have secured results that are their best justification. Who would go back to the time not very far distant, when the prefects were also teachers? and who would compare the schools of that day with

the schools now fully supplied with a corps of trained women teachers? Who would relegate the boys from their open dormitories and their rooms open all night, with every modern convenience of water closets and ventilation, back to the time when every boy was locked in for the night in a cell made noisome by a bedpan,—only to save wages of extra watchmen?

The total cost of the 350 white boys in 1878 was \$145 per head, and that of the 200 colored boys was \$111, but these figures included all the improvements and outlays on the buildings, and all the current expenses that belong to the special needs of such changes as are made in the interior management of the House, extra watchmen for open dormitories, and other such outlays. The daily per capita, from 43 cents a day down to 35 cents a day, is apparently large; when, however, it is borne in mind that the House has been enlarged and increased and improved, that the diet table has been varied while food supplies have all advanced in price, that other institutions have large grounds where the inmates are employed in farming and gardening for the benefit of the House, while the House of Refuge is merely a city building with no grounds suitable for such wholesome economy, it is clear that the plea for a change of site is intended to secure better economical results, as well as to improve the physical and moral condition of the inmates, and to give them an opportunity of finding in farm life and in family groups, some of the wonderful results that are reported from similar institutions under the more favorable circumstances of colonies such as Mettray, farm schools such as Westboro. In going over the reports of these and kindred Reform Schools, it is impossible not to hesitate and pause before accepting absolutely the favorable results reported from them, to wonder how it is that Mettray can report an absolute exemption from escapes, and other such evidences of the highest success, when our own daily experience shows that boys will be boys here at least, and that, like their elders, they are not exempt from human failings, such as a love of liberty and a dislike of work. To overcome the one and gratify the other, should be the wish of all who have at heart the interests of the House of Refuge and its inmates. The comparison of the work it does with that of other and kindred Reform Schools, cannot be without advantage and instruction to all who are engaged in the task of Reform, and these notes are submitted in the hope that the lessons they teach may be useful.